MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY

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M.A (English Literature)

Research Methodology

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

UNIT - I - INTRODUCTION, ETHICS AND PLAGIARISM IN RESEARCH

- Introduction to Research - Problem Identification & Formulation – Research Questions – Hypotheses.
- Why document Sources? – Plagiarism – Research Ethics.
- Plagiarism detection tools. – Urkund.

UNIT – II – METHODOLOGY, LANGUAGE AND FORMAT

- Research Methodology – Research Design – Qualitative & Quantitative
- Format of a Thesis– Abstract – Chapter Division
- Language – Academic Writing – Use of Linkers – Introduction to Grammarly.

UNIT – III – DATA COLLECTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

- Gathering information about sources – Core elements – Optional elements – Materials and tools of research.
- Review of Literature – Research Gap.
- E-sources – Research Databases - JSTOR, INFLIBNET,ePathshala, etc.

UNIT – IV – THESIS WRITING

- The Mechanics of Scholarly Prose – names of persons – titles of sources – quotations – numbers, dates and times & abbreviations.
- Citations in forms other than print.

UNIT – V – CITATIONS AND REFERENCE MANAGEMENT TOOLS

- Works cited – Names of Authors – Titles – Versions – Publisher – Locational Elements.
- In-text Citations – Author – Title – Numbers – Indirect Sources – Repeated use of Sources – Punctuation in In-text Citation.
- Reference Management Tools – Mendeley.

Researchinoureverydaylives

We all encounter research in our daily lives. The results of research on many topicsare presented to us in the form of newspaper articles, books, reports, and televisionprogrammes. For example, crime level figures are presented to us by television newsreports and some topics, such as diet and health, are very popular with magazines aswellastelevisionprogrammes.Thus,throughvariousmediawehavebecomeaccustomed to seeing, reading and hearing about research and although we may notbeawareofit,weareusedtomakingourownjudgementsaboutresearchfindings.If we take the example of diet and health, many of us have taken into considerationinformation that has been presented on 'healthy eating' and have made our ownchoices about diet within the context of our own lives. Weassess the informationwith which we are presented, form an opinion as to the validity and relevance of theresearch,andcometoourownconclusionsbasedonconsiderationssuchas:

- whatweunderstand isthequestionorproblemto beanswered

- howthefindingsarepresented

- whytheresearchwasconducted

- whatweknowaboutwhoconductedtheresearch

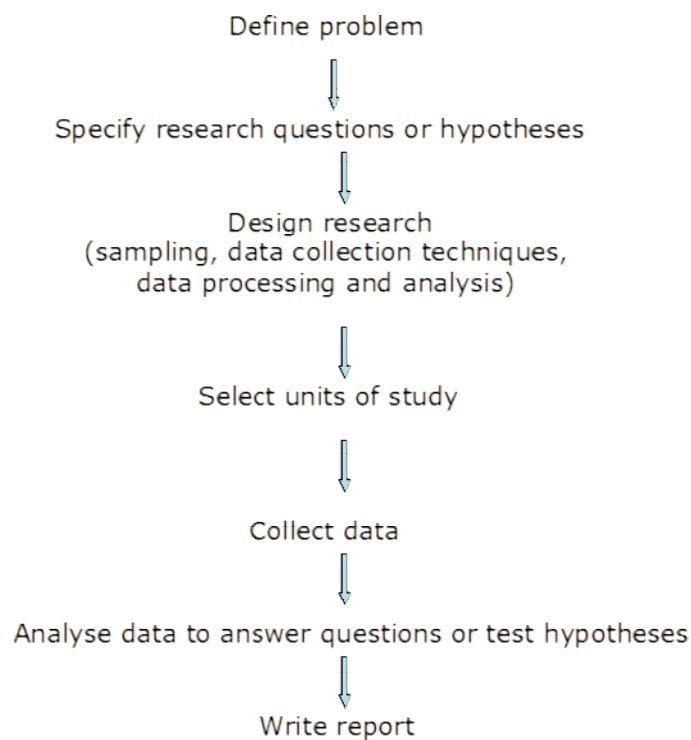- whatotherpeoplethinkabouttheinformation

- howtheresearchfindingsrelatetous

We may choose to ignore the information, we may decide we don't understand whatthe findings mean, we may disagree, or we may agree with the findings and eitheradjustoureatinghabitsordecidethatthecostsofadjustmentaretoohighrelativetothe benefits. Forsome,becauseoftheirlifecircumstances,suchas thosesuffering from a food shortage, the information may be of little immediate value. In otherwords, you may not be aware of it, but you already have some understanding of theresearchprocess,theroleofresearch,researchconcepts,andresearchevaluation.

Researchasaprocess
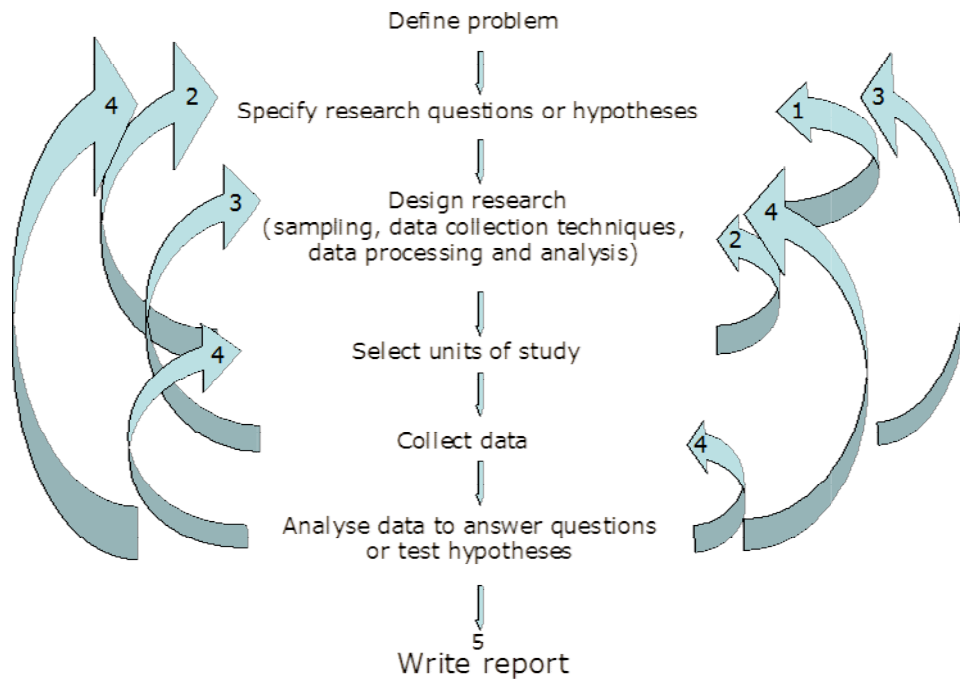
Research can be seen as a series of linked activities moving from a beginning to anend.Researchusuallybeginswiththeidentificationofaproblemfollowedbyformulation

of research questions or objectives. Proceeding from this the researcherdetermines how best to answer these questions and so decides what information tocollect, how it will be collected, and how it will be analysed in order to answer theresearchquestion.

Researchprocess—linearrepresentation

Define problem

↓

Specify research questions or hypotheses

↓

Design research
(sampling, data collection techniques,
data processing and analysis)

↓

Select units of study

↓

Collect data

↓

Analyse data to answer questions or test hypotheses

↓

Write report

Described in this way the research process is given the impression of linearity, yetresearchinvestigationisoftenaniterativeprocesswherebytheprocessofconducting the research will give rise to new ideas which, in turn, feed back into thedata collection and analysis stage. Decisions made early in the research process areoftenrevisitedinthelightofnewinsightsorpracticalproblemsencounteredalongtheway .

Define problem

Specify research questions or hypotheses

Design research
(sampling, data collection techniques,
data processing and analysis)

Select units of study

Collect data

Analyse data to answer questions
or test hypotheses

Write report
5

Cyclicaloriterativeresearchprocess

(1) Throughtheprocessofdesigningyourresearch,considerationofbothpracticalan dconceptualissuesmayforce youtoreconsideryouroriginalresearchquestion.

(2) Difficultieswithaccesstoresearchsitesorparticipantsmaycauseyoutoreconside ryourquestionsor your methods.

(3) Issuesarisingduringdatacollectionmaysuggestthatadditionaldataarerequiredo rrevealproblemswiththeoriginalresearchquestion.

(4) Problems or new questions arising from analysis of data collected so far may result inaneedtocollectmoredata, sampleelsewhereoremployadifferenttechnique.

(5) Finallyyouprogresstothereportwritingstage.

Regardless of the route taken subsequently, research should start with the problemandtheresearchquestions.Iftheintentionofresearchistoansweryourquestions,it follows that choice of method should develop from your question: choose themethod that can best provide the information you need to answer your researchquestion given the resources available to you. This is one reason why it is veryimportanttobeclearasto whatyouare asking.

As you can see there are numerous choices to be made within the research process.Planningyourresearchinvolvestheconsiderationoffouroverlappingthemes.

- Theconceptualapproach–thephilosophicalunderpinningsofresearch

- Researchdesign–howdatacollectionisorganised

- Datacollectiontechniques–howdataarecollected

- Sampling–fromwhomdataarecollected

Theseaspectsofresearchplanningcanberepresentedasformingdifferentlayersofaresearch 'onion'.

The 'onion' diagram of research choices
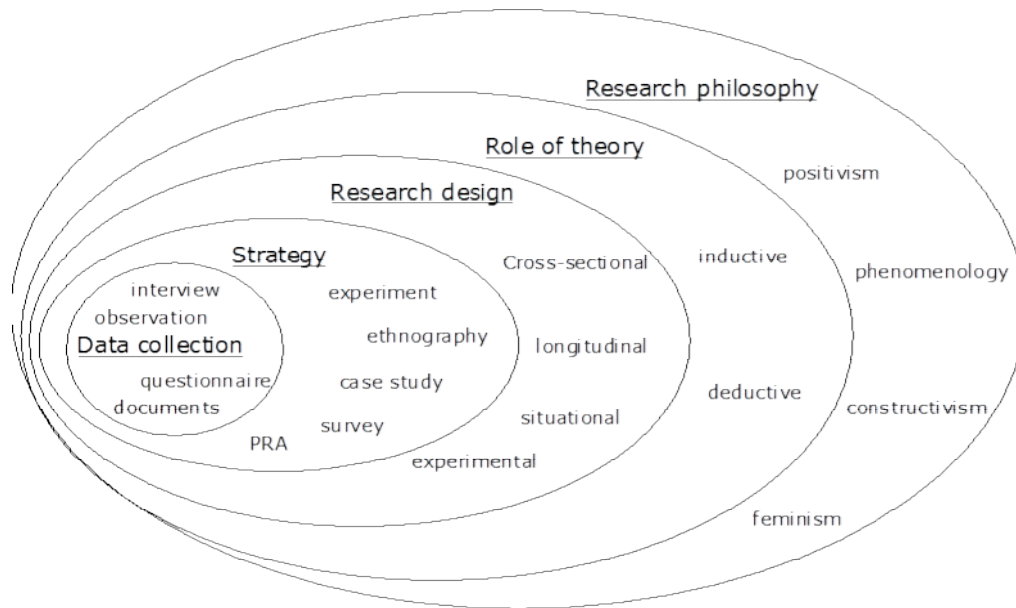
Eachlayeroftheonionpresentsadifferentsetofchoicesregardingresearchphilosophy, research approach, method and so on. All research involves choices at allthese levels, though these choices are not always made explicit. Choices further intothe centre of the onion are often, but not always, contingent on those made furtherout.

Other considerations

Choicesinresearch planningmustalsotakeinto accountthefollowing:

- the types of information outputs required – who needs the information and forwhatpurposes

- researchresources–time,funds,facilities,staff,andaccess

- ethical considerations – for example, within the research plan is it possible toobtaininformedconsentfromallparticipants,doestheplaninvolveanyriskstothesa fetyoftheresearcher,cantheresearchersassuretheconfidentialityofallinformationg iven?

Clarifyingterminology

You will notice when reading about research that different authors use an assortmentof terminology to describe the stages of the research process. This can make readingaroundthesubjectsomewhatconfusingand unclear.

Youwillcommonlyencounterthefollowingterms,someofwhichmayseemsomewhatinterchangeable.

- 'Research topic' often used interchangeably or to mean the same thing asothers'useof theterms'researchproblem'and 'researchsituation'.

- 'Research strategy' often used interchangeably or to mean the same thing asothers'use of theterm 'researchapproach'.

- 'Method' can refer to a broad strategy of data collection or a specific tool forcollectingdata.Forexample'survey'or'ethnography'aresometimesdefinedas methods, as are 'interview' and 'observation'.Forthis reason we willlimittheuseof thewordmethod.

The various ways in which approaches and designs are classified by authors are notalwaysdistinct,butoverlapandcanbeusedindifferentcombinations.Consistentuseofterminologyisalsocomplicatedbyoverlapbetweensomeconceptsorcomponents of the research process (for example, according to our definitions below'experiment'isbotharesearchdesignandaresearchstrategy).Thisreflectsboththedifferinguseofthesameterminologyandthefactthatdesignsmaybecombined.Thismodulewillapplyterminologyaccordingtothefollowingdefinitions.

Problem Identification & Formulation
IdentifyingandFormulatingtheResearchProblem

The first and most important step of a research is formulation of research problems. It is likethe foundation of a building to be constructed. To solve a problem someone has to knowabout the problem. So, the problem identification and formulation is very crucial for theresearcherbeforeconductingaresearch,andthisisperhapsoneofthemostdifficultaspectsof

any research undertaking. The "problem" is stated in the opening passages of a studyand, in effect, provides a reader the rationale for why the study is important and why it isnecessary to read. This module discusses the concepts and activities for identifying,specifying, and stating a research problem in both quantitative and qualitative researchand positioning it within a section that introduces a study, i.e., the "statement of theproblem"section.Bytheendofthismodule,readersshouldbeableto:

(1)Differentiate aresearch areaofinterestfromaresearch topicandresearchproblem;(2)Identifyone'sownarea ofinterest; (3) Determining the mostsuitabletopictostudy;(4)Explaintheimportanceofaresearchprobleminastudy; (3) Distinguish between a research problem and other parts of research process; (5)Identify criteria for deciding whether a problem can and should beresearched; (6)Describe how quantitative and qualitative research problems differ; (7) Write a goodproblemstatementsection;and (8)Write research questionsandhypothesis.

INTRODUCTION

Research, in a very general term, is a systematic way for finding things you and other peopledidnotknow,whicharecalledasresearchproblems.Inthissense,aswhatthediscussiononthe research process in previous modules has indicated, research is a process consisting ofthe identifying and defining research problem, formulating and testing the hypothesis throughdatacollection,organizationandanalysis,makingdeductionsandreachingofconclusionfro mthe test results of the hypotheses, and reporting and evaluating the research. Viewing itsprocess,research isessentiallya problemdrivenactivity.

Since research is problem driven, the first thing to deal in undertaking a study is toidentify and determine the problem to study. Identifying a research problem is importantbecause,astheissueorconcerninaparticularsettingthatmotivatesandguidestheneed

for conducting a study, it lays the foundation for an entire project. If the foundation is shakythe entire project is doomed to failure. This is why novice researchers necessitates absolutecautionintheinitialstagesofaresearchproject.Professionalresearcherscouldeasilyidentif ya research problem because they have been quite familiar with the phenomena in which aproblemgenerallypresentsitself.Byconsideringthephenomenawhichinclude(1)adifficultyor deficiency to be overcome; (2) a condition to be improved upon; (3) a gap in knowledgethat exists in scholarly literature that is to be filled; (4) a theory that requires meaningfulunderstanding; or (5) a body of knowledge or views held in different clime that requiresvalidationorconfirmationforlocalapplication,professionalresearcherscouldeasilyrecogn izesuitableproblemto study.

RESEARCHFIELD,AREAOFINTEREST,TOPICANDPROBLEM

Why could professional researchers identify a research problem relatively easy butnovice researchers find it difficult?The answer, as it has previously been indicated, is thatprofessionalresearchersarefamiliarwiththeirfieldofthestudy,whilenoviceresearchersstillhav e a relatively familiarity to it. Thus, to be able to identify a research problem, you shouldfirst make English language teaching (ELT) research, the field in which you are undertake aresearch well known to you. To achieve this, overviewing the ELT research and its area isworthdoing.

Before making an overview of ELT research field, it a good idea first to clarify the fourterminologiesinthissubsection:researchfield,area,topicandproblem.Researchfieldrefersto the whole areas of research undertaken in a specificscientific discipline. Thus, ELTresearch field covers the whole studies carried out in English teaching discipline. A researcharea is a specific part or section of a research field. A research area covers many topicsresearchers can study in the context of a scientific discipline. A research topic is "the broadsubjectmatteraddressedinastudy" (Creswell, 2012, p. 60). Since it is thebroad subject matter of a research, many investigators begin here. A research problem, asmentioned previously, is the issue being addressed. It helps in narrowing the topic down tosomething that is reasonable for conducting a study.Creswell,2012)definedresearchproblemas"ageneraleducationalissue,concern,orcontrove rsyaddressedinresearchthatnarrowsthetopic"p.60).

Therelationshipofresearchfield,areaofinterest,topicandproblem   isillustrated by Figure 1. It shows that ELT research field is divided into many research areas.Eachresearchareaisdividedfurtherintomanytopics,andeachtopiccouldisdividedintoso

meresearchproblems.

