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# STYLE GUIDE

for term papers and final theses  
in linguistics  
(v1.4)

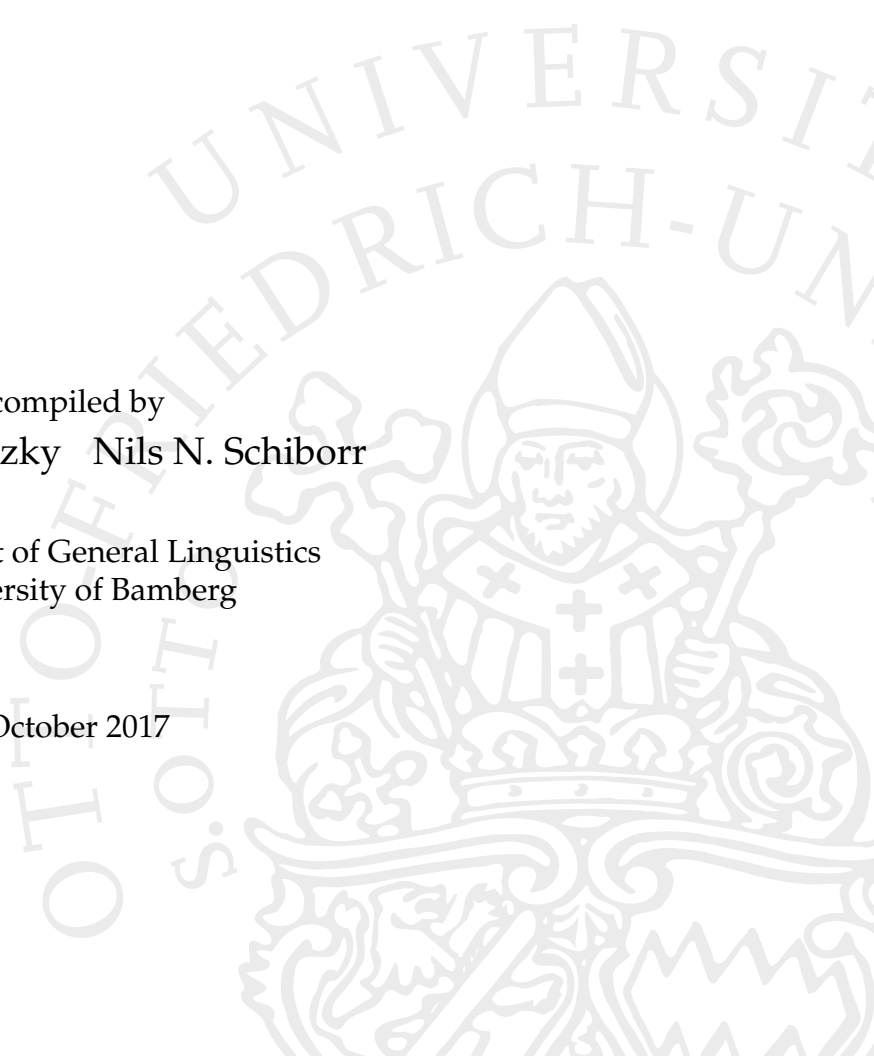
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## 1 Introduction

This guide was written with beginning writers in linguistics in mind, but its scope encompasses most of what advanced students will need to know to write theses and other scientific texts. Although it is directed towards students at the Department of General Linguistics at the University of Bamberg specifically, most of its suggestions are applicable to related fields as well.

If you are still new to the art of academic writing, we suggest you focus on writing and not worry too much about the details of style and formatting. Just be sure you have acquired the basics of how to structure your paper (Section 2), how to properly cite literature (Section 3.4), and how to manage your references (Section 4). In the Appendix, you will find two reference papers that follow all guidelines and suggestions discussed in this guide.

**Sources for the guide.** The primary sources for this guide are the foundational *Generic Style Rules for Linguistics*<sup>1</sup> maintained by Martin Haspelmath, and the *Leipzig Glossing Rules*,<sup>2</sup> both hosted by the (former) Department of Linguistics at the MPI for Evolutionary Anthropology. The sections on bibliography also reference the *Unified Style Sheet for Linguistics*.<sup>3</sup>

This guide builds in part on the *English linguistics: Style guide for seminar papers* compiled at the Department of English Linguistics, University of Bamberg.<sup>4</sup> Most style suggestions are compatible between the two guides.

We would like to thank Maria Vollmer and Nicholas Peterson for their valuable input, and for trialling the suggestions in this guide on the painful reality of writing term papers.

### 1.1 Length

The length of your paper will depend on your degree course (Bachelor Nebenfach or Master) and which module it is written in, as per Table 1. Keep in mind that simply writing a certain number of words is not the chief goal of writing a paper: good organisation, clarity of argumentation, and a formally acceptable composition are just as essential.

As the number of pages in a paper can vary substantially by how many tables, figures, and linguistic examples it contains, word counts generally serve better as a measurement of length. Most modern text processors like *Microsoft Word* and *LibreOffice Writer* will do automatic word counts for you. You are expected to indicate the overall number of words you have written at

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.eva.mpg.de/linguistics/past-research-resources/resources/generic-style-rules.html>

<sup>2</sup> <http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>

<sup>3</sup> <https://linguistlist.org/pubs/journals/>

<sup>4</sup> <https://www.uni-bamberg.de/eng-ling/leistungen/studium/stylesheet/>

	module	length in words	length in pages
BA	Profilmodul	1800–2400 words	6–8 pages
BA	Aufbaumodul	3000–4000 words	10–13 pages
BA	Vertiefungsmodul	3500–4500 words	12–15 pages
MA	Mastermodul	4500–6000 words	15–20 pages
MA	Master's thesis	15000–21000 words	50–70 pages

TABLE 1. Paper length by module.

the bottom of the final text page of your paper (before the references and any appendices). Keep in mind that the title page, table of contents, references, and appendices do not count towards the total number of words and pages.

## 1.2 Language and spelling

Term papers and final theses at the Department of General Linguistics are written in English. You are free to choose your preferred orthographic standard (British or American), but you need to remain consistent in your spelling. When using a text processor with automatic spell checking, do not forget to set it to the variety you are using (e.g. *English (Großbritannien)*). When in doubt, consult a dictionary.

