

English BA / MA Thesis Stylesheet for ILS UAM

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(for theses in English)

Instytut Lingwistyki Stosowanej

Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza

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Spis treści

1. General information	3
2. Structure	3
3. Formatting	4
3. Quoting / citing	5
4. References	8
Appendix 1	12
Appendix 2	13

1. General information

This stylesheet is obligatory for all BA / MA theses written at ILS UAM. Any BA / MA thesis which will not comply with the stylesheet will be rejected unless necessary corrections / revisions are made by the student. Every student is also required to follow all the formal university requirements concerning the registration and submission of diploma papers (which can be found here: <https://wn.amu.edu.pl/dla-studenta/dla-studenta/praca-dyplomowa>). The issues which are not discussed in the stylesheet should be consulted individually with the supervisor.

A BA thesis should be approximately 30 pages long (the body of the thesis, not including the title page, contents, references, etc.). An MA thesis should be approximately 70 pages long (the body of the thesis, not including the title page, contents, references, etc.).

2. Structure

A BA / MA thesis should adhere to the general structure presented below.

- Front page (see Appendix 1)
- Summary in English and in Polish (approximately half a page each)
- Student's statement that the thesis was written by himself / herself (to be downloaded at: <https://wn.amu.edu.pl/dla-studenta/dla-studenta/praca-dyplomowa>)
- Contents (please note that there should be no more than 3 heading levels)
- List of tables / illustration / diagrams
- Introduction
- Chapters
- Conclusions
- References

- Appendices (e.g. analysed sentences, texts, questionnaires)

3. Formatting

The following formatting guidelines must be strictly followed in every BA / MA thesis:

- The thesis should be printed single-sided.
- Font: Times New Roman.
- Font size:
 - Body: 12
 - Footnotes: 10
 - Chapter titles: 16
 - Subtitles: 14
- Line spacing: 1.5 lines in the body, 1 line in footnotes. Paragraph spacing: before 0 points, after 10 points.
- Thesis title, chapter titles and subtitles should be in bold.
- Margins should be 2.5 cm each, with an additional 1 cm on the left for binding.
- Alignment:
 - Body: justified
 - Chapter titles: centred
 - Subtitles: to the left
- Indentation: the first paragraph in the chapter or subsection is not indented, all the others are.
- Page numbers: numbering starts on the first page of the thesis, but it should not be visible. The page number should be placed at the bottom of the page, either in the middle or to the right.

- Footnotes should be placed at the bottom of the page with numbering continued throughout chapters.
- Formatting of longer quotes (block citations):
 - Do not use quotation marks.
 - Indentation: 1.25 cm on both the left and the right side, with the first line starting flush left (not indented).
 - Font size: 10
 - Line spacing: single
 - The quotation should be preceded and followed by a single blank line.

3. Quoting / citing

Acknowledging external sources constitutes an integral part of a BA / MA thesis. If done properly, making use of other authors' ideas enhances the thesis by, among others, 1) showing that the student is familiar with the relevant literature about the topic; 2) providing additional arguments to support claims made by the student; 3) enabling readers to gather additional information concerning the area of research of the student. Referencing typically involves quoting, either directly or indirectly, or paraphrasing / summarizing. In either case it is essential that the source is properly acknowledged to avoid plagiarism accusations. If a BA / MA thesis contains the author's own translations of quotations from other languages, the first quotation should be followed by a footnote saying "All the translations from Polish sources are mine, XY", where XY are the author's initials. Below there is a selection (a-j) of typical examples of referencing, each with appropriate comments:

a) Nowell-Smith (1995) concludes that "[m]edical cases are stories not of pain and fear but of medical intervention, and the leading characters are doctors, instruments, and organs" (1995: 64).

or

Nowell-Smith (1995: 64) concludes that “[m]edical cases are stories not of pain and fear but of medical intervention, and the leading characters are doctors, instruments, and organs.”

*The two examples in (a) show that when quoting an author (notice the use of **double quotation marks**), it is possible to leave the page number till after the quote, in which case the year of the publication is repeated, or it may be acknowledged only once, after the first mention of the author’s publication. Notice that in the first case the end quotation marks follow the quote and precede the parenthetical reference, whereas in the second case the quotation marks follow the period. The use of square brackets at the beginning of the quote indicates that in the original source the first letter was capitalized.*

b) Therefore, you could use learned helplessness theory to predict that taking care of a plant may give older adults more of a sense of control and thus make them less vulnerable to helplessness (Langer and Rodin 1976).