ELTResearchAreaofInterest

ELTisahighlydevelopingfieldofstudyallovertheworldbecauseoftworeasons.First,

English is the major means of global communication and the main language of scientific,cultural, diplomacy, and business affairs. This makes ELT cover a broad area. Second,English teaching is interrelated to many other sciences and cover many aspects of life.Consequently researches undertaken in this field should include these sciences and aspectsof life. Table 1 lists some of the common ELT research areas. Overview the list so that youcanchoose one or two mostinteresting items to study.
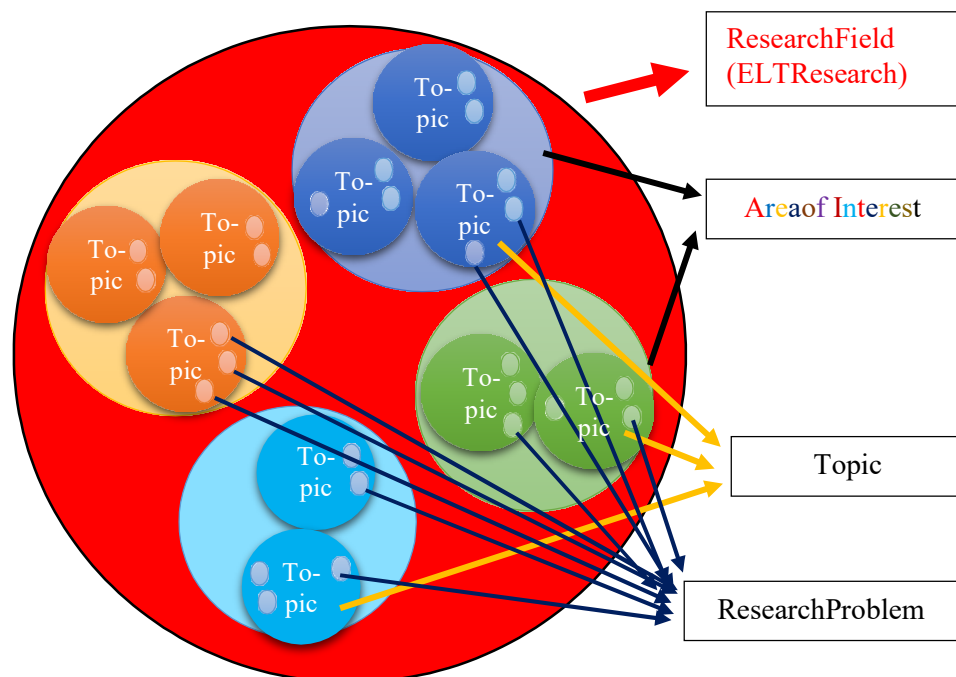

Figure 1.**ResearchField,ResearchArea,Topic,and ResearchProblem**

ResearchTopic

As mentioned earlier, after having research interests,it will be easier for you to determinethetopicor"the broad subject matter addressed inastudy",forinstance,mighthavedecided"TranslationinELT"asoneofhisresearcharea. Based on this, he selected "the use mother tongue in foreign language learning" thetopic of his study. In the same way, Angelianawati (2012) might have decided "Psychology,Anthropology, and Sociology in ELT" as her area of interest. Then she selected "students'beliefs about language

learning, learning styles, and language learning strategies" as herresearchtopic.

Whatshouldyoudotoidentifyandselectatopicbasedonyourinterestedresearcharea? Just follow these three steps. First, broaden and deepen your understanding about theresearch area. Second, make a list of possible topics to study based on the researchare. Third, choose the best topic by putting the eleven points below into consideration.The first step could be accomplished by reading literature review, research articles,handbooks andencyclopediasrelatedtotheresearchareas.Afterhavingbroaderanddeeperknowledge about the research areas, you are ready to take step two, i.e. listing the possibletopicstostudy.Afterthat,usetheelevenconsiderationsproposedbyReis(1999):

1. Canitbeenthusiasticallypursued?
2. Caninterest be sustainedbyit?
3. Istheproblemsolvable?
4. Isit manageableinsize?
5. Willitlead tootherresearchproblems?
6. Isitworthdoing?
7. Whatisthepotentialformakinganoriginalcontributiontotheliteratureinthefield?
8. Iftheproblemissolved, willthe resultsbereviewedwellby scholarsinyourfield?
9. Areyou, orwill youbecome,competent tosolveit?
10. Bysolving it,willyouhavedemonstratedindependent skills inyourdiscipline?
11. Willthenecessaryresearchprepareyouinanareaofdemandorpromiseforthefuture?

As indicated by the eleven points, there are some factors to consider when selecting aresearchtopic.Someofthemarerelatedtoyourparticularinterests,capabilities,andmotivations.So meothershavetodowiththeareasthatwillbeofgreatestinteresttoboththeacademicandprivatesector s.Thefirstandsecondpoints,whichconcernswithyourinterest,havepreviouslybeendiscussed. Nowlet'shave acloser look at the othernine points.

To make sure that you can finish your research on time you should make sure that thetopic you are selecting could be solved in a reasonable period of time (3), it is manageable insize (4), and it will lead to further research (5). You should also make certain that the topic isworth doing (6), so that your study makes an original contribution to the literature ELT field(7),andiftheproblemsolved,yourstudywillgiveresultsthatwilltaketheattentionofscholars in ELT (8). Last but not least, you should consider your capacity (knowledge, skills,

technicalunderstanding, research expertise, and resources) to tackle the problem (9). To developindependent skills in your discipline (10), you can start by defining and developing a problemthat is sufficiently robust based on the topic. To do so, you need to acquire a fundamentalunderstanding of certain phenomena or behaviors and experimental techniques in order tosolve the problem. Selecting a topic that will be in future demand (11) can be tricky. SomeELT research areas, such as error analysis and the teaching of grammar may have beenexciting for some time, but are now approaching maturity and shifting focus and are likely tobe less promising in the future. Other areas, like "ELT and Technology" and "Language,Cognition, and Brain" are quite popular. However, their newness and complexity may

makethemanyofthetopicsderivedfromthembeyondyourcapacityasanundergraduatestudent.

ResearchProblem

A research problem, as mentioned previously, is the issue being addressed in a study. Theissue can be a difficulty or conflict to be eliminated; a condition to be improved; a concern tohandle; a troubling question, a theoretical or practical controversy (or a gap) that exists inscholarly literature. A research problem helps in narrowing the topic down to something thatis reasonable for conducting a study. Creswell,2012)definedresearchproblemas"ageneraleducationalissue,concern,or controversyaddressedinresearchthatnarrowsthetopic"p.60).

Continuing with the topic identified by Pardede (2018), he looked at the perception ofsecondary schools students and teachers of the use of Indonesian in EFL classes. TheproblemisthatverylittleattentionhasbeengiventotheissueoffirstlanguageuseinEnglishclasses inIndonesiasothatthereisnoappropriateempiricaldatatopreparethegroundfora more reasoned use of Indonesian in the English classroom. By researching this problem,such necessitated data could be obtained. Based on the topic she identified, Angelianawati(2012) focused on the contribution of students' beliefs about language learning, learningstyles, and language learning strategies on students' English achievement as the problem ofherstudy.Byknowingtheroleofthosestudents'beliefsitwouldbeeasiertofacilitatethemtosuccee dtheirlearning.

Locatingtheresearchprobleminaresearchcouldbeaccomplishedbyaskingourselvesthe following questions. (1) What was the issue, problem, or controversy that the researcherwanted to address? (2) What controversy leads to a need for this study? (3) What was theconcern being addressed "behind" this study? (4) Is there a sentence like "The

problemaddressed in this study is . . ."? (Creswell, 2012, p. 59). The "problems" addressed in a studyareusuallystatedattheendoftheintroductionortheliteraturereviewsection.Someresearcharticle include them in a passage called the "statement of the problem" or in a paragraph putat the end of the introduction or the literature review section. Pardede (2018) stated hisresearch problem at the final paragraph of the literature review. He wrote: "The problemaddressed in this study is the perception students and English teachers towards the use ofIndonesian in English classrooms at senior high schools around Jabodebek (Jakarta, Bogor,Depok,andBekasi).Angelianawati,(2012)statedherresearchproblembywriting"Therefore,this research was aimed at investigating how senior high schools students' beliefs aboutEnglish language learning, their learning styles, and language learning strategies contributedtotheirEnglishachievement"attheendofthefinalparagraph ofthe introductionsection.

To better understand research problems, Creswell (2012, pp. 59-60) suggested tocompare it to other parts of the research process, i.e. research topic, purpose, and researchquestions. After looking at their differences, you will see that they differ in terms of breadthfrom broad (topic) to narrow (specific research questions).According to him, as it has beenpreviously mentioned, a *research topic* is the "broad subject matter addressed by the study."Pardede's (2018), research topic, for instance, is "the use mother tongue in foreign languagelearning". A*research problem* is "a general educational issue, concern, or controversyaddressed in research that narrows the topic. The problem Pardede (2018) addressed   is theperceptionstudentsandEnglishteacherstowardstheuseofIndonesianinEnglishclassroomsat senior highschoolsaroundJabodebek (Jakarta,Bogor,Depok, andBekasi).

A *purpose* is "the major intent or objective of the study used to address the problem.Pardede (2018) stated the purpose of his study as follows: "This study aims to investigatesenior high school students and teachers' perception of the use of Indonesian in their Englishclasses.*Researchquestions*"narrowthepurposeintospecificquestionsthattheresearcherw ould like answered or addressed in the study".Pardede (2018) specified his researchquestionsbywriting:

Morespecifically,thestudytriedtoseekanswerstothefollowingquestions:(1)Whatisthe perception of teachers and students towards using Indonesian in their Englishclassroom?(2)Whatisteachersandstudents'beliefintheroleofIndonesianinlearnin glanguageskills?(3)Whatisteachersandstudents'beliefintheroleofIndonesianintherole of Indonesian in learning language components? (4) How do the students andteachers' view of the role of Indonesian in classroom interactions? (5) What are thestudentsandteachersviewoftheroleofIndonesianinunderstandinglearningmaterials?

(6) What is the students and teachers' expectation of the proportion of theuse of English vs. Indonesian in their English classes? (7) What is the relationshipbetween the students' level of English mastery with their expectation in the proportionof the use of English and Indonesian? (8) What is the relationship between years ofEnglishteachingexperienceandteachers' use of Indonesian?

DifferentiatingQuantitativefromQualitativeResearchProblems

After identifying a research problem, you should also consider if it better suits a quantitativeor qualitative approach. Both approaches have merit, but since they differ in their essentialcharacteristics, you need to decide which one is more appropriate to use for your specificresearch problem. Look once again at the study of the contribution of students' beliefs aboutlanguage learning, learning styles, and language learning strategies on students' Englishachievement (Angelianawati, 2012). In this quantitative study, the researcher made a casethat we knew about the role of the students' beliefs about language learning, learning styles,andlanguagelearningstrategiesinEnglishlearning.Herliteraturereviewoncurrentrelevants tudiesshowedthatsomeone'sbeliefsaboutlanguagelearning,languagelearningstrategiesandlearn ingstylesgavesignificantcontributiontowardhis/hersuccessoflearning.Thus,theresearcherpredi ctedthatthedependentvariables(students'beliefsaboutlanguagelearning,learning styles, and language learning strategies) contributed to the independent variables(students'Englishlearningachievement).Totestthisprediction,shemeasuredbothdepen dent and independent variables and tested their correlation. This study, which *predictsand explains* the correlation of variables, is one of the typical nature of the quantitativeresearch.

That topic can also be studied by focusing on the problem of the effect of one of thedependent variables, e.g. the students' learning styles, to learning achievement. To carry outthestudyinvestigatingthisproblem,theresearchershouldfirstclassifythestudentsbasedontheir predominantlearningstyle,i.e.communicative,analytical,authority-oriented,andconcrete. Then after the students are taught the same materials in some sessions, they aregiven a posttest. The results of the test are compared to see which of the four learning stylesaffectedthelearningachievement.Suchstudy,which*explains*or*predicts*thecauseandeffectof variablesisalsotypicalof quantitative research.

The topic of "students' beliefs about language learning, learning styles, and languagelearning strategies" could also be directed to understand the beliefs students hold and thelearning styles and strategies they employed. In this case, the researcher does not measurethese three factors. He/she just tries to obtain detailed information to understand more abouttthephenomena.Astudyfocusingontheexplorationandunderstanding ofissuesistypicalofqualitativeresearch.

Basedonthediscussion,*explaining*or*exploring*and*predicting*or*understanding*couldbe used as

a standard to determine whether a research problem fits better to either aquantitative or qualitative study. If the problem tends to explain or predict the connections,relationsorcomparisonsbetweenvariables,itfitstoquantitativeresearch.Ontheother hand,ifittendstoexploreorunderstandaphenomenon,itsuitsqualitativeresearch.

To make it easier for you to determine for sure, you can use the more complete typicaldifferencesbetweenquantitative andqualitative researchproblemlistedinTable1.

DifferencesbetweenQuantitativeandQualitativeResearchProblem

QuantitativeResearchProblem	QualitativeResearchProblem
• Explains or predicts the connections,relationsorcomparisonsbetweenvariables • Containsindependent*and*dependentvariables • Measures variables for getting quantifieddata • Teststheoriesorbroad explanations • generalizes results to a large number ofpeople	• Explores, understands, describes,generates,discovers phenomenon • Learn and describe individuals'views • Assessaprocessovertime • Generate theories based onparticipants'views • Theresultscannotbe generalized

WritingtheProblemStatement

After determining the research problem and deciding the research approach to use, it is timetobeginwritingaboutthe"problem"inastatementoftheproblemsectionthatintroducesyourres earch study. Bryman (2007) defined a problem as "a statement about an area of concern,aconditiontobeimprovedupon,adifficultytobeeliminated,oratroublingquestionthatexis tsin theory or in practice that points to the need for meaningful understanding and deliberateinvestigation."Aproblemstatementconciselyoverviewstheissuesorproblemsexistingi ntheconcernedareaselectedfortheresearch.Itexplainstheissuespredominantinaparticular areawhichdrivestheresearchertodoin-depthstudyandanalysisinordertounderstandtheissuesand/or solvetheproblem.

TheResearchQuestionandHypothesis

Research questions are questions derived from the purpose that a researcher is trying toanswer in a study. A research question should be as specific as possible. If the purpose isquite complex,theresearcher can make twoormoreresearchquestionstocoverit.

Thequestionstobeaddressedinthestudyarestatedasfollow:

1. Whatarethestudents'andinstructors'perceptionsofblendedlearninginaone-semesterblendedlearningscientificwritingcourse?

2. Towhatextentdoesblendedlearningrespondtotheneedsandexpectationsofthestude nts?

3. Dothestudents'perceptionschangethroughouttheone-semesterblendedlearningscientificwritingcourse?

In a quantitative research, the research question is followed by hypothesis, while aqualitativeresearchdoesnothavehypothesis.Ahypothesisisastatementthatcanbeprovedor disproved. A research question can be made into a hypothesis by changing it into astatement.Ahypothesisiscommonlystatedintotwoforms:null(h_0)andalternative(h_a).A null hypothesis is a hypothesis to be disproved. It is usually made by adding "not" to thealternativehypothesis.Toillustrate,lookatthetwoexamplesabove.Thefirstoneistypicalofaqua ntitative research, whilesecondbelongsto aqualitativeresearch.

Identifying and determining the research problem, is the issue being addressed in a study, isthe first and most important step in undertaking a research. A research problem is derivedfromatopic,orthebroadsubjectmatteraddressedinastudy.Sinceatopicisselectedbyconsid eringthefactorsofinterests,capabilities,motivations,manageability,andcontributiontoliterature, theresearchproblemissupposedtohavefulfilledthesefactors.Thefulfillmentofthese factor canindicatethat the problemcanand shouldbe studied.

Before writing the research problem statement, the investigator also needs to considerwhether the problem will better suit a quantitative or qualitative approach. If the problemconcerns with the issue that needs to be explained, it is best addressed by quantitativeresearch.If the problem concerns with the issue that needs to be explored, it is bestaddressedbythe qualitativeapproach.

A research problem is succinctly stated in one or more concise paragraph (but notexceedsonepagebyincludingfiveelements:theactualresearchproblem,justificationoftheimportance of the problem as found in current studies and practice, deficiency (gap) inliterature about the problem, method (timeframe, participants, location and trend), and theorganization, and/or the individuals that will benefit from a better understanding or solution totheproblem.Theproblemstatementisthenfollowedbypurpose,researchquestions.Exclusively,t heresearch questionsof aquantitativeresearch arefollowedbythe hypothesis.

Why document Sources? – Plagiarism – Research Ethics.

Research means a careful investigation and careful enquiry with an Endeavour to find relevant facts, which will be useful in the future. The purpose behind conducting research is to find solutions to a fundamental problem. If we have a quality research outcome, then it might lead to further improvements in the society, directly or indirectly. Changes in society can be achieved through certain parameters and research is one of them; hence it is very essential that it should be conducted in a truthful and systematic manner. A quality research seeks answers to a definite question by using pre- defined procedure and techniques.

Law has been regarded as a Tool for social change and legal research is a means to achieve the same. We generally conduct legal research because some aspects of a legal or socio- legal problem might have been left untouched or a particular problem needs reconsideration or in order to assess a different aspect of a particular problem. There might be intellectual ambitions behind conducting legal research, i.e. to understand the problem or to learn something new or to challenge yourself in new ways.

