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1 GENERAL REMARKS

This manual is meant for students of English linguistics, from the first year of their BA through to the MA level. It gives advice on how to choose a topic, how to write and to structure a linguistics paper, and how to tackle some of the technical aspects of a linguistics paper. It also informs you of some of the differences between the major reference varieties of English, e.g. British and American Englishes. This should help you to be consistent in the variety of English you choose for your paper (see Section 4.4.2.1).

Please also note already at this point that the teaching staff of the English department feels strongly about **plagiarism** (cf. Section 4.4.4). This manual is also meant to help you avoid plagiarising other people's work.

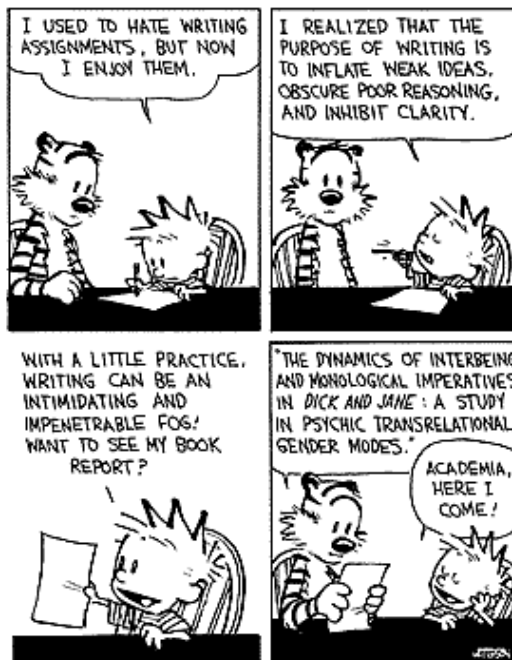


Image 1: Writing assignments.

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

2 LENGTH OF PAPERS

Detailed information regarding the length of essays, assignments, etc. including number of resources, will be provided in the different seminars.

3 COMMENTS ON PAPER TOPICS AND DIFFERENT APPROACHES

Before you start writing, you should approach your lecturer and discuss your topic with them. They will help you:

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

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

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

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

3.1 Different types of papers

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

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

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

4 HOW TO GO ABOUT IT

Depending on several different factors (academic level, co- or single-authored essay, preferences of the lecturer, etc.), the lecturer will work in different ways with you. Your teacher will explain academic linguistics paper writing in general (structure of a paper, theoretical frameworks, methods) during one of the classes and may also find time to discuss your individual research and paper projects in class. It is important, in any case, that you have discussed the research question of your topic and your approach with the lecturer, either during class or during the lecturer's office hour.

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

4.1 Preparatory phase

If you do not already have an idea, you can look at Wray and Bloomer (2012) *Projects in Linguistics and Language Studies* for areas of language studies related to your seminar and choose a topic you like. Then use the library catalogue to browse for literature (see Section 8). This will give you an idea of what literature is available in the university's library (BCU). Your literature searches will unearth a plethora of information on your topic. To ensure that you are using suitable material, you should assess potential resources according to the following criteria:

- Is the author a credible authority, e.g. an established figure in the field (recommended), instead of a self-proclaimed expert (not recommended)?
- Who is the intended audience (academics, general public, etc.)? Anecdotal personal information might be relevant to grab the reader's attention, but your paper should not build on this kind of information.

- Is the material at an appropriate technical level? Generally, academic books and journal manuscripts are the best sources for your papers and will be at the appropriate technical level.
- Is the source relevant to the variety/period/etc. you are researching? Unless you are specifically writing a comparative paper, stick only to your single topic.
- Are the theories and discussion in the source current or outdated? Sometimes seminal works – which might have been published a long time ago – are important to be incorporated into your paper, but, generally, works published in the 21st century should be your go-to.

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

Discuss your ideas about the topic, questions, or material that interest you with your peers: you will find it much easier to start writing if you have already formulated your argument or parts of it within a communicative oral context. For this reason, form discussion groups.

After you have chosen a topic, and browsed through the library to find material that seems appropriate, **you must see your lecturer** to discuss what methods and tools of analysis and interpretation you need to apply, and whether you need to limit the scope of the material you will be scrutinising. Some lecturers may wish to see an outline early on in the linguistics paper planning process. You are encouraged to make use of this opportunity (see Section 4.4.1).

4.2 Research phase

When you do the research for an academic paper, write down *all* the bibliographical references (including page numbers) of any material and ideas you glean from elsewhere. Be meticulous when doing this: it will save you a lot of time at the stage of writing your paper. Also, it will help you to **avoid plagiarising** without being aware of it. You may also want to consider using referencing tools like Endnote or Zotero.

- Be careful to transcribe quotations very precisely. Incorrect quotations are an insult to the author.
- When taking notes, carefully distinguish between your own and other people's thoughts.
- Use dictionaries and reference books to look up words and concepts.
- Try to formulate your argument and/or hypothesis, and organise questions that need to be answered in the course of the paper. Ideally, this will become part of your outline.

4.3 Structuring phase

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

Considering that you have a choice between different types of paper (see Section 3.1), the structure of your linguistics paper will very much depend on the choice that you make related to your type of paper, and the research question linked to it. Make sure that you discuss these points and the structure of your individual paper with the respective lecturer.

4.4 Writing phase

4.4.1 Make an outline

People approach paper writing in different ways, but it is usually important that you have a clear idea of what you want to cover before you begin the writing process. If you have a writer's block, it can be helpful to just start writing. Sometimes ideas can come through the writing process; but if you have had a writer's block, it is very important to go back and potentially re-write your paper. If you have a clear idea *before* you start to write, there are different ways of outlining such as mind-mapping, listing, etc. In any case, generally the following aspects should be included:

- main idea, hypothesis, research question;
- theoretical and methodological approaches;
- evidence;
- argumentation;
- ordering of ideas;
- discussion / summary.

Once you have a draft, you could also draw on your reading summaries, notes and ideas. Try to specify where in your paper you want to include which sources, salient quotations, etc. You can use your outline as an argumentative template to put the pieces of gathered knowledge and insight together.