**Note:** Do not forget to proofread your paper, or better, have it proofread by a third party – ideally a native speaker. Typos and leftover notes do not leave a good impression.

## 2 Structure and form

In this section of the guide, we discuss the structure and layout of your paper: how your text should be positioned on the page (Section 2.1) and how it should be internally organised with regards to sectioning (Section 2.2) and its various components (Section 2.3): the title page, table of contents, and list of references.

### 2.1 Page layout

The most important aspects of a good page layout are paper size, margins, justification, line spacing, page numbering, and the headline.

**Paper size.** You may only use A4 sized paper, portrait orientation (*hochkant*), printed on one side only.

**Margins.** The left and right margins should be at least 3 cm, the top and bottom margins at least 2.5 cm. As you can see, this guide uses much larger

margins; the reference papers in the Appendix feature margins that are much more in line with what would be expected from a document created with a traditional text processor.

**Justification.** The running text should be fully justified on both sides (*Block-satz*), and the list of references (Section 2.3.3) left-aligned.

**Line spacing.** You should use one-and-half spacing for the running text and single spacing in footnotes, quotation paragraphs, and the list of references.

**Page numbers.** Excluding the title page, the table of contents, and the statement of authorship, all pages of your paper should have a page number at the bottom of the page, either centered or right-aligned. While the table of contents is not numbered, it is still counted – in other words, if your table of contents is one page long, the first page number would appear on the following page (which would usually be your *Introduction*), and it would be '2'. See the page numbering of this guide and the reference papers in the Appendix for reference.

## 2.2 Sections and paragraphs

The text of a paper is divided into sections, which are subdivided into subsections. Subsections in turn are divided into subsubsections, for a total of three levels. Each of these levels is numbered sequentially from the beginning of the paper, starting from '1'; the digit '0' never occurs in section numbering. Every section, subsection, and subsubsection begins with a section heading. Each consists of a section number and section title, printed in boldface. Optionally, higher-level section may be printed using larger font size, as in this example:

### **1 Top-level section**

#### **1.1 Second-level subsection**

##### **1.1.1 Third-level subsubsection**

Within the hierarchy of section numbers, lower level numbers are separated from higher ones by a dot. The table of contents and list of references do not receive a section number. Appendices (if there are more than one) are counted using capital letters, A–Z. In accordance with the capitalisation guidelines discussed in Section 3.3, only the first letter of a section heading and any proper nouns in it should be capitalised.

New sections do not begin on a new page, but rather follow directly after the text of the preceding section, provided there is enough space on the page for the section heading and at least three or four lines of text – avoid placing only the section heading without any text at the bottom of a page. The list

of references, each appendix, and the statement of authorship are the only sections that do need to begin a new page.

Generally speaking, a section should contain more than one or two paragraphs worth of text. Dividing your text into too many short sections is not a good idea, as is using more than the three levels of subsectioning given above. If you need to make finer distinctions than three levels allow you to make, consider using headed paragraphs as described below.

**Note:** With the exception of the first paragraph following a section heading, the first line of every paragraph should be indented by about 0.5–1 cm.

**Headed paragraphs.** Headed paragraphs (also called unnumbered sections) are an optional strategy for making finer subdivisions in your text. If you would like to bring up multiple ideas that each merit their own heading, but are too short for their own section, you can prefix them with a boldfaced heading, set inline with the rest of the text, without indentation. This paragraph is an example of this, as are the ones in Section 2.1 above.

## 2.3 Document structure

Every term paper and final thesis is composed of the same basic building blocks: (i) a title page, (ii) a table of contents, (iii) the actual text, (iv) a list of references, (v) (optionally) an appendix, and (vi) a statement of authorship. The order of these parts is fixed.

### 2.3.1 The title page

Every term paper begins with a separate title page. Think of it as of the cover of a book: at a glance, it provides the reader with the title of your work and identifies you, the author, your affiliation, and the module in which you are writing. Like a book cover, it receives neither a page number nor a headline.

Which bits of information go on the title page differs slightly between regular term papers and final theses (i.e. Master's theses). For details on the latter, please consult the official guidelines provided by the Prüfungsamt.

The title page of a **term paper** is split into three segments: (i) the top, containing information about your affiliation and your module; (ii) the centre, containing the actual title of your paper as well as your name and the date of submission; and (iii) the bottom, providing contact information. The font size of all elements should be 12 points unless specified otherwise.

In the following templates, exchange all of the placeholders given in italics with your own information. The top segment of the title page should contain the following left-aligned text:

Otto-Friedrich-Universität Bamberg  
 Fakultät Geistes- und Kulturwissenschaften  
 Lehrstuhl für Allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft  
*type and name of your seminar*  
*module and ECTS*  
 Dozent: *full name of instructor*  
*the current semester*

Underneath the top segment, centered vertically and horizontally on the page, the centre presents the title of your paper in boldface at 21-point size. It is followed by your full name and the date of submission. Note that the title of your paper *should* have title case; see Section 3.3 for the capitalisation guidelines.

## ***Full Title of Paper***

*your full name*  
*date of submission*

And finally, at the very bottom of the page, also centered horizontally, the bottom segment contains the following:

Matrikelnummer: *your matriculation number*  
*your course of studies (your current semester count)*  
*your address, first part*  
*your address, second part*  
 Tel.: *your telephone number*  
 E-mail: *your e-mail address*

**Note:** It should go without saying that the title page of this guide is **not** representative of what the title page of your paper should look like. Refer to the sample paper in the Appendix for a proper example.

### **2.3.2 The table of contents**

The table of contents is a numbered list of all sections in your paper. It is located on the page immediately following the title page. The table of contents provides a structural overview of your paper, allowing readers to easily navigate your work. Each line of the table of contents consists of three elements: (i) a section number, (ii) a section heading, and (iii) a page number.

There are various ways of styling a table of contents, but in general, higher level sections should be distinguished from lower level sections by use of indentation or changes in font style (bold or italics), and the page numbers should be easy to match at a glance with their respective headings, which is usually achieved by drawing (dotted) lines between them. Both the style used in the reference papers in the Appendix and the one used for the table of contents at the beginning of this guide are good examples.

