

Manual for Papers in English Linguistics



Picture source and acknowledgments

Cover picture: Courtyard of the English Seminar (Department of Languages and Literatures, University of Basel). Photo kindly provided by Sabina Horber.

Many thanks to Gunnel Tottie and Richard Watts for letting us adapt the *Manuals* from the Zurich English Department and the Berne Department of English Languages and Literatures and to Andreas Langlotz for allowing us to merge our ideas with his Manual from the Basel course *Introduction to the History of English*.

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1 General remarks

This manual is meant for students of English linguistics who are in the process of starting to write proseminar, seminar, MA papers, and BA and MA theses. It gives advice on how to choose a topic, how to write and to structure a linguistics paper, and on how to tackle some of the technical aspects of a linguistics paper. Please also note already at this point that the teaching staff of the English department feels strongly about plagiarism (cf. Section 4.4.8). This manual is also meant to help you avoid plagiarising other people's work.

2 Length of papers

The following numbers are from the study plans. It is imperative to discuss them with your supervisor.

BA

- Proseminar paper: 4000 words
- Seminar paper: 6000 words

MA

- Seminar paper: 7000 words
- MA thesis: 80 pages (30,000-35,000 words)

3 Comments on paper topics and different approaches

Before you start writing, you should approach a supervisor and discuss your topic with him or her. They will help you

- to define/clarify your ideas
- to flesh out these ideas
- to grasp how to structure your main argument and limit its scope
- to find out what methodological steps you will have to take
- to 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 supervising your work before you start working on a paper, as outlined in the regulations.

In your papers, you are supposed to 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

focussed research question rather than a broad and shallow summary of a large research area.

To tackle, develop and grasp the complex structure of the academic product ‘research paper’, we suggest the following mnemonic **rule of ‘hand’** (an obvious pun on the English idiom *a rule of thumb* = ‘a rough measure’), which you should keep in mind when working on your paper.



Figure 1: Rule of ‘hand’

3.1 Different types of papers

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

- a critical review of a section of the literature on the topic chosen
- a presentation of an area of research and some of the problems involved
- 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 comments on this will be given in Section 4.3 (on the structuring phase) and Section 5 (on presenting a concrete example).

3.2 Areas of language study in which papers might be written

Theoretical linguistics

- a comparison of two or more approaches to the description of language data
- the historical development of one major approach to language description

- a contrastive description of one structure (syntactic, morphological, phonological, etc.) using English and one other language (e.g. French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Swahili, etc.)
- a critical evaluation of some of the literature on any one aspect of language structure (syntactic, morphological, phonological, etc.), e.g. passive vs. active, aspect/tense/modality, word ordering, noun phrase modification, question formation, quantifiers, etc.
- a critical evaluation of the empirical validation of linguistic theories in, for example, usage-based models or corpus linguistics

Problems of meaning

- a comparison of two or more approaches to lexical meaning
- a presentation of some of the problems involved in sense and reference relations
- a review of some of the problems of sentence meaning, e.g. compositional semantics vs. truth conditional semantics
- a review of processes of meaning extension and change and/or the cognitive processes underlying semantic and pragmatic interpretation (metaphor theory, mental space theory, frame semantics)
- a presentation of an approach to the problem of interpreting/deriving meaning, e.g. semiotics and the code model of meaning, Grice's Cooperative Principle, the theory of relevance, the cognitive approach to language and communication, etc.
- one area within the field of pragmatics, e.g. presuppositions, implicatures, utterance meaning vs. sentence meaning, etc.
- an illustration, using data, of the analytical usefulness of speech act theory
- a critical presentation of one work within the area of speech act theory or pragmatics

The study of discourse

- a presentation of some of the concepts of text linguistics, e.g. the notions of coherence and cohesion, notions such as topic vs. comment, focus, new vs. given information, etc.
- an analysis of a written text (literary or non-literary) along the lines of one set of theoretical principles, e.g. text linguistics, conversation analytic, narratological, interactional, etc.
- a contrastive presentation of some of the principles of two or more approaches to discourse, e.g. principles of the ethnography of communication, principles of conversation analysis, principles of ethnomethodology, etc.
- an interpretive analysis of an extract of real language data, e.g. radio phone-in programmes, discussions, TV programmes, family discourse, etc.
- a presentation of one form of discourse with concrete examples, e.g. magazine, newspaper or TV advertising, newspaper articles, academic discourse, public discussion/debate, lectures, etc.
- an analysis of one discourse structure, e.g. tag questions, pauses and silence, discourse markers like *well* or *you know*, rhythm and prosody, repetition,

formulaic language such as greetings, leave-takings, apologies, requests for information, etc.