4.4.2 Word and sentence level

When writing your paper, if you are not sure about the meaning of non-technical vocabulary, double-check them in the **Oxford English Dictionary Online** (accessible via crypto off campus: <https://crypto.unil.ch/>). Even native speakers do not write papers without occasionally checking the meaning of words and their correct use in specific contexts and punctuation rules. Linguistic terminology should be defined based on relevant scholarly literature. (Try to use sources other than textbooks for this purpose, as textbooks are introductory material.)

Abstract concepts in particular require careful use, as they have acquired very precise and (sometimes heavily disputed) meanings in linguistics. Even the simple word *text* is used differently in linguistics than in literary studies. You can only make words mean exactly what you want them to mean if you know what other people (i.e. the academic community) have made the words mean before you.

Provide definitions of your analytical and methodological **concepts**, relying on theoretical and critical literature that is relevant both to your field of study and to your argument or hypothesis. (See also Section 6.2 on introducing such concepts.)

You are encouraged to make use of the **Manchester Academic Phrasebank** to help you with some of the phraseological 'nuts and bolts' of academic writing. The Phrasebank is a general resource for academic writers, which aims to provide you with example phrases commonly found in academic writing. The phrases can assist you in thinking about the content and organisation of your own writing, or they can be incorporated into your paper where this is appropriate (Morley 2014). You can find the Manchester Academic Phrasebank at the following website: <http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/>

4.4.3 Reference varieties of English

Your papers should be consistently written in one of the reference varieties of English, e.g. American English, Australian English, British English, Canadian English. These varieties of English differ not only in vocabulary and grammar, but there are also differences in style and layout of the paper. You are also expected to use the spell-checker of your word processor; make sure to **set the language of your document to your chosen variety of English**. As an example we have provided the most prominent differences between British English (BrE) and American English (AmE). For further details and British versus

American vocabulary, see David Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1999, pp. 306-311), Cambridge University Press.

Table 1. Major differences between British and American English

		British English	American English
General Conventions	Paragraph	Indentation	Blank line
	Dates	Day Month Year <i>13 March 2001</i>	Month Day, Year <i>March 13, 2001</i>
	Collective nouns	Plural option <i>The family / government <u>is</u> / <u>are</u></i>	Only singular <i>The family / government <u>is</u></i>
Spelling	<ou>	<i>behaviour, colour, humour</i>	<o> <i>behavior, color, humor</i>
	<re>	<i>centre, litre, metre, theatre</i>	<er> <i>center, liter, meter, theater</i>
	<ise>	<i>analyse, organise, recognise</i>	<ize> <i>analyze, organize, recognize</i>
	<ll>	<i>counsellor, labelled, travelling</i>	<l> <i>counselor, labeled, traveling</i>
	<i>aesthetic</i>		<i>esthetic</i>
	<i>programme</i>		<i>program</i>

4.4.4 Logic of your arguments

- Your paper should be focused, i.e. it should follow through the arguments presented in the introduction.
- Remember that an academic paper should generally not contain impressionistic personal responses unless requested. This does not mean, however, that you have to withhold your own opinion or that you should not make clear where you position yourself with respect to an argument: *I maintain / argue / propose / suggest / agree / am in favor of / contest / dispute / contend / am critical of / disagree / question.*
- Write concisely and clearly, avoid broad generalisations, and be objective.
- Your paper should not be a simple collection of notes.
- Throughout your paper, **foreground the argument** you want to make: formulate your thoughts in such a manner that every paragraph you write supports your argument one way or another. State your points clearly and link them with a logic that will immediately be apparent to your reader.
- While doing your research, you may find interesting details that do not really fit into your argument. You might want to put these into footnotes, but try to keep the number of footnotes to a minimum.
- Imagine a concrete audience who might agree or disagree with the ideas you are expressing in your paper, and you will find it easier to argue. Assume that your readers are members of the academic community. This has several consequences:

- They have a basic interest in what you are saying.
- They do not want to have to read between the lines, so you have to be absolutely clear and explicit.
- They need to be convinced of your ideas.
- They are not familiar with your way of thinking, so give all the steps of your thought processes through to your conclusions.

4.4.5 References to other people's ideas

You will always write a paper against the background of the research that has already been done in the field. This is called *previous studies*, *previous literature*, *secondary material* or *secondary literature*; you must refer to previous work to ground your essay in your chosen field of study, to give the reader the necessary background, and to justify the line of your argument(s). You can do this in one of three ways:

- (1) **Quoting** is when you include the **exact words** from a source in your essay. The source material must be enclosed in double quotation marks (“ ”), unless it exceeds thirty words, in which case it should be added as a block quote (see *EDGE*). You must include the author(s)'s name, the work's year of publication and page number(s) whenever you quote existing material, e.g. (Baker, 2006, p. 35).
- (2) **Paraphrasing** is when you restate someone else's words in detail using **your own words, phrasing, and sentence structure**. You do not need to include the parts that are irrelevant to your topic but you must be sure to represent the author(s)'s idea accurately. As with quoting, you must include the author(s)'s name, the work's year of publication and page number(s).
- (3) **Summarising** is when you condense a passage from a source – or an entire source – to convey its main points or message. As with paraphrasing, you must use **your own words, phrasing, and sentence structure** and you must represent the author(s)'s work accurately. Unlike quoting and paraphrasing, you must include the author(s)'s name and the work's year of publication; page number(s) need only be included if you are summarising a portion of the original source.

The works that you reference show the reader where to look for further information and prove that you are interested in engaging in a discussion about the material you are working with. No matter which option you use, you must remember to engage in a discussion with the material you are referencing, thinking critically about the material.

Any time you reference someone else's idea or work, you must cite it so that you do not inadvertently present it as your own. It is essential that you make every effort to **avoid plagiarism**.

Plagiarism is the use of any resource, published or unpublished, without proper acknowledgement. Sources must always be fully credited, for quotations, paraphrased material, foundational concepts, etc. Plagiarism is not always a deliberate act; it can result from incomplete/insufficient note taking or from being in a rush. It is thus very important to be meticulous with this aspect of your work. In order to avoid plagiarism, to be reader-friendly, and therefore to prove that you are interested in engaging in a discussion about the material you are working on, you need to include both in-text references and a complete reference list at the end of your paper whenever you refer to somebody else's writing (or speaking).