Research is generally divided into three categories and they are scientific research, Legal research and social science research. Despite categorization, the same basic ground rules apply to all the three areas of study.

A legal research can be conducted by adopting a hypothesis and by the end of the research the

hypothesis is either proved or disproved. A researcher might work alone or with other peoples, who might be associated with the same area of study or in case of inter- disciplinary people from different fields can also be engaged.

The basic aim and purpose of conducting research is to inculcate original thinking and analysis, but extensive copying and plagiarism counters such purpose. Not only plagiarism act as detrimental for the field of scholarship but it has been found that menace of plagiarism is prevalent among university students and it is affecting them in numerous tangible and intangible ways.

Various reasons are cited to define the fact that why students resort to copying, one of the reason is the Lack of proper awareness among the students about the plagiarism. Some students consider that information should be freely available and transmitted and hence intentionally disregard the concept of plagiarism. Lack of time can also act as a negative motivation for students to resort to easy methods like copying or even outsourcing their assignment to paid online websites.

Plagiarism is also regarded unethical because when a researcher forwards somebody else"s work as his own original work, it might be regarded as a kind of fraud. It hurts the intellectual property right of the original owner, depicts disrespect of the researcher towards his peers and questions the integrity and honesty of the researcher. In fact, the initial purpose of conducting research, i.e. to learn and to commit something new to the already existent knowledge, is corrupted. Not only does plagiarism harms the prospects of original author, but a person guilty of plagiarism has to face much criticism and under certain cases he might have to face severe penalties, both monetary and penal.

A plagiarized article is considered uninspiring, unreliable and of low quality and one incident of plagiarism might jeopardize the whole career of a scholar. However, with the initiation of internet era, plagiarism has increased manifold, because now material is available to the students with much ease, but the reliability of such matter is generally questionable.

The primary attributes of a quality research paper are that it is well written, structured, clearly indicating the purpose throughout the study, describing and justifying the data collection methods, clarifying the results and the most importantly it should be original and non-plagiarized.

We aimed at discussing the concept of plagiarism, its types, effects, reasons and how it affects the overall quality of a legal research. And in order to control plagiarism, it is very much essential to know the reasons behind it and then solving them in a systematic fashion. Besides plagiarism certain research ethics have been discussed because overall quality of a paper is directly or indirectly related to these ethics. Besides this, a researcher should strive for becoming an ethical researcher because then only he would be able to produce a good and quality standard research.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is defined by Merriam Webster dictionary as "to use the words or ideas of other persons as if they were your own words or ideas". In other words plagiarism can be understood as copying whole or a portion of work belonging to other person, without acknowledging his original contribution. A particular work is plagiarized when a person presents a work as his original work, i.e., self generated, when in reality he has copied ideas or core text from other articles.

Plagiarism has been described as „unoriginal sin" and „cancer that erodes the rich legacy of scholarship". It shows a non serious and disrespectful attitude of a student towards his course, professor and the institution. If a paper is plagiarized then the basic purpose behind framing a research paper is defeated and the standard of a paper is deteriorated.

Degree and form of plagiarism is not relevant and a single instance of plagiarism will make the whole paper plagiarized and while ascertaining plagiarism, intention of the author, whether bad or good, is irrelevant. Similarly, it is of least importance to consider that whether the original source was web based or library based. The Harvard Guide to Using Sources supports these arguments as it states that:

"It doesn't matter whether the source is a published author, another student, a Web site without clear authorship, a Web site that sells academic papers, or any other person: Taking credit for anyone else's work is stealing, and it is unacceptable in all academic situations, whether you do it intentionally or by accident."

Types of Plagiarism

Although an act of plagiarism would be counted as plagiarism despite its form or degree, but still

it has been demarcated into various types and forms:

Verbatim Plagiarism- This is the most visible and severe type of plagiarism, wherein a person copies text word by word, in an unaltered fashion from the original source and without giving a proper clear citation or credit to the original author.

Mosaic plagiarism or patch writing- If there is a blur between original author and your idea or in other words copying small ideas or few words from the original source and interlinking them with your idea, without properly acknowledging, which gives a indication that the whole text is original, may amount to mosaic plagiarism.

Unintentional Plagiarism: When a researcher is following the authentic methods and sources, but omits to cite a source or when he paraphrase or quote poorly without citation, then also he would be guilty of plagiarism, although he did not had any intention to deceive or cheat.

Structure Plagiarism: In order to avoid verbatim plagiarism, many a time a researcher might paraphrase the original text and use the basic idea without citing the original author, then his act would be considered as structure plagiarism.

Self Plagiarism: If an author has generated a work on a previous occasion and later on use excerpts from that work without citing his own previous work, then he would be guilty of self plagiarism.

If the writer wishes to explain the original idea in his own words, then he should acknowledge the author to whom that idea belongs or else it would amount to un-cited paraphrasing, which can be considered as a form of plagiarism.

Why Plagiarism Is Considered Bad

Generally a particular thing is considered if its existence brings undesirable or unpleasant situations or results. Plagiarism is termed bad because its existence weakens the threads of scholarly work and injures the prospect of research. Some of the logics that are forwarded to explain the

„bad" nature of plagiarism are:

• If undetected and properly addressed, plagiarism might develop into a habit of the researcher and true qualities of a researcher can never be generated in him.

•   If an institute does not follow stringent internal plagiarism checks, then it might devalue its reputation if the students are caught for plagiarism, somewhere else. Hence it is essential that both the faculty and students take collective steps to stop plagiarism.

•   A research paper might have parts that contain very useful and novel contents but if portion of it is plagiarized, then overall quality will be eroded.

•   It defeats the basis purpose and aim behind conducting research.

•   It amounts to passing over somebody else"s hard work and valuable resources.

•   Besides grades, it dilutes the primary purpose of conducting research, i.e. to discover the unknown.

Reasons for committing plagiarism

Once it is known that a particular thing or situation is bad. We strive to know about it thoroughly, so that it can be avoided or eradicated in future instances. In case of plagiarism, the most debated questions is that what motivates students or writers to commit plagiarism. It is important to know because finding an answer to this question will lead us to the solution of countering the menace of plagiarism.

Although traces of plagiarism can be found in various fields of study and even the highest ranks of scholars are not immune to it but it has been found that the most affected people are the research scholars and university students and most commonly reasons cited for plagiarism by scholars and students are:

(a)   Lack of detailed awareness about plagiarism among students.

(b)   Many students consider that information should be freely available and transmitted and hence disregard the concept of plagiarism intentionally.

(c)   Lack of time can also be a reason for students to resort to easy methods like copying or even outsourcing their assignment to paid online websites.

(d)   If a student thinks that he incapable of writing a quality paper then he might incline to copy- pasting or paraphrasing.

(e)   Some students want to publish their articles at any cost and as a result they might steal ideas or copy edited or paraphrase text from articles published in reputed journals, to make their article look promising.

Mater Sociomed in has explained some possible reasons behind committing plagiarism as:

"Following trends of academic promotion and research funding, this entails the use of extensive text on the principle of "publish at all costs" or "Perish mantra"; Personal ambitions of poorly educated individuals; financial pressure."

The next step in the direction would be fixing the problem and if proper measures are adopted, the risk of plagiarism can be minimized or at some point of time it might be completely eradicated.

How to Counter Plagiarism

"It's not necessarily bad intent," Tom Dee says. "It's just bad practices." He conducted an empirical study on group of students before and after they were imparted tutorials on plagiarism and in the end it was found that once the students were made aware about the plagiarism, the plagiarism level declined sharply.

So it can be suggested that students should be first properly instructed about the contents, forms and other aspects of plagiarism before they are required to submit research writing.

Some of the suggested methods through which plagiarism can be countered are:

•	Choosing a topic of interest, because being familiar with the topic, the researche will try to write in his own words and rely upon his own ideas.

•	At the academic front, proper awareness and understanding about plagiarism should be generated.

•	Paper should be formatted in a precise and uniform manner.

•	Students should be asked to submit at least two rough drafts, before the submission of final report.

•	Citing the source at the same time when a text is picked from a paper.

•	Try not to read a particular paper repetitively, because the researcher might develop inclination towards his ideas.

•	In case there is doubt with respect to citation, it is always advisable to give a proper citation.

Why plagiarism detection is important:

The basic purpose of research is to discover new facts or to understand the existing ones more holistically and the same goal is blurred or defeated if the scholar has resorted to plagiarism,

instead of developing his own ideas or understanding.

Plagiarism is a serious offence and the same can be inferred from the real life examples of plagiarism and their consequences.

Harvard University student KavyaVishwnathan was accused of plagiarizing her debut novel, How Opel Mehta Got Kissed. Later on she had to apologize and return the received royalties.

Melissa Elias was president of the Madison School Board, but had to resign when one of her speech was found to be plagiarized.

Plagiarism not only attracts academic censures, but if copyright violations are involved then under certain cases, a person might attract heavy monetary penalty or a jail term as well. Hence it becomes very important to detect plagiarism at the very beginning of the research evaluation. IzetMasic describes that one of the important feature of plagiarism detection is that it improves quality of the research, he states that:

"The aim of combating plagiarism is to improve the quality, to achieve satisfactory results and to compare the results of their own research, rather than copying the data from the results of other people"s research. Copy leads to incorrect results."

Plagiarism can be detected both manually as well as through web based tools; however the online available Anti- plagiarism software are generally preferred because they consume less time and deemed more accurate. Using online based anti plagiarism software is important because it broadens the scope of search, because they access a variety of databases, which will take months, if done manually. Another reason is that the software highlights the content in various colors according to the degree of similarity. A researcher can also take the help of these software by perform an initial check of his paper and to save from future embarrassment and failures.

Plagiarism detection software has manifold advantages and some of them have been discussed in the article „Overview and Comparison of Plagiarism Detection" as:

"Copyrights and legal aspects for use of published documents also can be covered by using plagiarism software, so it can show whether this person has legally or illegally copied the

documents or not and it also show the whether this person has permission from the owner to use this document or not. Plagiarism detection is also one of the most important issues to journals, research center and conferences; they are using advanced plagiarism detection tools to ensure that all the documents have not been plagiarized, and to save the copyrights from violation for the publishers. ''

Disadvantages of Plagiarism Software:

Rebecca Moore Howard pointed out that because of online anti plagiarism software, a student has to prove that he is innocent before his work can be read.

Other major disadvantages of anti- plagiarism software are:

1.   It does not come free in most of the cases

2.   Student data and student work are being made available to   third parties

3.   Detects only collusion among students, and cannot detect material downloaded from the Web

4.   Students actually have to sit down to a test to fulfill the requirements

5.   Formatting is lost in the checking procedure, so essays for marking have to be submitted separately from essays for checking

6.   Sometimes unsystematic and labor-intensive, involves manual entry of strings.

Importance of Citation

A well researched article is generally built and supported by existing knowledge and writings, thus quoting from others work is essential and relevant. Plagiarism does not prohibit a writer from quoting or coping, but the only requirement is to give a proper acknowledgment to the original author. Quality of a research paper also depends upon the cited sources, i.e. a paper would be termed well written and researched if the credible sources are used, and for example, quoting from a paper published in reputed journal or a good book would increase the overall quality of research writing. On the other hand quoting from sources such as Wikipedia is not termed as relevant, because such sources are not considered reliable and credible within the academic circles.

A Paper would be termed original if the writer is using a material which is in common knowledge, then it does not need citation or acknowledgment, but whenever there is ambiguity in

deciding whether a source is common or otherwise, it shall be cited. Even if a person is using a work created by him at a previous instance, he has to cite the source or else it would amount to plagiarism.

Shaun Best described the importance of citation as: "A truthful research is an attempt to find evidence to support arguments and provide a more convincing account that is more substantial than our unsupported personal opinion."

Importance of citation has also been discussed by Robert Harris as:

"Citing a source, whether paraphrased or quoted, reveals that they have performed research work and synthesized the findings into their own argument. Using sources shows that the student in engaged in "the great conversation," the world of ideas, and that the student is aware of other thinkers' positions on the topic. In a nutshell, citing helps make the essay stronger and sounder and will probably result in a better grade. Appropriate quoting and citing also evidences the student's respect for the creators of ideas and arguments honoring thinkers and their intellectual property."

Generally scores of citations methods or styles are available, but most commonly used citation styles are:

(a)   MLA (Modern Language Association);

(b)   Chicago

(c)   APA(American Psychology Association)

And it is also important that a uniform citation method should be used throughout a research project.

RESEARCH

A research is conducted to add something „new" to the existing lot of information already available. It is not necessary that such new information should be novel or unique but it should be original and copy work should be avoided. Also, the original findings of a good research paper would relate to society in one way or other. If data is used in analyzing a situation then such data should be verifiable from independent sources.

Research is a rigorous process and in order to conduct a quality research, there are a variety of

factors which a researcher must control. There are both positive and negative factors and efforts should be made to maximize the positive and minimize the negative factor.

A research paper should be conducted pre-planned and researcher should keep a control over the study, such that, nothing should be added which is not associated or helpful with respect to the chosen research problem.

Todd Litman defines the basic characteristics of a good research document as:

"A good research document provides a comprehensive overview of an issue and discusses its context. This can be done by referencing books and websites with suitable background information."

Clarity of arguments is another important aspect and the paper should not be laden with ambiguities, which in turn will confuse the reader from the main topic. In order to develop and maintain the reader"s interest, a research should be concise, interesting and coherent.

"16Research quality is an epistemological issue (related to the study of knowledge). It is important to librarians (who manage information resources), scientists and analysts (who create reliable information), decision-makers (who apply information), jurists (who judge people on evidence) and journalists (who disseminate information to a broad audience)."

"A good research document provides a comprehensive overview of an issue and discusses its context. This can be done by referencing books and websites with suitable background information."

Concept of 'Originality'

"There is no unified legal definition of either the term „originality" or neither there exists any minimum threshold of originality "

Time and again it has been asserted that a research should be original, i.e. it should contribute something new to the already existing knowledge or it means pursuing such goals that have been left un-pursued. But at the very beginning, it is very difficult for a researcher to know with certainty that whether he is conducting an original research or duplicating someone else work. Safeguard to such a problem is that before starting, a researcher should take a layman"s overview of that particular area of study by conducting proper literature review and should avoid choosing

a topic which has been repetitively exhausted.

There are various parameters available to assess the originality of a particular literature. P. Cryer has discussed some of the aspects as:

"A project can be original in terms of: (1) tools, techniques, procedures, and methods; (2) exploring an unknown; (3) exploring something unanticipated; or (4) using data in a novel way."

Originality as an opportunity to learn and grow is essential while writing a paper but it does not mean that the work should be completely disassociated with what has been already written or researched upon, what it means is that the writer has to contribute his own inputs or viewpoint on a particular idea or topic. If a first term student is asked to write an original paper, then it does not mean that he should make an original contribution to that field of study but in reality the professor wants to make sure that student puts forward his own original ideas and develop a sound understanding on the subject.

Sometimes an author might have explained one aspect of an idea, and then another paper might build upon the same idea while dealing with different problem, or the same idea and same path can be traced but leading to an altogether different result. There might be instances where the researcher has to use some data from the original work of another author; in such a case, proper citation or acknowledgment is essential.

Readymade Research

The students are often misled by the online websites providing customized papers as per their personal requirements; these websites are known as paper mill, which promises to provide an original, plagiarism free and customized research paper. But in reality these so- called customized papers are generally of poor quality, unreliable, not well researched, not connected to core issue and very often plagiarized. Besides plagiarism, this kind of practices harms the very basic purpose behind giving assignment writings, i.e. to make the student familiar about the topic and the research methods. Hence, if he orders a readymade paper then the student doesn"t gain anything and there is lack of self fulfillment and money wastage. Very often these ready-made papers are simply recycled from previously available similar papers and might mismatch from the theme of the concerned students writing style, which makes it prone to plagiarism and additionally there is no guarantee for the quality of the paper.

Quality Research

Research quality is assessed from a variety of factors and importance of quality is a determining factor for the reliability and validity of the research. Research quality plays a determining factor, when a particular paper is considered for publication by the editor of a reputed journal.

Some of the important tests for ascertaining the quality of a research paper are:

Reliability: Is the research reliable, that is, if somebody else would conduct the investigation by using the same methods, would he get the similar results. Although there might be some variations, but in totality, a research should be consistent.

No biasness: Research should be visibly and practically unbiased, because a true researcher will analyze the information neutrally to reach a conclusion. But if there are pre conceived notions of biasness, then it would mean that research has been conducted to reach a definite result and not to reach an answer to a problem.

Validity: It means whether the study is successful in measuring or obtaining the result which the researcher was intending to measure or obtain. Specific and not generalized: Generally research is conducted to obtain an answer to a specific problem or question.

Throughout the paper, the research should be focused and related to the research problem. Additionally the research should have following characteristics as well:

• It is based upon theoretical framework.

• It builds upon the existing knowledge and offers something new by the end.

• Its outcome shall have some relation with real world problems.

• The research should be conducted in ethical manner and for ethical purpose.

• Instead of forwarding a rigid solution, a research should focus upon offering a result which can form a starting point for further study.

Qualities of a Good Researcher

In order to conduct a holistic and quality research work, the researcher should have some basic research attributes and skills. He must have proper knowledge about various data sources, data collection tools, formulation of good research design, plagiarism and research ethics. Some of the essential qualities that every researcher, irrespective of his domain of study should enjoy are: "Interest, motivation, inquisitiveness, commitment, sacrifice, excelling, knowledge, recognition,

scholarly approach, and integration."