Sociolinguistics and the sociology of language

- a critical evaluation of one well-known, influential work in quantitative sociolinguistics, e.g. Trudgill, Labov, Milroy, Cheshire, Horvath, etc.
- a description of some of the problems in doing sociolinguistic research, e.g. devising questionnaires, choosing the linguistic and social variables to be tested, setting up a representative informant sample, statistical methods of evaluation, etc.
- a contrastive presentation of two or more approaches to the study of language and society, language and social interaction, e.g. the ethnography of speech/communication (or interactional sociolinguistics), large-scale quantitative field studies, language planning, etc.
- an analysis of data with regard to one aspect of language in society, e.g. male vs. female discourse strategies, power and status in language (doctor/patient discourse, teacher/student discourse, etc.), linguistic variation, code-switching and -mixing, social discrimination through language use (racism, sexism, etc.), etc.
- the presentation of one problem of language maintenance in the English-speaking world, e.g. Irish in Ireland, Welsh and Gaelic in Britain, North American Indian languages in the USA and Canada, aboriginal languages in Australia, Maori in New Zealand, etc.
- a discussion of the status and support of community languages other than English in Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia, etc.
- a presentation of some work on English-based pidgins and creoles
- a description of one or more English-based pidgin or creole
- a presentation of some of the problems involved in bilingualism

Anthropological linguistics

- the presentation of one or more works on the significance of language for the development of ethnic identity
- a presentation of some problems in cross-cultural (or intercultural) communication, e.g. in certain forms of discourse (courts, business, education, etc.), involving cultural differences (pausing, prosodic structure, intervention and interruption, use of discourse markers, etc.)
- a critical assessment of studies on the relationship between language, culture, and thought (linguistic relativity; Sapir-Whorf hypothesis)
- a presentation of the methods of ethnography and participant observation, including the problem of the observer's paradox
- a critical appraisal of a choice of texts on politeness phenomena across cultures

Standard and dialect

- a presentation of works assessing the distinction between formal vs. informal styles, colloquial language vs. slang, etc.

- a presentation of works dealing with the notion of standard language and processes of standardization
- a review of dialect studies and studies on accent
- a discussion of attitudes towards language as these are presented in the literature, e.g. stigmatisation of dialect, prescriptive teaching methods, etc.

Historical linguistics

- a critical presentation of the development of one linguistic structure in English, e.g. syntactic, morphological, phonological, lexical, etc.
- a description of early grammars of English either from the sixteenth or the seventeenth century, a critical evaluation of one work on historical linguistics
- an analysis of a text from an earlier period of English (up to 1600) to display typical features of that period in the development of English and changes that have taken place since then

Linguistics and the study of literature

- a presentation of linguistic analyses of literary texts
- a critical appraisal of two or more theories of narratology (i.e. the structural / functional approach to the study of narrative texts)
- a presentation of approach(es) to the area of style and language, e.g. linguistic differences in the style of two authors, linguistic differences in the dominant styles of two different historical periods, the empirical stylistic approach to literary texts, etc. a brief analysis of one short literary text based on linguistic methods

The acquisition of language

- a presentation of different theoretical approaches to the question of child language acquisition
- a presentation of aspects of language acquisition using data from the literature, e.g. the acquisition of word meanings, the acquisition of syntax, the acquisition of phonology, etc.
- a brief review of interactional aspects of language acquisition, e.g. nature of the input data, Child Directed Speech, prelinguistic development, etc.
- a critical presentation of form(s) of impairment in language acquisition, i.e. a form of disability
- a critical presentation of theory/theories of natural second language acquisition in comparison with the processes of first language acquisition

Language teaching/learning

- a contrastive presentation of theories of language learning in an institutional (school) framework
- a critical presentation of error analysis and the theory of interlanguage
- a presentation of new ideas on language teaching/learning, e.g. immersion programmes, suggestopedia, the silent method, communicative approaches, group interaction, etc.

- a critical assessment of some of the forms of bilingual education
- a description of aspects of language in the education systems of English-speaking countries, e.g. in Britain (problems of multiculturalism / multilingualism, Welsh and English, new forms of oral evaluation in language examinations, etc.), in the USA (the problem of African American Vernacular English in the educational system, Spanish and English, etc.), in Canada (immersion programmes, problems of migrant groups), in Australia (new forms of language education in the light of the national policy on languages), etc.

Neurolinguistics

- a description of what is known about areas of the brain associated with language - a brief presentation of some of the clinical and therapeutic problems associated with language, e.g. forms of aphasia caused through brain damage, dyslexia, autism, etc.

Psycholinguistics

- a critical presentation of some models of language comprehension or production
- an explication of some examples of performance errors in language
- a brief critical appraisal of ideas concerning the psychological reality of linguistic theories

4 How to go about it

Every supervisor will work in different ways with you. Some will want to discuss your work section by section, others will work with you on an outline and then evaluate the entire paper. Talk to your supervisor to find out what is expected of you. In any case, you should allow enough time for revision after having handed in your first draft and having received our feedback.

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

- Look at the previous section on areas of language studies and choose something you like. Then go and use the library catalogue (card and online) to browse for literature. Especially students writing theses and seminar papers should make sure that they also use the electronic databases BLLDB, ERIC and MLA, which can be accessed through the University Library and also our website; cf. Section 9. This will give you an idea of what has been published on your subject worldwide. You can then go and search for the relevant titles here in Basel (or even in Switzerland).
- 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 supervisor** 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 supervisors may wish to see an outline early on in the supervision process. You are encouraged to make use of this opportunity (see 4.4.1 on how to structure an outline).

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.
- 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 knowing what the formal demands of academic writing are, and developing a structured argument for what you want to say. While doing your research, try to learn from the structure of articles and books that you are reading.

- The classical rule that a text should have a **beginning, middle, and end** is valid for all academic papers. Therefore, structure your paper in such a manner that it contains at least
 - (1) an **introduction** announcing what your argument is, what material you will be working on, and what methodological steps you intend to take; you may also need to mention what you are *not* going to do if there are other possibilities of dealing with the subject; at the end of the introduction, the reader should know what is in store in the paper.
 - (2) the **main part** of the paper, which can in turn be divided into “sections” (please remember never to use the term ‘chapters’ for a proseminar or seminar paper; chapters only occur in book-length productions, i.e. at the earliest in the MA thesis);
 - (3) a **conclusion**, should be more than a mere repetition or summary of what you have already said in previous sections. Try to tie up the whole argument – emphasising the unifying theme – assess your results, and perhaps comment

on where one could go from there. Do *not* introduce new concepts or try to apply them in a conclusion.

