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Guidelines for writing a paper in linguistics

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This document is meant as a **reference guide** for writing papers in linguistics at our department. The following instructions are applicable to all levels of our programme (i.e. both B.A./Lehramt and M.A., including final papers such as state examination or M.A. theses), but certain details (e.g. the structure of an empirical paper) may depend on the specific topic area at hand and thus vary across courses. Therefore, please talk to your respective instructors about their particular expectations with regard to content, style and form.

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1. How to write a paper in linguistics

1.1 What are you supposed to do in a term paper?

A term paper is basically the application of your knowledge and skills from *Academic Writing* to a topic in linguistics. Therefore, all the major lessons from *Academic Writing* directly carry over and should inform your writing process at every stage. On a more specific level, the successful composition of a term paper in linguistics demonstrates…

- that you have acquired a certain amount of expertise in a particular **subfield** of linguistics (e.g. sociolinguistics, morphology, language acquisition, etc.), so that you know your way around basic **concepts**, **research interests** and **debates** in that field;
- that you can identify (for your particular topic area) a specific **issue** or **question** worth researching;
- that you can **collect relevant academic literature** on that issue (= use databases rather than just browsing the shelves of the library);
- that you can **read** and understand previous research on this question;

- that you can **write** a *coherent* piece of text in which you discuss a manageable selection of this research from a particular *perspective* (i.e. with a certain goal in mind that you pursue systematically and consistently throughout the paper) or – depending on the specific course – that you can provide a small empirical study yourself;
- that your writing adheres to certain **formal standards** of academic discourse.

1.2 From a research question to the structure of the paper

It follows from the second point above that you can never cover an entire topic area in your paper; you always need to narrow a topic area of interest down to a very specific research question, i.e. a particular problem within the topic area that you deal with. Therefore, probably *the* most important conceptual step in the planning of your paper is to distinguish between a **topic area** that you wish to write about (e.g. "Language and gender") and a more specific **topic** to which the topic area is narrowed down (e.g. "The gender-preferential use of tag questions"). It is this specific topic, not the topic area, that appears on the cover sheet of your term paper, and in the introduction to your paper, the topic to be investigated is normally formulated as a specific **goal, question** or **thesis statement** that you pursue in your paper (e.g. "In this paper, I argue that …"). Translating your topic into such a highly specific goal or question is absolutely essential: recall from *Academic Writing* that the specific question you are dealing with is the **controlling idea** of your paper. Therefore, all subsequent parts of the paper are supposed to be immediately **relevant** to your overarching question. That is, at any stage of your analysis, it must be clear to the reader why a particular paragraph is important for achieving your goal. Students sometimes get lost in the literature on the topic or in specific aspects of the topic that are not directly relevant to their own investigation. So, if you cannot justify that a given paragraph is *necessary* for your line of argumentation, it might be best to dispense with it ("when in doubt, cut it out").

1.3 The typical structure of a paper

The structure of the paper reflects your particular way of dealing with the topic, specifically your line of argumentation and how you **weight** the different aspects of your topic. Again, every section of the paper needs to be directly **relevant** to your research question, even the theoretical background by which you begin your exposition: do not summarize and discuss unnecessary aspects of the literature in order to "fill pages". Instead, the connection of the literature to your question (or to the remaining sections of the paper) must be clear at every point.

Every scientific paper is framed by an **introduction** and a **conclusion** section. The "main body" in between is then structured according to your own preferences. It is generally *not* advisable to have only one big section between the introduction and the conclusion, but to break it up into several sections. Here is an example:

Imagine a term paper (written in a B.A. seminar on second language acquisition) deals with the factors that affect the degree of foreign accent in L2 learners. The following table of contents is adapted from an actual student paper dealing with this topic:

Table of contents

This outline shows you that the topic is first **contextualized** (§2), i.e. embedded in its theoretical context. It is here that the topic is properly introduced and defined and that relevant background literature is surveyed. The author then **narrows down** the scope of her paper (§3) to the three factors that she sets out to investigate in particular, i.e. her specific goal in this paper is to argue for the importance of precisely those three factors. After providing some important information on these factors (§3.1–3.3), the author then analyses, discusses and compares selected **empirical evidence** on which her hypothesis is based, namely two case studies dealing with the specific factors she is interested in (§4). Finally, a conclusion section rounds off the paper, followed by a list of the references from the paper.

1.4 What makes a good *introduction* and *conclusion*?

In general, those two framing elements of your paper are just as important as the actual discussion, so spend enough time on them in the writing process.

The **introduction** first reveals the topic area in which your paper is situated and identifies a specific problem or research question within this area. In other words, this initial part of the introduction leads from the topic area to your specific goal. In this, it answers the question of why you are conducting this study, what makes it interesting, etc. Once you have narrowed down your scope like this, you essentially foreshadow how you are going to approach your research question. Specifically, you inform the reader about how the paper is going to be structured and what you are going to do in the individual sections, i.e. what kinds of steps you are going to take in order to reach your goal, what kinds of data sources you are going to use and so forth. Again, we will give you an authentic example of a student paper here:

> **1. Introduction**
>
> The issue of how age influences the acquisition of a non-native language is one of the most controversial and frequently investigated topics in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (see Muñoz 2008, Singleton 1995, among many others). It is commonly assumed that children are better language learners than adults, in the sense that they learn a second language more effectively and can achieve better ultimate results in that language (Abello-Contesse et al. 2006: 7). Based on these assumptions, many countries have promoted early language instruction in primary schools or even in kindergarten. For example, the European Commission, in its publication *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004-2006* (2003) expresses its intention to encourage the early learning of foreign languages in each of its member states. However, the conception that *the younger the better* is frequently based on research conducted in immersion settings (Muñoz 2006: vii). In those studies, older and younger learners that have immigrated to the country of the target language (TL) are compared with respect to their second language (L2) proficiency. Such naturalistic contexts, in which learners are exposed to their L2 on a daily basis, are obviously very different from classroom contexts which offer only limited exposure to the TL.
>
> This paper focuses on the effects of learners' initial age on foreign language learning in a minimal input situation in order to examine whether a younger starting age is also beneficial under these conditions. In a first step, it is necessary to briefly review some general assumptions about the issue of age in the field of SLA. Secondly, in Section 3, basic differences between naturalistic and formal settings will be pointed out in order to demonstrate why starting age does not necessarily have the same effects in both contexts. Based on this examination, I will make predictions about the influence of learners' initial age in formal language settings. Section 4 provides a close analysis of two previous studies which both examine possible advantages of a younger starting age in a minimal input situation, but draw different conclusions concerning this research question. In the subsequent Section 5, I am going to seek possible explanations for the different results in order to give an outlook on whether an early start is advantageous or not.

The **conclusion** section typically refers back to the introduction: it takes up your goal again and states to what extent you have achieved it, normally by summarizing your findings and indicating what you have not been able to discuss and other ways in which your paper may have been limited. Finally, the conclusion typically points to potential for future research, i.e. questions that follow from your findings.

