

Style sheet

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Introduction

Please read this style sheet with utmost care and keep it in a safe place. It is designed to help you with matters of formatting and referencing and to avoid plagiarism. You may need to refer back to it throughout your writing experience.

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1 General formatting points

1. Your essay needs to be **word-processed**
2. If a paper copy is required, it should be **stapled** in the top left corner.
3. Write your **full name** and e-mail address on the first page of your essay.
4. You may use a **title page** for essays of more than five pages. Do not forget to include the essay question as you agreed it with me.
5. Set reasonable **margins**, e.g. 2.5 cm for top and bottom, and 3 cm for left and right.
6. Use a **serif** font (e.g. Times, Times New Roman, Book Antiqua, Cambria) at 12 pt.¹
7. Set **line spacing** at 1.5.
8. **Indent** the first line of your paragraphs (e.g. by 1cm). You do not need additional extra space between paragraphs.
9. Justify your **paragraphs**.
10. Use numbered **headings** in bold. Do not use a full stop after the last number. Avoid more than three levels of numberings (1, 1.1, 1.1.1 (sparingly), but not 1.1.1.1).
11. You can only have a numbered subheading if there are more than one. If there is 1.1, there must also be at least 1.2.
12. Use either **British or American** spelling, be consistent (e.g. ⟨-ise⟩ only in conjunction with ⟨colour⟩, etc.).
13. Use a **spell-checker**.
14. Watch your **grammar**. *It's* and *its* are not the same, neither are *they're*, *their*, and *there*.
15. Use **in-line references**, not footnotes. See section 4.3.
16. **Quotation marks** follow a certain format: be consistent! Opening quotation marks are always immediately followed by the first word of the quote, without intervening space. There is no space either between the last word of the quote and the closing one, as in “this example”. Follow the 66–99 rule: opening marks look like 66 (“) and closing ones like 99 (”). Alternatively, use straight quotes (") for both. Single quotation marks follow the same format: 6 (‘) and 9 (’), or straight (') . **Do not use** non-English marks such as French ones (« quote ») or German ones („quote“ or »quote«). There are two accepted **formats** of using single and double quotation marks:

¹This is a serif font. This is a sans-serif font.

- (a) If you use double quotation marks for quotes, use single quotation marks for **quotes within quotes**: “this so-called ‘anomaly’ is in fact widespread”.
- (b) If you use single quotation marks for quotes, use double quotation marks for quotes within quotes: ‘this so-called “anomaly” is in fact widespread’.










Be careful where you place **punctuation** with respect to quotation marks: if your quote is only a part of your own sentence, any punctuation following it comes after the closing quote, as in (1) below. If however you quote a stand-alone sentence, include all punctuation within the quotation marks, as in (2).²

- (1) The relevance of historical linguistics has recently been reaffirmed by Crystal (2007: 90), who says it ‘gives us unique insight into human society and identity’. Nonetheless, the synchronic orientation of current sociolinguistic study has its advantages too.
 - (2) ‘Studying language change is important because it gives us unique insight into human society and identity.’ (Crystal 2007: 90) Nonetheless, the synchronic orientation of current sociolinguistic study has its advantages too.
17. The **apostrophe** looks like a closing quotation mark, i.e. like a little 9 (that’s right, that’s wrong, that’s/that`s even worse).³
18. **Numbers** should be formatted in the English way with regards to decimal and thousands separators: ‘The UK had a population of 58,789,194 in 2001; 4.94 % of them lived in Wales.’

2 Subject-specific formatting points

- 1. Use **standard IPA** symbols (i.e. /tʃ/ rather than /č/).
- 2. Download a **phonetic font** (e.g. Doulos SIL⁴ or Times New Roman Phonetic⁵). Try to avoid sans-serif shortcuts like Arial Unicode MS.
- 3. Use the **correct brackets** for phonemic (e.g. /t/) and phonetic (e.g. [ʔ]) transcription.
- 4. To represent **orthographic spelling**, use angled brackets⁶ (e.g. ⟨β⟩ vs. ⟨ss⟩).

²Some argue that this is a matter of US vs. UK convention. Please let logic prevail and follow the guidelines herein.

³The apostrophe can be input with  +  +  on German keyboards, with  +  +  on a French AZERTY keyboard, and with  +  +  on Swiss keyboards. Both the US and the UK keyboards have it two keys to the right of L. Set your word-processor’s language to English and it should format it correctly.