This basic structure is the minimum you should offer. Depending on the kind of paper you are writing (see above), you should make further sub-divisions. In Section 5 we outline one such possibility for a paper dealing with an empirical analysis of language data.

- The division into sections should never be an attempt to escape the necessity of establishing **links in your argument between each section**. Listed in the “Table of contents,” the titles of sections should offer the reader the backbone of your argument at one glance.

Do not hesitate to give the parts of your paper so-called **working titles** first, and to revise those titles once you have finished your paper and have a clear overview of where your argument has led you.

- **Scope of your argument:** if you realise that you have to leave a question open, i.e. that the scope of the paper does not allow you to deal with it in detail, then it is best to mention this limitation rather than to try and hide it behind fuzzy or bombastic rhetoric. Be honest.
- The larger your paper, the more necessary it is to go through several revisions of it. In the course of writing, you may discover that the whole structure of your paper needs to be changed because your work on the material has led you to new insights. Though it is important to **stick to an argument throughout an academic paper**, you must not hesitate to **revise its overall structure** if you see that the argument no longer works. This may imply modifying the original outline and moving around sections/chapters.
- What you must ultimately achieve in any academic paper is **logic and coherence of argument, and precision of expression**. The most effective way of checking whether your argument works is by asking a colleague or colleagues to read through the paper before you hand it in.

4.4 Writing phase

4.4.1 Make an outline (stick to the rule of hand in Section 3)

Make an outline according to the points in Sections 4.3 and 5. Your outline should include:

- main idea, hypothesis, thesis
- theoretical tools
- evidence
- argumentation

At this stage you should also rely 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, use as many **dictionaries** (OED) and **reference books** as possible. Even native speakers do not write papers without occasionally checking the meaning of words and their correct use in specific contexts and punctuation rules. The list of resources in English linguistics at the end of this document is a starting point.
- **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).

4.4.3 *Logic of your arguments*

- Your paper should be focused, i.e. it should follow through the arguments presented in the introduction. (A proseminar paper usually develops only one argument.)
- Remember that an academic paper is *not* an essay. Therefore, avoid giving impressionistic personal responses. 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 favour of / contest / dispute / contend / am critical of / disagree / question”.
- Aim at an evaluation that is an inherent and logical part of your argument. Also avoid broad generalisations, or pontificating about life and society.
- 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 in 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. As painful as it may be, delete these points if they distract from the argument you are making. Do not use footnotes to distract readers from the main line of argumentation.
- 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 linguistic community. This has several consequences:

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

4.4.4 *References to other people's ideas*

- One does not write an academic paper in a void: writing is a form of communication with a community of (imagined and real) interlocutors. One way of participating in an academic debate is by quoting. Remember that your audience needs to be given exact information about the sources of your quotes and ideas.
- 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, whenever you refer to somebody else's writing (or speaking), you need to include references.
- 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 and integrate them into your own argument in a visible way.
- **Quotations must be integrated into your own argument:** This means that everything in a quote should be relevant to your argument, either because it illustrates what you are claiming, or because you agree or disagree and want to show how and where this is the case, or because you propose to analyse the quote bit by bit. For these reasons,
 - a) always introduce quotations.
 - b) as a rule, do not end a paragraph in someone else's words.
 - c) avoid lengthy quotations in which several ideas are expressed at the same time, especially if they are not all relevant to your own argument.
 - d) comment on every element in the quote.
 - e) make sure that you have understood what you are quoting within the context of the other author's whole argument.

4.4.5 *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.

4.4.6 *Bibliographical references*

The end of your paper must have a list of all your sources, whether 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 programme that helps you to keep track of your sources (e.g. Endnote Web, which is available for free at the UB: <http://www.ub.unibas.ch/ub-hauptbibliothek/recherche/elektronische-medien/hinweise-zur-benutzung/endnote-web/>).

4.4.7 *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, about morality, broad ethical issues, vague political or philosophical ideas, and focus on the main argument.
- In general, make sure your conclusion does not end in someone else’s words. This is *your* paper.
- Use your computer’s spell check programme but make sure you do not let the computer correct words for you automatically.
- To see whether your argument works, ask a colleague or colleagues 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 gave page numbers in all cases – whether you quoted, referred to, or summarised someone else’s text – and that these numbers are correct.

4.4.8 *Handing the paper in*

- Hand in your paper in printed as well as electronic form. The electronic version must be addressed to your supervisor and the secretary (Alex van Lierde).
- Note that your paper will be checked for plagiarism electronically.
- Make sure that you have added and signed the plagiarism declaration available at <http://philhist.unibas.ch/studium/plagiat/>, which states the following:

“Hiermit bestätige ich, dass ich vertraut bin mit den von der Philosophisch-Historischen Fakultät der Universität Basel herausgegebenen ‘Regeln zur Sicherung wissenschaftlicher Redlichkeit’ und diese gewissenhaft befolgt habe.
Place / Date/ Signature”

It also requires you to give your name, the title of the paper, the date and your signature.