*In (b) the lack of quotation marks suggests that the ideas of the original authors have been paraphrased and not quoted verbatim. Crucially, paraphrasing **does not** cancel out the need for proper acknowledgement, as shown above.*

c) As Lakeoff and Johnson (1980: 28) explain...

Quoting from a co-authored source requires the acknowledgement of both authors (using and).

d) This idea is advocated by Biber et al. (1999: 74).

Quoting from a source which has multiple authors requires the acknowledgement of the main (usually first) author, followed by et al. Notice that in the reference section full information will be given concerning every author.

e) The RESPONSA project yielded important results in both information retrieval and natural-language processing (see e.g. Choueka 1989; Choueka et al. 1990).

If we only mention certain results / ideas, etc. in passing, without discussing them in our thesis, we should refer readers to sources containing full information about the topic. For this purpose we use see, as in (e) above. Notice that if more than one source is mentioned, they are separated by means of a semicolon.

f) That is why adjectives denoting materials and adjectives invoking adjuncts tend to appear pre-nominally if no class is being established: thus we get *stalowe/drewniane/plastikowe drzwi* ‘steel/wood/plastic door’, unless in product description (cf. Trugman p.c.).

If we discuss a certain topic but at the same time are fully aware that the topic is also treated elsewhere, we may refer the reader to another source using cf. (short for confer). The source in the example above is not a written one, as p.c. means personal communication, which means that we have acquired the information through direct communication with the source (e.g. a conversation at a conference, an e-mail exchange, etc.).

g) There has been a wealth of research into this (Studdert-Kennedy 1998, 2000).

If you acknowledge more than one publication of the same author, you list the publication years in a chronological order using a comma.

g) The definition is taken from Kuroda (1995), cited by Pesetsky (1995: 34), and it says that...

The example above is a good illustration of indirect quoting, which means that even though we quote Kuroda (1995), we could not get access to the original work and our source for Kuroda’s quotation is Pesetsky’s publication. It is very important in such situations to acknowledge both sources. More generally, indirect quoting should always be our last resort if all attempts to find the original work prove unsuccessful.

i) As Jackendoff (2004) claims/suggests/proposes/asserts/maintains...

Grzegorzczkowa (1999: 20) demonstrates that... / As demonstrated in Grzegorzczkowa (1999: 20), ...

As Lakeoff and Johnson (1980: 28) explain...

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Grimshaw (1990) partly subscribes to the view that preoccupare/frighten class of psych verbs is unaccusative .

Notice the use of certain verbs, such as claim, suggest, explain, etc., which typically introduce the quoted / paraphrased passages.

j) The Oxford English Dictionary (henceforth OED) defines the term ‘interference’ as...

When quoting from an encyclopedia or a dictionary, it is important to include the full name of the source and if there are multiple references to the same source, we should form an abbreviation (introduced by the word henceforth) after the first occurrence of the full name and use it instead of repeating the full name, as in (j) above.

4. References

The References page starts with word “References” placed on top and in the middle of the page.

Authors:

Authors’ names are listed in an alphabetical order. (First you need to highlight all the names, then click on the “sort” icon in the tool bar on top of the screen, and choose the A-Z command, and then OK)

All authors’ names start with last name, comma, first name, comma, second name (if used), and then a full stop.

For more authors you need to separate the last name with the linking word “and”. So , you start with the main author’s name, comma, his/her first name, comma, first name of the second author, comma, his/her last name, comma, **and**, first name of the third author, comma, his/her last name and then a full stop.

The same applies to the Internet sources. If you use the Internet articles find the author, and include in the list as shown above.

Year of publication:

The year of publication is placed after the author(s) with a full stop following it.

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Titles:

The titles of monographs need to be formatted in italics. Observe that the titles of articles are given in inverted commas and the titles of the journals are formatted in italics.

Editors

If the names listed in the references refer to editors you need to indicate this by placing “ed.” or “eds” in brackets after the name(s)

Volume and Issue number

The title of the journal is followed by the volume number and the issue number, and the latter one is given in brackets.

Page numbers

Page numbers are provided at the end. You write just numerals (without a word “page” or “pages”), you separate the first page of the article or chapter by a hyphen from the last page, and then you put a full stop. Page numbers are needed for articles or chapters in the monograph.

Places and Publishers:

The title of the book is followed by the place of publication. For American sources you need to give city and state (only two letters indicating the state), and then after the colon you provide the name of the publisher.

DOI

For journal articles you need to write the DOI. The identifier is preceded by the prefix “doi” followed by a colon.