When writing a summary of any text, only mention details that are relevant to your argument, but make sure that what you say is correct with respect to the *whole* passage you have summarised. **Do not simply paraphrase** what other people have said: comment on their arguments (e.g. do their arguments support / nuance / contradict your findings?) and integrate them into your own argument in a visible way.

How do you decide which of these options to employ? Wherever possible, you should either paraphrase or summarise. If you need to quote, keep the following guidelines in mind (partially adapted from Quitman et al., 1996, p. 545):

- Use quotations to support your argument, not as your research question or main point(s).
- Choose a quotation only if:
 - its language is particularly appropriate or distinctive;
 - its idea is particularly hard to paraphrase or summarise accurately;
 - the authority of the source is especially important to support your material;
 - the source's words are open to more than one interpretation, so you need to show the reader the original quotation.
- Quote accurately; do not misrepresent the author(s)'s ideas by using a quotation in an inappropriate or incorrect context.
- Avoid lengthy quotations that express several ideas at the same time, especially if they are not relevant to your argument.
- Always introduce quotations and integrate them smoothly into your prose, paying special attention to verb tenses and forms.
- Comment on every element in the quote.
- Do not end a paragraph on someone else's words.

4.4.6 *Choosing a title*

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

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

4.4.7 *References*

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

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

4.4.8 *Last phase: revision*

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

- Use your computer's spell check program after double checking that you've set your language to the appropriate variety, but make sure you do not let the computer correct words for you automatically.
- To see whether your argument works, ask a peer to read through your paper and comment on it critically. Where appropriate, let their questions about what you wrote lead you to revise aspects of your paper.
- If you started off with working titles for the sections, now that you have a clear overview of where your argument has led you, revise these titles to make them reveal the development of your argument or the steps leading to the verification of your hypothesis.
- Revise your list of references and cut out or add items depending on the final version of your paper, i.e. make sure all the references you give in the paper are documented in the final list of references. Also check that you provided page numbers in all cases – whether you quoted, referred to, or summarised someone else's text – and that these numbers are correct.

4.4.9 *Handing the paper in*

Submission guidelines may vary across courses. Unless otherwise specified, you should submit your paper in electronic format (usually as a .pdf file, so that your original layout is not altered on your instructor's computer, especially when you use IPA symbols – see Section 6.5 below), as specified by your instructor. Note that **your paper will be checked for plagiarism**.

5 STRUCTURE OF A LINGUISTICS PAPER

All linguistics papers should be comprised of sections with short, illustrative titles. These sections should be numbered, except for the abstract, references, and appendices.

The general format of your paper should be as follows:

- Use **1.5 or double line spacing** (to leave room for comments and corrections), except for block quotations, notes, table of contents, reference list, table titles, and figure captions. All of these elements listed as exceptions can be single spaced.
- Choose a **font that is readable** and widely available. Both serif (e.g. Times New Roman or Cambria) and sans serif (e.g. Calibri or Arial) fonts are acceptable. Size 12 font is generally appropriate for serif fonts; sans serif fonts can be size 11. (In the case of Arial, size 10 would also be appropriate since it is approximately the same size as Times New Roman size 12.)
- Set your **margins to 2.5cm** on all sides.
- Set your justification to "justified". This means that your essay (like this manual) should have paragraphs where the spaces between words and letters are stretched or compressed so that the both sides of the paragraph are aligned neatly. (The exceptions to this are the first line of a paragraph if it is indented, and the final line.)

In terms of the formal elements of the essay, the header of the first page of your essay should include:

- your full name and email address
- the date of completion of the paper
- the name of the lecturer
- the title of the course

The title (and possible subtitle) of the paper, and variety of English in which it is written, should be placed at the top of the first page. Make sure that the title of your paper reflects its aim and scope.

The word count can be placed either in the header or at the end of the essay, after the conclusion but before the references.

A paper dealing with an analysis of linguistic data should normally contain the sections listed below. The content of your essay will vary but the structure of a typical data-driven linguistics essay is provided on the following pages to give you an overview of the requirements for the various sections of your work. Other modes of organisation are more suitable to other types of papers. Please consult your lecturer for advice.

Introductory part	<p>Abstract An abstract is a short summary of your paper and needs to present the research question, the method used, and the major findings. An abstract has to be concise (c. 200 words).</p>
	<p>1. Introduction Present your research question in the context of related studies (previous literature), tell the reader what your project will add to the research field (niche), what aspects your analysis will focus on and what the overall rationale of your inquiry is. Give a brief overview of the structure of your paper (naming its individual sections and their respective content) and ideally state your research question here.</p>
Main body	<p>2. Theoretical background / Previous literature Give a brief, critical survey of relevant earlier work dealing with your subject. Introduce the main theoretical concepts that you will use in your own study (including clear definitions of the key concepts used) and present your terminology.</p>
	<p>3. Method (material and approach used) Present the material and method used in such a way that the study can be replicated. State the nature (and limitations) of your primary material: whether you are using a corpus, elicited material, etc. Describe your method of collecting data as well as the advantages and/or limitations of your material. Consider whether your choice of data is likely to affect the results in an important way.</p> <p>As regards the method:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • State along what lines your investigation was conducted, and, if possible, give the most important sources of your inspiration. Clearly describe all analytical categories and concepts used. • If your investigation is long and complex, give a step-by-step description of what you did. The purpose of this is so that another person could replicate your study exactly if they wanted to.
	<p>4. Presentation of results This section basically answers: “What patterns did I find in my analysis?” The presentation of your results should be clearly structured. Analyze your data by applying the chosen theoretical and methodological tools. You might want to present your results in the form of tables, graphs, lists of examples, extracts of texts or conversations, or all of the above. Try to make these as clear as possible, and concentrate on one aspect at a time. Support your arguments by giving examples from your data. Long and complicated sections should have a short summary at the end. If your study is experimental, you should answer your hypotheses here too, without interpreting too much.</p>