The researcher should be properly trained in doing research before he is assigned any topic to research. He should be well aware of his research topic, different data collection techniques, a clear objective and aim to conduct the research and availability of enough funds and time. He should know how to transform his research queries or hypothesis into a reliable draft for conducting research. As there are variety of research tools are available for conducting research, so it is very essential for a good researcher to have proper awareness and technique of using such tools. He should know which tool will be best suitable in conducting a particular part of research design.

Besides practical and theoretical aspects of research, honesty of a researcher is of foremost importance and General Medical Council describes some basic attributes of an honest and ethical researcher as:

1.   "You must conduct research honestly. You must report evidence of financial or scientific fraud, or other breaches of this guidance, to an appropriate person in your employing or contracting body.

2.   You must be open and honest with participants and members of the research team when sharing information about a research project. You must answer questions honestly and as fully as possible.

3.   You must make clear, accurate and legible records of research results, as soon as possible after the data are collected. You must keep records for the appropriate period to allow adequate time for review, further research and audit, or to help resolve any concerns about the data or research project.

4.   You must report research results accurately, objectively, and promptly in a way that can be clearly understood.

5.   You must make sure that research reports are properly attributed and do not contain false or misleading data."

6.   Whenever possible, you should publish research results, including adverse findings, through peer-reviewed journals.

7.   You should make research findings available to those who might benefit. You should make reasonable efforts to inform participants of the outcome of the research, or make the information publicly available if it is not practical to inform participants directly.

A researcher who would follow these basic guidelines of honesty and other features of research would be able to produce a work which is worth reading and implementation.

Research Ethics

In our day to day life we follow certain rules and adhere to a certain behavior, which is termed as ethical. Similarly, a researcher has to abide by certain ethics while conducting his work and these principles are generally common to all kinds of research. As a true researcher, a person should follow such principle voluntarily and the same should reflect from his research process, design and its outcome.

There can be variety of ethics that a researcher should abide and some of them are discussed here:

(a)   Honesty: A true researcher should present the true and actual facts and position and refrain from introducing, fabricated, false or plagiarized information.

(b)   Objectivity: A researcher should avoid biasness in while conducting his work. Although he might have a particular position with respect to a particular problem but his work should not reflect the one sided approach.

(c)   Integrity: Especially in case of Empirical research, a researcher should fulfill his agreements and strive for consistency.

(d)   Carefulness: He should be very careful while relying upon certain data and leaving the other portion. One of the reasons cited for plagiarism is that the researcher was unaware of the fact that he is committing plagiarism. But the same can be avoided if the researcher acts carefully and diligently.

(e)   Respect for Intellectual Property: Intellectual Property Rights signify that their owner has spent time, resources and skill in creating that work. If these rights are not honored, then it will prove detrimental to the owner and neither will it contribute anything new to the field of study. This is the primary reason behind the introduction of the concept of plagiarism.

(f)   Confidentiality: If some confidential information is included while conducting research, then same should not be breached or leaked by the researcher.

(g)   Social Responsibility: One of the main reasons for conducting researcher is to solve the societal problems and it is expected that a researcher will not involve into anti- societal conduct.

(h)   Legality: A researcher should not commit or involve into illegal acts while conducting

research.

There is no doubt in the fact that quality of a research paper and plagiarism are related vice - versa to each other; which means a good quality research paper will contain no plagiarism and as the level of plagiarism will increase, the quality of the paper will start eroding.

Plagiarism is considered unethical and a research work containing plagiarism would also be termed as unethical and such a work would be signified as poor in quality. A researcher should also abide by the code of conduct accorded to a researcher and should refrain from any unethical acts while conducting his work.

With the flourishing of online research, the method of cut-copy-paste has also flourished and this has further worsened the situation, because instead of sweating in library, now many researchers rely on the comfort zone of their computer arena and most the time what they find on internet is unreliable or unverified data or information. It has been found time and again that University students are the most affected from this evil because they generally need to complete research assignments effortlessly or there might be lack of time or they lack detailed awareness about the basic concept of plagiarism. These practices lead to unjustifiable solutions to the research problem and overall quality of research degrades.

Although internet has led to increase in the instances of plagiarism but on the brighter side it has led to a revolution in detecting plagiarism because now a wide range of anti- plagiarism software are available, which have made plagiarism detection a effortless and swift task. Anti- plagiarism software even demarcates the level of plagiarism and search is conducted through variety of database, thereby making it very hard to evade plagiarism detection and ensuring that the very first criteria of a good research is followed, i.e. originality.

The researcher should be experienced in data selection technique, because there is a vast ocean of data available on the internet and if not properly analyzed and verified, it might lead to a poor quality of research. It is very important to rely on authentic and reputed journals like Harvard Law Journal, because before publication, its articles have to undergo different stages of focused review and editing. Following such practice will improve the overall quality of the research and this will definitely contribute something positive and concrete to the area of study.

Plagiarism detection tools. – Urkund.

Plagiarism Detection Tools

Detection software products use various methods to accomplish their analyses including text matching with indexed sources, style analysis of content, and tests requiring students to fill in blanks in their own paper. Each of these methods has advantages and disadvantages but all are similar in that they attempt to detect plagiarism after it has been committed and rely on the threat of detection, presumably coupled with punishment, as a deterrent. While this approach certainly equips educators with more time-effective tools to identify plagiarism and the fear of detection may deter improper behavior. The following software products are commonly mentioned on the internet:

1) **Turnitin**: This is a product from iParadigms. It is a web based service. Detection and processing is done remotely.The user uploads the suspected document to the system database. The system creates a complete fingerprint of the document and stores it..

2) **Urkund**: Another server based plagiarism detection web service which offers an integrated and automated solution for plagiarism detection. It utilizes standard email systems for submission of documents and viewing results. This tool also claims to search through all available online sources giving priority to educational and scandinavian origin..

3) **Copycatch**: A client based tool used to compare locally available databases of documents. It offers 'gold' and 'campus versions' , giving comparison capabilities for large number of local r sources. It also offers a web version which extends the capabilities of plagiarism detection across the internet using the Goggle API.

4) **WCopyfind**: An open source tool for detecting words or phrases of defined length within a local repository of documents . The product is being modified to extend searching capabilities across the internet net using the Google API at ACT labs10.

5) Eve2 (Essay Verification Engine): This tool works at the client side and uses its own internet search mechanism to find out about plagiarized contents in a suspected document.

6) GPSP - Glatt Plagiarism Screening Program: This software works locally and uses an approach to plagiarism detection that differs from previously mentioned services. GPSP detection is based on writing styles and patterns. The author of a suspected submission has to go through a test of filling blank spaces in the writing. The number of correctly filled spaces and the time taken for completion of the test provides the hypothesis of plagiarism guilt or innocence

7) MOSS - a Measure of Software Similarity: MOSS Internet service "accepts batches of

documents and returns a set of HTML pages showing where significant sections of a pair of documents are very similar ". The service specializes in detecting plagiarism in C, C++, Java, Pascal, Ada, ML, Lisp, or Scheme programs.

8) JPlag: Another internet based service which is used to detect similarities among program source codes. Users upload the files to be compared and the system presents a report identifying matches. JPlag does programming language syntax and structure aware analysis to find results

9) Plagiarism-Finder: This application compares the given document with sources on the Internet and generates HTML reports highlighting concurrent passages and providing links to the source, for verification. It runs on Windows 2000 and XP systems and accepts files in several standard formats such as PDF, DOC, HTML, TXT and RTF.

10) Ithenticate: The application compares a given document against the document sources available on the World Wide Web. It also compares the given document against proprietary databases of published works (including ABI/Inform, Periodical Abstracts, Business Dateline), as well as numerous electronic books and produces originality reports. The originality reports provide the amounts of materials copied (in percentages) to determine the extent of plagiarism.

11) PlagiarismDetect: This is a freely available Internet service. Users need to register by providing their names and email addresses. Once registered, text can be entered in the text box provided or a file uploaded for analysis. A report is then sent back to the user with a list of the links where the information has been copied from with percentages referring to the amounts copied.

12) Ephorus: This tool requires registration with the Ephorus site and, therefore, no downloads or installation is needed. Documents are submitted to the Ephorus website (www.ephorus.com). The search engine compares the given document to millions of others on the WWW and reports back with an originality report.

13) PlagAware: Is an online-service used for textual plagiarism detection, which allows and offers some services for the user for example can search, find, analyze and trace plagiarism in the specified topic similar to the topics, PlagAware is a search engine, which is considered as the main element, which is strong in detecting typical contents of given texts.

14) PlagScan: Is online software used for textual plagiarism checker. PlagScan is often used by school and provides different types of account with different features. PlagScan use complex algorithms for checking and analyzing uploaded document for plagiarism detection, based on up-

todate linguistic research. Unique signature extracted from the document's structure that is then compared with PlagScan database and millions of online documents. So PlagScan is able to detect most of plagiarism types either directs copy and paste or words switching, which provides an accurate measurement of the level of plagiarized content in any given documents.

15) CheckForPlagiarism.net: CheckForPlagiarism.net was developed by a team of professional academic people and became one of the best online plagiarism checkers that used to stop or prevention of online plagiarism and minimizes its effects on academic integrity. In order to maximize the accuracy CheckForPlagiarism.net has used the some methods like document fingerprint and document source analysis to protect document against plagiarism.

16) iThenticate: One of the application or services designed especially for the researchers, authors' publisher and other. It provided by iParadigms that have introduced Turnitin in 1996 to become the online plagiarism detection. It is designed to be used by institutions rather than personal, but lastly they provided a limit service for single plagiarism detection user like master and doctoral students and this allows them to check a single document of up to 25,000 words. So they can use this service to insure or to check their draft thesis whether containing correct citation and content originality.

17) PlagiarismDetection.org: PlagiarismDetection.org: an online service provides high level of accuracy result in plagiarism detection. Mainly designed to help the teachers and student to maintain and to ensure or prevent and detect plagiarism against their academic documents. It provides quickly detect plagiarism with high level of accuracy.

18) GPlag : was developed by Chao LIU, Chen Chen, Jiawei Han at the University of Illinois-UC, Urban in 2006. GPlag, which detects plagiarism by mining program dependence, graphs (PDGs). A PDG is a graphic representation of the data and control dependencies within a procedure. The PDG thus developed from original program and modified program are checked whether it is copied or not by graph isomorphism.

19) Marble: is a tool developed in 2002 at Utrecht University. Marble is a simple, easily maintainable tool that can be used to detect cases of suspicious similarity between Java submissions. Marble uses a structure-based approach to compare the submissions. It starts by splitting the submission up into flies so that each file contains only one top-level class. The next phase is one of normalization, to remove details from these files that are too easily changed by students: a lexical analysis is performed implemented in Perl using regular expressions that

preserves keywords like class, for and frequently used class and method names like String, System, and to string.

20) Plaggie: Is a source code plagiarism detection engine meant for Java programming exercises. In appearance and functionality, it is similar to JPlag. Plaggie must be installed locally and its source code is open. Plaggie was developed in 2002 by Ahtiainen et al. at Helsinki University of Technology. It is a stand-alone command line Java application. The basic algorithm used for comparing two source code files is the same as for JPlag: tokenization followed by Greedy String Tiling.

21) SIM: is a software similarity tester for programs written in C, Java, Pascal, Modula-2, Lisp, Miranda, and for natural language. It was developed in 1989 by Dick Grune at the VU University Amsterdam. The process SIM uses to detect similarities is to tokenize the source code first, then to build a forward reference table that can be used to detect the best matches between newly submitted files, and the text they need to be compared to. SIM detects similarities between programs by evaluating their correctness, style, and uniqueness.

There are various tools developed for plagiarism detection. But even the best detection tool can't detect better than human eye. Available tools on the internet help very much to detect plagiarism but we did not hear about one of them that have been chosen as the best tool, but we noticed that most universities, journals, institutes and sites are using Turnitin for plagiarism.

Research Design: Definition, Characteristics and Types

Research design definition

Research design is the framework of research methods and techniques chosen by a researcher. The design allows researchers to hone in on research methods that are suitable for the subject matter and set up their studies up for success.

The design of a research topic explains the type of research (experimental, survey research, correlational, semi-experimental, review) and also its sub-type (experimental design, research problem, descriptive case-study).

There are three main types of designs for research: Data collection, measurement, and analysis.

The type of research problem an organization is facing will determine the research design and not vice-versa. The design phase of a study determines which tools to use and how they are used.

An impactful research usually creates a minimum bias in data and increases trust in the accuracy of collected data. A design that produces the least margin of error in experimental research is generally considered the desired outcome. The essential elements are:

1. Accurate purpose statement
2. Techniques to be implemented for collecting and analyzing research
3. The method applied for analyzing collected details
4. Type of research methodology
5. Probable objections for research
6. Settings for the research study
7. Timeline
8. Measurement of analysis

Proper research design sets your study up for success. Successful research studies provide insights that are accurate and unbiased. You'll need to create a survey that meets all of the main characteristics of a design. There are four key characteristics:

Neutrality: When you set up your study, you may have to make assumptions about the data you expect to collect. The results projected in the research should be free from bias and neutral. Understand opinions about the final evaluated scores and conclusions from multiple individuals and consider those who agree with the derived results.

Reliability: With regularly conducted research, the researcher involved expects similar results every time. Your design should indicate how to form research questions to ensure the standard of results. You'll only be able to reach the expected results if your design is reliable.

Validity: There are multiple measuring tools available. However, the only correct measuring tools are those which help a researcher in gauging results according to the objective of the research. The questionnaire developed from this design will then be valid.

Generalization: The outcome of your design should apply to a population and not just a restricted sample. A generalized design implies that your survey can be conducted on any part of a population with similar accuracy.

The above factors affect the way respondents answer the research questions and so all the above characteristics should be balanced in a good design.

A researcher must have a clear understanding of the various types of research design to select which model to implement for a study. Like research itself, the design of your study can be broadly classified into quantitative and qualitative.

Qualitative: Qualitative research determines relationships between collected data and observations based on mathematical calculations. Theories related to a naturally existing phenomenon can be proved or disproved using statistical methods. Researchers rely on qualitative research methods that conclude "why" a particular theory exists along with "what" respondents have to say about it.

Quantitative: Quantitative research is for cases where statistical conclusions to collect actionable insights are essential. Numbers provide a better perspective to make critical business decisions. Quantitative research methods are necessary for the growth of any organization. Insights drawn from hard numerical data and analysis prove to be highly effective when making decisions related to the future of the business.

You can further break down the types of research design into five categories:
1. Descriptive research design: In a descriptive design, a researcher is solely interested in describing the situation or case under their research study. It is a theory-based design method which is created by gathering, analyzing, and presenting collected data. This allows a researcher to provide insights into the why and how of research. Descriptive design helps others better understand the need for the research. If the problem statement is not clear, you can conduct exploratory research.

2. Experimental research design: Experimental research establishes a relationship between the cause and effect of a situation. It is a causal design where one observes the impact caused by the independent variable on the dependent variable. For example, one monitors the influence of an independent variable such as a price on a dependent variable such as customer satisfaction or brand loyalty. It is a highly practical research method as it contributes to solving a problem at hand.

The independent variables are manipulated to monitor the change it has on the dependent variable. It is often used in social sciences to observe human behavior by analyzing two groups. Researchers can have participants change their actions and study how the people around them react to gain a better understanding of social psychology.

3. Correlational research design: Correlational research is a non-experimental research technique that helps researchers establish a relationship between two closely connected variables. This type of research requires two different groups. There is no assumption while evaluating a relationship between two different variables, and statistical analysis techniques calculate the relationship between them.

4. Diagnostic research design: In diagnostic design, the researcher is looking to evaluate the underlying cause of a specific topic or phenomenon. This method helps one learn more about the factors that create troublesome situations.

This design has three parts of the research:

· Inception of the issue

· Diagnosis of the issue

· Solution for the issue

5. Explanatory research design: Explanatory design uses a researcher's ideas and thoughts on a subject to further explore their theories. The research explains unexplored aspects of a subject and details about what, how, and why of research questions.

Format of a Thesis– Abstract – Chapter Division

A dissertation or thesis is a long piece of academic writing based on original research. It is usually submitted as part of a PhD or master's, and sometimes as part of a bachelor's degree.

Your dissertation is probably the longest piece of writing you've ever done, and it can be intimidating to know where to start. This article helps you work out exactly what you should include and where to include it.

You can also download our full dissertation template in .docx or Google Docs format. The template includes a ready-made table of contents with notes on what to include in each chapter. You can adapt it to your own requirements.

Dissertation's structure

Not all dissertations are structured exactly the same – the form your research takes will depend on your location, discipline, topic and approach.

For example, dissertations in the humanities are often structured more like a long essay, building an overall argument to support a central thesis, with chapters organized around different themes or case studies.

But if you're doing empirical research in the sciences or social sciences, your dissertation should generally contain all of the following elements. In many cases, each will be a separate chapter, but sometimes you might combine them. For example, in certain kinds of qualitative social science, the results and discussion will be woven together rather than separated.

The order of sections can also vary between fields and countries. For example, some universities advise that the conclusion should come before the discussion.

If in doubt about how your thesis or dissertation should be structured, always check your department's guidelines and consult with your supervisor.