At advanced stages of your studies, you are often required to go beyond discussions of previous research, conducting a small **empirical** study of your own instead. Because of the different scope and approach of such studies, they have a number of distinct structural elements. If this applies to your paper, please consult the *Appendix* ("The elements of an empirical study").

For further questions, please consult the individual instructor supervising your paper. In general, it may be very helpful to also ask them about the specific **criteria for the evaluation and marking of the paper**, so that you know what to keep an eye on during the writing process.

2. Stylistic, formatting and citation conventions in linguistics

2.1 Stylistic questions

- You are expected to use language that is appropriate to **academic** discourse: Refrain from colloquialisms (= spoken forms, e.g. *a lot > many*) and informal language more generally (e.g. *the way people speak > the way in which people speak*). Do **not** use **contractions** (write *do not* instead of *don't*). Check that the words you choose also come with the right neighbouring words, i.e. the correct **collocations**.
- Do not beat around the bush: Be as precise and clear as possible and use appropriate linguistic **terminology** instead of paraphrasing important concepts. When you need to **define** linguistic terms, do not use dictionaries or dubious online sources for this purpose, but turn to reliable published work in linguistics.

2.2 Formatting conventions: Layout and typography

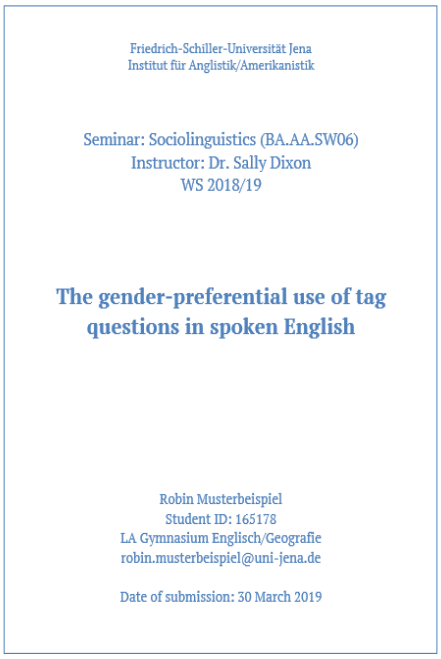
Every academic discipline, be it physics, geography, linguistics or literary studies, has developed its own stylistic conventions for written work. By adhering to a common format, authors in these fields can ensure that their readers get to see an agreed-upon and hence expected layout in which the content is presented. In this way, readers can focus their attention entirely on the content and do not get distracted by erratic formatting issues. While even within an academic discipline, different publishing companies often have their own "house rules" of typography, there has been a recent movement in linguistics to develop some unified guidelines across different publishing companies. These recommendations, which have now been adopted to a large extent by many linguistics publishers, can be found here:

- Unified Style Sheet for Linguistics (2007): https://linguistlist.org/pubs/tocs/JournalUnifiedStyleSheet2007.pdf (accessed 1 March 2020)
- Generic Style Rules for Linguistics (2014): https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/pdf/GenericStyleRules.pdf (accessed 1 March 2020)

Note that the above guidelines are meant for professional publications and that they are not yet completely uniform in all respects. In what follows, we have **adapted** these guidelines to students' needs for typical papers at university; some recommendations are taken literally from the Generic Style Rules.

2.2.1 General issues of layout

- In general, what is expected is that you provide a **professionally formatted** document: it should convey **care** rather than sloppiness on your part.
- For your running text, a common standard is a document with an 11-12 pt. font size, 2.5 cm margins and 1.5 spacing between lines. Enhance readability by **justifying** the flow of the text (**Blocksatz**; this holds for the main text, all footnotes as well as for the list of references at the end). You can select *automatic hyphenation* (*automatische Silbentrennung*) for your entire document so that the words in each paragraph are spread out more evenly.
- The paper begins with a **cover sheet** and the **table of contents**. An example of the latter was given above, and an example of a cover sheet is provided on the right.
- **Page numbering** starts with the first page of actual text, i.e. in your introduction. The table of contents does not count!



Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena
Institut für Anglistik/Amerikanistik

Seminar: Sociolinguistics (BA.AA.SW06)
Instructor: Dr. Sally Dixon
WS 2018/19

The gender-preferential use of tag questions in spoken English

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- As can be seen in the example above, the paper is divided into **sections**, beginning with 1. (never 0.) and commonly **subsections** (1.1, 1.2, etc., possibly even 1.1.1 if need be). Importantly, …
  - you can never have just one subsection: If there is 1.1, there also needs to be at least 1.2 (and the same goes for sub-subsections).
  - papers, articles and hence also term papers only have **sections**, never chapters. The term ***chapter*** is used for books only.
  - when you refer to the different sections of your term paper in the running text, a whole section is labelled, for example, Section 3, while a subsection is abbreviated as §3.2 or §4.3.1. When, in discussing the secondary literature, you are referring to an entire chapter in a book, you do this as in the following example: (Valenzuela 2017: Ch. 3). If you are referring to a section within such a book chapter, you use (Valenzuela 2017: §3.4); alternatively, you can give a page range: (Valenzuela 2017: 73–76).
  - all sections and subsections follow each other directly in your paper. Do **not** begin each new section or subsection on a new page.
- Divide your sections into meaningful **paragraphs**. Each new paragraph (apart from the very first one after a headline) is indented by 0.5 cm, e.g.

  We are now aware of the formal properties of verb-first constructions in German.
  It is also interesting, however, to take a closer look at the meaning of such constructions and how they are employed in actual discourse. …

  Paragraphs should not be too different in **length**. Remember from *Academic Writing* that a paragraph normally deals with a single aspect in your argumentation, so it should not become too long. Conversely, never open up new paragraphs for one or two sentences only!
- **Footnotes** are tools for providing additional information that would disrupt the flow of the main text. This could be, for example, alternative terminology used in the literature or contrary positions that are not immediately relevant to the argument in the main text.

2.2.2 Some general typographic conventions

Capitalization

The use of capitalization is severely restricted. Use capital letters only for the beginning of sentences, for proper names and for the first letter of **titles**, **subtitles**, **section names** and the **labels for figures and tables**:

1.1 Overview of the issue (not: Overview of the Issue)

Table 1. Distribution different fillers by gender (not: Distribution of Different Fillers by Gender)

Figure 3. Overview of the workflow (not: Overview of the Workflow)

In the running text, all sections, tables and figures from your or other papers are also capitalized:

As was discussed in Section 2 above, … (Alternative: As was discussed in §2 above, …)

This is illustrated in Table 4. Figure 3 shows the distribution of …

As Hilpert (2013: 187) shows in his Figure 5.4, …

In the **reference** section at the end of your paper ("bibliography"), capitalize only the first letter of all publication titles and subtitles (along with proper names such as the names of authors, languages, places and publishing companies):

Huddleston, Rodney and Geoffrey K. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

(not: *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*)

Note that the titles of **journals** (and **book series**) are treated as proper names and are hence capitalized:

Kaltenböck, Gunther. 2006. *It*-extraposition in English: A functional view. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 10(2). 119-159.