5 An example of how a paper with an empirical analysis should be structured

A (pro)seminar paper dealing with an analysis of linguistic data should normally contain the sections listed below. They should be numbered, except for the table of contents. Other modes of organization are more suitable to other types of papers. Please consult your supervisor for advice.

Formal elements	Title Page The following information should be included on the title page: Your full name, immatriculation number, what semester you are in, the date on which you completed the paper, the name of your supervisor, your contact details, the title of the paper.
	Table of contents Indicate sections and page references. Remember that page numbering only starts on the first page of the text, not with the table of contents. Indent subsections for clarity.
Introducit	1. Introduction State your aim briefly and indicate why the subject of your paper is worth writing about. Keep the introduction short. If your paper is short, this can be combined with the following section.

	<p>2. Aim and scope</p> <p>State your research question in greater detail and tell the reader what aspects your analyses will focus on. Make sure that the title of your paper reflects its aim and scope.</p>
Main part	<p>3. Literature Review</p> <p>Give a brief, critical survey of earlier work dealing with your subject and derive your research questions and hypotheses based on the state-of-the-art literature. Introduce your terminology and give important definitions of your theoretical concepts.</p>
	<p>4. Method</p> <p>State how you address your research questions / operationalize your hypotheses. If possible, give the most important sources of your inspiration.</p> <p>If your investigation is long and complex, give a step-by-step description of what you did. Illustrate and explain the categories in case of coding.</p>
	<p>5. Material</p> <p>State the nature of your primary material (i.e., your data): whether you use 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. Mention ethical considerations.</p> <p>The sections on material and method can also be combined to form one section.</p>
	<p>6. Results and Discussion</p> <p>First you present your results, and then discuss them. Analyse your data by applying the chosen theoretical and methodological tools. You may want to present your results in the form of tables or lists of examples, or both (see Section 6). 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.</p>
Conclusion	<p>7. 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. Also indicate what aspects or areas demand further study.</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. Consult section 7 for more information on how to compile references. Note that the title ‘References’ 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 (App. I, App. II etc.), but continuous page numbers with the rest of the paper.</p>
	<p>(Foot)notes</p> <p>Use your computer program to insert footnotes. Use footnotes sparingly and not for bibliographical information.</p>

Note: Each section can have sub-sections. For example, section 5 can be split into sub-sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. Please note that, if you use say 6.1, then there also has to be a 6.2.

If you write a **theoretical paper**, similar criteria apply, but obviously, there will be no sections on Material and Data Analysis. Try to state the focus of your investigation as clearly as possible – a critical review of the literature is more than just a summary of articles and books. Your task is to pinpoint the state of the art in a particular debate. Often, the positions held by different authors seem or are controversial. Try to work out if they are really contradictory, or perhaps supplementary because the authors address the problem from different angles. If you can't reconcile the different positions or research traditions, you may say so and thus identify areas for future research.

6 Other technical matters

6.1 Giving examples and quoting your primary material

Letters, words or phrases cited as linguistic examples should be italicized in the text; do not use double quotes for this purpose! 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 ...

Example sentences quoted in the text should be italicized, thus:

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

Preferably, however, quoted example sentences should be set apart from the main body of the text by indentation. This is especially important if they are longer than a few words. In that case they should be preceded by Arabic numerals in parentheses. Notice that indented and numbered examples are not italicized. This is a good example of how you may proceed:

Consider the quantifier *many* 'viele' 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

Notice that **examples should be numbered and referred to by number**, not as “the following sentence.”

6.2 *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. This is how you can do it:

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 do not have to be repeated every time you use the concept.

6.3 *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.

6.4 *Tables and figures*

Very often a table is a good way of displaying results of a quantitative (but often also of a descriptive) nature, because a table will help the reader to grasp at a glance what your results are. For instance, if you are reporting on the occurrence of different types of relative markers in three corpora of different text samples, your data could be presented as in Table 1.

Table 1. Relative markers in subject function with human/non-human antecedents in three corpora of spoken American and British English, the Santa Barbara Corpus, the London-Lund Corpus and the British National Corpus.

	Human antecedents						Non-human antecedents					
	SBC	%	LLC	%	BNC	%	SBC	%	LLC	%	BNC	%
SUBJECTS	n=76		n=56		n=70		n=48		n=63		n=113	
zero	2	3%	-	-	3	4%	1	2%	-	-	6	5%
that	25	33%	4	7%	18	26%	46	96%	31	49%	84	74%
who	49	64%	51	91%	47	67%	1	2%	-	-	-	-
which	-	-	1	2%	-	-	-	-	32	51%	23	20%
as, what	-	-	-	-	2	2%	-	-	-	-	-	-

Key: SBC = Santa Barbara Corpus, LLC = London-Lund Corpus, BNC = British National Corpus.

Table 1 is a specimen of purely descriptive statistics, but as such, it nicely sums up the situation. Notice also that even though a table is a practical way of summarizing

information, **it does not free you from also describing and interpreting your results in the text either before or after the table**, and notice that all tables must be numbered so that you can **refer to them in the running text**. A table must also have a clear LEGEND (at the top), telling the reader what is represented in it; again, this is for ease of reference so that a reader who wants to glance through a paper or quickly recapitulate an argument can quickly make sure that she or he is looking at the relevant data. If you have a lot of abbreviations in your table, you should also have a KEY to the abbreviations.