Title page

The very first page of your document contains your dissertation's title, your name, department, institution, degree program, and submission date. Sometimes it also includes your student number, your supervisor's name, and the university's logo. Many programs have strict requirements for formatting the dissertation title page.

Acknowledgements

The acknowledgements section is usually optional, and gives space for you to thank everyone who helped you in writing your dissertation. This might include your supervisors, participants in your research, and friends or family who supported you.

Abstract

The abstract is a short summary of your dissertation, usually about 150–300 words long. You should write it at the very end, when you've completed the rest of the dissertation. In the abstract, make sure to:

- State the main topic and aims of your research
- Describe the methods you used
- Summarize the main results
- State your conclusions

Although the abstract is very short, it's the first part (and sometimes the only part) of your dissertation that people will read, so it's important that you get it right. If you're struggling to write a strong abstract, read our guide on how to write an abstract.

Table of contents

In the table of contents, list all of your chapters and subheadings and their page numbers. The dissertation contents page gives the reader an overview of your structure and helps easily navigate the document.

All parts of your dissertation should be included in the table of contents, including the appendices. You can generate a table of contents automatically in Word if you used heading styles.

List of figures and tables

If you have used a lot of tables and figures in your dissertation, you should itemize them in a numbered list. You can automatically generate this list using the Insert Caption feature in Word.

List of abbreviations

If you have used a lot of abbreviations in your dissertation, you can include them in an alphabetized list of abbreviations so that the reader can easily look up their meanings.

Glossary

If you have used a lot of highly specialized terms that will not be familiar to your reader, it might be a good idea to include a glossary. List the terms alphabetically and explain each term with a brief description or definition.

Introduction

In the introduction, you set up your dissertation's topic, purpose, and relevance, and tell the reader what to expect in the rest of the dissertation. The introduction should:

- Establish your research topic, giving necessary background information to contextualize your work
- Narrow down the focus and define the scope of the research
- Discuss the state of existing research on the topic, showing your work's relevance to a broader problem or debate
- Clearly state your research questions and objectives
- Give an overview of your dissertation's structure

Everything in the introduction should be clear, engaging, and relevant to your research. By the end, the reader should understand the *what*, *why* and *how* of your research. If you need more help, read our guide on how to write a dissertation introduction.

Literature review / Theoretical framework

Before you start on your research, you should have conducted a literature review to gain a thorough understanding of the academic work that already exists on your topic. This means:

- Collecting sources (e.g. books and journal articles) and selecting the most relevant ones
- Critically evaluating and analyzing each source
- Drawing connections between them (e.g. themes, patterns, conflicts, gaps) to make an overall point

ssIn the dissertation literature review chapter or section, you shouldn't just summarize existing studies, but develop a coherent structure and argument that leads to a clear basis or justification for your own research. For example, it might aim to show how your research:

- Addresses a gap in the literature
- Takes a new theoretical or methodological approach to the topic
- Proposes a solution to an unresolved problem
- Advances a theoretical debate
- Builds on and strengthens existing knowledge with new data

The literature review often becomes the basis for a theoretical framework, in which you define and analyze the key theories, concepts and models that frame your research. In this section you can answer descriptive research questions about the relationship between concepts or variables.

Methodology

The methodology chapter or section describes how you conducted your research, allowing your reader to assess its validity. You should generally include:

- The overall approach and type of research (e.g. qualitative, quantitative, experimental, ethnographic)

- Your methods of collecting data (e.g. interviews, surveys, archives)
- Details of where, when, and with whom the research took place
- Your methods of analyzing data (e.g. statistical analysis, discourse analysis)
- Tools and materials you used (e.g. computer programs, lab equipment)
- A discussion of any obstacles you faced in conducting the research and how you overcame them
- An evaluation or justification of your methods

Your aim in the methodology is to accurately report what you did, as well as convincing the reader that this was the best approach to answering your research questions or objectives.

Results

Next, you report the results of your research. You can structure this section around sub-questions, hypotheses, or themes.

In some disciplines, the results section is strictly separated from the discussion, while in others the two are combined. For example, in qualitative methods like ethnography, the presentation of the data will often be woven together with discussion and analysis.

However, in quantitative and experimental research, the results should be presented separately before you discuss their meaning:

- Concisely state each relevant result, including relevant descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations) and inferential statistics (e.g. test statistics, p-values).
- Briefly state how the result relates to the question or whether the hypothesis was supported.
- Include tables and figures if they help the reader understand your results.
- Report all results that are relevant to your research questions, including any that did not meet your expectations.
- Don't include subjective interpretations or speculation.

Additional data (including raw numbers, full questionnaires, or interview transcripts) can be included as an appendix.

Discussion

The discussion is where you explore the meaning and implications of your results in relation to your research questions. Here you should interpret the results in detail, discussing whether they met your expectations and how well they fit with the framework that you built in earlier chapters.

- Give your interpretations: what do the results mean?
- Explore the implications: why do the results matter?
- Acknowledge the limitations: what can't the results tell us?

If any of the results were unexpected, offer explanations for why this might be. It's a good idea to consider alternative interpretations of your data. The discussion should refer back to relevant sources to show how your results fit with existing knowledge.

Conclusion

The dissertation conclusion should concisely answer the main research question, leaving the reader with a clear understanding of your central argument and emphasizing what your research has contributed.

In some academic conventions, the conclusion refers to a short section that comes before the discussion: first you directly state your overall conclusions, then you discuss and interpret their meaning.

In other contexts, however, the conclusion refers to the final chapter, where you wrap up your dissertation with a final reflection on what you found. This type of conclusion often also includes recommendations for future research or practice.

In this chapter, it's important to leave the reader with a clear impression of why your research matters. What have you added to what was already known?

Reference list

You must include full details of all sources that you have cited in a reference list (sometimes also called a works cited list or bibliography). It's important to follow a consistent citation style. Each style has strict and specific requirements for how to format your sources in the reference list.

Common styles include APA and MLA, but your program will often specify which citation style you should use – make sure to check the requirements, and ask your supervisor if you're unsure.

To save time creating the reference list and make sure your citations are correctly and consistently formatted, you can use the Scribbr Citation Generator.

Appendices

Your dissertation itself should contain only essential information that directly contributes to answering your research question. Documents you have used that do not fit into the main body of your dissertation (such as interview transcripts, survey questions or tables with full figures) can be added as appendices.

Characteristics of academic writing

Perhaps the most prominent characteristic of academic writing is the emphasis on adhering to a style guide. While nearly all content and media outlets use a specific style guide—which is either an already established guide or one of their own creation—correct adherence to a chosen style guide is nonnegotiable with academic writing. In most cases, you'll lose credit if you *don't* adhere to the style guide in your writing.

Two of the main style guides for academic writing are the **Modern Language Association (MLA)** guide and the **American Psychological Association (APA)** guide. Others include the **American Medical Association (AMA)** style guide, the **American Chemical Society (ACS)** style guide, and the **Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS)**. Each of these style guides maintains specific rules for how to format and punctuate your writing as well as how to cite the sources you use.

Beyond the style guide, these are the key characteristics that define academic writing:

Language, clarity, and conciseness

Academic writing uses formal language. It's also optimized for clarity and <u>conciseness</u>, which can initially seem contradictory to the use of formal language.

Many writers confuse formal language with **flowery language**. Generally, <u>flowery language</u> uses elaborate words, lengthy sentences (sometimes to the point of being run-on), and metaphors so drawn-out that they obfuscate the point the writer is trying to make.

Actual formal language is much different. Formal language uses the most accurate, non-colloquial verbiage available to communicate the author's points, and this verbiage may include jargon. Sentences are only as complex as they need to be in order to express coherent thoughts and positions; you should use literary devices like metaphor sparingly. In instances where they are appropriate, <u>they're used differently</u> than in other types of writing. Overall, clarity and conciseness are your main goals.

Academic writing takes an objective, detached stance from the subject being discussed. Because this type of tone is essential, the <u>passive voice</u> is sometimes necessary in academic writing, particularly in the sciences.

Grammar

When it comes to grammar, academic writing is prescriptive. By that, we mean there are specific <u>grammar and style rules</u> that your writing must adhere to in order to be correct. These rules come from two sources: the style guide for the piece you're working on and generally established conventions for academic writing. Style guides provide granular requirements, such as instructions on whether to hyphenate certain compound words and when to spell out numbers versus use numerals. Broader academic writing conventions, like writing in the third person and maintaining an objective tone, apply to all academic writing.

In contrast, other, more casual types of writing are not as strict about "proper grammar" versus "improper grammar." In fact, in certain other types of writing, like blogging and ad copywriting, it's often necessary to break established grammar rules in order to hook readers' attention and communicate with them effectively.

Using ellipses to build suspense, <u>ending sentences with prepositions</u>, and using <u>exclamation points</u> to make your sentences exciting are great strategies for catchy, conversational writing—but they have no place in academic writing.

Format

Beyond adhering to specific grammar and style rules, your academic writing also needs to be formatted according to the style guide for your assignment. Formatting includes how you number your pages, what's included in your header and footer, how the contents of your cover page are ordered, and how your citations and references are formatted. For example, if you're writing a humanities paper, you're most likely going to write it according to the MLA style guide. According to this style guide, the source page is titled "Works Cited" and each reference's author is named by their last name followed by their first name. For a social sciences paper, you'd typically use the APA style guide, which instead says to title the sources page "References" and lists authors by their last names followed by their first initials.

Types of academic writing

Academic writing covers a variety of types of work. These include:

Essays

An <u>essay</u> is a relatively short piece of writing that, like a research paper, makes and supports a specific point.

Theses and dissertations

A <u>thesis</u> and a dissertation are two types of capstone projects. Generally, the term **thesis** refers to the culminating project of a master's program (and some bachelor's programs) while the term **dissertation** is used for a project that culminates in a doctoral program.

These projects are lengthy works that demonstrate the author's candidacy for the degree they are seeking by posing an intellectual question, a persuasive argument, or a thought-provoking position. Both are created through the candidate's research, under the guidance of their academic advisor.

Research proposals

A research proposal is a document formally requesting sponsorship or funding to support the author's academic research. A research proposal outlines how the author plans to conduct their research, why they want to conduct this specific research, and what they aim to accomplish through the research.

Research papers

A <u>research paper</u> is a comprehensive work that thoroughly demonstrates the author's understanding of the subject they researched. Every research paper is formulated around a thesis statement—the statement in the opening paragraph that states the author's position and summarizes their supporting arguments.

Literature reviews

A <u>literature review</u> is a piece of academic writing that summarizes, describes, and evaluates a topic through analysis of other authors' works. A literature review examines a topic through two or more works, and these works can be books, scholarly articles, presentations, dissertations, or other published materials.

Academic writing structure

As much as academic writing uses formal language and conforms closely to style guides, it also follows a clear structure. This specific structure depends on the type of writing being produced, but generally follows this type of outline:

1 Introduction that clearly states the thesis and aims of the work

2 Position/finding/challenge supporting the thesis

a. Supporting content

b. Supporting content

3 Position/finding/challenge supporting the thesis

a. Supporting content

b. Supporting content

4 Position/finding/challenge supporting the thesis

a. Supporting content

b. Supporting content

5 Conclusion

The length of the work and the number of sections included depend on the specific assignment and the topic being covered. While an essay may only be five to seven paragraphs or so and span just a few pages, a dissertation generally clocks in around 150–300 pages.

Citations

Another area where academic writing differs greatly from other types of writing is that in an academic paper, you always have to cite your sources. How to format your citations depends on the style guide you're using.

Although the citation format for each style guide varies a bit, they all include the same key information about the sources you cite. This information includes the author's name, the name of the work you're citing, the work's copyright date, and the work's publisher. Take a look at how the most commonly used academic style guides advise on format:MLA

Don't overlook the importance of properly citing your sources—all of them. Although you probably won't face plagiarism consequences for an incorrectly formatted citation when you clearly made an attempt to attribute the work properly, an incomplete or missing citation *may* be deemed plagiarism, as this article explains. Possible consequences for plagiarism include:

- A lowered grade

- Automatic failure of the assignment

- Failure of the course

- Removal from the academic program

- Suspension or expulsion from your university

Always refer to the style guide

In academic writing, there's no gray area concerning whether something is grammatically correct or not. It's either correct or it isn't. The style guide for your assignment covers all the rules regarding what is and isn't correct, so if you're ever not sure, refer to the style guide. And if you're ever not sure which style guide to follow, ask your instructor.

Actively avoid plagiarism

By this, we mean it isn't enough to simply avoid stealing others' words when you're writing. We mean you should *consciously choose* to differentiate your writing from your sources as much as possible so you don't inadvertently plagiarize another writer's work—and so your work really shines as a unique piece.

As we mentioned above, even unintentional plagiarism can mean failing your assignment and other consequences. Grammarly's plagiarism checker can help you avoid unintentional plagiarism while making your writing more engaging. It's easy: Just run a plagiarism check using the Grammarly Editor and your work will be immediately compared against billions of other pieces available online. If there are any pieces of text that appear to need citations, Grammarly will flag them and you can cite them accordingly.

Do not use contractions

Academic writing never uses contractions. This is one of the biggest differences between formal and informal writing.

Do not take it personally

When you're writing an academic paper, always write it in the third person. The first person (I, me) and the second person (you) are *not* appropriate for academic writing because they undermine the author's objectivity.

Academic writing is black-tie writing

Think of an academic paper as a formal event. Your writing needs to show up "dressed appropriately." This means: conforming to the style guide, using formal language, and absolutely avoiding slang and colloquial expressions. In contrast, think of an email to your professor as business casual and messages with your friends as casual. If the language you use with your friends is shorts and sandals and the language you use with your professor is khakis and a polo, the language in your academic writing needs to be a tuxedo.

Score top marks on your writing every time

Writing an academic paper is a *lot* different from writing a blog post, an email, a piece of fiction, and even other kinds of writing your professor might assign, like a critical response to a reading or a presentation for class. A piece of academic writing, whether it's an analytical essay, a research paper, a <u>persuasive essay</u>, or another kind of assignment in this vein, needs to adhere to very specific style and formatting standards. It also needs to have the appropriate tone and vocabulary for an academic work.

Don't submit your writing without running it through the Grammarly Editor first. In the Grammarly Editor, you can set specific goals for your writing so it strikes the perfect tone for your audience. Just set the domain to "Academic" and in addition to suggestions for grammar and punctuation, you'll see suggestions for how to change your word choice, sentence structure, and other aspects of your writing to make it shine.

What is Data Collection?

Data collection is a methodical process of gathering and analyzing specific information to proffer solutions to relevant questions and evaluate the results. It focuses on finding out all there is to a particular subject matter. Data is collected to be further subjected to hypothesis testing which seeks to explain a phenomenon.

Hypothesis testing eliminates assumptions while making a proposition from the basis of reason.For collectors of data, there is a range of outcomes for which the data is collected. But the key purpose for which data is collected is to put a researcher in a vantage position to make predictions about future probabilities and trends.The core forms in which data can be collected are primary and secondary data. While the former is collected by a researcher through first-hand sources, the latter is collected by an individual other than the user.

Types of Data Collection

Before broaching the subject of the various types of data collection. It is pertinent to note that data collection in itself falls under two broad categories; Primary data collection and secondary data collection.

Primary Data Collection

Primary data collection by definition is the gathering of raw data collected at the source. It is a

process of collecting the original data collected by a researcher for a specific research purpose. It could be further analyzed into two segments; qualitative research and quantitative data collection methods.

Qualitative Research Method

The qualitative research methods of data collection do not involve the collection of data that involves numbers or a need to be deduced through a mathematical calculation, rather it is based on the non-quantifiable elements like the feeling or emotion of the researcher. An example of such a method is an open-ended questionnaire.

Quantitative Method

Quantitative methods are presented in numbers and require a mathematical calculation to deduce. An example would be the use of a questionnaire with close-ended questions to arrive at figures to be calculated Mathematically. Also, methods of correlation and regression, mean, mode and median.

Use Formplus as a Primary Data Collection Tool

Secondary Data Collection

Secondary data collection, on the other hand, is referred to as the gathering of second-hand data collected by an individual who is not the original user. It is the process of collecting data that is already existing, be it already published books, journals, and/or online portals. In terms of ease, it is much less expensive and easier to collect.

Your choice between Primary data collection and secondary data collection depends on the nature, scope, and area of your research as well as its aims and objectives.

IMPORTANCE OF DATA COLLECTION

There are a bunch of underlying reasons for collecting data, especially for a researcher. Walking you through them, here are a few reasons;

Integrity of the Research

A key reason for collecting data, be it through quantitative or qualitative methods is to ensure that the integrity of the research question is indeed maintained.The correct use of appropriate data collection of methods reduces the likelihood of errors consistent with the results.

Decision Making

To minimize the risk of errors in decision-making, it is important that accurate data is collected so that the researcher doesn't make uninformed decisions. Save Cost and Time.Data collection saves the researcher time and funds that would otherwise be misspent without a deeper understanding of the topic or subject matter.To support a need for a new idea, change, and/or innovation. To prove the need for a change in the norm or the introduction of new information that will be widely accepted, it is important to collect data as evidence to support these claims.

What is a Data Collection Tool?