Finally, some linguistic **theories** or **models** are treated as proper names, such as Universal Grammar, Construction Grammar or Government and Binding Theory. When in doubt, follow the publications in which you encountered these terms.

Italics are used …

- for all examples (words, phrases, sentences) that are used in the running text or in numbered examples: the word *cup*, the use of the idiom *cut corners*
- for book titles, journal titles or film titles (see the two examples above)
- when a technical term is used meta-linguistically: The term *left-dislocation* will be used in this paper.
- for emphasis of a particular word that is not a technical term: This is possible here, but *only* here.
- for emphasis within a quotation, with the indication [emphasis mine] at the end of the quotation

Highlighting

Boldface can be used to draw the reader's attention to particular aspects of a linguistic example, whether given within the text or as a numbered example: *the man **whom** I met at the party*

Do **not** use underlining anywhere in your paper and do **not** use FULL CAPITALS either. SMALL CAPITALS can be used as an alternative to italics to introduce technical terms at the first appearance (e.g. I will use the term MONOGENESIS to refer to the idea that all languages go back to a single ancestor.)

Quotation marks

Be sure to employ **English** (= upper) punctuation marks throughout, not German („...“) or French (« … ») ones.

Double quotation marks are used for distancing, particularly in the following situations:

- when a passage from another work is cited in the text (= direct quotes)

  According to Takahashi (2009: 33), “quotatives were never used in subordinate clauses in Old Japanese”.
- for the titles of articles, short stories or poems (i.e. all non-monographic works) in all parts of the paper (cover sheet, running text, headlines, etc.) except for the reference section[1]
- when a technical term or other expression is mentioned that the author does not want to adopt

  This is sometimes called “pseudo-conservatism”, but I will not use this term here, as it could lead to confusion.

  … stereotypically “female” behaviour

Single quotation marks are used:

- to indicate linguistic meanings

  The Old English verb *steorfan* ‘die’ later developed into *starve*.
- for quotes within quotes (so as distinguish between them properly)

  According to Gass and Mackey (2000: 21), “[c]ognitive psychologists have proposed that we employ various types of ‘cognitive structures’ or ‘mental representations’ to help organize the vast amount of information encountered on a daily basis”.

Other punctuation marks

- Like the rest of your paper, punctuation should follow either British English or American English consistently. Adhere to the punctuation rules developed in *Academic Writing*.
- **Apostrophes**, e.g. for genitives, use the same key on your keyboard as single quotation marks (i.e. the key to the right of <ä> on your keyboard). Do not mix them up with accent marks (the key to the right of the question-mark key).
  - apostrophe: *Smith’s theory*
  - accent mark (rare in English; mostly in French loanwords): *fiancé, vis-à-vis*
- Ellipsis in a quotation is indicated by […]:

  Laitinen suggests that “the use of the pronominal forms […] through time constitutes a change in the typological tendencies in English” (Laitinen 2008: 155).

[1] This may seem inconsistent, but there is a logic behind it: In the reference section, the difference between monographic and non-monographic works is captured by using *italics* for the former and regular (roman) print for the latter, so that quotation marks would be redundant. In the rest of the paper, the title of a work needs to be distinguished somehow from the regular text, and for non-monographic works, this is done by using quotation marks.

- The **n-dash** (–) surrounded by spaces is used for parenthetical remarks – as in this example – rather than the even longer m-dash (—). The n-dash is also used for number ranges, but not surrounded by spaces (e.g. 1995–1997).[2]

Other notational conventions

- **Phonetic** transcription is given in angle brackets, e.g. *till* [tʰɪɬ], **phonemic** transcription in slashes /tɪl/.
- **Morphemes** appear in winged brackets: {-ed}
- As was stated above, linguistic **meanings** appear in single quotation marks: *agog* 'in excited readiness, expectation or desire'; French *chien* 'dog'
- **Ungrammatical** sentences (i.e. those that are generally rejected by native speakers) are marked with an **asterisk**: **She it saw.*
- **Questionable** sentences (i.e. those that some but maybe not all native speakers will reject) are marked with an initial superscript question mark: *?One needs only reflect for a second.*

2.2.3 Formatting of examples

Whenever you need to exemplify a linguistic construction that you are writing about, such examples are set off from the text, **numbered consecutively** (with the number in parentheses), **indented** and put in ***italics***:

Subject-modifying relative clauses typically follow the subject NP directly in English:

(1) *The man that I saw at the shop was talking to his neighbour.*

Examples that constitute full sentences are treated orthographically as such, i.e. they begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop (as in (1)). Examples that do not constitute full sentences are neither capitalized nor end with a full stop:

(2) *the man that I saw at the shop*

A given example number may consist of several different subexamples (which are related to or contrast with one another); in such cases, we use a., b., c., etc. to label them:

(3) a. *The man whom I saw at the shop was talking to his neighbour.*
b. *The man who saw me at the shop was talking to his neighbour.*

Examples must always be referred to, i.e. mentioned, in the running text:

As can be seen in (6) above and (8)–(11) below, the use of a relative pronoun is optional in object-extracting relative clauses.

The distribution of relative pronouns is optional here (see (6) and (8)–(11)).

It is generally recommended to use **authentic** rather than made-up examples. For instance, your example may be taken from a reference grammar (like example (6) below, taken from a grammar of the American language Wappo); alternatively, it may be taken from a newspaper or a large corpus of English, such as the *BNC* or the *ICE-GB*, or the *Oxford English Dictionary*. In such cases, you briefly mention the source right after the example and provide the full reference of the corpus in the bibliography:

(3) *I'm going back to Denmark for two weeks.* (*ICE-GB*: S1A-089 #093:1:B)

(4) *Take hede lest eny man deceave you.* (*OED*: 1526 TINDALE *Mark* xiii)

If your example is taken from an online source (other than a conventional corpus), you have to provide the full URL and the date of access in parentheses (or, alternatively, in a footnote if the URL is very long).

(5) *Our letters crossed.*
(http://www.utexas.edu/cola/centers/lrc/books/type04.html, accessed 10 June 2009)

Example sentences from **languages other than English** receive a morpheme-by-morpheme separation, a literal morpheme-by-morpheme translation (*glossing*), and an idiomatic translation. The example also provides the relevant information on the language and where you took the example from:

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[2] Throughout the paper, make sure you distinguish properly between **hyphens** (-) and **n-dashes** (–). Some text processors tend to automatically transform hyphens into n-dashes, but this is inappropriate in many contexts. Think of the German distinction between *Bindestrich* and *Gedankenstrich* and the difference might become clearer. N-dashes can be inserted into a text document as symbols (e.g. in *Microsoft Word*) or you can create a keyboard shortcut like STRG ALT MINUS for it.