	<p>5. Discussion of findings</p> <p>This section answers the question: “Why did I find the patterns in my data according to a theory or previous studies? What are the similarities and differences with previous studies?” There should be a link between the presentation of results and the discussion. Interpret the results in a factual evidence-based manner, and try to synthesise the individual results. When discussing your results, incorporate/revisit previous literature (theoretical framework). This allows you to show what your findings contribute to existing research; also known as ‘full circle principle’.</p>
Conclusion	<p>6. Conclusion</p> <p>Give a general summary of your results and state the conclusions you can draw on the basis of them. If part of your results is inconclusive, e.g. because you did not have enough material, say so. It is common practice to indicate (a) limitations of the study, and (b) future research directions. Provide an answer to your research question in the concluding statement.</p>
References	<p>References</p> <p>Under this heading you list your sources in alphabetical order. They may be divided into Primary (the data you looked at) and Secondary sources (all works cited in the text). Do not separate the resources by type (books, article, book chapters etc.). Note that the title <i>References</i> is not numbered.</p>
Appendices	<p>Appendices</p> <p>If you want to include specimens of your primary sources, etc., you may do so in one or more appendices at the very end of your paper. They should have separate numbering (Appendix I, Appendix II, etc.), but continuous page numbers with the rest of the paper.</p>

In some instances, you may find it easier to present your results and discuss your findings in a single section, depending on your approach to your research question. This is also acceptable.

6 FORMATTING MATTERS

6.1 Giving examples and quoting your primary material

In a linguistics paper, you often need to give examples of the phenomena that you are investigating. As such, it is important to make a distinction between the expressions you are using as part of your writing and the letters, words or phrases you are discussing.¹

When you give linguistic examples, such as letters, words or phrases, you need to distinguish them from the body of your text. This should be done using *italics* in the text; do not use double quotes for this purpose! (Double quotation marks should only be used for quotations.) Glosses, translations, or other explanations of meaning should be given in inverted commas (‘single quotes’), thus:

RIGHT: The quantifier *many* means ‘a lot’.
 WRONG: The quantifier “many” means “a lot”.

If you give an example that you want to integrate into your text, then you put the whole example in italics as well, as in:

Many linguists have quoted the sentence: *Many arrows didn’t hit the target.*

¹ Be aware that generative artificial intelligence tools create texts by copying content without attribution and without appropriate citation. This could be interpreted as plagiarism unless you reference appropriately (see Section 7 on referencing).

It is better practice, however, to set quoted sentences apart from the main body of the text using numbered examples. These examples should have an Arabic numeral in parentheses and should also be indented. It is good to leave a line between the body of your text and the example(s). Your example should also be indented, particularly if they are longer than a few words. This is a good example of how you may proceed:

Consider the quantifier *many* in sentences (10) and (11):

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

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

When citing primary data such as corpora, you must include the specific reference to the example in the corpus by stating the name of the corpus followed by an ID number if available, as in the example below:

- (1) i didn't realize you could click on the pictures and all of a sudden i was like clicking and i was like oh my god (what) (xx) <LAUGH> very good, very good job. (MICASE Transcript ID: STP545JU091)

For spoken data, you should include the speaker's designation (pseudonym, real name, code, etc.) as well as any other pertinent information. This could be the interview number and time stamp if available, or some basic demographic information relevant to your research question. In the example below, "1m" refers to a first-generation, male participant.

- (1) Yeah, they do- they does the service in Inuktitut and they does everything, the weddings and funerals, and. (Tim, 1m)

Note that indented and numbered examples are not italicised. If you refer back to these sentences, you should use the example number, as illustrated above.

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

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

If you are writing about a language other than English, you may need to provide morphological glossing. You can learn more about this by consulting the Leipzig Glossing Rules: <http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>

6.2 Conversations

When quoting from a recorded conversation, you first need to transcribe the conversation by using the conventions given by your instructor. Usually, in the field of conversation analysis, we use the conventions by Jefferson (2004)². You will find them in the Appendix. Respect those conventions, and write the transcript by using the font "Courier" in size 11. Every transcript you use should be titled "Extract 1; Extract 2; etc.", and each line should be numbered. This will help you referring to specific parts of the quote. In order to align the lines, insert a "tab space" (press on your keyboard the "→" button) between the number of the line, the name of the speaker, and the spoken discourse of the speaker.

² Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G.H. Lerner (ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies from the First Generation* (pp. 13–31). John Benjamins Publishing Company.

When the transcription is done, you can insert it in your text. Before you introduce the extract, make sure that you contextualize it. After the extract, describe what the linguistic feature is doing in the extract and explain how that supports your argument. If you directly quote a word from the extract, you don't need to write it with the font "Courier". Here is an example adapted from Antaki (2008, p. 30–31) that illustrates that:

Now consider another example in Extract 6 where a therapist replays to the client what are ostensibly the client's own words in order to get a sense of her client's life history. But note again that the therapist has deleted some material, selected what suits the interests at hand, and edited its design and terminology.

Extract 6

01 Therapist: .hhh so you work out yer months notice
 02 Client: [Yeh [(an we got
 03 Therapist: [Can we look at that [bit of time
 04 (0.5)
 05 Client: An we got made redundant
 06 Therapist: Yeah
 07 (0.9)
 08 Client: .phhh an you so you're you've just finished work
 09 (0.4)
 10 Therapist: You must have not known what to do with yourself
 11 after twenty years
 12 Client: I didn't do
 13 (1.1)
 14 I came (.) came to (0.4) eh I found it very hard
 15 I don't (.) get on with that
 16 (1.5)
 17 Therapist: So you found it very difficult [to adjust
 18 Client: [yeh] yeh

At line 17, the psychologist offers back to the client what is ostensibly a simple summary of all that he has said; but notice that, in doing so, she has deleted some parts of the account (most obviously, her own Socratic questioning at lines 8 and 10–11) and has rephrased his experience so as to be more articulate, and to accord better with a psychological concept. Instead of his halting delivery at lines 14–15 which ends with the idiomatic "I don't (.) get on with that," she offers the psychological reading "you found it very hard to adjust."

6.3 Introducing concepts

If you introduce technical concepts in your text, you can highlight them with double quotes, single quotes or capitals. You should be consistent, however, once you have decided which format to use. Avoid italics for this purpose. There are three different ways that you can do this in a linguistics paper:

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

Quotation marks or capital letters should not be repeated after you have introduced the concept.