Table 1 above gives both raw data – absolute numbers – and proportions expressed as percentages. You may find it suitable to give this information in different tables, for instance having only raw data or only percentages, as this makes the reader’s work easier. If you give only percentages, you must always give the totals on which your percentages are based.

You may also choose to display your data graphically in figures, such as bar charts, pie charts, etc. See Figure 1 below, which provides the same information as Table 1 in graphic form. Notice that the **legend goes under a figure**. For both figures and tables it is essential that you state in the title, the legends and the descriptors of the rows and columns (x- and y- axis, respectively) what information you present.

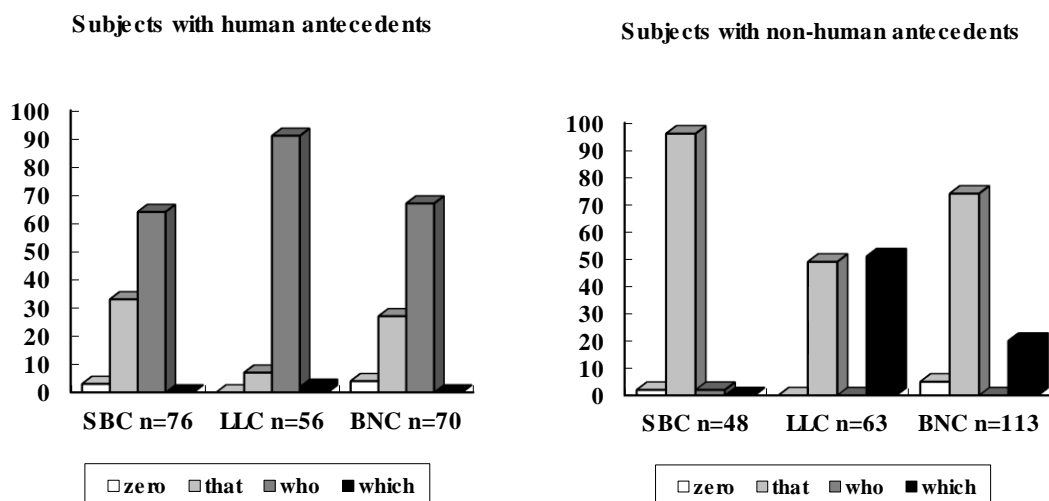


Fig. 1: Distribution of relative markers in subject function (in per cent) in three corpora of spoken American and British English, the Santa Barbara Corpus (SBC), the London-Lund Corpus (LLC) and the British National Corpus (BNC).

7 Style Sheet for papers in linguistics

7.1 How to introduce references within your linguistics paper

7.1.1 Referring to material within your text

References to books and articles are included in the body of the text **within parentheses**. The parentheses contain the surname of the author if it is not already mentioned in the text, the year of publication, followed by a colon, followed by a space and the complete page numbers. 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”. Therefore, take great care in proof-reading all your references.

EXAMPLES:

Schiffrin (1994) does not agree with ...

Schiffrin (1994: 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 and Levinson 1981; Sperber and Wilson 1985).

According to Locher (2004: 51), relational work comprises “the entire continuum of verbal behavior from direct, impolite, rude or aggressive interaction through to polite interaction, encompassing both appropriate and inappropriate forms of social behavior.”

Relational work comprises “the entire continuum of verbal behavior from direct, impolite, rude or aggressive interaction through to polite interaction, encompassing both appropriate and inappropriate forms of social behavior” (Locher 2004: 51).

Longer quotations (more than three lines) need to be indented in the form of a block quotation and appear without quotation marks:

Quirk et al. (1985) say that

aspect is so closely connected in meaning with tense, that the distinction in English grammar between tense and aspect is little more than a terminological convenience which helps us to separate in our minds two different kinds of realization: the morphological realization of tense and the syntactic realization of aspect. (Quirk et al. 1985: 189)

There is an indentation of about 1 cm for the block quotation and the text is single-spaced. The detailed bibliographical information is repeated at the end of the quotation after the final punctuation mark.

Sometimes, authors use emphasis in the original text. When quoting, you therefore need to indicate whether emphasis was already put on certain parts of the text in the original source or whether you removed emphasis. For example, the original passage in Herring (2011: 1) looks like this:

As a heuristic to address this goal, a three-part classification of Web 2.0 discourse phenomena is introduced: phenomena *familiar* from older computer-mediated discourse (CMD) modes such as email, chat, and discussion forums that appear to carry over into Web 2.0 environments with minimal differences; CMD phenomena that adapt to and are *reconfigured* by Web 2.0 environments; and new or *emergent* phenomena that did not exist ... prior to the era of Web 2.0.

You may wish to keep this original emphasis or remove it:

Herring (2011: 1) distinguishes between “phenomena *familiar* from older computer-mediated discourse (CMD) modes [...], phenomena that adapt to and are *reconfigured* by Web 2.0

environments; and new or *emergent* phenomena that did not exist [...] prior to the era of Web 2.0” (emphasis in original).

Herring (2011: 1) distinguishes between “phenomena familiar from older computer-mediated discourse (CMD) modes [...], phenomena that adapt to and are reconfigured by Web 2.0 environments; and new or emergent phenomena that did not exist [...] prior to the era of Web 2.0” (emphasis removed).

When you quote a passage and you add emphasis of your own, you need to indicate this in brackets (emphasis added).

You may 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: 14, as quoted in Kennedy 1998: 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. Use second-hand sources sparingly to avoid misrepresentation of sources through “Chinese whisper” phenomena. Whenever possible, check and quote the primary reference.