(6) Wappo (Wappo-Yukian: California; Thompson and Li 2006: 142)
He k'ew-i [ew-ø mehlah-ukh] hak'-še?.
DEM man-NOM fish-ACC catch-INF want-DUR
'This man wants to catch fish.'

As you can see, the first line names the language, the family it belongs to, where it is spoken, and the source of the example. The second line then spells out the original example (in italics), but separates all morphemes by hyphens. The third line provides a gloss for each morpheme; the grammatical abbreviations need to be explained at the beginning or end of the paper (in a list of glosses); they are typically spelt in SMALL CAPITALS and the spaces between the words line up with the example line above. Finally, a translation into English is provided. Since this translation renders the meaning of the original sentence, it appears in single quotation marks, like all linguistic meanings (see the use of quotation marks above).[3]

A note on IPA symbols: If your examples contain phonetic symbols, there are several ways of inserting them into your paper: (i) If you use a font like Times New Roman, Arial or Gentium Plus, some text processors provide the relevant characters as symbols, e.g. *MS Word*: "Einfügen" > "Symbol" > "Weitere Symbole" > "Subset: Phonetische Erweiterungen" and "Subset Zusätzliche Phonetische Erweiterungen". (ii) You can install a font like "Doulos SIL" that contains all IPA characters and use that font for your paper. (iii) You can use the online IPA keyboard (http://westonruter.github.io/ipa-chart/keyboard/), click on the symbol you are looking for and paste it into your paper.

2.2.4 Illustrative material

It is very common in linguistics to include **tables** and **figures** in a paper. If these are very large or elaborate, you can put them into an **appendix** at the end of the paper. More often, however, illustrative material can be placed in the sections where you discuss it. In those cases, it is important that all tables and figures get their own consecutive numbering (Figure 5, Table 2), and every figure or table also has a **caption** (i.e. a title), such as

Table 1. Types of adverbs in English (Leech et al. 2005: 58)

As can be seen here, you always need to indicate the source of a figure or a table. This is usually done in parentheses after the caption.

The caption of a table is usually left-aligned ('linksbündig') and precedes the table. If the table does not stretch over the entire page width, it is normally centralized, as in the following example:

Table 2. Frequency of some English nouns (*BNC*)

noun (SG)	Frequency (SG)	Noun (PL)	Frequency (PL)	% of SG
person	24,671	*persons*	4,034	86%
house	4,295	*houses*	9,840	83%
hare	488	*hares*	136	78%
bear	1,182	*bears*	611	65%
feather	487	*feathers*	810	38%

We can see here that tables do not show excessive **lining**: They generally only have a (sometimes bold) horizontal top and bottom line and another horizontal line right after the table header. We can also see that **commas** are used in numbers to separate the thousands (e.g. 24671 → 24,671); **full stops** would be used for decimal places (e.g. 5.73).

Figures are usually centralized on the page and are **not** surrounded by the running text, i.e. they appear on their own without any running text on the left or right. The caption of a figure usually appears below the figure (normally centralized, just like the figure itself):

[3] For further information on glossing non-English example sentences, please consult the Leipzig Glossing Rules (https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/pdf/Glossing-Rules.pdf, accessed 1 March 2020).

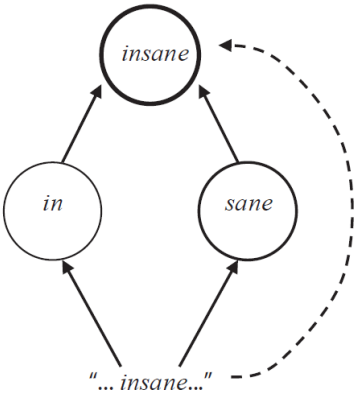

Figure 1. A dual-route model of lexical access (Hay 2001: 1045)

Tables and figures, just like examples, need to be **mentioned** in the running text: never present a table, a figure or an example without properly introducing and explaining it in the text.

Some further rules for figures and tables:

- When you integrate tables or figures from other works, make sure you adapt their **numbering** to your own text, i.e. do not keep the original numbering but change it accordingly. For example, the original Figure 4 may become your Figure 2.
- **Avoid scanning** as far as possible: Most tables are easy to reproduce, and graphs should be pasted directly from the online version of an article (or via a high-resolution screenshot) into your paper.
- It is possible to **create** a figure or a table for data that was presented in some other format in the original publication. In such cases, you need to give the source as (adapted from author(s) year: page).
- **Tree diagrams** (in morphology and syntax) can be incorporated in your paper as either examples or figures.

2.3 Citation rules

It is a serious offence in academics to commit **plagiarism**, i.e. to steal other people's ideas. Your paper needs to enter into a dialogue with the previous literature on the topic, but you have to mark it explicitly when you are referring to other people's ideas, even if only in an indirect way.

2.3.1 General formatting rules for citations

In-text citations that refer to a **publication as a whole** are indicated by the author's or authors' last name(s) and the year of publication. This is integrated directly into the running sentence or backgrounded in parentheses:

Laitinen (2008) provides a diachronic approach to English pronouns.

The argument presented here is framed in terms of Processing Typology (Hawkins 2007).

The parentheses can be omitted if they would otherwise occur in parentheses themselves:

Word-order correlations have also been explained in terms of online processing (see Dryer 2009 for an overview).

In-text citations that refer to a **particular piece of information from a given work** also need to include the specific page number, page range, chapter or section in which the information can be found. In these cases, the year of publication and the specific location are separated by a colon and a space:

Löbner (2013: Ch. 2) outlines several different dimensions of linguistic meaning.

Riemer (2010: §9.2) discusses the semantics of tense and aspect.

Thomason and Kaufman (1988: 276–280) point out that the northern dialects of English show more morphological innovations (and are morphologically simpler) than the southern English dialects.

It has been pointed out that the northern dialects of English show more morphological innovations (and are morphologically simpler) than the southern English dialects (Thomason and Kaufman 1998: 276–280).

If a work comprises **more than two authors** (say, Bannard, Lieven and Tomasello 2009), in-text citations usually abbreviate them by using **et al.** after the first author: Bannard et al. (2009) suggest ... In the reference section at the end of your paper, all names must be given in full.

When **multiple citations** are listed in parentheses, they are separated by commas and they are normally listed in **chronological** (rather than alphabetical) **order**:

Speakers rely heavily on formulaic chunks or "prefabs" during speech comprehension and production (Pawley and Syder 1983, Sinclair 1991, Erman and Warren 2000, Bybee 2006; see Wray 2002 for a broader historical review).

If such a list of references is followed by further information (such as the note on Wray 2002 here), it is separated from that information by a semicolon.

When **multiple works by the same author** are cited, the author's name need not be repeated, and the years are separated by commas:

Hawkins (1994, 2004, 2014) has proposed that language processing directly affects grammatical structure.

When a given author (or team of authors) is cited with several publications **from the same year**, one uses a, b, c, etc. to abbreviate them: Mithun (1991a, 1991b) discusses ...