⁴<http://scripts.sil.org/doulosSILfont>

⁵<http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/phonetic/fonts/phfonts.htm>

⁶The L^AT_EX commands are $\langle \rangle$ and $\langle \rangle$. Use the ‘Insert symbol’ command in MS Word or the character viewer on MacOS X systems. If you can’t find them, use single guillemets (‹a›), or, if all else fails, the technically incorrect greater-than and less-than signs (<a>).

5. Single quotation marks (‘’) are used to denote meaning: ‘the Italian *fattoria* ‘farm’ and *factory* are false friends’ (even within single quotation marks according to formatting rule 16 above).
6. You should use **examples** to illustrate your points. Examples in languages unlikely to be understood by the lecturer⁷ need to be glossed: refer to the Leipzig Glossing Rules⁸ for conventions. Examples are numbered in brackets, as below. Sub-examples are listed a., b., etc.:

- (3) Wǒ kàn le zhè běn shū
1SG read PFV this CLF book
‘I [red] this book.’
- (4) a. The cat ate the mouse.
b. (i) The mouse was eaten by the cat.
(ii) The mouse was eaten.

Avoid third-level examples, which are numbered with lower-case roman numerals.

7. **Text decorations**, in linguistics essays, carry meaning:
 - **Bold** is reserved for headings and titles.
 - *Italics* are used for letters, words and sentences which serve as linguistic examples, e.g. ‘the expression *to scratch one’s head* comes from the physical act of doing so while in deep thought’ or in ‘similarly to *nice*, the demonym *Welsh* has an interesting etymology’. They are also used for non-English words in the body of your text, as in ‘the *Mundarten* of Switzerland enjoy high prestige’. Emphatic italicisations should be used very sparingly. **Do not** use italics for quotations (unless the original has italics).
 - Underlined text is limited to highlighting elements under investigation: ‘spellings that are different in North America from other English-speaking areas include ⟨center⟩, ⟨color⟩, and ⟨aluminum⟩, for instance’.
 - Use SMALL CAPITALS for Wells’ lexical sets: TRAP, DRESS, CAUGHT, etc.

3 Minor formatting points







1. Especially for longer theses, consider the use of **L^AT_EX**,⁹ a powerful, platform-independent typesetting system that outputs essays as PDF documents. The learning curve is steep, but full of rewards. Packages of interest for linguistics essays include `linguex`, `tipa`, and `qtree`.

⁷Deciding on whether to gloss an example or not depends also on whether the gloss reveals anything of interest.

⁸Available at <http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>.

⁹See e.g. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/LaTeX>.

2. **Dashes and hyphens** are not the same. Use them according to the table below.

Glyph	Name	Usage	Input
-	Hyphen	Compounds, hyphenation (<i>son-in-law, 15-year-old child, stress-timed language</i>)	
–	En-dash	Ranges, connections (<i>1914–1918, Monday–Friday, the Dorking–Inverness isogloss, vowel–consonant distinction</i>)	 + 
—	Em-dash	Parenthetical comment (<i>this theory — previously formulated by Smith (2003) — is of interest</i>) ¹⁰	 +  + 

4 Referencing and citing¹¹

Whenever you use material from someone else, e.g. from a textbook, a journal article, a website, etc., you need to tell the reader i) that it is not yours and ii) where it was taken from.

4.1 Direct quotations

The first of these is achieved by the use of quotation marks: everything that you take from any source needs to be clearly marked. Quotes must be exactly as in the original. Sometimes changes are necessary, in which case you can highlight changes with **square brackets**. You can also use [...] to indicate passages left out, or insert your own material in []. ‘Of these [languages], [...] 100 are very close to extinction’. If there are mistakes in the original (or highlighting of any kind) which you wish to distance yourself from, you can indicate this by putting [sic] after the item in question.

Never start or end a quotation with **ellipses**. (5) is wrong, (6) is correct. It is obvious that the author has written something before and after your quote.

- (5) According to Crystal (2007: 90), it ‘[...] gives us unique insight [...]’ that can be helpful.
- (6) According to Crystal (2007: 90), it ‘gives us unique insight’ that can be helpful.

¹⁰You may also use an en-dash – always set off by spaces on either side – in place of the em-dash for this purpose.

¹¹Thanks to Sandra Kotzor for help with earlier versions of the following three sections.

Short quotations as part of running text

Original text:

‘In Australia, for instance, there used to be about 200 aboriginal languages. Of these, 50 are already dead, and another 100 are very close to extinction. Perhaps as few as 30 will make it to the year 2000.’ (Trudgill 1995: 177)

Your text:

The extent of language death has been illustrated by Trudgill (1995), who takes the example of Australian languages: ‘50 [were] already dead’ when his book was published, and he suggested that ‘perhaps as few as 30 [would] make it to the year 2000’ (Trudgill 1995: 177).