6.4 Emphasis

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

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

6.5 Numbers

When including numbers in your essay, follow English conventions. This means that you must use a point rather than a comma to indicate the decimal, e.g. “25.4% of speakers”. You must also place a comma every third digit to the left of the decimal point, e.g. “1,000,000”. If a number starts a sentence, you must write the number in full, e.g. “Ten was the answer that he gave”.

6.6 Tables and figures

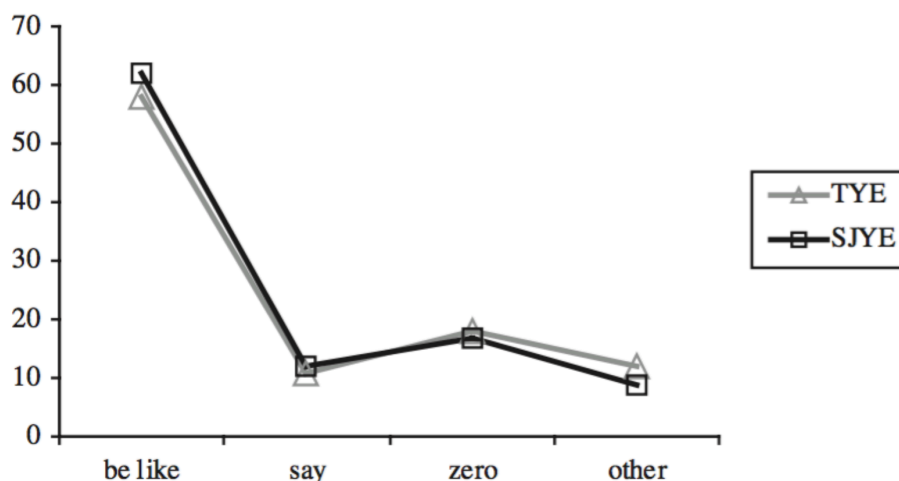
In an empirical paper, it is often helpful (for both you and the reader) to display your data graphically in tables or in figures such as bar charts, line charts, etc. **Using a table or a figure does not mean that you need not explain its contents**, but they can make findings clearer. Often, a combination of tables and figures is the best route, though it does depend on the type of data you are working with. All figures must have a title and a legend; all tables must have a clear title and headings. Titles should go above the figures and tables.

In the following examples, you can see that the table is clearly labelled with a descriptive title, and the chart is clearly labelled with both a descriptive title and a legend explaining what is being represented. The numbers allow you to refer to the tables and figures in the running text. If you have a lot of abbreviations in your table, you should also have a key to the abbreviations.

Table 1. Overall distribution of quotative verbs in St. John’s youth English (D’Arcy, 2004, p. 332)

Quotative	%	N
be like	62	114
Say	13	23
zero	17	31
miscellaneous	9	16
Total		184

Figure 1. Comparison of the overall distribution of quotatives (%) in St. John’s youth English and Toronto youth English (D’Arcy, 2004, p. 332)



6.7 IPA symbols

When using IPA symbols (or, indeed, any “non-standard” symbols), make sure that the symbol you are using actually shows up in the printout/digital copy that you submit. For phonetic symbols, the easiest way is to use a Unicode font set that includes the symbols. Once they show up on your computer screen as you want them to, save the file as a .pdf file. This embeds the symbols, so that you can print your file on any printer or submit via Moodle without losing the symbols. If you do not have a Unicode font with phonetic

symbols installed on your computer, you can use either an online IPA keyboard, e.g. <http://ipa.typeit.org/>, or download fonts from the SIL or other sources, e.g. <http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/resource/phonetics.php>. Be sure to check the final copy before submission to ensure that all phonetic (or other) symbols are visible and correct. Remember that if a transcription is phonetic we use square brackets, but if a transcription is phonemic, we use slanted brackets.

6.8 Footnotes and endnotes

In linguistics, footnotes are not used for references; they are instead used in very specific ways. (See the next section for referencing in linguistics papers.) Endnotes should not be used in linguistics papers.

Footnotes are not required in an essay and should be used sparingly. They should be brief and focus on only one subject.

Footnotes are appropriate if you want to direct your reader to further relevant sources or if you would like to add information that could be useful but is not critical to your essay. It is also possible to employ footnotes for material of an explanatory nature that does not fit into the flow of the body of the text but this must be done very carefully and only occasionally. If you find that your paper has many footnotes, you should revisit them and determine if they actually contribute usefully to the essay.

6.9 Quoting material in a language other than English

In linguistics, we often quote material (either primary data or secondary sources) that are not in English. In these cases, it is necessary to include a translation into English.

When showcasing primary data as an example (see Section 6.1 above), present the material in the original language, followed by a translation into English. This translation can come beside or below the original language, as you can see below:

(12) châkwân û?
'Who's this?' (Jancewicz & Nabinicaboo, 2006, p. 221)

OR

(12) châkwân û? 'Who's this?' (Jancewicz & Nabinicaboo, 2006, p. 221)

In some texts, you will see extra detail, also known as the gloss. A gloss is a brief annotation that gives the meaning of the morphemes in the example, exemplified below. This is typically reserved for structural linguistics.

(13) miskominag 'raspberries'
miskw-imin-ag
RED-BERRY-PLURAL (Newell & Piggott, 2006, p. 278)

Translations of short quotations from primary or secondary material can either be placed in a footnote or incorporated into the body of your essay immediately after the quotation. This is largely dependent on the length of the quotation. The goal is to incorporate the translation in a way that does not interrupt the reading of your essay.

Model 1: As Gardey (2019, p. 48) explains, Freud is both progressive for his time in considering "la vie sexuelle des femmes comme indispensable à leur épanouissement"¹ and a man of his time in maintaining "une différence d'ordre ontologique entre le masculin, qui a fonction de référent, et le féminin, qui est défini par l'absence et le manque".² (Mabut, 2020, p. 10)

¹ 'women's sexual life as essential to their fulfilment' (my translation unless otherwise noted).

² 'an ontological difference between the masculine functioning as referent and the feminine defined by an absence and a void'.