When multiple references are being made to the exact same work **successively** within a stretch of text (i.e. without other references in between), one can use the abbreviation (ibid.) (Lat. *ibidem* 'in the same place'). If it is the same publication but a different page, one can use (ibid.: page).

2.3.2 Direct quotes

Direct (or verbatim) quotes can be integrated directly with your own running text, even within sentences:

Laitinen suggests that "the use of the pronominal forms [...] through time constitutes a change in the typological tendencies in English" (Laitinen 2008: 155).

As this example demonstrates, the original quote is framed by **double quotation marks**, and the quote closes before the reference is given and the sentence is concluded with a full stop. If a whole sentence is quoted, the original sentential punctuation mark (full stop, exclamation mark, question mark) is included in the quotation marks and then followed by the reference; no other punctuation mark is inserted afterwards:

"To what degree is the fusion of intentional blends constrained by the uniqueness point of the two source words?" (Gries 2004: 664)

As can also be seen above, if it is necessary to leave out some material of the quote, [...] can instead be inserted into the quote. In general, one should avoid *changing* the wording of quotes, but if this is absolutely necessary, then the substituted material also appears in [...]:

The theoretical context for my paper is a model developed by Croft (2006), which provides a framework for "analyzing language change that integrate[s] functional-typological and variationist sociolinguistic approaches to historical linguistics" (Croft 2006: 34).

Here, the word integrate[s] was adapted in order to agree with a singular subject (plural in the original).

In general, **be careful in your use of direct quotes**:

- Avoid making your paper an assembly of quotations by using too many of them! You should only fall back on a direct quote if you feel that it is absolutely necessary for making a particular point (e.g. to support your position or to introduce a counter-position that you intend to challenge).
- Try to avoid quotations from third sources, i.e. something like "...." (Croft 2003: 17, cited in Evans and Green 2006: 122). Always quote **from the original source** and list this source in the reference section at the end of the paper. It is bad practice to copy quotations made in textbooks, rather than quoting an author's opinion directly. This entails, however, that you also consult the original source, i.e. that you check at least whether the original quotation fits the argumentative context in which you want to use it.
- Finally, try to avoid long quotations. As a rule of thumb, if a quote is **longer** than three lines, set it apart from the text, indent it on both sides, use a slightly smaller font size, single line spacing and no quotation marks around it:

  Declerck describes the temporal schema of the present perfect as follows:

  > [A] present perfect locates a situation in a period of time that starts before t_0 and leads up to it. The situation located in this period can either lie entirely before t_0 or lead up to (and include) t_0. In the former case the present perfect is said to have an 'indefinite' ('existential') meaning, in the latter it is 'continuative'. (Declerck 1991: 28)

  It is thus clear that the present perfect differs in its temporal schema from the simple past (preterite).

2.3.3 Indirect quotes

With indirect quotations, you **paraphrase** someone else's claims, opinions or statements, and it is here that discourse markers like *according to X, following X, in keeping with X,* etc. come into play:

According to Croft (2003: 57–59), word order patterns in the languages of the world are shaped by competing motivations.

Following Lakoff and Johnson (1980), I will argue that the concept of TIME is conceptualized and structured metaphorically in terms of orientation and movement in space.

As Krug (2000: 244–245) notes, the quasi-modals represent an open class, which can admit new members.

In contrast to previous work (e.g. Chomsky 1969, Lightfoot 1999), I claim ...

It is important to realize that a paraphrase is composed of **your own words**. Indirect quotations do not consist in changing one or two words of the original sentence, or in retaining the original words but putting them in the passive rather than the original active voice. Even if the source is pointed out, such minor reformulations are much too close to the original wording and will be considered as plagiarism. Therefore, try to put the original thoughts into your own words from the beginning: This way, you will not only be on the safe side but also produce more authentic language. (If you begin by replacing individual words and structures in the original, you will often end up with odd collocations and stylistic (or even grammatical) mistakes.)

2.3.4 Other references

Sometimes references to other sources are necessary to provide **support for your own claims**. In other words, whenever you make certain claims or statements in your paper that you cannot reasonably be argued to have come up with yourself, insert a reference to an authoritative source that the reader can turn to in order to verify your statement. This is done far too infrequently in term papers, but it is good academic practice. We repeat an example from above to illustrate this:

Speakers rely heavily on formulaic chunks or "prefabs" during speech comprehension and production (Pawley and Syder 1983, Sinclair 1991, Erman and Warren 2000, Bybee 2006; see Wray 2002 for a broader historical review).

As can be seen towards the end of this example, if you refer to reader to further relevant work on a topic, you can introduce this by see or cf. (Lat. *conferre*, 'compare'). Again, we will repeat an earlier example here:

The issue of how age influences the acquisition of a non-native language is one of the most controversial and frequently investigated topics in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (see Muñoz 2008a, Singleton 1995, among many others).

Traditionally (i.e. etymologically), *see* (German *siehe*) is different from *cf*. (German *vergleiche*), and it is sometimes pointed out that the two terms should be used accordingly: *see* is meant to be used to support an argument, while *cf*. directs the reader's attention to further work that may actually disagree with a particular standpoint (i.e. in the sense 'compare to source X for a different point of view on the same topic'). In practice, however, you will find many publications in linguistics where *cf.* is used synonymously with *see*. In your own paper, choose one way of doing it and apply it consistently.

2.4 Reference section

2.4.1 General rules

- All references made in the text, i.e. all works cited or referred to in the text, are listed at the end of the paper. This section, sometimes called a bibliography, is entitled **References**.
- **Exhaustiveness**: It is mandatory that all works that appear in the references are mentioned somewhere in your paper and, conversely, that all references in the text are listed in the reference section. Therefore, everything you may have read in preparation of the term paper can be included by turning it into some kind of reference in the text, even if it is only mentioned in an enumeration of relevant research (as in the previous example above).
- In linguistics, it is **not** common to distinguish between "primary" and "secondary" sources. Primary data sources like corpora and dictionaries are incorporated and treated as regular references.
- The entries in the reference section are listed **alphabetically**. If an entry stretches over more than one line, use **hanging indent** (normally 0.5 cm, not much more) so that all but the first lines are indented.
- The **names** of authors and editors should be given in their **full form** (e.g. Pullum, Geoffrey K.). All authors (and possibly editors) of a given work need to be mentioned; do **not** use et al. in the reference section.

