

Academic writing, referencing and documentation

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A Students Guide to Academic Writing

and

Referencing and Documentation

Part A

Academic Writing

Introduction

Academic writing is a formal writing. The main aim of academic writing is to *inform* and not *entertain* like creative writing. Both academic writer and academic readers have no time to be entertained but they rush for useful information they are looking for. It should not appear verbose-inclusion of words more than required. Academic writing is often described as complex and abstract. This is partly due to the subject matter of the writing; however, it is also due to the language itself. Three characteristics that can create complexity in academic writing are the frequent use of the passive voice, nominalisation and extended nominal (or noun) groups. Learning to use these structures in your own writing is an important part of becoming a sophisticated writer at university.

Writers seeking to improve their academic writing skills should focus their efforts on three key areas:

1. **Strong writing:** Thinking precedes writing. Good writers spend time distilling information from their sources and reviewing major points before creating their work. Strong academic writing begins with solid planning.

2. ***Excellent grammar***: Learn the major and minor points of grammar. Spend time practising writing and seek detailed feedback from teachers, professors or writers you respect. English grammar can be detailed and complex, but strong writers command the major points after many years of study and practice.

3. ***Consistent stylistic approach***: The MLA is commonly used in English classes, while APA is for psychology and science. Chicago Manual of Style is often the choice in the workplace. Here we will insist on American Psychological Association (APA) as most educational institutions prefer APA.

Academic writing demands the use of standard English. Standard English would mean avoidance of slangs, clichés, colloquial, contractions, personal tones, etc.

Academic writing is factual in the sense that the writer should avoid flowery language through the use of figures of speech. Academic writers need to take special care to avoid the use of hyperbole and euphemism. Hyperboles and Euphemisms, if used in academic writing, misinform the readers as they do not provide literal or denotative meaning of the statements.

Reports, presentation and research papers are some of the examples where the use academic writing is inevitable. In brief, academic writing is 'structured research' written by 'scholars' for other scholars. Academic writing addresses topic-based

'research questions' of interest to anyone who is seeking factually-based, objectively-presented information on a particular topic. The objective of academic writing is the creation of 'new knowledge' via (a) a review of *what is currently known about a given topic* (b) as the foundation for *the author's new views or perspectives on the topic*.

The most important thing is to keep your writing clear and concise and make sure that you get your ideas over in a comprehensible form. A wide range of vocabulary is of course important, but you must use the right word, and precise ones are often better than longer ones.

1. Features of Academic Writing

Academic writing in English is linear, which means it has one central point or theme with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digressions or repetitions. Its objective is to inform rather than entertain. As well it is in the standard written form of the language. There are six main features of academic writing that are often discussed. Academic writing is to some extent: complex, formal, objective, explicit, hedged, and responsible.

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Complexity

Written language is relatively more complex than spoken language. Written language has longer words, it is lexically denser and it has a more varied vocabulary. It uses more noun-based phrases than verb-based phrases. Written texts are shorter and the language has more grammatical complexity, including more subordinate clauses and more passives.

Formality

Academic writing is relatively formal. In general this means that in an essay you should avoid colloquial words and expressions. Further, it has impersonal tone which can be achieved by avoidance of intimacy words such as 'you' or 'I', but rather use 'he', 'she', 'researcher', and so on.

Objectivity

Written language is in general objective rather than personal. It therefore has fewer words that refer to the writer or the reader. This means that the main emphasis should be on the information that you want to give and the arguments you want to make, rather than you. Objectivity can also be understood avoiding subjectivity, for example: "Paro is extremely cold in winter," is subjective because it may be true for a person who came from Sahara desert, but the case may not be the same for a person from Siberia. For the latter, the winter in Paro could be very pleasant. This could be

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objectively written as: Paro experiences as low as 2 degree Celsius in winter.

Explicitness

Academic writing is explicit about the relationships in the text. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the writer in English to make it clear to the reader how the various parts of the text are related. These connections can be made explicit by the use of different signaling words. The ideas and information are explicit and not just implied.

Hedging

In any kind of academic writing you do, it is necessary to make decisions about your stance on a particular subject, or the strength of the claims you are making. Are you doing this research as an expert or as a novice, student or teacher, employer or employee, teacher or manager? Different subjects prefer to do this in different ways. A technique common in certain kinds of academic writing is known by linguists as a 'hedge'.

Responsibility

In academic writing you must be responsible for, and must be able to provide evidence and justification for, any claims you make. You are also responsible for demonstrating an understanding of any source texts you use. You need to document and reference for any information you include in your writing – do not plagiarise.