Model 2: Akin (2017, p. 134) argues that there is a "réelle situation de plurilinguisme" ['real situation of multilingualism'], where migrants are already bilingual when they settle in France, in Kurdish and the language that they learned at school before migration. (Paixao Domingues, 2021, p. 24)

Longer excerpts should be translated in a paragraph below the original text, set between square brackets.

- (1) Physical and symbolic division at the table between companions and residential project participants. Interview with Rita, 27 February 2008. My translation from Catalan.

la comunicació està clar que és difícil perquè, aquí som bilingües català i castellà per lo tant, compartirem menjar i ja ho veuràs, d'entrada, els de la casa es posen en un cantó i els immigrants en un altre vale? això ja ho fem molt malament, nosaltres ens parlem perquè és clar és l'únic moment de trobada de tots al migdia.

[Communication is obviously difficult because here we are Catalan-Spanish bilinguals and so we will share food and you will see that, straight away, the people from the house sit at one end and the immigrants at the other, right? It's wrong for us to do this, we speak to each other because of course it's the only time we all get together, at lunchtime.]

(Garrido, 2019, p. 148)

This principle also applies to block quotations from secondary sources that are written in languages other than English.

7 REFERENCING

In linguistics, the way to cite material is different from what you have been taught for your literature classes. **You must not use the referencing style presented in *EDGE*** for your linguistics papers; instead, you are expected to follow the linguistics style sheet (see Section 7.2 below). Note that the APA 7 style is used here.

7.1 In-text referencing

When referring to someone else's work in your text, references must be included in the body of the text **within parentheses**.

When citing a source, you must include the author(s)'s surname and the work's year of publication; for direct quotation and paraphrasing, you must also include the page number(s). As a rule of thumb, you should make sure that you **give the reader enough information** in the text to allow her or him **to find the passage referred to** as easily as possible, **and to locate the full bibliographical information** in the list of references you will include at the end of your essay.

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

Schiffrin (1994) does not agree.

Schiffrin (1994, p. 97) underlines that

... According to Schiffrin (1994), ...

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

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

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

A source may have **more than one author or editor**, in which case you mention them all unless there are more than three. Use the abbreviation *et al.* (“et alia”, latin for “and others”) when there are more than three.

If you quote an online source that does not have page numbers, indicate the paragraph or section number:

As Paliwala (2012, sec 2.1) states in his report on census data, ...

Wong (2014, para. 5) observes in her online newspaper article that ...

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

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

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

Some books have **multiple editions**. Make sure that you take the page numbers from the edition you used. However, the year of the original publication has to be mentioned as well if it differs from the year of your edition:

(De Saussure, [1916] 1974, p. 13)

When quoting from a television show, give the title of the show and the title and number of the episode:

LORELEI: Rory called.

LUKE: I know! She called and yelled at me.

LORELEI: No, she called and yelled at me!

LUKE: Yeah, but I’m the one who had to hear it, and she was loud! And she said – ‘hell’. I never heard her say ‘hell’. I didn’t even know she knew how to say ‘hell’. She was mad and she yelled and she said ‘hell’.

LORELEI: Yea, but she called.

(*Gilmore Girls*, episode 6.07 ‘Twenty-one is the loneliest number’)

For films, give the title and the time stamp (example from *EDGE 19*):

After bearing witness to his daughter’s kidnapping while talking to her on the phone, Bryan Mills threatens his daughter’s aggressor:

I don't know who you are. I don't know what you want. If you are looking for ransom, I can tell you I don't have money. But what I do have are a very particular set of skills, skills I have acquired over a very long career. Skills that make me a nightmare for people like you. If you let my daughter go now, that'll be the end of it. I will not look for you, I will not pursue you. But if you don't, I will look for you, I will find you, and I will kill you.

(*Taken* 00:35:36–00:36:23)

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

7.2 Linguistics style sheet (for your reference list)

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

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

There are many different style sheets employed in linguistics as every organisation, publisher or journal may have their own house styles. For you, this means that you will come across different citation styles in your readings, but you are expected to follow the APA-style by the American Psychological Association.

Note that sites such as Academia.edu, ResearchGate, and Semantic Scholar are repositories of articles, book chapters, etc.; they are not journals or publishers. If you find an article through a repository, it is your responsibility to find the correct citation information, i.e. which journal, book, etc. it was published in. If you are having trouble figuring this out, you can contact your instructor or a tutor, so long as you are doing this appropriately in advance of your essay's deadline.

7.2.1 Referencing books

The general rules for books are:

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). *Title of the book: Subtitle*. Publisher.

Editor's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Ed.) (Year). *Title of the book: Subtitle*. Publisher.

Note: *The title is italicised. Pay attention to punctuation.*

The list of references will follow the **alphabetical order of the first author's or editor's names**. Use a **hanging indent** for each bibliographical entry (see format in the examples below).

When there are multiple authors or editors, the surname is always given before the initial of the first name.

Author 1's surname, initial(s) of Author 1's first name(s), Author 2's surname, initial(s) of Author 2's first name(s). (Year). *Title of the book: Subtitle*. Publisher.

Editor's surname, initial(s) of first name(s), Editor 2's surname, initial(s) of first name(s) (Eds.) (Year). *Title of the book: Subtitle*. Publisher.

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

Examples:

Atkinson, M., Kilby, D. & Roca, I. (1982). *Foundations of general linguistics*. George Allen & Unwin.

- Culpeper, J., Kerswill, P., Wodak, R., McEnery, T. & Katamba, F. (2018). *English language: Description, variation and context* (2nd ed.). Palgrave.
- Haugen, E. (1966a). Dialect, language, nation. *American Anthropologist*, 68, 922-935.
- Haugen, E. (1966b). *Language conflict and language planning: The case of Modern Norwegian*. Harvard University Press.
- Michaels, L. & Ricks, Ch. (Eds.) (1980). *The state of the language*. University of California Press.
- Schiffrin, D. (Ed.) (1984). *Meaning, form, and use in context: Linguistic applications*. Georgetown University Press.
- Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schiffrin, D. (1994). *Approaches to discourse*. Blackwell.
- Van Maanen, J. (Ed.). (1988). *Tales of the field: On writing ethnography*. University of Chicago Press.