- **Surnames with internal complexity** are never treated in a special way. Thus, Dutch or German surnames that begin with *van* or *von* (e.g. *van Riemsdijk*) or French and Dutch surnames that begin with *de* (e.g. *de Groot*) are treated just like Belgian surnames (e.g. *De Schutter*) and Italian surnames (e.g. *Da Milano*) and are alphabetized under the first part, even though they begin with a lower-case letter. Thus, the following names are sorted alphabetically (i.e. mechanically) as indicated:

  Da Milano, Federica > de Groot, Casper > de Saussure, Ferdinand > De Schutter, Georges > > van der Auwera, Johan > Van Langendonck, Willy > van Riemsdijk, Henk > von Humboldt, Wilhelm

- If a work has both a **title** and a **subtitle**, they are separated by **colons**, not by full stops (regardless of how this is done in the original publication). The first letter of both the title and the subtitle is **capitalized**.
- The **titles of books** and journals appear in *italics*. The **titles of articles** are printed in roman (= non-italics) and without quotation marks around them.
- The **year of publication** is preceded by a space and a full stop and followed by a full stop. Do not put parentheses around the year.
- **Editors** are followed by (ed.) or (eds.), depending on the number of editors.
- If a publishing company is associated with several **places** (e.g. Berlin and Boston for De Gruyter, Amsterdam and Philadelphia for John Benjamins), it is sufficient to list the first one.
- There is some persistent confusion with regard to what constitutes an **online source**. Much of the search for previous literature is now conducted electronically (using scientific databases, *Google Scholar*, etc.), but that does not make everything you find electronically an online source – it might simply be a PDF of a journal article that is a regular print publication. In these cases, **no** URL or access date is necessary (let alone an indication of the database or search engine you used, such as *JSTOR*). Genuine online sources are only those that do not have a printed representation in exactly the same way. In these cases, the URL and an access date are vital pieces of information.

2.4.2 Publication types and parts of bibliographical entries

In order to compile the reference section correctly, it is important to understand that academic publications fall into a number of distinct **types**, each of which requires a certain amount of information to be specified. The following table provides an overview of these different types and the **standard** pieces of information that need to be included (from left to right):

Type	AUTHOR(S)	EDITOR(S)	YEAR	ARTICLE TITLE	EDITORS(S)	JOURNAL OR BOOK TITLE	VOLUME NUMBER	ISSUE NUMBER	PAGES	CITY	PUBLISHER
Monograph	*		*			*				*	*
Edited volume		*	*			*				*	*
Journal article	*		*	*		*	*	*	*		
Article in an edited volume	*		*	*	*	*			*	*	*

This yields the following model entries for the major publication types:

Monograph (a book written by one or more authors)

Bybee, Joan. 1985. *Morphology: A study of the relation between meaning and form.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Huddleston, Rodney and Geoffrey K. Pullum. 2005. *A student's introduction to English grammar.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Edited volume (German *Sammelband* = a book that contains a number of papers by different authors and which have been compiled into a book by one or more editors)

Bayley, Robert, Richard Cameron and Ceil Lucas (eds.). 2015. *The Oxford handbook of sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brinton, Laurel J. (ed.). 2017. *English historical linguistics: Approaches and perspectives.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Journal article (a paper that has appeared in a professional linguistics periodical)

Arndt-Lappe, Sabine and Ingo Plag. 2013. The role of prosodic structure in the formation of blends. *English Language and Linguistics* 17(3). 537–563.

Tannen, Deborah. 1982. Oral and literate strategies in spoken and written narratives. *Language* 58(1). 1–21.

Article in an edited volume (a paper that someone has contributed to an edited volume)

Biber, Douglas, Jack Grieve and Gina Iberri-Shea. 2009. Noun phrase modification. In Günther Rohdenburg and Julia Schlüter (eds.), *One language, two grammars? Differences between British and American English*, 182–193. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nübling, Damaris. 2011. How do exceptions arise? On different paths to morphological irregularity. In Horst J. Simon and Heike Wiese (eds.), *Expecting the unexpected: Exceptions in grammar*, 139–162. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Other publication types should be treated like the ones above to the extent that this is possible, often with some non-standard part (= an addition of necessary information) in parentheses:

- **Thesis** (a qualifying paper for a B.A., M.A. or Ph.D. degree)

  Yu, Alan C. L. 2003. *The morphology and phonology of infixation*. Berkeley: University of California. (Doctoral dissertation.)

- **Paper published in an online-only journal** (i.e. one that does not have a printed version)

  Pedersen, Johan. 2005. The Spanish impersonal *se*-construction: Constructional variation and change. *Constructions* 1 (http://www.constructions-online.de, accessed 3 April 2007.)

- **Paper published as part of an online database**

  Dryer, Matthew S. 2013. Order of adjective and noun. In Matthew S. Dryer and Martin Haspelmath (eds.), *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online,* Chapter 87. Munich: Max Planck Digital Library. (http://wals.info/chapter/87, accessed 21 May 2019.)

- **Unpublished manuscript available online** (e.g. on the author's personal website or as a draft on academic platforms like *Academia.edu, Zenodo, Researchgate*, etc.)

  Bickel, Balthasar. 2008. A general method for the statistical evaluation of typological distributions. (http://www.uni-leipzig.de/ ~bickel/research/projects/publ.htm, accessed 23 March 2009.)

- **Unpublished paper presented at a scientific conference**

  Filppula, Markku. 2013. Areal and typological distributions of features as evidence for language contacts in Western Europe. (Paper presented at the conference of the Societas Linguistica Europaea, Split, 18–21 September 2013.)

- **Data sources: Online databases, software, dictionaries, corpora and other sources**

  The examples used in a linguistics paper frequently come from electronic corpora, online dictionaries and other databases. These are simply included as regular references; **no** separate section "Online sources" or "Data sources" is necessary. This means that they, too, are ordered alphabetically by their (first) author – if applicable – or by the first letter of their title (e.g. of the dictionary or the corpus in question, if there is no author or editor identifiable).

  Databases: What is mostly needed from online databases is specific articles, and these are cited as in the Dryer example above. If reference is being made to the database as a whole, treat it as a proper name (i.e. with capitalization) in the following way (note that some databases have authors, while others have editors):

  Hammarström, Harald, Robert Forkel and Martin Haspelmath. 2019. *Glottolog* 4.1. Jena: Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History. (http://glottolog.org, accessed 2 January 2020.)

  Kortmann, Bernd and Kerstin Lunkenheimer (eds.). 2013. *The Electronic World Atlas of Varieties of English*. Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology. (http://ewave-atlas.org, accessed 3 March 2020.)

  Software that is freely available online is cited like a monograph if possible, but again with a URL and an access date as a non-standard part in parentheses:

Boersma, Paul and David Weenink. 2020. *Praat: Doing phonetics by computer*. Version 6.1.09. (http://www.praat.org, accessed 26 January 2020.)

R Core Team. 2016. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Version 3.3.0. Vienna: *R* Foundation for Statistical Computing. (https://www.r-project.org, accessed 15 July 2016.)

A specific software package that is part of a larger application (e.g. a particular statistical package in *R*) is treated like a non-monographic publication, again with URL and access date:

Harrell, Frank E. Jr. 2017. rms: Regression modeling strategies. *R* package, version 5.1-1. (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/rms/, accessed 24 June 2018.)