Page reference in the text has to be made to 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: 13)

7.1.2 Referring to material in footnotes

Do not use footnotes for references. They should only be used for additional information which you do not want to stop the flow of your argument. However, if you quote extensively from one single source, you may use a **blanket footnote**. This allows you to document all quotations after the first by simply using page numbers directly following the quoted material in the text (e.g. “All subsequent references to this text will be noted by page number in parentheses following each quotation”). Please make use of this option only sparingly.

7.2 How to present the list of “References”

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.)
- capitalization
- the use of italics
- punctuation

There are different conventions for referring to whole books or articles in journals or edited volumes, as explained below.

There are many different style sheets employed in linguistics as every organization, publisher or journal may have their own house styles. For you this means that in your readings you will find several bibliographical styles, but that in your own text, all bibliographical information has to be presented according to one particular style sheet. The instructions given here for the **reference section** follows the APA-style (the *American Psychological Association*, <http://www.apastyle.org>), which is widely used in linguistics and the social sciences. Many referencing programs such as EndNote, Citavi, Zotero, Mendeley etc. provide an output style in the APA format. [The Purdue Owl](#) and [APA Style Blog](#) are also excellent APA resources.

7.2.1 General rule for books

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

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

Note: The title is italicized and uses sentence case (capitalize the first word of the title and the subtitle as well as any proper nouns). Pay attention to punctuation.

The list of references will follow the **alphabetical order of authors' or editors' names**. Use a **hanging indent** for each bibliographical entry (see format in the rule box).

In the case of several works by the same author or editor, list the items in the **chronological order of publication** (earlier work first). Repeat the author's or editor's name for each entry. 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:

Clark, H. H. (1996). *Using language*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and power*. London, England: Longman.

Haugen, E. (1966a). Dialect, language, nation. *American Anthropologist* 68, 922–935.

Haugen, E. (1966b). *Language conflict and language planning: The case of modern Norwegian*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Schiffirin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Schiffirin, D. (1994). *Approaches to discourse*. Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Schiffrin, D. (Ed.). (1984). *Meaning, form, and use in context: Linguistic applications*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Van Maanen, J. (Ed.). (1988). *Tales of the field: On writing ethnography*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

7.2.2 Further bibliographical information

There are several aspects to remember:

- The title you are referencing may contain **several volumes**, or a book may be one in a series. This information needs to be given.
- If relevant, you should also mention which **edition** of a book you are using, whether it is revised, when the first edition appeared, or when the text was first published in another edition.
- The text may be by one author, but it is introduced, edited, compiled, or translated by someone else.
- The book may have **more than one author** or editor, in which case you mention them all unless there are more than seven (in the case of eight or more authors or editors, you list the first six then add “...” and then the last author). Note that you need to separate authors with commas and with an ampersand (&) before the last author.
- hyphenated first names need two initials with a hyphen (e.g. John-James is rendered as J.-J.)
- If the publication location is in the US, include the state abbreviation (e.g. Chicago, IL); for all other places include the country (e.g. London, England)
- For correct formatting of special cases, please refer to the current edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA manual)
- The following abbreviations should be used (for further abbreviations, see APA manual)

ed.	edition
Rev. ed.	Revised edition
2nd ed.	second edition
Ed.	Editor
Eds.	Editors
Trans.	Translator(s)
n.d.	no date
Vol.	Volume
Vols.	Volumes

EXAMPLES:

More than one author or editor (pay attention to the use of ‘&’ and the sequence of last name, followed by abbreviated first name):

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

Bolinger, D., & Sears, D. A. (1981). *Aspects of language*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

More than one place:

If two or more places of publication are listed, just use the first one.

Carter, R. (1995). *Keywords in language and literacy*. London, England: Routledge.

Michaels, L., & Ricks, C. (Eds.). (1980). *The state of the language*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Republished book:

A republished book is listed under the date of the first publication. The original publication year is added at the end.

Trudgill, P. (1975). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction*. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin. (Original work published 1974)

Revised editions:

For a revised edition of a book you should give the date of the new edition.

Mathews, P. (1991). *Morphology* (2nd Rev. ed.). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Multivolume work:

Osherson, D. N., & Lasnik, H. (Eds.). (1990). *Language: An invitation to cognitive science* (Vol. 1). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Book with an author as well as an editor/translator or other person presenting the original text:

Milner, J.-C. (1990). *For the love of language*. (A. Banfield, Trans.). London, England: The Macmillan Press. (Original work published 1978)

De Saussure, F. (1974). *Course in general linguistics*. (W. Baskin, Trans.). London, England: Fontana. (Original work published 1916)

Book by a corporate author:

American Council of Education. (1997). *Annual Report 1976*. Washington, DC: American Council of Education.

Dictionaries:

Crystal, D. (Ed.). (1992). *An encyclopaedic dictionary of language and languages*. Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Trask, R. L. (Ed.). (1993). *A dictionary of grammatical terms in linguistics*. London, England: Routledge.

7.2.3 General rule for parts of books

A title of part of a book (e.g. title of **chapter**, or **short text**, or **article**, or **section** in a book) should be given in normal font, without quotation marks, with sentence case, and followed by the reference to the book of which it is a part:

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

*Note: The title of the article is **not** italicized. The book title is italicized. Both use sentence case. 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). New York, NY: Free Press.