2. Writing Process

Writing is a process and not a one shot act. Writing has different stages from the start to the finish. Some of the prominent processes involved are prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. Writing process can be compare with an analogy of searching for gold:

First you wander around, looking at maps and squinting into the horizon for a likely source. You might start to dig in three or four places before you actually strike gold. Perhaps some of it is fool's gold, but you gather up everything that looks like gold, even letting some sand and pebbles get into the bag, because it is getting dark and you don't want to leave anything valuable behind. You'll sort it out later. Once you've isolated the gold, it must be refined, carefully crafted into beautiful and/or useful objects (rings, coins, chains), and polished. (Ziegler, 1981, pp. 35-36)

2.1 Prewriting

By many educators prewriting is now considered the most crucial of the stages in the writing process, although it was previously the most neglected. Just as athletes need to warm up before a game or an athletic event, writers also need to warm up and get ready. Prewriting is the stage when writers are getting ready to write. In preparing for writing,

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writers have to decide on a topic, identify an audience and purpose for writing, determine the appropriate form for the piece, and gather ideas and data. “During this time an embryo is forming; you may not know what, but you sense that *something* alive will emerge (Ziegler, 1981).

Some of the specific techniques one can employ in prewriting are brainstorming, looking at ones writing territory, mapping out the ideas, asking questions, seeking peer feedbacks and talking to the tutor.

Some of the questions that one should ask during prewriting are: What should I write about? Is my topic too broad? What do I know about the topic? Where can I find more information? Who is my audience? What do I want them to know? What form is appropriate?

2.2 Drafting

During the drafting stage, some students will have difficulty getting started while others will plunge right in. It is important that during this stage students are not hampered with the mechanics of writing. The idea is to get their ideas down without letting concern about correct spelling, punctuation, and grammar get in the way of composing. A "free flow" of ideas is encouraged. Students need to be aware that first drafts are not finished products and that any piece of writing can be improved.

Revisions will take place during the next stage in the writing process. For now, students should sit back and let their creativity flow forth (Kneebone, 1997).

Maimon and Peritz (2003) advise to think drafting as an attempt to discover a beginning, a middle, and an end for what you have to say, but remember that a draft is preliminary. You should avoid putting pressure on yourself to make it perfect the first time through.

Your first goal in drafting is to develop a preliminary thesis - a working thesis – that fits your purpose, makes a difference to readers, and addresses a specific issue.

It is advised that drafting must be done, as far as possible, in one sitting. Kenneth Clerk in Ebbitt and Ebbitt (1982) said, "If words come tumbling out it gives one's style an energy and rhythm that cannot be achieved by deliberation, and one can enjoy the pleasure of polishing later."

2.3 Revising

Walshe, 1981 in Kneebone (1997) says, "Writing, like a potter's clay, only becomes a thing of usefulness or beauty through repeated smoothing and shaping". The purpose of revision is to clarify and shape the meaning and to organize the writing. It is at this stage that the author rethinks what has been written. Revision involves adding, substituting,

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deleting, and moving ideas and words around as writers rework and polish their pieces.

Ebbit and Ebbit (1982) suggest that in the final stage of drafting, you need to get out of your paper and look at it from the perspective of a critical reader. Try to be objective. You need to drop the role of author and turn yourself into an editor.

Conferring is a significant part of this stage in the writing process. Authors read their writing in pairs, in writing circles, and during a conference with the teacher. Listeners respond to the writer by noting what they liked about the piece, asking questions about the author's intent or any confusing parts, and providing suggestions for improvement. (Kneebone, 1997).

Some of the question that you need to focus during revising are: Does my piece say what I want it to say? How can I make my writing clearer and more effective? Should I add to, delete, or reorder my writing? Does my writing make sense? Will my readers understand my writing? Am I pleased with my writing?

2.4 Editing

Editing is the process of getting the piece ready for the audience. The writer is expected to attend to the surface features of writing - mechanics, grammar, and spelling. In order to communicate effectively with an audience, writing must be free of

errors that can interfere with the understanding of the message or can distract from the writing itself. Brief mini lessons in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, paragraph structure, grammar, vocabulary, and the structure of complete sentences should be offered repeatedly.

Editing can appear in different layers – editing for clarity of ideas and language, editing for grammar conventions, and editing for correctness (punctuation, mechanics, and spelling). In other words editing is proof reading by the author before the write-up is ready for publication.

2.5 Publishing

This final stage of the writing process – publishing – occurs when a completed text is reworked and edited to the satisfaction of the author. Although many young authors will want to publish everything they write, not all pieces will reach the publishing stage. A high standard should be set for overall correctness and presentation for the pieces that are to be published. However, publishing can appear in various forms, such as, submission to the tutor, presentation to the colleagues, and submission to the publishers.

3. Barriers to Communication

Ineffective communication can lead to errors, misunderstanding, poor performance, lower motivation and morale, negative feelings in the workplace and many other issues that may detract from achieving individual's goals. It is, therefore, important to try to minimise barriers to effective and efficient communication. Further, it is important to be aware of some of the barriers that impede effective communication, and should be able to avoid them.

3.1 Faulty parallelism

The ability to write a good parallel sentence is invaluable in essay work. Faulty parallelism, on the other hand, produces an effect in your reader similar to changing gears without using the clutch. A successful parallel sentence reads smoothly, while a faulty parallel sentence lurches awkwardly.