Modern text processors can automatically generate a table of contents for you, so long as you provide them with appropriate hooks in the text to attach to. This is usually done via use of pre-defined formatting styles for your section headings.

Make sure you follow these guidelines for tables of content:

- ▶ The table of contents has the heading 'Table of Contents'.
- ▶ It has neither a headline nor a page number – although technically it counts as page 1.
- ▶ All numbered section headings appear in the table of contents with the exact same wording and numbering as in the running text.
- ▶ The list of references is included in the table of contents, but does not receive a section number.
- ▶ Neither the statement of authorship nor the table of contents itself are listed in the table of contents.

**Note:** For final theses with large (> 10) numbers of tables or figures (see Section 3.7), an additional 'List of Tables' and 'List of Figures' can be included following the table of contents, each located on a new page. These look and function essentially the same way as the table of contents, but instead of listing section numbers and headings, they list table and figure numbers and captions.

### 2.3.3 The list of references

The list of references is an essential part of any paper, as it collects the various works you have cited throughout your text (see Section 3.4 on how to correctly cite literature) and provides detailed bibliographical information on them, enabling your reader to easily find them in libraries and databases. It follows on a new page immediately after the main text.

This section of the guide concerns itself only with the overall format of the list of references. We have dedicated an entire, separate section to the internal structure of the bibliographical entries in the list, this being Section 4. It's that important! If this is your first time writing a term paper, we advise you to read that section of the guide first.



## References

- Chafe, Wallace L. 1994. *Discourse, consciousness, and time: The flow and displacement of conscious experience in speaking and writing*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Miyagawa, Shigeru & Tsujioka, Takae. 2004. Argument structure and ditransitive verbs in Japanese. *Journal of East Asian Linguistics* 13(1). 1–38.
- Szmrecsanyi, Benedikt & Rosenbach, Anette & Bresan, Joan & Wolk, Christoph. 2014. Culturally conditioned language change? A multivariate analysis of genitive constructions in ARCHER. In Hundt, Marianne (ed.), *Late Modern English syntax*, 133–152. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

With regards to format, the list of references is, as its name suggests, quite simply a list of bibliographical entries in alphabetical order (going by the surname of the first author). Each discrete entry in the list begins a new line. Entries long enough to span more than one line receive what is called hanging indentation, where the first line of the entry is not indented, but all of the following lines are moved to the right by about 0.5–1 cm. In printed texts in particular, hanging indentation makes the task of finding specific entries in a long list of references much more manageable.

The font size for entries should be between 10 and 12 points. As in the example above, the heading of the list of references should be ‘References’ – unlike all other sections of your paper, it is not numbered, and hence also appears without a number in the table of contents (see Section 2.3.2).

The reference papers in the Appendix provide more populated lists of references, as do the references at the end of the guide.

### 2.3.4 The statement of authorship

For legal reasons (pursuant §18 par. 2 and §22 par. 2 of the APO GuK/HuWi), you are required to provide a signed statement with your submission of your thesis, declaring that “you have completed this thesis independently of any third party and using only the indicated literary sources”. On a separate page at the very end your paper, following the list of references and any appendices, without headline and page number, include verbatim the following statement:

## Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich diese Arbeit selbständig verfasst habe und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen benutzt habe.

*your signature*

*your full name*

*location, date*

The date should ideally use German-style formatting (e.g. *Bamberg, 1. Mai 2016*). Do not forget to sign this statement (with a pen!) on all hard copies intended for submission. A digital signature is not required.

## 3 Text format and typesetting

The following section is dedicated to text formatting and typesetting. We discuss fonts (Section 3.1) and the proper use of font styles (Section 3.2), then move on to capitalisation guidelines in Section 3.3. The sacred *way of the citation* is taught in Section 3.4, after which we discuss more complex structures such as linguistic examples (Section 3.5), footnotes (Section 3.6), and tables and figures (Section 3.7).

### 3.1 Fonts and special characters

Choose a single, widely used serif typeface (font) with good legibility for the text of your paper; good choices are *Times New Roman*, *Cambria*, and *Palatino*. Do **not** mix-and-match multiple fonts. The font size of the running text should be 12 points, while footnotes and quotation paragraphs should be smaller, at 10 points. Font sizes in tables and figures can be adjusted where necessary, but should not go above 12 points or below 10 points.

If your paper contains phonetic transcriptions using symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) or examples from languages using ‘unusual’ characters, you will need to use a special font that supplies these symbols. The Summer Institute of Linguistics offers two comprehensive

unicode fonts, *Charis SIL Compact* and *Doulous SIL*, free of charge on their website,<sup>5</sup> along with instructions on how to install them.

**Hint:** Using *Charis SIL Compact* or *Doulous SIL* for the entirety of your paper is a possibility, even should you not use phonetic transcriptions. Because these fonts feature somewhat larger glyphs (letters), adjusting the font size down to 11 points for the running text is acceptable when using them.

### 3.2 Use of font styles

The term *font style* refers to the weight (**boldface**) and slope (*italics*) of a typeface (font). Though technically not a font style, we are also discussing the use of SMALL CAPITALS in this section. Each of these variants is employed to emphasise individual words or passages of text, but each only within a very specific scope.

**Note:** Underlined text is never used.

**Boldface.** Use of boldface is restricted to the title on the title page, as well as section and paragraph headings. Optionally, you may use boldface for emphasis of particular aspects of linguistic examples (see Section 3.5).

**Italics.** In addition to its use in bibliographical entries (see Section 4), italics are used to mark words from an object language as linguistic evidence in your text. There they usually followed by a translation or definition in single quotation marks:

- (1) According to Kaiser et al. (2013), comparative constructions in Modern Japanese use either the particle *yori* 'more than, rather than', the noun *hō* 'side', or a combination of both.

Another use of italics is in the titles of books, stories, and articles, should they be used in full in your text:

- (2) The influence of Dante Alighieri's *Divina Commedia* on literary Italian can hardly be overstated.