Dictionaries: Only ever use reliable, fully informative dictionaries as data sources for examples or your discussion (never a learner's dictionary or some dubious online forum). Your first choice should always be the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)*. It can either be cited as a whole or, preferably, with regard to the specific word you used it for (s.v. stands for *sub verbum* 'under the word'):

OED online. Oxford University Press. (https://www.oed.com, accessed 15 January 2020.)

OED online. s. v. angersome (adj.). Oxford University Press. (https://www.oed.com/view/Entry/7507, accessed 15 January 2020.)

Word Spy. s. v. procrastibaking (v.). (https://wordspy.com, accessed 4 March 2020.)

As was said above, never use a dictionary to define linguistic terminology; cite standard linguistics works for this purpose!

Corpora: Many corpora are available online, so they come with a URL and an access date. Others are offline versions that are basically cited like monographs. If no date can be given for the compilation of the corpus, use n.d. 'no date'. With regard to capitalization, corpora are treated as proper names.

Davies, Mark. 2004-. *British National Corpus* (from Oxford University Press). (https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/, accessed 15 January 2020.)

Davies, Mark. 2008-. *The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA): 600 million words, 1990–present*. (https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/, accessed 24 July 2019.)

Kirk, John M., Jeffrey L. Kallen, Orla Lowry, Anne Rooney and Margaret Mannion. 2011. *International Corpus of English: Ireland Component*. Version 1.2.2. Belfast: Queen's University and Dublin: Trinity College Dublin.

Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (*LOCNESS*). n.d. Centre for English Corpus Linguistics, Université Catholique de Louvain. (http://www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/fltr/germ/etan/cecl/Cecl-Projects/Icle/locness1.htm, accessed 20 April 2009.)

Other sources: Some example sentences or text passages for analysis may also come from newspaper articles, literary texts, films, websites, etc. These, too, are simply incorporated alphabetically into the reference list. For literary texts, cite the printed version in the appropriate style (a novel, play or a collection of stories and poems is cited as a monograph, a poem or a short story is cited like a paper in an edited volume).

A newspaper article (which is usually retrieved from the online version of the newspaper) is cited as follows:

Liptak, Adam and Abby Goodnough. 2020. Supreme Court to hear Obamacare appeal. *New York Times Electronic Edition*, 3 March 2020. (https://www.nytimes.com/2020/03/02/us/supreme-court-obamacare-appeal.html, accessed 4 March 2020.)

A website published by an identifiable author or organization is basically treated like a monograph, but with the URL and access date as a non-standard part in parentheses[4]:

Office for National Statistics. 2018. *Economic well-being, UK: April to June 2018*. (https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/personalandhouseholdfinances/incomeandwealth/bulletins/economicwellbeing/latest, accessed 31 January 2020.)

The same principle applies to works that are only available online, i.e. at a specific website:

Thüringer Ministerium für Jugend, Bildung und Sport. 2019. *Lehrplan für den Erwerb der allgemeinen Hochschulreife: Englisch 2019*. (https://www.schulportal-thueringen.de/media/detail?tspi=1395, accessed 31 January 2020.)

[4] In the running text of your paper, such a reference can also be cited like a monograph, e.g. as (Office for National Statistics 2018).

A website (without a specific entry or author) is cited by its title[5]:

The Purdue Online Writing Lab. 1995–2020. (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/purdue_owl.html, accessed 15 February 2020.)

Vocabulary in Native American languages: Salish words. (http://www.native-languages.org/salish_words.htm, accessed 23 January 2020.)

A film could be referenced by (and hence listed under) its director:

Villeneuf, Denis. 2016. *Arrival.* [DVD] FilmNation Entertainment, Lava Bear Films and 21 Laps Entertainment.

2.4.3 Different volumes or versions of a given publication

- **Volumes**: Sometimes, books (both monographs and collections of papers) comprise several volumes (German *Band 1, Band 2*, etc.), and it then becomes necessary to identify which of these volumes you are referring to. This is done in the following way:

  Givón, Talmy. 2001. *Syntax: An introduction,* vol. 1. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

  Rissanen, Matti. 1999. Syntax. In Roger Lass (ed.), *The Cambridge history of the English language,* vol. 3, 187–331. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- **Subsequent impressions** of a book: Particularly well-selling books keep being reprinted in subsequent years. For example, a well-known reference grammar of English by Quirk et al. was originally published in 1985 and subsequently reprinted many times. The current version in the ThULB is the 22nd impression (2008). However, since the work has not been changed in any way, you simply provide the **original** year of publication, not the year of the specific impression you are using. After all, it would be misleading to quote the grammar as being from 2008!

  Quirk, Randolph, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik. 1985. *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman.

- Different **editions** of a book: Some books are updated, as it were, and might thus be republished in a form that **differs** from the original. In these cases, we are not simply dealing with a subsequent impression of the same book but with a new **edition**. This is reflected in the bibliography by using edn.; the year is that of the new edition only, without the older one(s) being indicated.

  Aitchison, Jean. 1999. *Linguistics.* 5th edn. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

- Finally, an original publication may be **reprinted** in its original form but in a different context. For example, an original journal article may later be reprinted as a "classic" of its field in an edited volume, and a monograph may be translated (and/or edited posthumously). In these cases, you can work with the newer, perhaps more accessible version, but it is mandatory that you point out the **original** year of publication. This is given in square brackets:

  Bakhtin, Mikhail. 1984 [1963]. *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics*. Ed. and translated by Caryl Emerson. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

  Blom, Jan-Petter and John J. Gumperz. 1986 [1972]. Social meaning in linguistic structure: Code-switching in Norway. In John J. Gumperz and Dell Hymes (eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication*, 35–71. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

2.4.4 Further issues

- As was mentioned earlier, if you cite several publications by the same author that happened to be published **in the same year**, they are distinguished by using a, b, c, etc. and are ordered alphabetically:

  Minsky, Jan. 1988a. *English consonants.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
  Minsky, Jan. 1988b. *English vowels.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Books (both monographs and edited volumes) sometimes appear in a particular **book series**. This can be mentioned **optionally** right after the title of the book. Recall from above that book series, unlike book titles, are treated as proper names and hence capitalized.

  Bybee, Joan. 1985. *Morphology: A study of the relation between meaning and form* (Typological Studies in Language 9). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[5] Such sources are more difficult to cite in the usual shorthand in the running text of your paper. As an alternative, you can provide the URL and the access date in a footnote.

2.5 Proofreading: Recurrent practical language mistakes

Term papers in English linguistics or literary studies are always also a reflection (and a test) of your **language proficiency**, so that language mistakes will have a negative impact on your mark for the paper. The most common language mistakes in term papers tend to come from the problem areas that are explicitly discussed in *Grammar I, Grammar II* and *Academic Writing*. This is unfortunate because it suggests that the knowledge acquired in these classes is not particularly sustainable and that there is no transfer of knowledge between classes. Therefore, an important general point is that you should always **go back to what you learnt** in these practical language classes and **check your paper** for the common trouble spots. This aspect of proofreading is essential for the quality of the final product you submit.