Longer quotations

When quoting a longer passage (usually three or more lines), which is not integrated into the text, it should be presented in a smaller font (11 or 10 pt), indented by 1 cm and single-spaced. Quotation marks are not necessary in this case as the formatting indicates that it is a quotation.

Since words differ in their semantic (and other) properties, different semantic classes of words (e.g., gradable adjectives, achievement verbs, gendered nouns) contrast in different ways, giving rise to the different antonym types observed. (Murphy 2003: 215)

4.2 Indirect quotations & paraphrasing

As already mentioned above, you do not only have to clearly mark material directly taken from others’ work but also ideas, arguments and concepts. Therefore you might paraphrase another author’s work or simply use one of their central ideas. Even when using no words from the original text, the source has to be displayed clearly. The following examples illustrate this:

- (7) The importance of culture concerning the interpretation of utterances has already been noted by Malinowski (1923) when he stated that to understand utterances made in a particular cultural context cultural knowledge is an absolute necessity.
- (8) This seems to support the idea that lexical items with similar phonological realisations are stored close to each other and therefore readily come to mind when one of the networks is activated (cf. Aitchison 1994: 209ff).

In these cases, it is not always necessary to include page numbers as a particular idea could well be expressed in various places in the same publication. If it can be pinpointed to certain pages, it is useful to include these (as in example (8)).

4.3 In-line references

You now need to tell the reader where you got your information from. This is achieved by **in-line referencing**, which means that the quote is followed by brackets containing the author's surname, the year of publication, a colon, and the page number (as in the examples below). This refers to a **list of references**, which is included at the very end of your essay and lists all works you refer to.

- (9) 'Accents and dialects exist to give a vocal identity to regional and social communities.' (Crystal 2007: 76)
- (10) *Dialect* is not a 'particularly clear-cut or watertight concept' (Trudgill 1995: 3), and neither is *language*.
- (11) Baba Malay is thought to have had a 'very important influence on [Singapore English]' (Ho & Platt 1993: 9).

Note how punctuation marks come after the reference. The reference is part of the sentence.

Where **one author quotes another**, the quote should be as in the text you have in front of you, and the reference in the following form:

- (12) In a post-creole continuum, the 'difference between any variety and its neighbours is minimal' (DeCamp 1971: 357, quoted in Ho & Platt 1993: 37).

5 List of references

1. Your **list of references** (*not* a 'bibliography') comes at the very end of your essay.
2. It lists **all** materials you have used for your work — but **only** those you have used.
3. Entries are listed **alphabetically** by main author surname.
4. The first line of each entry has a **hanging indent**, and there is an **additional line** between entries.
5. Follow the **referencing style** below. **Do not** use the margin notes ('monographs', etc.) used below for ease of reference.

Aitchison, Jean. 1994. *Words in the Mind*. Blackwell.

Crystal, David. 2007. *The Fight for English: How language pundits ate, shot, and left*. Oxford University Press.

Murphy, M. Lynne. 2003. *Semantic Relations and the Lexicon*. Cambridge University Press.

Monographs

- Trudgill, Peter. 1995. *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society*. 4th edition. Penguin.
- Ho, Mian-Lian & John T. Platt. 1993. *Dynamics of a Contact Continuum: Singaporean English*. Oxford University Press. Books with several authors
- O’Grady, William, Michael Dobrovolsky & Francis Katamba. 1996. *Contemporary Linguistics: An introduction*. 3rd edition. Longman.
- Hüllen, Werner & Rainer Schulze, eds. 1988. *Understanding the lexicon: Meaning, sense and world knowledge in lexical semantics*. Niemeyer. Edited volumes
- Lyons, John. 1977. *Semantics*. 2 vols. Cambridge University Press. Publications with several volumes
- Kortmann, Bernd & Edgar W. Schneider. 2008. *Varieties of English*. 4 vols. Mouton de Gruyter.
- Wells, John C. 1982. *Accents of English*. Vol. 1. Cambridge University Press.
- DeCamp, David. 1971. Towards a generative analysis of a post-creole speech continuum. In *Pidginisation and Creolisation of Languages*, ed. Dell Hymes, 349–370. Cambridge University Press. Chapters in edited books
- Labov, William. 1978. The social motivation of a sound change. In *Sociolinguistic Patterns*, ed. William Labov, 370–446. Blackwell.
- Malinowski, Bronislaw. 1923. The problem of meaning in primitive languages. In *The Meaning of Meaning: A study of the influence of language upon thought and of the science of symbolism*, ed. Charles Ogden & Ivor Richards, 296–336. Kegan.
- Cedergren, Henrietta J. & David Sankoff. 1974. Variable rules: Performance as a statistical reflection of competence. *Language* 50, 333–355. Journal articles
- Ferguson, Charles A. 1959. Diglossia. *Word* 15, 325–340.
- Lieberman, Mark. 2021. Using automatic speech-to-text in clinical applications. *Language Log*, 27 February 2021, URL <https://languagelog.ldc.upenn.edu/n11/?p=50422>, accessed 3 March 2021. Online sources
- Wikipedia. 2010. Glottochronology. *Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia*, 5 January 2010, URL <http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Glottochronology&oldid=336100767>, accessed 3 March 2021.