Web sources:

For the web sources, apart from providing the author’s name and the title, you need to give the retrieval date and the web address.

Retrieval date:

Open a square bracket, write “access date”, put a colon, and then provide a date, close the square bracket.

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Web address

Copy the address and paste it into the references list, remove the hyper link, do not finish with a full stop.

Sources without authors

For sources without authors just write the title and put it in the alphabetical order into your references list. You need to give the year of publication, place of publication and the name of the publisher.

For websites without an author just write the title of the Website Article in inverted commas, then a full stop, then give the website title in italics, then a full stop, then the website publisher, the date, the month and the year and finish with a full stop. Then open a square bracket, write “access date”, put a colon, and then provide a date, and close the square bracket. Finish with the address.

Newspaper articles

For newspaper articles provide the full date, i.e. year, comma, month and day (without a word “and”), and then a full stop.

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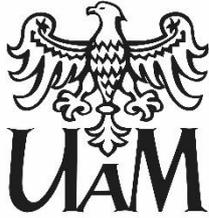
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Appendix 1

The following page contains a sample of the front page of a BA / MA thesis.



UNIWERSYTET IM. ADAMA MICKIEWICZA W POZNANIU

Wydział Neofilologii

Anna Kowalska

Instytut Lingwistyki Stosowanej

Lingwistyka stosowana

Nr albumu: 0000000

A Comparison of English and Polish Verb-Derived Nominalizations

Porównanie angielskich i polskich rzeczowników odczasownikowych

Praca licencjacka
napisana pod kierunkiem
dr. Jana Kowalskiego

Poznań 2018

Appendix 2

The following pages contain an excerpt from a BA thesis.

to common nouns). On the one hand, based on Alexiadou (2010), this fact is an essential common denominator between nominalizations and verbs. On the other hand, *nomina actionis* fundamentally function as nouns. To examine this matter further, the sentences in (1) will be analyzed more closely.

To begin with, in (1a) *evaluate* is a transitive verb, meaning that it requires a subject and a direct object. In many cases, including this one, an Agent is the subject of a sentence, and a Patient is the direct object. Thus, the verb *evaluate* necessitates the use of both the Agent and the Patient for the sentence to be grammatically correct:

(2) a. *The psychiatrist evaluated carefully.

Out of the other three examples, two action nominals – a verbal noun and a gerund – also presuppose the presence of a Patient. For this reason, among others, *-ing* nominals seem to be more verbal than the other nominalization types. Yet, as Alexiadou (2010) maintains, an action nominal can be assigned a semantic role as well, and in (1b), (1c), and (1d) the derived noun is actually the direct object, whereas *patient* takes the position of the indirect object.

Although morphologically related to the verb *evaluate*, the nominalizations in (1b), (1c), and (1d) can only be treated as derived nouns. This can be evidenced by the morpheme *-s* added to the nominal group (*psychiatrist*) in order to indicate the relationship of possession between a subject and an object (Krzyszowki 1982: 140). In examples (1b) and (1c) the preposition *of* is another marker of the possessive case that signals a relationship between the two nouns. In (1c) *evaluation* can only function as a noun because of its nominal suffix *-ion*. Finally, as mentioned by Alexiadou (2010), unlike a verb, a derived noun can take on a semantic role, which is a property typical of nouns. Although all this suggests that nominalizations are in fact nouns, their verbal characteristics also need to be remembered.

A gerund in (1d) appears to be more verbal than the action nouns in (1b) and (1c). What is most noticeable is that (1d) lacks the preposition *of* present in the other two sentences. Other than that, examples (1b) and (1d) seem very similar in their structure

and meaning. However, a significant difference between gerundive and verbal nouns can be observed in the following examples:

- (3) a. Sally's careful reading of the book resulted in an A. verbal noun
b. Sally's carefully reading the book resulted in an A. gerund

The sentences above show that verbal nouns, as observed in (3a), can only be preceded directly by adjectives, while gerunds (3b) are preceded by adverbs (Taher 2015). This disparity, as well as several others, will be expounded on further in this chapter. At this point, I lay emphasis on the similarity between gerunds and verbs in that neither of them can directly follow an adjective. This can be seen below:

- (4) a. Sally carefully read the book. verb
b. Sally's carefully reading the book resulted in an A. gerund
c. *Sally careful read the book.
d. *Sally's careful reading the book resulted in an A.

Alexiadou (2010) observes that, for the reasons given above, nominalizations are characterized by "mixed categorical behavior".