Data collection tools refer to the devices/instruments used to collect data, such as a paper questionnaire or computer-assisted interviewing system. Case Studies, Checklists, Interviews, Observation sometimes, and Surveys or Questionnaires are all tools used to collect data. It is important to decide the tools for data collection because research is carried out in different ways and for different purposes. The objective behind data collection is to capture quality evidence that allows analysis to lead to the formulation of convincing and credible answers to the posed questions. The objective behind data collection is to capture quality evidence that allows analysis to lead to the formulation of convincing and credible answers to the questions that have been posed

The Formplus' online data collection tool is perfect for gathering primary data, i.e. raw data collected from the source. You can easily get data with at least three data collection methods with our online and offline data gathering tool. I.e Online Questionnaires, Focus Groups, and Reporting.

Collect Online & Offline Data with Formplus

Here are 7 top data collection methods and tools for Academic, Opinion or Product Research

The following are the top 7 data collection methods for Academic, Opinion-based or product research. Also discussed in detail is the nature, pros and cons of each one. At the end of this segment, you will be best informed about which method best suits your research.

INTERVIEW

An interview is a face-to-face conversation between two individuals with the sole purpose of collecting relevant information to satisfy a research purpose. Interviews are of different types

namely; Structured, Semi-structured, and unstructured with each having a slight variation from the other.

Use this interview consent form template to let an interviewee give you consent to use data gotten from your interviews for investigative research purposes.

Structured Interviews - Simply put, it is a verbally administered questionnaire. In terms of depth, it is surface level and is usually completed within a short period. For speed and efficiency, it is highly recommendable, but it lacks depth.

Semi-structured Interviews - In this method, there subsist several key questions which cover the scope of the areas to be explored. It allows a little more leeway for the researcher to explore the subject matter.

Unstructured Interviews - It is an in-depth interview that allows the researcher to collect a wide range of information with a purpose. An advantage of this method is the freedom it gives a researcher to combine structure with flexibility even though it is more time-consuming.

Pros

In-depth information

Freedom of flexibility

Accurate data.

Cons

Time-consuming

Expensive to collect.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Interviews?

For collecting data through interviews, here are a few tools you can use to easily collect data.

Audio Recorder

An audio recorder is used for recording sound on disc, tape, or film. Audio information can meet the needs of a wide range of people, as well as provide alternatives to print data collection tools.

Digital Camera

An advantage of a digital camera is that it can be used for transmitting those images to a monitor screen when the need arises.

Camcorder

A camcorder is used for collecting data through interviews. It provides a combination of both an audio recorder and a video camera. The data provided is qualitative in nature and allows the respondents to answer questions asked exhaustively. If you need to collect sensitive information during an interview, a camcorder might not work for you as you would need to maintain your subject's privacy.

Want to conduct an interview for qualitative data research or special report? Use this online interview consent form template to allow the interviewee to give their consent before you use the interview data for research or report. With premium features like e-signature, upload fields, form security, etc., Formplus Builder is the perfect tool to create your preferred online consent forms without coding experience.

QUESTIONNAIRES

This is the process of collecting data through an instrument consisting of a series of questions and prompts to receive a response from individuals it is administered to. Questionnaires are designed to collect data from a group. For clarity, it is important to note that a questionnaire isn't a survey, rather it forms a part of it. A survey is a process of data gathering involving a variety of data collection methods, including a questionnaire.On a questionnaire, there are three kinds of questions used. They are; fixed-alternative, scale, and open-ended. With each of the questions tailored to the nature and scope of the research.

Pros

Can be administered in large numbers and is cost-effective. It can be used to compare and contrast previous research to measure change. Easy to visualize and analyze. Questionnaires offer actionable data. Respondent identity is protected. Questionnaires can cover all areas of a topic. Relatively inexpensive.

Cons

Answers may be dishonest or the respondents lose interest midway. Questionnaires can't produce

qualitative data. Questions might be left unanswered. Respondents may have a hidden agenda. Not all questions can be analyzed easily.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Questionnaire?

Formplus Online Questionnaire Formplus lets you create powerful forms to help you collect the information you need. Formplus helps you create the online forms that you like. The Formplus online questionnaire form template to get actionable trends and measurable responses. Conduct research, optimize knowledge of your brand or just get to know an audience with this form template. The form template is fast, free and fully customizable.

Paper Questionnaire

A paper questionnaire is a data collection tool consisting of a series of questions and/or prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Mostly designed for statistical analysis of the responses, they can also be used as a form of data collection.

REPORTING

By definition, data reporting is the process of gathering and submitting data to be further subjected to analysis. The key aspect of data reporting is reporting accurate data because of inaccurate data reporting leads to uninformed decision making.

Informed decision-making.

Easily accessible.

Self-reported answers may be exaggerated. The results may be affected by bias. Respondents may be too shy to give out all the details. Inaccurate reports will lead to uninformed decisions.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Reporting?

Reporting tools enable you to extract and present data in charts, tables, and other visualizations so users can find useful information. You could source data for reporting from Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) reports, newspapers, website articles, hospital records.

NGO Reports

Contained in NGO reports is an in-depth and comprehensive report on the activities carried out by the NGO, covering areas such as business and human rights. The information contained in these reports is research-specific and forms an acceptable academic base for collecting data. NGOs often focus on development projects which are organized to promote particular causes.

Newspapers

Newspaper data are relatively easy to collect and are sometimes the only continuously available source of event data. Even though there is a problem of bias in newspaper data, it is still a valid tool in collecting data for Reporting.

Website Articles

Gathering and using data contained in website articles is also another tool for data collection. Collecting data from web articles is a quicker and less expensive data collection Two major disadvantages of using this data reporting method are biases inherent in the data collection process and possible security/confidentiality concerns.

Hospital Care records

Health care involves a diverse set of public and private data collection systems, including health surveys, administrative enrollment and billing records, and medical records, used by various entities, including hospitals, CHCs, physicians, and health plans. The data provided is clear, unbiased and accurate, but must be obtained under legal means as medical data is kept with the strictest regulations.

EXISTING DATA

This is the introduction of new investigative questions in addition to/other than the ones originally used when the data was initially gathered. It involves adding measurement to a study or research. An example would be sourcing data from an archive. Accuracy is very high.

Easily accessible information.

Problems with evaluation.

Difficulty in understanding.

What are the Best Data Collection Tools for Existing Data?

The concept of Existing data means that data is collected from existing sources to investigate research questions other than those for which the data were originally gathered. Tools to collect existing data include:

Research Journals - Unlike newspapers and magazines, research journals are intended for an academic or technical audience, not general readers. A journal is a scholarly publication containing articles written by researchers, professors, and other experts.

Surveys - A survey is a data collection tool for gathering information from a sample population, with the intention of generalizing the results to a larger population. Surveys have a variety of

purposes and can be carried out in many ways depending on the objectives to be achieved.

OBSERVATION

This is a data collection method by which information on a phenomenon is gathered through observation. The nature of the observation could be accomplished either as a complete observer, an observer as a participant, a participant as an observer, or as a complete participant. This method is a key base for formulating a hypothesis.

Easy to administer.

There subsists a greater accuracy with results. It is a universally accepted practice. It diffuses the situation of an unwillingness of respondents to administer a report. It is appropriate for certain situations.Some phenomena aren't open to observation.It cannot be relied upon. Bias may arise. It is expensive to administer. Its validity cannot be predicted accurately.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Observation?

Observation involves the active acquisition of information from a primary source. Observation can also involve the perception and recording of data via the use of scientific instruments. The best tools for Observation are:

Checklists - state-specific criteria, allow users to gather information and make judgments about what they should know in relation to the outcomes. They offer systematic ways of collecting data about specific behaviors, knowledge, and skills.

Direct observation - This is an observational study method of collecting evaluative information. The evaluator watches the subject in his or her usual environment without altering that environment.

FOCUS GROUPS

The opposite of quantitative research which involves numerical-based data, this data collection method focuses more on qualitative research. It falls under the primary category for data based on the feelings and opinions of the respondents. This research involves asking open-ended questions to a group of individuals usually ranging from 6-10 people, to provide feedback.Information obtained is usually very detailed.

Cost-effective when compared to one-on-one interviews.

It reflects speed and efficiency in the supply of results. Lacking depth in covering the nitty-gritty of a subject matter.Bias might still be evident. Requires interviewer training. The researcher has very little control over the outcome. A few vocal voices can drown out the rest. Difficulty in

assembling an all-inclusive group.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Focus Groups?

A focus group is a data collection method that is tightly facilitated and structured around a set of questions. The purpose of the meeting is to extract from the participants' detailed responses to these questions. The best tools for tackling Focus groups are: Two-Way - One group watches another group answer the questions posed by the moderator. After listening to what the other group has to offer, the group that listens are able to facilitate more discussion and could potentially draw different conclusions.

Dueling-Moderator - There are two moderators who play the devil's advocate. The main positive of the dueling-moderator focus group is to facilitate new ideas by introducing new ways of thinking and varying viewpoints.

COMBINATION RESEARCH

This method of data collection encompasses the use of innovative methods to enhance participation to both individuals and groups. Also under the primary category, it is a combination of Interviews and Focus Groups while collecting qualitative data. This method is key when addressing sensitive subjects.

Encourage participants to give responses.It stimulates a deeper connection between participants. The relative anonymity of respondents increases participation. It improves the richness of the data collected. It costs the most out of all the top 7. It's the most time-consuming.

What are the best Data Collection Tools for Combination Research?

The Combination Research method involves two or more data collection methods, for instance, interviews as well as questionnaires or a combination of semi-structured telephone interviews and focus groups. The best tools for combination research are:

Online Survey - The two tools combined here are online interviews and the use of questionnaires. This is a questionnaire that the target audience can complete over the Internet. It is timely, effective and efficient. Especially since the data to be collected is quantitative in nature.

Dual-Moderator - The two tools combined here are focus groups and structured questionnaires. The structured questioners give a direction as to where the research is headed while two moderators take charge of proceedings. Whilst one ensures the focus group session progresses

smoothly, the other makes sure that the topics in question are all covered. Dual-moderator focus groups typically result in a more productive session and essentially leads to an optimum collection of data.

WHY FORMPLUS IS THE BEST DATA COLLECTION TOOL

Vast Options for Form Customization

With Formplus, you can create your unique survey form. With options to change themes, font colour, font, font type, layout, width, and more, you can create an attractive survey form. The builder also gives you as many features as possible to choose from and you do not need to be a graphic designer to create a form.

Extensive Analytics

Form Analytics, a feature in formplus helps you view the number of respondents, unique visits, total visits, abandonment rate, and average time spent before submission. This tool eliminates the need for a manual calculation of the received data and/or responses as well as the conversion rate for your poll.

Geolocation Support

The geolocation feature on Formplus lets you ascertain where individual responses are coming. It utilises Google Maps to pinpoint the longitude and latitude of the respondent, to the nearest accuracy, along with the responses.Multi-Select feature. This feature helps to conserve horizontal space as it allows you to put multiple options in one field. This translates to including more information on the survey form.

- **Review of Literature – Research Gap**.

The research gap, likewise considered the missing piece or pieces in the research gap literature review is the zone that has not yet been investigated or is under-investigated. This could be a populace or test (size, type, area), look into strategy, information accumulation or potentially investigation, or other research factors or conditions.

A literature gap analysis **statement** is found in the Introduction segment of a diary article or blurb or in the Goals and Importance segment of a research proposal furthermore, briefly distinguishes for your crowd the hole that you will endeavour to address in your task.

1. It may be an absence of comprehension about how well a specific instrument function in a specific circumstance.

2. It could be introducing a new method that needs to be tested.

3. Or it could be a lack in the understanding of a whole new organism, system, or part of a process.

Signals to research gap analysis **statements:**

The creator's sign to us this is a hole since they utilize the words "has not yet been explained." Other expressions that may help distinguish a hole articulation are

1. has/have not been… (studied/reported/elucidated)

2. is required/needed…

3. the key question is/remains…

4. it is important to address

The literature review gap in research might be somewhat more subtle it doesn't utilize any expressions to move toward you that there's something missing, for example, "has not been explained" or "have not been accounted for." But as a result of the manner in which the passage is spread out, the missing data in the writing that the gathering tried to address in their task can be found as the question ..

1. has to be addressed

2. however,…. is limited

3. requires information concerning

Another way to identify how to find research gap is by taking a gander at the objective/significance of the examination. Where is the hole found? It is set just before the objective/significance.

Example: "A hazard appraisal of the potential effects on wellbeing and condition that the generation, use, and transfer of nanomaterials may induce requires data concerning both the potential for introduction to a given material and its potential effects, for example, poisonous quality or mutagenicity. In this work, we address the issue of nanomaterial introduction and transport in trials intended to survey their potential for relocation"

In this work, we address the issue of nanomaterial presentation and transport in tests intended to evaluate their potential for relocation… — This is the objective/significance of the examination

requires data concerning both the potential for introduction to a given material and its potential effects, for example, danger or mutagenicity. — This is the literature review research gap **statement.**

Resource refers to all the materials available in our environment which are technologically accessible, economically feasible and culturally sustainable and help us to satisfy our needs and wants. Resources can broadly be classified upon their availability — they are classified into renewable and non-renewable resources. They can also be classified as actual and potential on the basis of the level of development and use, on the basis of origin they can be classified as biotic and abiotic, and on the basis of their distribution, as ubiquitous and localised (private, community-owned, national and international resources). An item becomes a resource with time and developing technology. The benefits of resource utilization may include increased wealth, proper functioning of a system, or enhanced well-being. From a human perspective, a natural resource is anything obtained from the environment to satisfy human needs and

wants. From a broader biological or ecological perspective, a resource satisfies the needs of a living organism.

The concept of resources has been developed across many established areas of work, in economics, biology and ecology, computer science, management, and human resources for example - linked to the concepts of competition, sustainability, conservation, and stewardship. In application within human society, commercial or non-commercial factors require resource allocation through resource management.

What is E-Resources ?.

1. These are information resources in electronic format

2. Electronic resources form one of many formats that the Library collects to support its universal collections. Electronic resources include, web sites, online databases, e-journals, e-books, and physical carriers in all formats, whether free or fee-based, required to support research in the subject covered, and may be audio, visual, and/or text files.

3. An electronic resource is defined as a resource which require computer access or any electronic product that delivers a collection of data, be it text referring to full text bases, electronic journals, image collections, other multimedia products and numerical, graphical or time based, as a commercially available title that has been published with an aim to being marketed.

4. Sources of information available in electronic (digital/analogue) format and accessible in offline/online modes through intranet or Internet over computers, book-readers, tablets, smart-phones, etc.

5. Resources in the electronic form that are readable using various electronic components.

6. Has potential to provide access to literally thousands of e-articles, e-books, online newspapers, magazines and more, which is far more than a library could possibly subscribe in print format. It is possible to find related studies while searching internet, as most online databases provides citation links to the particular study.

7. Electronic resources are materials in digital format accessible electronically.

8. **E-resources** is a digital media firm with a singular focus: to provide our clients with a dedicated partner that advances their mission with web-based solutions

9. Electronic resources (or **e-resources**) are materials in digital format accessible electronically. Examples of **e-resources** are electronic journals (e-journal), electronic books (e-book) online

databases in varied digital formats, Adobe Acrobat documents (.pdf), webpages.

10. **E-Resources** is a digital media firm with a singular focus: to provide our clients with a dedicated partner that advances their mission with web-based solutions.

11. An electronic resource is defined as a resource which require computer access or any electronic product that delivers a collection of data, be it text referring to full text bases, electronic journals, image collections, other multimedia products and numerical, graphical or time based, as a commercially available title that has been published with an aim to being marketed.

12. An electronic resource is defined as a resource which require computer access or any electronic product that delivers a collection of data, be it text referring to full text bases, electronic journals, image collections, other multimedia products and numerical, graphical or time based, as a commercially available title that has been published with an aim to being marketed.

13. Are the electronic information sources or services that are accessed through a computing network or any other ICT infrastructure in the library or remotely.

Research Databases

Research databases are organized collections of computerized information or data such as periodical articles, books, graphics and multimedia that can be searched to retrieve information. Databases can be general or subject oriented with bibliographic citations, abstracts, and or full text. The sources indexed may be written by scholars, professionals or generalists.

Research databases that are retrieved on the World Wide Web are generally non-fee based, lack in-depth indexing, and do not index proprietary resources. Subscription or commercial databases are more refined with various types of indexing features, searching capabilities, and help guides.

Prince George's Community College's Library provides commercial databases for its users as well as non-fee databases. These databases are available from the Library's Website. To review these databases, click on Research Databases.

Selecting Appropriate Online Databases

Your topic statement determines the type of database, kind of information, and the date of the sources that you will use. It is important to clarify whether your topic will require research from journals, magazines, newspapers, and books or just journals. To understand the differences between magazines, journals, and newspapers, see the Magazines, Journals, and Newspapers: What's the Difference section under Evaluating Sources.

Search Strategies

Before you begin to search the databases, it is important that you develop a well planned comprehensive search strategy. Determine what your keywords are and how you want them to link together. Always read the help screens and review any tutorials that have been developed for a particular database.

After you determine what your keywords are, consult any subject headings or guides to locate controlled vocabulary such as a thesaurus that may appear in the subject field. You will also want to decide what other fields may be valuable for your search.

Boolean searching is one of the basic and best search strategies that is used by most online databases.

JSTOR provides access to more than 12 million journal articles, books, images, and primary sources in 75 disciplines.
We help you explore a wide range of scholarly content through a powerful research and teaching platform. We collaborate with the academic community to help libraries connect students and faculty to vital content while lowering costs and increasing shelf space, provide independent researchers with free and low-cost access to scholarship, and help publishers reach new audiences and preserve their content for future generations.