In glossed linguistic examples (see Section 3.5), the text in the analysed object language is also set in italics:

- (3) INDONESIAN  
*Mereka di Jakarta sekarang.*  
 they in Jakarta now  
 'They are in Jakarta now.' (Sneddon 1996: 237)

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<sup>5</sup> <http://software.sil.org/charis/download/>

If you would like to single out a particular aspect or wording of a quotation (see Section 3.4), you may set it in italics. Note that when doing this, make sure to add [*emphasis added*] to the end of the quotation:

- (4) “When a long form becomes frequent, it tends to be *shortened* in language change, and when a short form becomes rare, it tends to become *longer* [*emphasis added*].” (Haspelmath et al. 2014: 614)

Finally, italics may be used to emphasise individual words or phrases in the running text that are not technical terms:

- (5) This is possible here, but *only* here.

**Note:** Do **not** italicise abbreviations or loanwords in common use such as *e.g.*, *i.e.*, *ad hoc*, *de facto*, *façon de parler*, or *Sprachbund*.

**Small capitals.** Small capitals can (optionally) be used to emphasise the first mention (and only the first mention) of an important term or theory, after which should follow a definition or explanation. Usage should be limited to those few concepts that are most central to the topic you are discussing in your paper. The passages in (6) provide examples of this strategy:

- (6) a. For the purpose of this paper, I define the term LIGHT VERB CONSTRUCTION as the combination of a semantically bleached action verb and either a deverbalised noun or an event noun.  
 b. Knappe (2012) uses the label PHRASEOLOGICAL UNIT for these kinds of idiomatic expressions; I choose to adopt this terminology for the present inquiry.

Small capitals (or regular capitals) are also used for abbreviated grammatical category labels in glossed linguistic examples (see Section 3.5), and, where necessary, for specifying the language the example is taken from:

- (7) HITTITE  
*n=an apedani mehuni essandu.*  
 CONN=him that.DAT.SG time.DAT.SG eat.they.shall  
 ‘They shall celebrate him on that date.’ (Lehmann 1982: 211)

### 3.3 Capitalisation

Sentences and proper names, such as the names of languages (*English, Korean*), people (*Bertrand Russel, Aristotle*), places (*London, Australia*), and institutions (*University of Bamberg*), always start with a capital letter, as per the standards of English orthography. The names of theories and frameworks, however, are not capitalised: *minimalist program, role and reference grammar*.

The section headings and table and figure captions are capitalised like any other sentence: capitalise only the first word and any proper names, but do

not apply what is called title (or special) case, where every non-function word is capitalised. Thus the heading of a section of your paper would read *Data and methodology*, not *\*Data and Methodology*. The same is true for the titles of publications in the list of references (Section 4). The only exception to the ban on title case is the title of your paper as it appears on the title page, and only there.

Additionally, cross-references to sections, tables, and figures in the running text are capitalised in order to make them stand out: *as discussed in Section 1, as seen in Table 2, as visualised in Figure 3*.

### 3.4 Citing literature

This section describes how to reference secondary literature in your paper via use of paraphrased and verbatim quotations, and how to indicate its source via citations.

**Note:** Any work you refer to and cite **must** appear in the list of references at the end of your paper. See Section 4 for a few tips on efficient bibliography management.

#### 3.4.1 Citations

Whenever you take information from a secondary source, be it a quotation, data, or examples, you are required to indicate its source. This is done via a citation, which in linguistics is given in the running text rather than as a footnote. Citations take the form of a short bibliographical reference, consisting of (i) the surname(s) of the author(s) whose work you are citing, (ii) the year when said work was published, and, when appropriate, the page(s) on which the cited information is located in the original work. Page numbers follow the year, separated from it by a colon and a space. Citations are placed in parentheses unless the name(s) of the author(s) are used as part of a sentence, in which case only the year and page numbers are parenthesised. The two basic citation patterns are exemplified in (8):

- (8) a. as mentioned in the literature (Schlüter 2013), ...  
 b. as discussed in Sperber & Wilson (1986), ...  
 c. as Tily et al. (2009: 150) have noted, ...

If a work has exactly two authors as in (8b), they are separated by an ampersand: '&'. If a work has more than two authors as in (8c), only the first is listed, followed by the abbreviation *et al.* (< lat. *et alii* 'and others').

When citing more than one work written by an author or a combination of authors that was published in a single year, an alphabetical character *a, b, c*, and so on is appended to the year in order to keep the publications apart:

- (9) Gries (2010a) and Gries (2010b)

This additional identifier is carried forward to the works' entries in the list of references.

When multiple citations by different authors are listed side by side in parentheses, they are separated by semicola:

- (10) (Brown 1983; Givón 1983; Hinds 1983)

When listing multiple works by the same author(s), the author name(s) do not need to be mentioned more than once; only the years of publications are listed, separated by commas. Note that the order of authors must match exactly – see (11c):

- (11) a. (Ford & Bresnan 2013, 2015)  
 b. Ford & Bresnan (2013, 2015)  
 c. *but*: (Bresnan & Ford 2010; Ford & Bresnan 2013)

Naturally, the two patterns can occur in combination:

- (12) (Comrie 1989, 2001; Wälchli 2006; Bresnan et al. 2007)

Citations can be embedded quite verbosely, using constructions such as *see also* and *cf.* (< lat. *cōnfer* 'compare'):

- (13) a. this structure is well attested in the literature (see Frellesvig 2010 for a detailed description)  
 b. this is how I choose to interpret this phenomenon (cf. Kuno 1973: 70 for an alternative interpretation)

Note that in (13a) and (13b), there are no parentheses inside the parentheses: citations that occur inside of a larger parenthesised unit are not parenthesised themselves.

**Note:** When citing entries in dictionaries, it is usually enough to list the title of the entry, followed by the name of the dictionary:

- (14) The word *biscuit* entered the English language via Old French, and is ultimately of Latin origin ('biscuit', Oxford English Dictionary).

Every dictionary entry you cite needs to be included in your list of references (see Section 4.6), just like every other resource.

**Note:** The use of abbreviations such as *ibid.* (< lat. *ibidem* 'in the same place') and *op. cit.* (< lat. *opere citātō* 'in the [previously] cited work') for repeated citations is discouraged in contemporary publishing. Ink and pixels are not in short supply.

### 3.4.2 Quotations

Quotations are segments of text taken directly from another source. There are two kinds of quotations, verbatim and paraphrased, and both need to be accompanied by a citation including page numbers.