NB: This is the format you should use even if you have read only one chapter from the book, e.g. if you are referencing only quotations from chapter 3 from Schiffrin (1994), you would still cite the entire work not the specific chapter. Specific chapters are only cited in edited volumes.

7.2.2 Referencing book chapters in edited volumes

The general rules for book chapters are:

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

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

Example:

Labov, W. (1972). Rules for ritual insults. In D. Sudnow (Ed.), *Studies in social interaction* (pp. 120-169). Free Press.

7.2.3 Referencing journal articles

The general rules for journal articles are:

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

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

Examples:

McCarthy, M. & Carter, R. (1997). Grammar, tails and affect: Constructing expressive choices in discourse. *Text*, 17(3), 405-429.

Milroy, J. (1997). Internal vs external motivations for linguistic change. *Multilingua*, 16(4), 311-323.

If you have an electronic article that was only published online, or has been published online ahead of being published in print, indicate the DOI number (the digital object identifier). If one is not available, use the URL.

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). Title of article. *Name of Website or Journal*. URL.

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). Title of article. *Name of Website or Journal*.
<https://doi.number>.

Note: *The title of the article is not italicised and not capitalised. The online journal title is italicised and capitalised.*

Examples:

Gawne, L. & McCulloch, G. (2019). Emoji as digital gesture. *Language@Internet*, 17, article 2.
<https://www.languageatinternet.org/articles/2019/gawne/>.

Herring, S. C. (1999). Interactional coherence in CMC. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 4(4). <http://www.ascurs.org/jcmc/vol4/issue4/herring.html>.

Rezazadeh, M. & Zarrinabadi, N. (2020). Examining need for closure and need for cognition as predictors of foreign language anxiety and enjoyment, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1798972>

7.2.4 Referencing theses and dissertations

The general rules for theses and dissertations are:

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). *Title of thesis or dissertation* [Type of work, University Name]. Source. URL if available.

Note: *The title of the thesis or dissertation is italicised. Pay attention to punctuation.*

Examples:

Hazenberg, E. (2012). *Language and identity practice: A sociolinguistic study of gender in Ottawa, Ontario* [MA thesis, Memorial University]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.

Poser, W. (1984). *The phonetics and phonology of tone and intonation in Japanese* [PhD dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology].

7.2.5 Referencing unpublished manuscripts

The general rules for unpublished manuscripts are:

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (No date). Title of manuscript [Unpublished ms., University Name]. URL if available. Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Note: The title of the manuscript is **not** italicised and **not** capitalised. Don't forget the exact URL and access date.

Example:

Sundell T. R. (2009). Metalinguistic disagreement [Unpublished ms., Northwestern University]. <http://faculty.wcas.northwestern.edu/~trs341/papers.html>. Accessed on: 1/11/2010.

7.2.6 Referencing electronic sources

The general rules for electronic sources are:

Author's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). Title of article or page. *Name of Website*, day month. URL. Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Note: The title of the article or page is **not** italicised and **not** capitalised. The website or journal title is italicised and capitalised. Don't forget the exact URL and access date.

Note: For newspaper articles, blog posts and any other material with a specific posting date, you must add the day and month after the name of the site. You can skip this if there is no specific date on the page you are referencing.

Examples:

Davies, M. (2008-) *The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA): One billion words, 1990-2019*. <https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/>. Accessed on: 22/01/2020.

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

Driffill, R. (2017). From Seaspeak to Singlish: Celebrating other kinds of English. *The Guardian*, 11 March. <https://www.theguardian.com/media/mind-your-language/2017/mar/11/from-seaspeak-to-singlish-celebrating-other-kinds-of-english>. Accessed on: 12/08/2019.

Mair, V. (2016). What's in a name – Pikachu, Beikaciu, Pikaqiu? *Language Log*, 31 May. <https://languagelog.ldc.upenn.edu/nll/?p=26035>. Accessed on: 5/05/2019.

United Nations, General Assembly, *Situation of human rights in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea: report of the Secretary-General, A/63/332* (26 August 2008). undocs.org/en/A/63/332. Accessed on 31/03/2015.

7.2.7 Referencing online media (YouTube, Instagram, etc.)

The general rules for videos are:

Name of person or organisation posting video (if a person: Author's name, initial(s) of first name(s)). (Year). *Title of Video*. URL. Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Note: *The title of the video is italicised and capitalised. Don't forget the exact URL and access date. Remember to add the specific posting date after the name of the site.*

Example:

BritishCouncilSerbia. (2013). *David Crystal - Will English Always Be the Global Language?* <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5Kvs8SxN8mc>. Accessed on: 07/12/2015.

The general rules for posts (Instagram, Facebook, TikTok, etc.) are:

Account holder's surname, initial(s) of first name(s). (Year). Title of post. *Site Name*, other contributors, day month. URL. Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Note: *The title of the post is **not** italicised and **not** capitalised. The site name is italicised and capitalised. Don't forget the exact URL and access date.*

Note: *If there is no title, provide a short description instead.*

Example:

National Geographic. (2017). Photo of Bering Sea. *Instagram*, photographed by Corey Arnold, 2 April. <http://www.instagram.com/p/BSaisVuDk7S/?taken-by=natgeo>. Accessed on 23/11/2018.

The general rules for accounts (Instagram, YouTube, Twitter, etc.) are:

Account holder's surname, initial(s) of first name(s) (@USERNAME). n.d.. *Title of account*. Site Name. URL. Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Note: *The username is only needed if applicable, e.g. Twitter, TikTok, Instagram.*

Note: *"n.d." stands for "no date".*

Note: *The title of the account is italicised and **not** capitalised. The site name is **not** italicised and is capitalised. Don't forget the exact URL and access date.*

Example:

Calhoun, K. (@_kendracalhoun). n.d. Twitter. https://twitter.com/_kendracalhoun. Accessed on 23/08/2022.

Mena, M. n.d. *The Social Life of Language: Theorizing Language and Race*. YouTube.

https://www.youtube.com/channel/UC7H1rLtG-2UOOVk_sD6uBUA. Accessed on 23/08/2022.