INFLIBNET

Information and Library Network (INFLIBNET) Centre, Gandhinagar is an Autonomous Inter-University Centre (IUC) of University Grants Commission, New Delhi (Ministry of Education, Govt. of India). It is a major National Programme initiated by the UGC in March 1991 as a project under the IUCAA, it became an independent Inter-University Centre in June 1996. INFLIBNET is involved in modernizing university libraries in India using the state-of-art

technologies for the optimum utilisation of information. INFLIBNET is set out to be a major player in promoting scholarly communication among academicians and researchers in India.

ePathshala is a portal/app developed by the CIET, and NCERT. It was initiated jointly by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, CIET, and NCERT, and launched in November 2015. It hosts educational resources for teachers, students, parents, researchers and educators, can be accessed on the Web, and is available on Google Play, App Store and Windows. The content is available in English, Hindi and Urdu.

THESIS WRITING

The aim of the dissertation or thesis is to produce an original piece of research work on a clearly defined topic.Usually a dissertation is the most substantial piece of independent work in the undergraduate programme, while a thesis is usually associated with master's degrees, although these terms can be interchangeable and may vary between countries and universities.A dissertation or thesis is likely to be the longest and most difficult piece of work a student has ever completed. It can, however, also be a very rewarding piece of work since, unlike essays and other assignments, the student is able to pick a topic of special interest and work on their own initiative.Writing a dissertation requires a range of planning and research skills that will be of great value in your future career and within organisations.The dissertation topic and question should be sufficiently focused that you can collect all the necessary data within a relatively short time-frame, usually about six weeks for undergraduate programmes.You should also choose a topic that you already know something about so that you already have a frame of reference for your literature search and some understanding and interest in the theory behind your topic.

Mechanics of Writing

Punctuation

a. General remarks. The primary purpose of punctuation is to ensure the clarity and readability of your writing. Although there are many required uses, punctuation is, to some extent, a matter of personal preference. But, while certain practices are optional, consistency is mandatory.

Writers must guard against adopting different styles in parallel situations. The remarks below stress the conventions that pertain especially to research papers. More comprehensive discussions of punctuation can be found in standard handbooks of composition ….

b. Apostrophes indicate contractions (rarely acceptable in scholarly writing) and possessives. General practice is to form the possessive of monosyllabic proper names ending in a sibilant sound (s, z, sh, zh, ch, j) by adding an apostrophe and another *s* (Keats's poems, Marx's theories) except, by convention, for names in classical literature (Mars' wrath). In words of more than one syllable ending in a sibilant, only the apostrophe is added (Hopkins' poems, Cervantes' *novellas*) except for names ending in a sibilant and a final *e* (Horace's odes). Note that the possessive of a name ending with a silent *s* is formed by adding an apostrophe and another *s* (Camus's novels).

c. Colons are used to indicate that what follows will be an example, explanation, or elaboration of what has just been said. They are commonly used to introduce quotations (see §§ 14b, 14c, and 14f). For their use in documentation and bibliography, see §§ 31c, 31h, and 41c. Always skip one space after a colon.

d. Commas are usually required between items in a series (blood, sweat, and tears), between coordinate adjectives (an absorbing, frightening account), before coordinating conjunctions joining independent clauses, around parenthetical elements, and after fairly long phrases or clauses preceding the main clause of a sentence. They are also conventional in dates (January 1, 1980), names (W. K. Wimsatt, Jr., and Walter J. Ong, S.J.), and addresses (Brooklyn, New York). A comma and a dash are never used together in modern English usage. If the context requires a comma (as it does here), the comma follows a closing parenthesis, but a comma never precedes an opening parenthesis. See §§ 31, 33, 35, and 41 for the usage of the comma in documentation and bibliography; see §14f for commas with quotation marks.

e. [Em] dashes. An [em] dash is typed … with no space before or after. Some writers tend to overuse [em] dashes, substituting them loosely for other marks of punctuation. The [em] dash, however, has only a few legitimate uses: around parenthetical elements that require a number of internal commas, and before a summarizing appositive.

Carter's sweep of the South—Virginia was the only Southern state to vote Republican—helped give him the election.

Many twentieth-century American writers—Faulkner, Capote, Styron, Williams, to name only a few—come from the South.

Stray dogs, abandoned cats, injured birds, orphaned baby rabbits—all found a home with us. See §39 for use of the [em] dash in documentation.

f. Exclamation marks should be used sparingly in scholarly writing.

g. Hyphens are used to form some types of compound words, particularly compound adjectives that precede the word(s) they modify (a mind-boggling experience, a well-established policy, a first-rate study). Hyphens also join prefixes to capitalized words (post-Renaissance) and link pairs of coequal nouns (poet-priest, teacher-scholar). Many other compounds, however, are written as one word (wordplay, storytelling) or as two (social security tax, a happily married man). Consult a standard dictionary or writing manual for guidance in determining which compounds require hyphenation. [En dashes rather than hyphens should be] used to connect numbers indicating a range (pp. 1–20). For the use of hyphens in dates, see §11c; for hyphens in unavoidable word divisions at the end of a line, see §12b.

h. Italics …. Avoid frequent use of italics … for emphasis. (On the [italicizing] of titles, see §13.) Phrases, words, or letters cited as linguistic examples and foreign words used in English text are [italicized]. The numerous exceptions to this last rule include quotations entirely in another language, titles of articles in another language (placed within quotation marks), proper names, and foreign words anglicized through frequent usage. Since [North] American English rapidly naturalizes words, use a dictionary and your own knowledge of current usage to determine which originally foreign expressions still require italics. Much, of course, depends on the audience. Foreign words, abbreviations, and phrases commonly not [italicized] include: etc., e.g., et al., laissez faire, raison d'être, tête-à-tête, and versus. In discussions of the arts, such words or expressions as the following are also not [italicized]: cliché, enjambment, genre, hubris, leitmotif, mimesis, and roman à clef. (On italicizing abbreviations, see §47.)

i. Parentheses are used to enclose parenthetical remarks and to enclose some items in documentation (see §§ 31h, 33f, 37, and 41c). On parenthetical documentation, see §39.

j. Periods end sentences. They also come at the end of notes and after complete blocks of information in bibliographical citations (see §41). The period follows a parenthesis that falls at the end of a sentence. It is placed within the parenthesis when the parenthetical element is independent (see, not this sentence, but the next). (For the use of periods with ellipsis, see §14d; for periods within quotation marks, see §14f.)

k. Quotation marks. Enclose in double quotation marks words to which attention is being

directed (e.g., words purposely misused or used in a special sense, words referred to as words, and parenthetical English translations of words or phrases from another language). Note, however, that words used as examples in linguistic studies are [italicized] and not enclosed in double quotation marks (see §10h). Use single quotation marks for definitions or translations that appear without intervening punctuation (e.g., *ainsi* 'thus'). For the use of quotation marks with titles, see §13; and, for use of single and double quotation marks in quoted material, see §14f.

l. Semicolons are used to separate items in a series when some of the items require internal commas. They are used between independent clauses that are not joined by a coordinating conjunction, and they may be used before the coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence if one of the independent clauses requires a number of internal commas. For the use of semicolons in documentation and bibliography, see §§ 31e, 32k, 36, 37, and 42k.

m. Slashes (virgules) are used to separate lines of poetry (see §14b) and elements of dates (see §11c), to enclose phonemic transcription, and occasionally to separate alternative words (and/or).

n. Square brackets [] are used for an unavoidable parenthesis within a parenthesis, to enclose interpolations in a quotation (see §14e) or in incomplete data (see sample notes 58 and 64 in §§ 32r and 32t), and to enclose phonetic transcription.

11   Numerals

a. In general, numbers that cannot be spelled out in one or two words may be written as numerals (one, thirty-six, ninety-nine, one hundred, two thousand, three million; but 2½, 101, 137, and 1,275). Numbers compared or contrasted should be in the same style (5 out of 125, 2½ to 3 years old or two-and-a-half to three years old). In technical or statistical discussions involving their frequent use or in notes, where many space-saving devices are legitimate, all numbers may be written as numerals. Common practice is to put a comma between the third and fourth digits from the right, the sixth and seventh, and so on.

1,000   20,000   7,654,321

Exceptions to this practice include page and line numbers of four or more digits, addresses, and year numbers. The comma is added in year numbers if a fifth digit is used.

On page 3333 ….

At 4132 Broadway ….

In 1984 ….

But

In 20,000 B.C. ….

… Dates and page numbers are rarely spelled out: "12 April" or "April 12" and "page 45" are generally preferred to "the twelfth of April" and "the forty-fifth page." Because numbers beginning sentences (including dates) are, by convention, spelled out, avoid beginning a sentence with a number.

b. Percentage and amounts of money are treated as other numbers: if the numbers involved cannot be spelled out in one or two words, they may be written as numerals with the appropriate symbols (one percent, forty-five percent, one hundred percent, five dollars, thirty-five dollars, two thousand dollars, sixty-eight cents; but 2½%, 150%, $2.65, $303, £127. In business, scientific, and technical writing involving their frequent use, all percentages and amounts of money may be written as numerals with the appropriate symbols.

c. Dates. As in other aspects of writing, be consistent in expressing dates: either "22 July 1981" or "July 22, 1981," but not both (if the latter, be sure to put a comma both before and after the year unless another punctuation mark is required); either "August 1981" or "August, 1981," but not both. Centuries are written out in lowercase letters (the twentieth century). A hyphen is added if the century is being used as an adjective (eighteenth-century thought; nineteenth- and twentieth-century literature). Decades are also usually written out without capitalization (the seventies), but it is … acceptable to express them in figures (the 1970s). "B.C." follows the year, but "A.D." precedes it (19 B.C.; A.D. 565). (Some writers use "B.C.E," before the Common Era, and "C.E.," Common Era.) European usage gives all dates in day-month-year order, separated by spaces, commas, hyphens, periods, or slash marks (2 March 1974, 2-3-74, 2/III/74). To indicate both Western and non-Western dates, put one set in parentheses: "3 November 1963 (K'anghsi 32/10/6)." Both "in 1951–52" and "from 1951 to 1952" are clear and acceptable, as is "from 1951–52 to 1968–69," but "from 1951–72" alone is not because, lacking the preposition "to" after "1951," the phrase is inaccurate and confusing.

d. Inclusive numbers. In connecting consecutive numbers, give the second number in full for numbers through ninety-nine. For larger numbers, give only the last two figures of the second if it is within the same hundred or thousand: pp. 2–3, 10–12, 21–28, 103–04, 395–401, 923–1003, 1003–05, 1608–774, 1999–2004, 12345–47, 12345–3300.

e. Roman numerals. Use capital Roman numerals for … books and parts of a work, volumes, acts of a play, or individuals in a series.

Book I of Spenser's *Faerie Queene*

Part II of Goethe's *Faust*

Volume II of *Encyclopedia Americana*

Act III of *Arms and the Man*

Elizabeth II

Use lower case Roman numerals for chapters of a book (Chapter xii), scenes of a play (Act I, Scene ii), cantos of a poem (Book I, Canto iv), chapters of books of the Bible (Luke xiv), and the preliminary pages of a dissertation (e.g., preface, table of contents), On capitalization, see §15. On the use of Roman numerals in documentation, see §§ 31i and 31j.

12   Spelling

a. General remarks. Spelling, including hyphenation, must be consistent, except in quotations: quoted material must be reproduced exactly as it appears in the original. See §9 on the selection and use of a dictionary.

b. Word division. Avoid dividing words at the end of a line. Where divisions are unavoidable, practice in [North America] is to divide words according to pronunciation ("rep-re-sent"), whereas the British divide according to word derivation ("re-pre-sent"). Other languages have their own rules for dividing words: French, for instance, usually divides on a vowel ("ho-me-rique"; in English, "Ho-mer-ic"). If in doubt, consult a dictionary.

c. Accents. In quoting, reproduce all accents exactly as they appear in the original. Bear in mind that in French, when capital letters are followed by lowercase letters, the capital letters are not always accented (always "école," but "Ecole" is acceptable). Although it is never unacceptable to place an accent over a capital letter that would require one if it were lowercase, the practice of French printers varies when words appear entirely in capital letters: *À, É, È, Ù*, and capital letters bearing a circumflex are often accented, but often not. When transcribing words that appear in all capitals and changing them to lowercase, insert the necessary accents. …

d. Dieresis. In German words the dieresis, not *e*, should be used for the umlaut (ä, ö, ü *rather than* ae, oe, ue), even for initial capitals ("Über"). But common usage must be observed for names: Götz, but Goethe.

e. Digraphs. A digraph is a combination of two letters that represents only one sound (e.g., *th*, *oa* in "broad"). In many languages, some digraphs appear united in print (æ, œ, ß). They may be transcribed in typescript without any connection between them (ae, oe, ss). … In [North]

American English, the digraph *ae* [has been almost completely] abandoned in favor of the *e* alone; "encyclopedia" and "archeology" (instead of "encyclopaedia" and "archaeology") and "esthetic" and "medieval" are now [the norm].

13 Titles in the Text

For capitalization of titles, see §15.

a. [Italicized]. Titles of published books, plays (of any length), long poems (usually poems that have been published as books), pamphlets, periodicals (including newspapers and magazines), works of classical literature (but not sacred writings), films, radio and television programs, ballets, operas, instrumental music (but not if identified simply by form, number and key), paintings, sculpture, and names of ships and aircraft are all [italicized] in the text. …

David Copperfield (published book)

As You Like It (play)

The Waste Land (long poem)

New Jersey Driver Manual (pamphlet)

Washington Post (newspaper)

Time (magazine)

Horace's *ArsPoetica* (work of classical literature)

Sounder (film)

All in the Family (television program)

Giselle (ballet)

Rigoletto (opera)

Berlioz' *Symphoniefantastique* (instrumental music identified by name)

Beethoven's Symphony No. 7 in A (instrumental music identified by form, number, and key)

Chagall's *I and My Village* (painting)

Bernini's *Ecstasy of St. Theresa* (sculpture)

H.M.S. *Vanguard* (ship)

Spirit of St. Louis (aircraft)

b. In quotation marks. Titles of articles, essays, short stories, short poems, songs, chapters of books, unpublished works (such as dissertations), lectures and speeches, courses, and individual episodes of radio and television programs are enclosed in quotation marks.

"Sharp Rise in Unemployment" (article in a newspaper)

"Sources of Energy in the Twenty-First Century" (article in a magazine)

"The Writer's Audience is Always a Fiction" (article in a scholarly journal)

"Etruscan" (encyclopedia article)

"The Fiction of Langston Hughes" (essay in a book)

"Young Goodman Brown" (short story)

"Kubla Khan" (poem)

"Summertime" (song)

"Italian Literature before Dante" (chapter in a book)

"Goethe's *Faust* and the German Puppet-Play" (unpublished dissertation)

"The Style and the Story: Shakespeare's Appropriate and Varying Artistry" (lecture)

"Introductory Mathematics" (course)

"The Joy Ride" (episode of the television program *Upstairs, Downstairs*)

c. Titles within titles. If a title indicated by quotation marks appears within an [italicized] title, the quotation marks are retained. If a title indicated by [italicizing] appears within a title enclosed in quotation marks, the [italicizing] is retained.

"Young Goodman Brown" and Hawthorne's Puritan Heritage (book)

"*As You Like It* as a Pastoral Poem" (article)

When a title normally indicated by quotation marks appears within another title requiring quotation marks, the shorter title is given single quotation marks.

"An Interpretation of Coleridge's 'Kubla Khan'" (article)

When a normally [italicized] title appears within another [italicized] title, the shorter title appears neither [italicized] nor in quotation marks.

The Art of David Copperfield (book)

d. Exceptions. These conventions of [italicizing] titles or placing them within quotation marks do not apply to sacred writings (including all books and versions of the Bible), to series, editions, and societies, to descriptive words or phrases (or conventional titles) used instead of an actual title, and to parts of a book, none of which is underlined or put within quotation marks. (On capitalization, see §15.)

Sacred writings:

Bible

King James Version

Old Testament

Genesis

Gospels

Talmud

Koran

Upanishads

Series:

Bollingen Series

University of North Carolina Studies in Comparative Literature

Masterpiece Theatre

Editions:

New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare

Centenary Edition of the Works of Nathaniel Hawthorne

Societies:

American Medical Association

Renaissance Society of America

Descriptive words or phrases or conventional titles:

Roosevelt's first Inaugural Address

Mona Lisa [for Leonardo da Vinci's *La Gioconda*]

Parts of a book:

Introduction

Preface

Appendix

Index

e. Frequent use of a title. If a title is to be mentioned often in the text, after the first full reference in the text or in a note, use only a shortened (if possible, familiar or obvious) title or abbreviation (e.g., "Nightingale" for "Ode to a Nightingale"; *Much Ado* for *Much Ado about Nothing*; HEW for Department of Health, Education and Welfare). This practice is also followed in notes (see §37).

14   Quotations

a. In general, all quotations—whether a word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, or more—should

correspond exactly to the original source in spelling, capitalization, and interior punctuation (on the use of ellipsis, see §14d). Exceptions, such as the [italicizing] of words for emphasis or the modernization of spelling, must be explicitly indicated or explained in a note or enclosed in parentheses at the end of the quotation or in square brackets within the quotation (on the uses of parentheses and square brackets, see §§ 10i and 10n):

Lincoln specifically advocated a government "*for* the people" (emphasis added).