Quoting a work in paraphrasis involves restating its contents in your own words, but in such a way that it is still evident that you are not the originator of the information. Consider (15):

- (15) a. Narrog (2012: 273) observes that in a small subset of the sampled languages, the meaning of habitual markers has been extended to event-oriented modal meaning.
- b. Noting that a majority of subjects in conversational language express given information and hence carry light information load, Chafe (1994: 85) argues that the role of subjects is to serve as starting points in discourse.

In a verbatim quotation, conversely, text from a cited work is reproduced word for word, letter for letter. Verbatim quotations are formatted differently based on their length: shorter quotations of less than four full lines in length are placed in the running text and need to be given in double quotation marks:

- (16) a. In her analysis of the impersonal construction in English, Fischer (2007: 25) reaches the following conclusion: "Thus, when one takes a more careful look at the actual data, it is quite possible that the change concerning impersonals does not so much represent a case of reanalysis as one of loss of some of the variant constructions."
- b. On the total number of such constructions in the language, Backhouse observes that "... though *-i* adjectives are a closed set in the sense that they do not normally accept pure borrowed stems, there are productive suffixes such as *-rashii* 'typical of' and the pejorative *-ppoi* '-ish' which continue to yield complex *-i* adjectives from both native and foreign bases" (Backhouse 1984: 181–182).

Make sure to use of typographically correct quotations marks – the correct opening and closing marks look like tiny 6's and 9's respectively: "...". Do not use the prime ' or inch sign " for this purpose. Note that verbatim quotations are, as a whole, not set in italics.

Quotations more than four full lines in length should be set as a separate paragraph. Longer quotations of this kind are not placed in quotation marks, should be set at about 10-point font size with single line spacing, and are indented by about 1 cm on both sides. Like the shorter inline quotations, they are not set in italics. The citation usually follows directly after the quoted material:

A different account, given in Fillmore (1982), envisions the notion of COGNITIVE FRAMES as follows:

By the term “frame” I have in mind any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any of them you have to understand the whole structure in which it fits; when one of the things in such a structure is introduced into a text, or into conversation, all of the others are automatically made available. (Fillmore 1982: 111)

In this view, the ...

The text of a verbatim quotation, long or short, needs to be replicated **exactly** as it appears in the original. This includes not only all punctuation marks and any emphasis (boldface, italics) placed by the original author, but also spelling mistakes and misprints. These you should not attempt to correct, but instead point out via insertion of the sequence [*sic*] (< *sīc* ‘thus’, from lat. *sīc erat scriptum* ‘thus was it written’) right after the error.

The only permissible alterations to a verbatim quotation are (i) using italics to emphasise individual words or phrases, which requires the addition of the tag [*emphasis added*] at the end of the quotation; (ii) leaving out less relevant passages by replacing them with an ellipsis [...]; (iii) altering the capitalisation of the first letter, which then needs to be placed in square brackets; and (iv) disambiguating references and abbreviations that are unclear without the larger context from which the quotation was taken, which is usually done by inserting short explanations in square brackets. All material altered in any of these ways needs to be placed in square brackets to indicate that it was indeed you, rather than the original author, that made these changes. Never change quoted text in such a way that the original meaning of the quotation changes! All of the allowable alterations are exemplified in (17).

- (17) a. Branigan et al. (2008: 180) report that “[r]esearch on languages with flexible word orders suggests that animacy may be associated with word order variation, *independently of grammatical function* [*emphasis added*].” In one such study, “[p]articipants tended to produce word orders that allowed entities with attributed animacy, such as a doll [...], to appear first.”
- b. Akiyama (2014: 340) hypothesises that “the possibility of using an [sic] NIRC [non-restrictive infinitival relative clause] is linked to the potentiality of using a finite relative clause consisting of ‘*which* (*who*) *is to*-infinitive’.”

When including quotations from works written in languages other than English, they need to be followed by a faithful translation in square brackets immediately after the original text:



- (18) Cuenca & Hilferty (1999: 86) note that “[c]omparada con otros marcos teóricos, la lingüística cognitiva aún tiene mucho camino por recorrer en el campo de la sintaxis [compared to other frameworks, cognitive linguistics still has a long way to go in the field of syntax.]”

**Note:** Single ‘...’ quotation marks are used exclusively for the meanings of object language words that are introduced into the text as linguistic evidence:

- (19) Latin *habere* is not cognate with Old English *hafian* ‘have’.

For quotations, use double quotation marks “...” instead, as described above.

### 3.5 Linguistic examples

As seen previously in (1) and (19) above, individual words or short phrases from an object language can be brought up as examples in the running text, and are there usually followed by a translation or definition. Longer and more complex examples, however, are better presented in a way that sets them apart from the rest of the text:

- (20) *They went to London to buy a donkey.*

Examples formatted in this way are numbered sequentially through your entire paper. Example numbers are always enclosed in parentheses. Multiple related examples can be subsumed under one number, in which case each individual part is additionally labelled with a lowercase letter:

- (21) a. *And then we walked home, 'cause Jim Chew lived in this general direction which I did.*  
 b. *And as I walked down Slimmer's Road, and at the bottom, there's Rosenblatt's – that was flat.*  
 c. *... but mi grandmother was there, mi father's mother, she'd been bombed out from Culloden Street.*

In all examples, the primary text from the object language in question (including English) is set in italics. Optionally, you may use boldface to emphasise individual elements of an example:

- (22) *So, that's how the system worked **with** them.*

Ungrammatical examples are marked with an asterisk ‘\*’, and examples of questionable acceptability with a superscript question mark ‘?’:

- (23) a. <sup>?</sup> *To London they went, a donkey to buy.*  
 b. <sup>\*</sup> *Donkey buy for London to went.*

Numbers are assigned to examples so that they can be easily cross-referenced in the running text: *as seen in (20), just about anything is sold in London, or English favours pronominal over elliptical subjects (see 20–22).* For this to work properly,

you need to ensure that example numbers and cross-references match *exactly*, and that there are no duplicates. With the right settings, most modern text processors can manage cross-references for you, minimising the potential for error. When taking examples from other works, do not forget to cite their respective sources (Section 3.4).