1.2. Gerunds

The purpose of the previous section was to outline the nominal and verbal properties of the different types of nominalizations, and to explain what the problems in classifying nominalizations stem from. Having summarized that, I will now focus on the gerundive, verbal, and nouns, respectively.

Extensive studies have been conducted on the topic of gerunds in English, some referenced sources including Beard (1995), Quirk et al. (1985), Siegel (1998), and Krzeszowski (1982). To begin with, gerund nouns are formed by adding *-ing* to the stem of the verb (Siegel 1998), causing the new word to function as a noun. Below some examples of gerund nouns can be found:

- (5) Painting makes her relax.
- (6) He took up smoking.
- (7) Lara congratulated me on passing the exam.
- (8) The biggest mistake of my life was choosing this job.

A gerund noun may occupy various positions in a sentence. In (5) the gerund is used as a subject of the sentence, in (6) as a direct object, in (7) as an object of preposition, and in (8) the gerund functions as a predicate noun¹. In order to negate the gerund, *not* is placed in front of it (Taher 2015):

- (9) Not sleeping made him cranky.

It has been stated by Beard (1995: 382) that *-ing* is the most productive suffix in English. Aside from its function of forming a gerund noun, Siegel (1998) observes that the suffix has a broad range of other uses. Some of them are illustrated in the following examples taken from Beard (1995: 382, examples 10-13) and Siegel (1998, example 14):

- (10) The boy is cutting flowers progressive aspect

¹ Information about the positions occupied by gerunds in a sentence is taken from:
http://www.softschools.com/examples/grammar/gerunds_examples/95/

- (11) The boy cutting the flowers present participle
- (12) He brought his cuttings in objective nominalization
- (13) A very cutting remark adjective
- (14) I spoke with Joe regarding his application. preposition

A deceptively similar formation to the gerundive noun is the present participle seen in example (11). The evidence amassed by Jespersen (1940), Declerck (1991), and Haspelmath & König (1995), cited in de Smet (2010), suggests that although both of these *-ing* forms are “internally clausal”², the difference lies in the position each of these formations occupies in a sentence. Namely, while a gerund occupies the nominal position, a present participle can take the place of an adverb or an adjective:

- (15) Sarah’s accident shows that skiing in those mountains is dangerous.
- (16) She danced away laughing like a madwoman.

In example (15) *skiing* is seen as a gerundive noun, in (16) *laughing* is a present participle occupying an adverbial position.

To reiterate the point made in the previous section, it is important to note that a gerund can only be modified by an adverb, and not by an adjective. This and other properties of gerundive nouns have been discussed e.g. in Krzeszowski (1982), de Smet (2010), and Taher (2015). An interesting characteristic of a gerund, remarked on by Krzeszowski (1982: 335), is that it can be formed from any verb other than modal verbs and *do* functioning as an auxiliary:

² Clause – a syntactic construction containing a subject and predicate and forming a part of a sentence or constituting a whole simple sentence (definition taken from <http://www.dictionary.com/browse/clause>)

- (17) a. Your having to leave was justified.
b. *Your musting to leave
- (18) a. Do you prefer to walk?
b. *Your doing preferring to walk / *Your doing to prefer to walk

Thompson and Martinet (1986: 259, 261) mention that there is a group of verbs which can directly precede a gerund. These verbs include, e.g. *admit, anticipate, involve, resist, enjoy, continue, avoid, consider, stop, suggest, prevent, remember, forgive, detest* etc. It is also noted that a gerund can directly follow a preposition (such as *over, on, at, for, of, in, after, without*, etc). Examples of these cases are found below:

- (19) Robert suggested going to the cinema.
- (20) She left without saying goodbye.

Additionally, gerunds are mentioned to occur alongside expressions such as *can't stand* and *can't help*, in phrases like *it's no use/it's no good*, after the word *worth* used as an adjective, and also after the verb *mind* (Thompson and Martinet 1986: 261, 263), e.g.:

- (21) We couldn't help feeling sorry for Samantha.
- (22) It's no use trying to fix a broken mirror.
- (23) This party was worth driving in the downpour.
- (24) She didn't mind coming home late.

An interesting observation is made by Taher (2015) regarding a gerund, namely the case of its subject, which, he notes, can be either Genitive or Accusative:

(25) He insisted on my/me reading it.

(T&M 1986: 262)

The difference between *my* and *me* in this example, as explained by Martinet and Thompson (1986: 262), lies in the register. They state that using the possessive adjective (*my*) is formal in style, whereas the pronoun (*me*) is often used in informal English.