Take care to ensure that the syntax of your sentence accords grammatically with that of the quotation.

b. Poetry. Unless unusual emphasis is required, verse quotations of a single line or part of a line should be incorporated, within quotation marks, as part of the text. Quotations of two or three lines may also be placed in the text, within quotation marks, but with the lines separated by a slash (/), with a space on each side of the slash.

In Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, Antony says of Brutus, "This was the noblest Roman of them all."

In *Julius Caesar*, Antony begins his famous speech: "Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears; / I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him."

Verse quotations of more than three lines should be separated from the text by triple-spacing, introduced in most cases by a colon, indented [0.5 inches] from the left margin (…), and typed with double-spacing (…) but without quotation marks unless they appear in the original. The spatial arrangement of the of the original (including indentation and spacing within and between lines) should be reproduced as accurately as possible.

Crashaw begins his poem "The Weeper" with several metaphors describing the eyes of St. Mary Magdalene, withholding until the end of the first stanza the subject of his work:

<div align="center">

Haile, Sister Springs,

Parents of Silver-footed rills!

Ever bubling things!

Thawing Crystall! Snowy hills!

Still spending, never spent; I meane

Thy faire eyes, sweet *Magdalen*.

</div>

If the quotation begins in the middle of the line of verse, it should be reproduced as such and not shifted to the left margin.

It is in Act II of *As You Like It* that Jaques is given the speech that many think contains a glimpse of Shakespeare's conception of drama:

> All the world's a stage

And all the men and woman merely players:

They have their exits and their entrances;

And one man in his time plays many parts,

His acts being seven ages.

Jacques then proceeds to enumerate and analyze these ages.

c. Prose. Prose quotations of not more than four lines in the typescript, unless special emphasis is required, should always be incorporated, within quotation marks, as part of the text.

For Dickens it was both "the best of times" and "the worst of times."

"He was obeyed," writes Conrad of the Company manager in *Heart of Darkness*, "yet he inspired neither love nor fear, nor even respect."

Longer quotations (more than four lines in the typescript) are usually introduced by a colon or comma (see §14f), set off from the text by triple-spacing, indented [0.5 inches] from the left margin, and typed with double-spacing (…) but without quotation marks. If a single paragraph, or part of one, is quoted, do not indent the first line more than the body of the quotation; if two or more paragraphs are quoted consecutively (as in the following example), indent the first line of each an additional [0.2 inches]. If, however, the first sentence quoted is not the beginning of a paragraph in the source, do not indent it the additional [0.2 inches].

In *Moll Flanders*, Defoe maintains the pseudo-autobiographical narration typical of the picaresque tradition:

> My true name is so well known in the records or registers at Newgate, and in the records or registers at Newgate, and in the Old Bailey, and there are some things of such consequence still depending there, relating to my particular conduct, that it is not to be expected I should set my name or the account of my family to this work. Perhaps, after my death, it may be better known; at present it would not be proper, no, not tho' a general pardon should be issued, even without exceptions of persons or crimes.
>
> It is enough to tell you, that … some of my worst comrades, who are out of the way of doing me harm, having gone out of the world by the steps and the string as I often expected to go, knew me by the name of Moll Flanders. …

d. Ellipsis. When omitting a word, phrase, sentence, or paragraph from a quoted passage, writers should be guided by two principles: (1) fairness to the author being quoted and (2) clarity and correct grammar in their own writing. If only a fragment of a sentence is quoted, it will be obvious that some of the original sentence has been left out: In his Inaugural Address, Kennedy spoke of a "new frontier." But if, after material from the original has been omitted, the quotation appears to be a grammatical sentence or a series of grammatical sentences, the omission (or omissions) should be indicated by using [an] ellipsis …. For [an] ellipsis *within* a sentence, [leave] a space before and after …. A quotation that can stand as a complete sentence should end with a period even if something in the original has been omitted. When the ellipsis coincides with the end of your sentence, [it should *precede* a sentence period with a space before]. If parenthetical material follows the ellipsis at the end of your sentence, … place the sentence period after the final parenthesis.

Original:

The sense of isolation present in many of the poems of the his earlier collections grew into an obsessive loneliness, under the pressure of two alien cultures. (From Robert Pring-Mill, *Pablo Neruda: A Basic Anthology* [Oxford: Dolphin, 1975], p. xxi.)

Quoted with [an] ellipsis in the middle:

As Robert Pring-Mill notes of Neruda's years in the East, "The sense of isolation … grew into an obsessive loneliness, under the pressure of two alien cultures."

Quoted with [an] ellipsis at the end:

As Robert Pring-Mill notes of Neruda's years in the East, "The sense of isolation present in many of the poems of his earlier collections grew into an obsessive loneliness …."

or

As Robert Pring-Mill notes of Neruda's years in the East, "The sense of isolation present in many of the poems of his earlier collections grew into an obsessive loneliness …" (p. xxi).

[An ellipsis] may also be used to indicate the omission of a whole sentence or more or of a paragraph or more. Remember, however, that grammatically complete sentences must both precede and follow the ellipsis. (…)

Original:

The most dissimilar people said similar if not identical things about this unique soul, this poet who gave so much delight. They spoke of his wonderfully balanced humanity, the expanse and

gentleness of his spirit and his incredibly subtle art. All testify that he taught his contemporaries to see things, to recognise relationships, to love what is fine, to be aware of depths, and to discover the hidden ways of the human soul, and that he did this with a gentle but sure conviction. (From J. R. von Salis, *Rainer Maria Rilke: The Years in Switzerland*, trans. N. K. Cruickshank [Berkeley: Univ. of California Press, 1966], p. 290.)

Quoted:

J. R. von Salis has written of Rilke, "The most dissimilar people said similar if not identical things about this unique soul …. All testify that he taught his contemporaries to see things, to recognise relationships, to love what is fine, to be aware of depths …."

…

The accuracy of the quotation and the exact reproduction of the original are paramount in scholarly writing. Unless indicated in brackets, liberties must not be taken with the spelling or punctuation of the original. The writer must construct sentences that allow, on the one hand, for the exactness of the quotation and, on the other, for clarity and correct grammatical structure. In many cases, it is best simply to paraphrase grammatically incorporating fragments of the original into the text.

Original:

Moralists have unanimously agreed, that unless virtue be nursed by liberty, it will never attain due strength—and what they say of man I extend to mankind, insisting that in all cases morals must be fixed on immutable principles; and, that the being cannot be termed rational or virtuous, who obeys any authority, but that of reason. (From Mary Wollstonecraft, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*, ed. Carol H. Poston [New York: Norton, 1975], Ch. xiii, §6 [p. 191].)

Quoted:

"[U]nless virtue be nursed by liberty," wrote Mary Wollstonecraft, "it will never attain due strength …."

But writers who prefer not to use square brackets to indicate the changing of a lowercase letter into uppercase should recast the sentence:

Mary Wollstonecraft wrote that "unless virtue be nursed by liberty, it will never attain due strength …."

e. Interpolations. The writer's own comments or explanations *within* quotations are enclosed in square brackets (*not parentheses*) …. Use "sic" ("thus," "so") sparingly—in square brackets and

without quotation marks or an exclamation point—to assure readers that the quotation is accurate although the spelling or logic might lead them to doubt it. Unless the writer states otherwise (e.g., by "emphasis added"; see §14a), the reader will assume that whatever is [italicized] in the quotation was italicized … in the original.

The term paper was [titled] "On Wordsworth's 'Imitations of Immorality' [sic]."

Hamlet says of his mother:

    Why, she would hang on him [Hamlet's father]

As if increase of appetite had grown

By what it fed on ….

f. Punctuating quotations. Quotations set off from the text require no quotation marks; internal punctuation should be reproduced exactly as in the original. For quotations included as part of the text, first use double quotation marks, then, for quotations within quotations, single marks:

The professor in the novel confessed that he found it "impossible to teach the 'To be or not to be' speech" because he was himself terrified by its implications.

Commas and periods are placed *inside* closing quotation marks unless a parenthetical or bracketed reference intervenes. (If a quotation ends with both a single and a double quotation mark, the comma or period is placed within both: "Read 'Kubla Khan,'" he told me.) All other punctuation goes outside quotation marks, except when it is part of the matter quoted.

Original:

I believe taxation without representation is tyranny!

Quoted:

He attacked "taxation without representation."

He attacked "taxation without representation" (p. 32).

Did he attack "taxation without representation"?

He did not even attack "taxation without representation"!

but

He declared that "taxation without representation is tyranny!"

When a quotation is formally introduced, it is preceded by a colon. Quotations of verse are also usually preceded by a colon.

Coleridge's *Rime of the Ancient Mariner* concludes: "A sadder and a wiser man, / He rose the morrow morn."

but

"Poets," according to Shelley, "are the unacknowledged legislators of the world."

15 Capitalization

a. English. In all English titles, not only of entire works (such as novels, lectures, or essays) but also of divisions of works (such as parts or chapters), capitalize the first letter of the first word, the last word, and all the principal words—including nouns and adjective in hyphenated compounds but excluding articles, prepositions (except when they function as adverbs), conjunctions, and the "to" in infinitives.

Death of a Salesman

Antony and Cleopatra

The Hero in Nineteenth-Century Novels: A Survey

The Teaching of Spanish in English-Speaking Countries

"Ode to a Nightingale"

"Italian Literature before Dante"

"The Life Beyond"

"What Americans Stand For"

In references to magazines or newspapers (the *Washington Post*), the initial definite article is usually not treated as part of the title. The words "series" and "edition" are capitalized only when they are considered part of an exact title (the Norton Critical Edition, the Twayne World Authors Series, *but* Penguin edition, the Studies in English Literature series). Titles like Preface, Introduction, and Appendix are often capitalized, particularly when they refer to a well-known work, such as Wordsworth's Preface to *Lyrical Ballads*. They are also capitalized when formally cited in notes and bibliographies (see §31b). In many other contexts, however, these terms need not be treated as titles (the author claims in an introduction). Capitalize and, in documentation, abbreviate a noun followed by a numeral indicating place in a sequence: Vol. II of 3 vols., Pl. 4, No. 20, Act V, Ch. iii, Version A. Do not capitalize col., fol., l., n., p., or sig. (see §48 for the meanings of these and other abbreviations). Never capitalize entire words (i.e., every letter) in titles cited in text or notes.

16 Names of Persons

a. General remarks. Since there are exceptions to almost any rule, good judgment based on knowledge of common usage is essential in dealing with persons' names.

b. Titles. Formal titles (Mr., Mrs., Miss, Ms., Dr., Professor, etc.) are usually omitted in references to persons, living or dead. By convention, titles are associated with, or used for, certain names—for instance, the poet Henry Howard, earl of Surrey, is referred to as Surrey, not Howard. By custom, however, some titled persons are not referred to by their titles: Benjamin Disraeli, first earl of Beaconsfield, is commonly called Disraeli. A few women are traditionally known by their married names (Mme de Staël). Otherwise, women's names are treated the same as men's (Dickinson, Stein, Plath, not Miss Dickinson, Miss Stein, Miss Plath).

c. Authors' names. It is common and acceptable to use simplified names of famous authors (Vergil for PubliusVergiliusMaro, Dante for Dante Alighieri). Many authors are referred to by pseudonyms, which should be treated as ordinary names.

Molière (Jean-Baptiste Poquelin)

Voltaire (François-Marie Arouet)

George Sand (Amandine-Aurore-Lucie Dupin)

George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans)

Mark Twain (Samuel Clemens)

Stendhal (Marie-Henri Beyle)

Novalis (Friedrich von Hardenberg)

In a few cases, however, surnames and pen names are virtually inseparable from initials (O. Henry, not Henry).

What is an Author?

When creating a citation, the "author" is the individual credited with creating the source you are using. Usually, this is the individual(s) or organization who wrote a source. Sometimes, the "author" element could also be the work's editor, translator, or performer (*MLA Handbook* 107). Here are general guidelines on formatting an author's name:

- The author's name is always the first thing listed in a works cited entry, unless there is no author.
- Entries on your works cited page should be listed in alphabetical order according to the author's last name.
- The first (or only) author's name is listed as Last Name, First Name.

Examples:

Crystal, David. *The Story of English in 100 Words*.St. Martin's Press, 2013.

Hunter, David J., et al. "Covid-19 and the Stiff Upper Lip – The Pandemic Response in the United Kingdom: NEJM." *New England Journal of Medicine*, 17 Mar. 2020, www.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/NEJMp2005755.

The "Works Cited: A Quick Guide" page from the official Modern Language Association Style Center calls each element of a works cited entry a "core element." These elements (e.g., author, title, publisher, etc.) are the most common facts listed for most sources. They are assembled in a set order, starting with the author.

How to Format Author Names in MLA 9

It's important that you correctly cite the last name of the author(s) whose work you're referencing. To correctly cite the author, always begin the citation with the author's last name, a comma, and the rest of the name as it appears on the source. Place a period after the author's name. If your source has more than two authors, you'll also need to know when to use et al. in MLA. Below are examples for citing one or more authors.

How to Cite One Author:

List the author's last name, add a comma, then add the author's first name or initials (*Handbook* 111). Use the author's name as it appears on the source.

Patterson, James.

Rowling, J.K.

King, Laurie R.

How to Cite Two Authors:

Place the authors in the order in which they appear on the source (*Handbook* 111). Note that only the lead author's name is listed last name first; all additional authors are listed by their first name, middle initial if applicable, and then last name:

Shields, David, and Caleb Powell.

How to Cite Three or More Authors:

List the first author's last name, first name, and then middle initial if applicable. Follow it with a comma, and then add "et al." in place of the additional authors' names (*Handbook* 112):

Beck, Isabel L., et al.

How to Cite Works by Individuals Other Than the Author:

In cases where the person responsible for creating a work is someone other than the author, such as an editor, producer, performer, or artist, always include the individual's role after the name (*Handbook* 147):

Kansaker, TejRatna, and Mark Turin, editors.

When citing works of entertainment, such as film or television, include the name and role of the person on whom you've focused (*Handbook* 147):

Byrne, Rose, performer.

Note: If you are writing about a film or television show that does not focus on an individual's role, omit the author's name and start the citation with the title. Contributors can be listed separately following the title if necessary.

How to Cite Translated Works:

When your focus is on the translated text rather than the original, use the translator as the author (*Handbook* 147). Include the name of the original creator after the title, preceded by the word "By":

Rojas, Carlos, translator. *The Four Books.* By Yan Lianke.

How to Cite Using Pseudonyms in MLA 9:

If an author has published a work under a different, lesser-known name, there are a few different ways you can list the author in your citation *(Handbook* 115-117). You can list the author only under their more well-known name; you can list the author's more well-known name in square

brackets; or you can use the author's more well-known name in the author field, followed by a "*published by*" note and their pseudonym in square brackets.

King, Stephen.

[King, Stephen].

King, Stephen [*published as* Richard Bachman].

Alternatively, you can choose to use the author's lesser-known name in the author field (be it their given name or a pseudonym), and include the author's more well-known name in square brackets before the period.

Clemens, Samuel [Mark Twain].

Bachman, Richard [Stephen King].

Notes on Titles and Suffixes

Some authors will also have additional information tied to their names. It could either be a title (e.g., Sir, Saint, President, etc.), a degree (e.g., MLIS, PhD, etc.), or a suffix (e.g., Jr., III, etc.).

According to the official *Handbook,* leave out titles and degrees from the works cited list (49).

Full Name (in Source)	Name in Works Cited List
Dame Naomi James	James, Naomi
Sister Joan D. Chittister	Chittister, Joan D.
Benjamin Hardy, PhD	Hardy, Benjamin

For suffixes, include them. Add a comma after the full author's name, then add the suffix. No comma is needed before the suffix if it is numerical.

- King, Martin Luther, Jr.
- Eaton, Maxwell III

Citing sources with no page numbers

If a source does not have page numbers but is divided into numbered parts (e.g. chapters, sections, scenes, Bible books and verses, Articles of the Constitution, or timestamps), use these numbers to locate the relevant passage.

If the source does not use any numbering system, include only the author's name in the in-text citation. Don't include paragraph numbers unless they are explicitly numbered in the source.Note that if there are no numbered divisions and you have already named the author in your sentence, then no parenthetical citation is necessary.

Citing different sources with the same author name

If your Works Cited page includes more than one entry under the same last name, you need to distinguish between these sources in your in-text citations.

Multiple sources by the same author

If you cite more than one work by the same author, add a shortened title to signal which source you are referring to.

Citing multiple sources by the same author(Butler, *Gender Trouble* 27)
(Butler, "Performative Acts" 522)
In this example, the first source is a whole book, so the title appears in italics; the second is an article published in a journal, so the title appears in quotation marks.

Different authors with the same last name

To distinguish between different authors with the same last name, use the authors' initials (or, if the initials are the same, full first names) in your in-text citations:

Citing different authors with the same last name(A. Butler 19)
(J. Butler 27)

Citing sources indirectly

Sometimes you might want to cite something that you found quoted in a secondary source. If possible, always seek out the original source and cite it directly.

If you can't access the original source, make sure to name both the original author and the author of the source that you accessed. Use the abbreviation "qtd. in" (short for "quoted in") to indicate where you found the quotation.

Example of an indirect citation in MLAMarx defines "the two primary creators of wealth" as "labour-power and the land" (qtd. in Luxemburg, ch. 26).
In these cases, only the source you accessed directly is included in the Works Cited list.