Examples from languages other than the one in which you are writing (i.e. English) must additionally be glossed and translated. In this context, *glosses* refer to interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme translations, aligned word-by-word with the object language text. Should you use glossed examples in your paper, make sure to have read the *Leipzig Glossing Rules*,<sup>6</sup> the de facto standard for interlinear glossing practices in linguistics, beforehand.

A glossed example is composed of three lines: (i) the primary object language text, (ii) the interlinear glosses, each aligned with its corresponding word in the primary text, and (iii) an idiomatic translation:

- (24) RUSSIAN  
*My s Marko poexa-l-i avtobus-om v Peredelkino.*  
 1PL COM Marko go-PST-PL bus-INS ALL Peredelkino  
 ‘Marko and I went to Peredelkino by bus.’

If your paper deals with multiple languages, it might not be clear which language a particular example is from. In such cases, an additional label for the language should be supplied, as with RUSSIAN in (24) above. If, conversely, your entire paper were about some aspect of the Russian language and no other, you naturally would not need to label every example in this way.

As with all examples, the primary text in the first line is set in italics. In the second line, abbreviated grammatical category labels are set in small capitals; if your paper makes heavy use of glossed examples, a list of category abbreviations should be provided at the end of the paper, usually as an appendix. Lastly, the idiomatic translation in the third line is encased in single quotation marks. A literal translation may be given in parentheses after the idiomatic:

- (25) JAPANESE  
*Neko wa isu no ue de nete-iru.*  
 cat TOP chair GEN top at sleeping-be.NPST  
 ‘The cat is sleeping on the chair.’ (lit. ‘The cat, (it) is sleeping at the top of the chair.’)

Again: if an example is taken from another work, you are required to cite its source (see Section 3.4). In glossed examples, the citation is typically placed right after the translation, as in (3) and (7) above.

<sup>6</sup> <http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>

language	Group A			Group B			Group C		
	all	[+lex]	%	all	[+lex]	%	all	[+lex]	%
English	671	24	4	1020	203	20	1038	256	25
Welsh	459	88	19	492	38	8	476	259	54
Italian	553	207	37	413	46	11	300	132	44
Korean	760	345	45	602	73	12	509	326	64
Igbo	987	338	34	803	115	14	974	500	51
Dyirbal	769	144	19	461	47	10	437	277	63

TABLE 2. An example of a simple table with made-up data.

### 3.6 Footnotes

Footnotes are a means of including additional (i.e. non-essential) information in your paper without interrupting the flow of your argumentation. You may, for instance, use a footnote to bring attention to an alternative analysis that you do not wish to discuss in detail, but whose existence you nevertheless wish to acknowledge. In general, footnotes should be used sparingly – think of them as a sort of last resort: in most cases, information is better accommodated in the running text.

**Note:** Do **not** use footnotes to cite literature. See Section 3.4 on how to properly cite secondary literature.

Just like linguistic examples, tables, and figures, footnotes are numbered continuously throughout your paper, starting at ‘1’. Footnotes have to be anchored in the running text via a footnote mark, which is its reference number set in superscript:

(26) This sentence is followed by a footnote mark.<sup>7</sup>

In the running text, the footnote mark usually follows a full stop, semicolon, or comma with no inbetween space, though it may exceptionally follow an individual word in the middle of a sentence. The footnote text is placed at the bottom of the page, separated by a horizontal line. The text is preceded by the reference number in superscript followed by a single space, and should be set at 10-point font size. The footnote mark and the footnote text have to be located on the same page in your paper. Most modern text processors will automate the placement and management of footnotes for you.

### 3.7 Tables and figures

Tables and figures are used, respectively, to present numerical evidence at a glance, and to visualise research results and relations in an accessible manner.

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<sup>7</sup> And this is the footnote text.

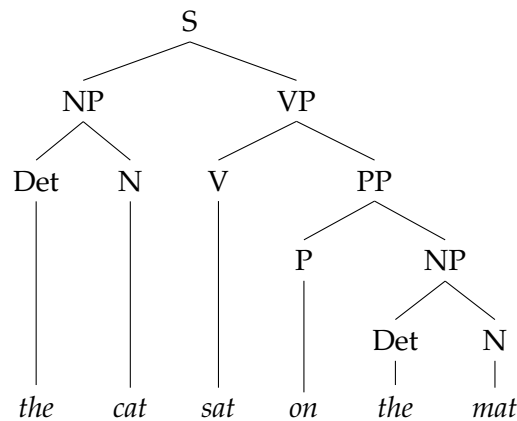


FIGURE 1. A simple syntactic tree.

Table 2 is an example of a simple table. Note how in Table 2, the column headers are separated from the actual data by a horizontal line, and there are no vertical lines. Figures in particular can be many different things: pictures, graphs, maps, and, as in our example Figure 1, syntactic trees.

Although tables and figures are fundamentally different beasts, they follow many of the same principles of formatting and placement on the page. Both tables and figures are accompanied by a caption which indicates (i) whether we are looking at a table or figure, (ii) the number by which the table or figure can be identified, counted separately for tables and figures, and (iii) a title or short description of the thing. The font size in tables and figures should not be less than 10pt and not more than the rest of the text, usually 12pt; the font size of the caption should be the same as that of the running text.

Tables and figures are best placed at the top of a page or grouped together on a page of their own. Placing them in the middle of the text is generally not advisable, as is splitting them across two pages – doing so makes them difficult for your reader to keep track of. If a table is so long that it takes up multiple pages, it might be a good idea to move it to an appendix. In such cases, it is helpful for the reader to repeat the column headers on each page.

Like sections and linguistic examples, tables and figures can be cross-referenced in the running text. Remember that, as with sections, the cross-references to tables and figures are always capitalised and never abbreviated: *as shown in Table 1* (not *\*Tab. 1*), and *as is evident from Figure 2* (not *\*Fig. 2*).

## 4 Bibliographic references

The guidelines for styling the list of references as a whole were already discussed in Section 2.3.3. This part of the guide focuses instead on the internal structure of each individual bibliographic entry.

The key to managing a list of references is not necessarily perfection of form, but **consistency**. The entry structures presented here merely represent the most common (and in our view, most sensible) way of organising bibliographical information. Needless to say, countless variants exist. So long as all the necessary components are in their place across all of your references, your instructor will be satisfied.