7.2.8 Referencing the OED

When referring to the *Oxford English Dictionary Online* in general, you can use the following citation format:

OED Online. (Year of access). *The Oxford English Dictionary Online*. Oxford University Press. URL.
Accessed on: dd/mm/yyyy.

Example:

OED Online. (2016). *The Oxford English Dictionary Online*. Oxford University Press.
<http://www.oed.com>. Accessed on: 3/11/2016.

When you refer to a specific entry in the OED, let's say the noun and interjection *word*, this should be indicated in the reference as follows:

Example:

Word, n. and int. (2016). *The Oxford English Dictionary Online*. Oxford University Press.
<http://www.oed.com/view/Entry/230192?rskey=nL8gm3&result=1&isAdvanced=false>.
Accessed on: 3/11/2016.

7.2.9 Referencing films, television series, or podcasts

When referring to a film or television series, you can use the following citation format:

Title of Film. (Year). Directed by First Name Surname. Studio.

Title of Television or Podcast Series. (Year(s)). Created by First Name Surname. Network.

Example:

I Weigh with Jameela Jamil. (2020-). Created by Jameela Jamil. Earwolf.
Only Murders in the Building. (2021-). Created by Steve Martin and John Hoffman. Hulu.
Schitt's Creek. (2015-2020). Created by Dan Levy and Eugene Levy. CBC.
Selling Sunset. (2019-). Created by Adam DiVello. Netflix.
The Fifth Element. (1997). Directed by Luc Besson. Sony Pictures.

If your work focuses on a single episode of a series or podcast, you can use the following citation format:

*Title of Television Series. Season #, episode #, "Title of episode". Directed by First Name Surname.
Aired on: dd/mm/yyyy. Network.*

Title of Podcast Series. Episode #, "Title of episode". Available on: dd/mm/yyyy. Network.

N.B. You can add a season for podcasts if relevant.

Example:

I Weigh with Jameela Jamil. Episode 125. "Thriving in the non-binary with Travis Alabanza". Available on: 26/08/2022. Earwolf.

Only Murders in the Building. Season 2, episode 1. "Persons of interest". Directed by John Hoffman. Aired on: 28 June 2022. Hulu.

8 RESOURCES FOR ENGLISH LINGUISTICS

Finding appropriate scholarly resources is often a challenge for students. This section of this manual will help you find books, articles, etc. for your linguistics paper, using resources available through the library and online.

8.1 Search strategies in library catalogues and databases

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

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

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

- Bibliography of Linguistic Literature Database (BLLD)
- Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA)
- Modern Language Association International Bibliography (MLA)
- Education Resources Information Center (ERIC)

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

8.2 Library catalogue

Réseau Vaudois des bibliothèques

<http://renouvaud.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/>

Includes books available in Lausanne and the Canton de Vaud.

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

8.3 Recommended professional websites

- **Google Scholar:** <http://scholar.google.ch/>. Allows more specific searches for research related sites only, gives access to many previews of publications
- **Language Log University of Pennsylvania:** <http://itre.cis.upenn.edu/%7Eemyl/language-log/>
- **Linguistic Resources on the Internet:** <http://www-01.sil.org/linguistics/topical.html>
- **Linguistic Data Consortium:** <http://www ldc.upenn.edu/>. Access to corpus data and corpus software
- **Corpus linguistics:** <http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/>. Bibliography of various corpora (alphabetical list available)
- **Linguistic Society of America:** <http://www.linguisticsociety.org/>. A variety of resources about linguistics for linguists, for media, for the general public

9 HOW YOUR LINGUISTICS PAPER IS EVALUATED

The assessment criteria will be provided by your instructor on the course Moodle page. We strongly encourage you to review this document and to keep the descriptors in mind when working on your papers.

10 APPENDIX: ADAPTED JEFFERSON TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEM

Adapted from Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G.H. Lerner (ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies from the First Generation*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. pp. 13–31.

	Symbol	Definition and use
Timing of sequence	yeah [she is] [okay]	Square brackets show where the speech of different speakers overlap
	left it = = yea	End of one TCU and beginning of next begin with <u>no gap/pause</u> in between (sometimes a slight overlap if there is speaker change). Can also be used when TCU continues on new line in transcript.
	(.)	A micropause – a silence of less than 1 second.
	(1.4)	A timed pause – the seconds of silences
Voice quality	<u>word</u>	<u>Underlining</u> indicates emphasis or raise in volume. Placement indicates which syllable(s) are emphasized.
	Wo:::rd	Colon indicates prolonged vowel or consonant. 1 colon = 0.5 seconds.
	↑word ↓word	Marked shift in pitch, up (↑) or down (↓). Double arrows can be used with extreme pitch shifts.
	word. word, word_ word¿ word?	Markers of final pitch direction at TCU boundary : “ . ” Final falling intonation “ , ” Slight rising intonation “ _ ” Level/flat intonation “ ¿ ” Medium (falling-)rising intonation (a dip and a rise) “ ? ” Sharp rising intonation
	WORD	Capital case indicates syllables or words louder than surrounding speech by the same speaker
°word°	Degree sign indicate syllables or words distinctly quieter than surrounding speech by the same speaker	

Speed	>word<	Right-left carats indicate increased speaking rate (speeding up)
	<word>	Left-right carats indicate a decreased speaking rate (slowing down)
Airflow	. hhh	Inbreath. Three “h” indicate normal duration. Longer or shorter inbreaths indicated with fewer or more letters.
	hhh	Outbreath. Three “h” indicate normal duration. Longer or shorter inbreaths indicated with fewer or more letters.
	whhhord	The “hhh” indicate breathiness within a word.
	(h) (h) (h) w(h)ord	Several “(h)” indicate laughing. Each “(h)” is a “ha”. The “(h)” indicates abrupt spurts of breathiness, as in laughing while talking
Comments of analyst	{word} { }	curly brackets signal an uncertain word; if you don’t understand the pronounced word at all, leave empty space between the curly brackets
	{{John points to the table}}	Double curly brackets serve to add your comments so that the reader understand better what is happening visually
	word	Use bold when you want to highlight a word, line or passage that is important for your analysis.