Online sources can be tricky, but try to follow the advice above: the **title** usually appears in your browser window, the **URL** in the address bar (but try to find a permalink where available); make sure you find an **author**, possibly a corporate one, and a **year** of publication, as in other references. Always include the **date** on which you visited the website. In the text, online sources are referenced as normal sources, e.g. Wikipedia (2010).

6 Plagiarism

6.1 What is plagiarism?

There are many definitions of plagiarism and perceptions of plagiarism differ widely. A relatively straightforward way of defining plagiarism is as ‘the failure to appropriately acknowledge original sources of any material used in your work which is not originally yours’. One university’s definition is as follows:

Plagiarism is the copying or paraphrasing of other people’s work or ideas into your own work without full acknowledgement. All published and unpublished material, whether in manuscript, printed or electronic form, is covered under this definition.

Collusion is another form of plagiarism involving the unauthorised collaboration of students (or others) in a piece of work.

<http://www.keble.ox.ac.uk/students/study-skills-and-assistance/plagiarism>

Incorrect referencing is also considered plagiarism or, at the very least, bad academic practice.

NB: Being ignorant of correct referencing procedures is not an excuse and can result in plagiarism charges being brought against you.

6.2 Examples of plagiarism

The examples below illustrate several types of plagiarism. The most obvious case, the complete copying of the original, has not been included as is it quite obvious.

Original text:

The first [reason] is that many of the near synonyms fit well into the vacant slot, so well, that they are either as good as the right word or so close a fit that no one notices the error. The other is that these types of errors are indeed rare, because the mental word-web deals with synonyms differently from contrasting co-ordinates, such as black and white, robins and thrushes. This might be because different words tend to get attached to different semantic fields [. . .]. (Aitchison 1994: 91)

- (1) One reason could be that many of the near synonyms fit so well into the empty place that they are nearly as good as the right word or so close to it that the error goes unnoticed. Another reason is that these types or errors are really rare because synonyms are treated differently from contrasting co-ordinates.

Problem: very close to the original and no referencing whatsoever (neither direct nor indirect)

- (2) One reason could be that many of the near synonyms fit so well into the vacant slot that they are nearly as good as the right word or so close to it that the error goes unnoticed. Another reason is that these types or errors

are really rare because synonyms are treated differently from contrasting co-ordinates (cf. Aitchison 1994).

Problem: indirect referencing is not enough here as some of the text is exactly the same and should have been put into quotation marks.

- (3) It has been argued that the lack of examples of speech errors where a synonymous lexeme is substituted is due to two main reasons: the difficulty in recognising such errors as the synonymous lexeme might simply go unnoticed or the fact that synonyms are stored differently from lexemes with opposing meanings, possibly even in different semantic fields.

Problem: This is a completely paraphrased version of the original and therefore no quotation marks are needed but the source should nevertheless be indicated.

- (4) One reason is that ‘many of the near synonyms fit well into the vacant slot’ and therefore ‘no one notices the error’. A second one is that ‘these types of errors are indeed rare’, as we can assume that ‘the mental word-web deals with synonyms differently from contrasting co-ordinates’, for example ‘black and white, robins and thrushes’. (Aitchison 1994: 91)

Problem: This last case is not a case of plagiarism but a case of over-reliance on a certain source. There is hardly any of the author’s own text in this paragraph and the whole argument and the wording is almost identical to the original. This is very bad academic practice but does not constitute plagiarism.

6.3 How to avoid plagiarism?

If you follow the guidelines on this style sheet and take care when referencing it should be relatively easy to avoid unintentional plagiarism.

If you are worried about not presenting enough original material in your essays — which is always a concern, especially early on in your studies — remember that the lecturer wants your take on the material rather than simply a regurgitation of the items on the reading list. If you are concerned or feel you can’t get it right, talk to the lecturer about it.