The guidelines presented here were adapted from the *Generic Style Rules for Linguistics*,<sup>8</sup> which in turn are a simplification of the 2007 version of the *Unified Style Sheet for Linguistics*.<sup>9</sup>

**Note:** The University of Bamberg provides a copy of the dedicated reference management software *Citavi 5* free of charge to all students, along with a usage guide.<sup>10</sup> Especially when working on a larger project like a Master's thesis, software like *Citavi* can make bibliography management much more manageable.

#### 4.1 General elements

The structure of bibliographic entries differs by the type of medium they reference. Before discussing these, some notes on general considerations applying to all reference types are necessary. Please refer to Section 4.2 and onward for examples.

**Author and editor names.** The names of authors and editors are always given in the order *Last name, first name*. If a work has more than one author or editor, all names are separated with an ampersand '&'. Always list all author and editor names in the list of references; do not omit names by abbreviating with *et al.*

Names with prefixes such as *van, von, or de* are not treated in a special way: works by the esteemed *Abraham van Helsing*, for example, would be listed alphabetically under 'V' as 'van Helsing, Abraham', rather than under 'H'.

Do not replace the list of authors of subsequent entries by the same authors with a long dash '—' or similar "ink savers"; all entries should always be listed in full.

**Multiple publications by the same authors.** When there are multiple entries published in one year that share the exact same authors in the exact same order, an alphabetical identifier *a, b, c* is added to the year: '2016a, 2016b'.

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<sup>8</sup> <http://www.eva.mpg.de/linguistics/past-research-resources/resources/generic-style-rules.html>

<sup>9</sup> <https://linguistlist.org/pubs/journals/>

<sup>10</sup> See <http://www.uni-bamberg.de/ub/citavi/> for instructions on installation and licence key activation.

This additional identifier is also used when citing the works in question – see Section 3.4.1.

**Titles and subtitles.** The title of a work is always given in full, with the title and subtitle separated by a colon, appearing in the order *Title: Subtitle*. Pay close attention to which types of entries have italicised titles and which do not in each type of bibliographic entry. Titles in languages other than English, as in (28c), should have a faithful translation in square brackets follow immediately after the original title.

**Series.** Often, books will be part of a longer series of publications on a topic or field of research. The inclusion of the series titles in the entry of a publication is optional, but recommended. Series titles are, together with the series number, given in parentheses immediately following the title.

**Editions.** Editions are the different print runs of a book, often with minor revisions between them. Where applicable, the edition of a cited work should be indicated following the title block as follows: *2<sup>nd</sup> edn.*, *3<sup>rd</sup> revised edn.*, and so on. First editions rarely if ever need to be indicated as such.

**Online sources.** Online publications should in general be treated like any other, with the important addition of a complete web address and the date you last accessed the content online. Web addresses are most of the time URLs (uniform resource locators, what is commonly referred to as a “web address”), but many online journals and archives also supply URNs (uniform resource names). The latter can come in two kinds: ‘digital object identifiers’ (DOI) and ‘handles’. Some online journals prefer having their articles referenced with a URN rather than a URL; check your sources. URLs and URNs occupy the same space in bibliographical entries: in parentheses, at the very end of the entry, right before the access date.

**Note:** In each of the following subsections, an overview of the structure of the most common types of bibliographical entries is provided, followed by a number of examples. Pay close attention to the use of punctuation, parentheses, and italics in the entries: what is italicised in the structure overview should also be italicised in a real entry, and where a full stop, comma or parenthesis appears in the examples, the same should appear in the same location in a your own references. An ‘[s]’ in square brackets indicates where a plural form needs to be used in case a work has more than one author or editor. An asterisk ‘\*’ precedes information that may not be available for all of the sources you are referencing.

## 4.2 Monographs

Monographs are books written by a single or multiple authors.

- (27) Author name[s]. Year of publication. *Title of book* \*(*Series Number in series*). \*Edition. Place of publication: Publisher.
- (28) a. Kibrik, Andrej. 2011. *Reference in discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.  
 b. Hopper, Paul & Traugott, Elizabeth. 2003. *Grammaticalization*. 2nd edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.  
 c. Haspelmath, Martin. 1993. *A grammar of Lezgian* (Mouton Grammar Library 9). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.  
 d. Takahashi, Tarō & Kaneko, Shōichi & Kaneda, Akihiro & Itsumi, Tomoko & Suzuki, Tai & Suda, Jun'ichi & Matsumoto, Hirotake. 2010. *Nihongo no bunpō* [The grammar of Japanese]. 4th edition. Tokyo: Hitsuji Shobō.

### 4.3 Articles in collections

Collections are edited volumes with stand-alone contributions by multiple authors. Thus, when referencing an article in a collection, you need to supply information on both the individual article and its author(s), and the whole collection and its editor(s). Full information about the collection is always included in each entry, even if multiple articles from the same volume are referenced.

- (29) Author name[s]. Year of publication. Title of article. In Editor name[s] (ed[s].), *Title of edited volume*, Page range. \*Edition. Place of publication: Publisher.
- (30) a. Andrews, Avery. 2007. The major functions of the noun phrase. In Shopen, Timothy (ed.), *Language typology and syntactic description*, 132–223. 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.  
 b. Knappe, Gabriele. 2012. Linguistic levels: Idioms and fixed expressions. In Brinton, Laurel & Bergs, Alexander (eds.), *English historical linguistics: An international handbook*, 177–196. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.  
 c. Krug, Manfred & Sell, Katrin. 2013. Designing and conducting interviews and questionnaires. In Krug, Manfred & Schlüter, Julia (eds.), *Research methods in language variation and change*, 69–98. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

**Note:** Encyclopaedias are essentially just very large collections of articles, in that multiple authors contribute to a work that is supervised by editors. As such, you should try to list entries in encyclopaedic works the same way as articles in regular collected volumes.

#### 4.4 Articles in journals

These are articles that have been published in an academic journal. Journals are (usually) published in multiple issues per year and collected in annual volumes. Although journals necessarily have an editorial board, only the name of the journal itself in its unabridged and unabbreviated form is referenced.