Arundale, R. B. (2010). Relating. In M. A. Locher & S. L. Graham (Eds.), *Interpersonal pragmatics* (pp. 137–165). Berlin, Germany: Mouton.

If you list **more than one article from the same book**, you may enter the book itself, with complete publication information, and list individual items by **using cross-references to the main entry**. In a cross-reference, the last name of the editor of the book and the relevant page numbers follow the title of the article:

Labov, W. (1972). Rules for ritual insults. In D. Sudnow (Ed.), (pp. 120–169).

Sudnow, D. (Ed.). (1972). *Studies in social interaction*. New York, NY: Free Press.

7.2.4 General rule for articles in journals

Author's name, first name initial(s). (Year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical, volume(issue)*, page numbers.

*Note: The title of the article is **not** italicized and uses sentence case. The journal title is italicized and uses **title case** (i.e. all words but pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions are capitalized). Don't forget the volume and issue number and add the exact page range of the article. Pay attention to punctuation and the use of spaces.*

EXAMPLES:

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

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

7.2.5 General rule for an article in a reference book

If the article is signed, it is listed under the author's name, if it is not signed, it is listed under the headword.

EXAMPLES:

Lyons, J. (1981). Linguistics. In *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (15th ed.). Chicago, IL: Encyclopaedia Britannica.

Bullamakanka. (1988). *The Australian national dictionary*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

7.2.6 References to electronic sources

Electronic sources include e-books, online journal articles, online newspaper articles, online reference works, and others.

Electronic books

Provide the same information you would for a print book, but instead of the publication information (place and publisher) provide information on the e-book version, and the DOI (digital object identifier). For books without a DOI, add the URL.

EXAMPLES:

Dynel, M. (Ed.). (2013). *Developments in linguistic humour theory*. doi:10.1075/thr.1

Labov, W. (2013). *The language of life and death: The transformation of experience in oral narrative* [Kindle version]. Retrieved from <http://www.amazon.de>.

Electronic journal articles

Provide all the information you would for the print version and add the DOI. If there is no DOI, include the URL of the journal in the reference.

EXAMPLES:

Haugh, M. (2013). Im/politeness, social practice and the participation order. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 58, 52–72. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2013.07.003

Lichtkoppler, J. (2007). ‘Male. Male.’ – ‘Male?’ – ‘The sex is male.’ – The role of repetition in English as a lingua franca conversations. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 16(1), 39–65. Retrieved from <https://anglistik.univie.ac.at/views/>

Online newspaper article

For online newspaper articles, include not just the year, but the full date of publication. Italicize the title of the newspaper.

EXAMPLE:

Brody, J. E. (2007, December 11). Mental reserves keep brains agile. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>

Entry in an online reference work

If no year is available, use “n.d.” instead. Italicize the title of the reference work.

EXAMPLE:

Tweep. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from <http://www.m-w.com/dictionary/tweep>

Online Corpora:

If the corpus is linked to a compiler/creator, start with their name. Otherwise start with the name of the corpus. Note that some corpora indicate what information they want to be included when you cite them (see for instance <http://corpus.byu.edu/faq.asp>).

EXAMPLES:

Davies, M. (2010-). *The corpus of historical American English: 400 million words, 1810-2009*. Retrieved from <http://corpus.byu.edu/coha/>

British National Corpus. (2008). Lancaster University. Retrieved from <http://bncweb.lancs.ac.uk>

8 What do we base our evaluation of your paper on?

Criterion 1. Content and structure:

Does the student show a good understanding of the topic chosen? Does s/he present arguments in a logical way? Is the student critical of certain issues in the literature used? Does the student reveal independent thinking, i.e. introduce innovative ideas, interpretations, criticisms, etc.? When using data, does the student give a consistent and replicable interpretation of the data and use the interpretation to underscore a stated hypothesis or set of hypotheses? General structure: Is the text given an overall structure which is logical, balanced, with the appropriate use of theory, methodology and discussion?

Criterion 2. Appropriateness of literature used:

Has the student based her/his reasoning on a well-grounded presentation of the important literature on the topic?

Criterion 3. Language:

Does the student show good control over the structures and stylistic constraints of academic written English? This entails grammatical correctness, range of vocabulary, ability to write in such a way that the ideas expressed in the text cohere beyond the level of the sentence, correct choice of stylistic level (i.e. no mixing of language appropriate to colloquial and written modes of expression), control over the technicalities of writing (spelling, punctuation, etc.).

Criterion 4. Technical control:

Does the student display control over quoting, placement of footnote markers, internal text referencing, paragraph structure, and the consistent presentation of references in a reference section? Are the examples numbered and referred to in the text by number? Do the tables have titles and the figures captions, etc.? (Cf. Section 7.)

Evaluation:

In assessing the progress made by the student towards thinking and arguing academically, criterion 1 is most important. The first two assessment criteria can determine up to 60% of the mark. Since we are in a language department, the student must show good and accurate control of English. For this reason, criterion 3 receives 20 percent. Criterion 4 is important because the student should learn to master the technical vagaries of writing an academic paper in linguistics. Control over this aspect of paper writing is given up to 20 percent.

The following scale will be used to give a final assessment of the overall paper in the case of a mark (other papers are pass/fail):

57-64	4
65-73	4.5
74-82	5
83-91	5.5
92-100	6

Anything below 57 is insufficient and will receive a fail mark (i.e. 3.5 or less).

9 Resources for English linguistics

9.1 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 (Normeintrag/Standardeintrag) the database uses.
- Revise your search using the appropriate subject terms.