In the context of your argumentation, you should pay particular attention to the following things:

- the use of **logical connectors** (e.g. *due to, therefore, consequently, thus*):
  - Make sure they mean what you intend them to mean (e.g. English *therefore* is not equivalent to German *dafür*; *thereby* is not equivalent to German *dabei*; *in/by contrast* is not equivalent to *on the contrary*).
  - Check whether there really is the kind of logical connection they are supposed to signal.
- **word order** and **information flow**:
  - Very often, **German word order** is transferred to English (e.g. time before place), leading to ungrammatical patterns (e.g. **a point which is in most studies excluded* > *a point which is excluded in most studies*). In particular, never separate a verb from its direct object in English (e.g. **to make occasionally an exception* > *to occasionally make an exception*).
  - The German way of **emphasizing** constituents, namely by simply putting them at the beginning of a sentence (e.g. OVS), does not work in English. Instead, use **cleft constructions** (*Grammar I+II, Introduction to Linguistics II*): *It is **this construction** that we shall examine in the next section.*
  - Re-read your sentences and paragraphs for their **information flow** (e.g. given-before-new order, short-before-long order). Make sure that everything you present as given (e.g. by using the definite article) has really been established before and does not come out of the blue.
- grammatically **correct use of words** that frequently occur in an academic context, e.g.
  - mass-count noun distinction (e.g. the use of *research* as a count noun should be avoided: do not use *researches* in the sense of 'studies' or **a research by X*; also make sure you choose the appropriate quantifying determiners (e.g. *less time* but *fewer studies*, *much research* but *many arguments*))
  - the correct use of *own*, i.e. with a possessive determiner and not with an article (e.g. **In this section, I will present an own investigation.*)
  - the use of *should* in past tense contexts ('sollte'): **The participants should fill in a questionnaire.* > *The participants were supposed/asked to fill in a questionnaire.*
  - the use of *which* (not *what*) as a relative pronoun in sentential relative clauses (e.g. **Indian English has been influenced by Hindi, what explains a number of its phonological properties*.)
  - specific lexical combinations that do not make sense: **this may answer the reason why …, *the phenomenon means that …, *… plays an important factor, *the findings claim …, *the point is about …, *to show a reason.* In order to avoid such non-sensical combinations, check whether it would make sense in German (you simply cannot 'show a reason', neither in English nor in German; likewise, something cannot 'play a factor').
- **punctuation**: Stick to the rules developed in *Academic Writing*. Watch out specifically for:
  - **complement clauses**, which are preceded by a comma in German (*Es wurde gezeigt, dass …; Ich behaupte, dass …*) but not in English (*It was shown that …; I claim that …*). This holds for complement clauses in all syntactic functions (subject, object, predicative complement, other complement).
  - **relative clauses**: are typically preceded by a comma in German, but the dominant type of relative clause, the so-called restrictive one (*the article that/which I am referring to*), is never preceded by a comma in English. Only non-restrictive relative clauses, which provide supplementary information on a noun (and are hence not necessary to *identify* the referent), are separated by commas (*Tomasello, who has written extensively on child language development, …*).

2.6 Declaration of academic integrity

The very last page of your paper is the following declaration (written in German, except for Erasmus students):

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbst angefertigt und alle von mir benutzten Hilfsmittel und Quellen angegeben habe; alle wörtlichen Zitate und Entlehnungen aus fremden Arbeiten sind als solche gekennzeichnet.

[Unterschrift der/des Studierenden]

Appendix: The elements of an empirical study

At advanced stages of your studies, typically in the M.A. programme and in final theses, you are often required to go beyond discussions of previous research. Instead, depending on the seminar or topic, you may be asked to conduct your own empirical study. This may be done on the basis of corpora, questionnaires, language samples, etc. The basic structure of the paper (introduction – several main sections – conclusion – references) remains the same as above, but it needs to include the following crucial **elements**[6]:

Contextual embedding (typically briefly in the introduction and in the following section)

1. Background and preview
   Why are you conducting this study? What makes it interesting? Short statement of purpose and research question.
2. Linguistic phenomenon
   Describe the linguistic phenomenon you are investigating (e.g. relative clauses, resultative construction): define the category, describe its features (e.g. inflectional variation, word order variation) and provide illustrative examples.
3. Literature review
   If there are previous studies, summarize their main findings and say what you intend to do in your study based on previous work (e.g. look at a particular phenomenon that has not been investigated thus far; challenge a previous hypothesis; replicate a previous study to see if the results of that study carry over to other data; etc.). If there are no previous studies, make that clear: "This is the first study to investigate …."
4. Preview / explicit hypothesis
   State your hypothesis (or hypotheses) and if necessary explain it/them in more detail. This may include a preview of your most important results.

Methods

1. Subjects, corpus, and materials
   Describe the data you are drawing on. If you are conducting an experimental or questionnaire study, characterize your subjects and describe the materials you have used. If you are conducting a corpus study, characterize the corpus (e.g. size, kind, composition). You may want to include summary tables of your data, but do not present the results of your analysis at this stage.
2. Procedure
   How did you collect the data? How did you conduct the experiment? How did you search for particular constructions in the corpus (e.g. regular expressions, specific search commands, etc.)?
3. Coding
   Describe how you have categorized the data. Give an overview of all categories and state how you assigned a particular response (in an experimental study) or a particular instance (in a corpus study) to a particular category.

Results

1. Descriptive summary of results
   - In the social sciences (e.g. psychology, sociology), you first present your results and then discuss them. In linguistics, the results and the discussion are often combined in one section, but if you find it appropriate, you can separate them.
   - Present tables and figures to summarize your findings, but do not present your findings twice, i.e. first in a table and then in a figure.
   - Preparing tables and figures can be difficult. Do not give long tables including hundreds of numbers; nobody has the time to look at them. The tables and figures in the text serve to provide easy access to your most important findings. The appendix may include a more detailed summary of your results presented in more comprehensive tables.
   - You need to discuss the results presented in tables and figures! The figures/tables alone are not sufficient. Say what the descriptive statistics suggest.
2. Inferential statistics
   Once you have described your data, submit them to statistical analysis. Say what type of test you have used and present the relevant measures (e.g. *p*-value, *F*-value, degrees of freedom, effect size, confidence intervals). If it is not obvious why you used a particular test, explain your decision, but do not describe obvious choices (e.g. I have used a chi-squared test because the data are frequency data). Explicate what the statistical analysis suggests, i.e. how the results should be interpreted.

Discussion (typically, there is a separate discussion section, but some of the points below can also be in the conclusion)

1. Provide a short summary of your results.
2. Theoretical implications: Consider your paper from a broader theoretical perspective and mention implications of your study for related questions.
3. Future directions of research: Limitations and prospects (open questions). What should be done in the next step? Ideas for an experiment. Etc.

Appendix (if the data are too comprehensive to be included in the text)

References (see above for details)

[6] The core of this section was provided by Holger Diessel and then integrated into these guidelines.