- (31) Author name[s]. Year of publication. Title of article. *Name of journal* Volume(Issue). Page range.
- (32) a. Östen, Dahl. 2000. Egophoricity in discourse and syntax. *Functions of Language* 7(1). 37–77.  
 b. Backhouse, Anthony. 1984. Have all the adjectives gone? *Lingua* 62(3). 169–186.  
 c. Cleveland, William S. & Devlin, Susan J. 1988. Locally weighted regression: An approach to regression analysis by local fitting. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 83(403). 596–610.

Many journals nowadays are published online, some exclusively so. Articles in online journals use the same basic format as the ones in print journals above, but – owing to the medium – do not have a page range to indicate, and should always come with a web address (URL or URN).

- (33) Author name[s]. Year of publication. Title of article. *Name of journal* Volume(Issue). (Full web address) (accessed Date.)
- (34) a. Gries, Stefan & Newman, John & Shaoul, Cyrus. 2011. N-grams and the clustering of registers. *Empirical Language Research* 5(1). (<http://ejournals.org.uk/ELR/article/2011/1>) (accessed 2016-03-01.)  
 b. Dediu, Dan & Cysouw, Michael. 2013. Some structural aspects of language are more stable than others: A comparison of seven methods. *PLoS ONE* 8(1). (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0055009) (accessed 2016-03-01.)

#### 4.5 Dissertations and theses

Theses and dissertations are treated like monographs (even if not published), with the university or academic institution at which the thesis was written being treated as the publisher, and the type of thesis – Ph.D. dissertation, Bachelor's or Master's thesis, Habilitationsschrift – being given in parentheses at the end. If the document is available online, include a web link to it.

- (35) Author name[s]. Year of submission. *Title of thesis*. Location: Name of Academic institution. (Type of thesis.) \*(Full web address) \*(accessed Date.)



- (36) a. van Vliet, Sarah. 2008. *Proper nouns and pronouns: The production of referential expressions in narrative discourse*. Tilburg: University of Tilburg. (Ph.D. dissertation.)
- b. North, Ryan. 2005. *Computational measures of the acceptability of light verb constructions*. Toronto: University of Toronto. (Master's thesis.)
- c. Wälchi, Bernhard. 2009. *Motion events in parallel texts: A study in primary data typology*. Bern: University of Bern. (Unpublished Habilitationsschrift.)

#### 4.6 Other formats

**Manuscripts.** What is referred to here as “manuscripts” are unpublished papers or draft version of papers that are still being worked on, but are already in circulation. Entries for manuscripts are structured essentially like those for monographs, with the academic institution of the author(s) standing in as the publisher. The tag *Unpublished manuscript* is added in parentheses after the institution. If available, include a web link to the document so readers can find it for themselves. Note that the title of a manuscript is not set in italics.

- (37) Author name[s]. Year of creation. Title of manuscript. Location: Name of Academic institution. (Unpublished manuscript.) \*(Full web address) \*(accessed Date.)
- (38) a. Prince, Alan & Smolensky, Paul. 1993. *Optimality theory*. Camden, NJ: Rutgers University. (Unpublished manuscript.)
- b. Riester, Arndt & Baumann, Stefan. 2014. *RefLex scheme: Annotation guidelines*. Stuttgart: University of Stuttgart. (Unpublished manuscript.)
- c. Wälchli, Bernhard. 2006. *Descriptive typology, or: The typologist's expanded toolkit*. Stockholm: Stockholm University. (Unpublished manuscript.)

**Dictionary entries.** As dictionaries generally do not include a reference to the author(s) of individual entries, the title of the entry is used in place of the names of the authors. Many (especially large) dictionaries also do not mention specific editors, as there is usually a large team of editors working on them. In these cases, only the title of the dictionary needs to be mentioned. Printed dictionaries are otherwise treated just like any other edited volume (see Section 4.3):

- (39) a. Title of entry. Year of publication. In Editor name[s] (ed[s].), *Title of dictionary*, \*Edition, \*Volume, Page range. Place of publication: Publisher.

- b. Title of entry. Year of publication. In *Title of dictionary*, \*Edition, \*Volume, Page range. Place of publication: Publisher.

Online dictionaries omit the edition, volume, page range, and publication information in favour of a weblink and an access date:

- (40) Title of entry. Year of access. In *Title of dictionary*. (Full web address) (accessed Date.)
- (41) a. 'Biscuit.' 1887. In *Oxford English Dictionary*, 1<sup>st</sup> edn., vol. 1, 312–313. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- b. 'Cookie.' 2017. In *Macmillan Dictionary*. (<http://www.macmillan.com/dictionary/american/cookie>) (accessed 2017-10-20.)

**Presentations and posters.** Occasionally, you will want to make reference to the content of presentations or posters held at conferences or lecture series. Based on the basic monograph template, treat the academic institution with which the presenter(s) are affiliated as the publisher, and add information on the circumstances of the presentation (e.g. the name, location, and date of the conference) in parentheses. If available, include a web link to the presentation slides. As with manuscripts, the title of presentations and posters is not given in italics.

- (42) Presenter name[s]. Year of presentation. Title of talk or poster. Location: Name of Academic institution. (Presentation or poster presented at Name of conference.) \*(Full web address) \*(accessed Date.)
- (43) a. 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.)
- b. Bickel, Balthasar. 2005. Referential density in discourse: Typological and sociological factors. (Paper presented at ZAS, Berlin, February 2005.)

**Web content.** Printed sources or trustworthy online publications are generally preferable to web pages. Should you nevertheless wish to cite the content of a web page, try to identify its author(s), title, and the date on which you last accessed the page, usually in the YYYY-MM-DD format.

- (44) Author name[s]. Year of creation or last update. Title of web page. (Full web address) (accessed Date.)
- (45) Comrie, Bernard & Haspelmath, Martin & Bickel, Balthasar. 2015. The Leipzig Glossing Rules: Conventions for interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme glosses. (<http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>) (accessed 2017-10-20.)

**Others.** Other kinds of publications should, to the extent to which this is possible, be treated like the types of entries discussed above. Start with a monograph as a template, add what you can, then append any necessary non-standard information in parentheses to the end of the entry, as with manuscripts, presentations, and theses.

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