Please note that the **UB Aleph catalogue** gives you results for edited books and monographs only. For papers in edited books or journals, you have to do a database search. 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: **BLLDB**, **MLA** and **ERIC**.

More information and a list of relevant sources for linguistics can be found at the UB's 'virtual library':

<http://www.ub.unibas.ch/en/ub-hauptbibliothek/recherche/fachgebiete/anglistik/>.

Please also consult the "Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft (HSK)", which are available at <https://www.degruyter.com/view/serial/16647>.

9.2 Library Catalogue

ALEPH

<http://aleph.unibas.ch/menu.html> (Note: The catalogue only presents results of monographs and edited books available in Basel/Bern; not a bibliographical search tool)

9.3 Online databases available through UB

(see <http://www.ub.unibas.ch/en/ub-hauptbibliothek/recherche/fachgebiete/anglistik/datenbanken/>)

- Annual bibliography of English language and literature (ABELL): 1920-
- Bibliographie linguistischer Literatur: dt./engl., Onlineversion ab Jg. 1971
- **BLLDB**: Bibliography of Linguistic Literature Database
- Dictionary of Old English

- Encyclopædia Britannica
- Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics
- **ERIC**: Education Resources Information Centre (see link Online-Datenbanken)
- Internationale Bibliographie der Zeitschriftenliteratur (IBZ)
- International Encyclopedia of Linguistics
- LexisNexis (see link Online-Datenbanken)
- Linguistics Abstracts Online: 15,000 abstracts from nearly 300 linguistics journals published since 1985
- **MLA**: Modern Languages Association International Bibliography
- Oxford English Dictionary
- ProQuest dissertations and theses – A&I

9.4 Journals

The UB provides access to electronic and hard copy journals. Please consult the links below for lists of relevant journals for linguistics. In addition, there are many online databases that provide access to texts online. JSTOR, MUSE and PAO are among the most relevant for linguistics. There are also journals that are entirely free and published online, such as *Linguistik Online* (<https://bop.unibe.ch/linguistik-online/>) or the *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* (<http://jcmc.indiana.edu>).

Elektronische Zeitschriften Anglistik (a list of journals available at the UB):
<http://www.ub.unibas.ch/ub-hauptbibliothek/recherche/fachgebiete/englische-sprach-und-literaturwissenschaft/>

Elektronische Zeitschriften Linguistik (a list of journals available at the UB):
<http://www.ub.unibas.ch/ub-hauptbibliothek/recherche/fachgebiete/sprachwissenschaft/e-journals/>

JSTOR: <http://www.jstor.org/>

Scientific journals, excluding issues of the past five years (some of which are available through MUSE (see below)). JSTOR contains the following scientific journals amongst many others:

- American Speech 1925-1999
- Journal of Linguistics 1965-2006
- Language 1925-2006
- Language in Society 1972-2006
- The Modern Language Journal 1916-2008

Periodicals Archive Online (PAO):
<http://search.proquest.com/pao>

Project MUSE:

<http://muse.jhu.edu/>

Scientific journals from 1993 to today

A **selection** of linguistics journals:

- Applied Linguistics
- Behavioral and Cognitive Neuroscience Reviews
- Bilingualism: Language and Cognition
- British Journalism Review
- Cognitive Linguistics
- Corpora
- Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory
- Gender and Language
- Discourse
- Discourse Analysis Online
- Discourse Studies
- First Language
- International Journal of Corpus Linguistics
- International Journal of the Sociology of Language
- Journal of Applied Linguistics
- Journal of Child Language
- Journal of Computer-mediated Communication
- Journal of Historical Pragmatics
- Journal of Linguistic anthropology
- Journal of Linguistics
- Journal of Logic, Language and Information
- Journal of Neurolinguistics
- Journal of Phonetics
- Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages
- Journal of Politeness Research
- Journal of Pragmatics
- Journal of Semantics
- Language
- Language@internet
- Language Learning
- Language Learning and Development
- Language and Literature
- Language & Communication
- Language in Society
- Language Policy
- Language Variation and Change
- LiLi: Zeitschrift für Literaturwissenschaft und Linguistik
- Lingua
- Linguistic Inquiry
- Linguistics
- Linguistics and Education
- Linguistik Online
- Mind & Language
- Morphology
- Multilingua
- Pragmatics and Cognition
- Speech Communication
- Text and Talk
- etc.

See <http://linguistlist.org/pubs/tocs/browse-current-tocs.cfm> for Table of Contents of many linguistics journals.

9.5 Communal Online Platform

The LINGUISTLIST: <http://linguistlist.org>

This site offers a wealth of information. Subscribe to LINGUIST or LINGLITE to receive information on the newest publications.

9.6 Recommended Professional Websites

GOOGLE Scholar: <http://scholar.google.com>

Allows more specific searches for research related sites only, gives access to many previews of publications

Language Log University of Pennsylvania:

<http://languagelog ldc.upenn.edu/nll/>

Linguistic Resources on the Internet: <http://www.sil.org/linguistics/topical.html>

Linguistic Data Consortium: <http://www ldc.upenn.edu/>

Access to corpus data and corpus software

Corpus BYU (metasite for English Corpora):

<http://corpus.byu.edu/>

TalkBank (metasite for corpora in communication, including child language):

<http://talkbank.org>

Corpus linguistics: <http://tiny.cc/corpora/>

Bookmarks for Corpus-based Linguists