Good writing consists of two parts: thought and structure. With writing, you may have good ideas yet a faulty sentence, paragraph, or essay structure. Consequently, you would lose effectiveness. Or you may have well-organised sentence, paragraph, and essay structures which contain no worthwhile ideas. Here, too, you would lose writing effectiveness. Again, good writing must have both good thoughts and good structure.

Faulty parallelism occurs when the elements put into pairs and series "go in different directions" because they do not have the same form grammatical structure. In other words, nouns should be coordinated with nouns, verbs with verbs, adjectives with adjectives, adverbs with adverbs, infinitive for infinitive, gerund for gerund, phrases with phrases, and clauses with clauses. To check for faulty parallelism it is often useful to underline or otherwise mark parallel (coordinate) elements. For example:

Faulty parallel:

He liked to play archery and riding horses. (Infinitive to play and gerund riding)

Parallel

He liked playing archery and riding horses. (Gerund playing and riding)

He liked to play archery and to ride horses. (Infinitive to play and to ride)

He liked to play archery and ride horses. (Infinitive to for both the verbs)

Clumsy:

I outlined the essay slowly and with care. (Adverb slowly and noun care)

Better:

I outlined the letters slowly and carefully. (Both adverbs slowly and carefully)

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Faulty: I enjoy hiking, biking, and to go to movies.

Correct: I enjoy hiking, biking, and going to movies.

Faulty: The ideal student is attentive, studious, and asks questions.

Correct: The ideal student is attentive, studious, and inquisitive.

Exercise: Check yourself

Rewrite the following sentences to correct any faulty parallelism.

1. Your job consists of arranging the books, cataloguing new arrivals, and the pamphlets have to be alphabetised.
2. A thin film of frost coated the trees. The hedges and shrubs had it also.
3. He is an affectionate husband, a thoughtful son, and kind to his kids.
4. He is a poet of great talent and who is insightful.
5. Every afternoon in the mountains, it either rains or there is hail.
6. His writing reveals not only intelligence but also it is humorous.

3.2 Pretentiousness, pomposity or grandiloquence.

This is a common problem for writers, and nowhere is this more evident than in academic contexts. Too

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many writers think that by using big, unfamiliar words or complicated sentence structures that the reader will be impressed into believing that the writer is saying something important.

Pretentious writing of confuses the readers due to the inclusion of unfamiliar words and complicated sentence structures. The readers also develop prejudice towards the writer.

For example,

'This author concludes that, after due and full consideration, some writers exhibit discursive practices that produce undecipherable sentences, the intelligibility of which beggar even the most sophisticated ratiocinative beings'.

The sentence could be rewritten in a number of ways:

Very simply

- 'Some people write badly'
- 'Some people write incomprehensibly'.
- 'Some people write nonsense'.

More complex

- 'Some people write so badly that even intelligent people are baffled'.

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- 'Some people write in a way that makes it difficult for even quite sophisticated intellects to understand them'.

Example of pretentious writing from Thomson (1984) pp 40.

The caves tend to be somewhat obscured by an all-prevailing darkness. Even in those instances in which their apertures face in the direction of the sun, only a minimal amount of light penetrates into the circular chamber. There is not a great deal to see. And no eyes to see it, until a visitor appears on the scene and momentarily illuminates the cave by igniting a match.

Concise writing:

They are dark caves. Even when they open towards the sun, very little light penetrates into the circular chamber. There is little to see, and no eyes to see it, until a visitor arrives and strikes a match.

Example from Maimon and Peritz (2003)

Pretentious: Romantic lovers are characterized by a preoccupation with a deliberately restricted set of qualities in the love object that are viewed as means to some ideal end.

Revised: People in love see what they want to see, usually by idealizing the beloved.

3.3 Jargon

The language, especially vocabulary of a particular trade, profession or group (e.g., medical jargon). Jargon is distinct from terminology in that it tends to be colourful, colloquial and visual. Its meaning is often confined to an occupational context and even to a locality. Often the meaning of the jargon is not understood outside the occupation. Examples of cricket jargon are 'LBW', 'run out,' 'wicket', 'fielding' and so on. In fact every trade would have jargons. Inclusion of jargons makes the reader feel outsider. Academic writing should avoid the use of jargons. If it is unavoidable, you should provide explanation as footnote or endnote.

3.4 Hyperbole and Euphemism

Both hyperbole and euphemism are figures of speech that are more suited for creative writing than academic writing. Hyperbole is an overstatement or exaggeration. Hyperbole, if used in academic writing, conveys wrong information, such as "Ten thousand saw I at a glance" in Wordsworth's *Daffodils*. It is not at all possible for a person count exactly ten thousand daffodils at a glance. Similarly there is hyperbole in Act 2, scene 2 of Shakespeare's *Macbeth*. In this scene,

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Macbeth has murdered King Duncan. Horrified at the blood on his hands, he asks:

Will all great Neptune's ocean wash this blood
Clean from my hand? No. This my hand will rather
The multitudinous seas incarnadine,
Making the green one red.

Literally, it does not require an ocean to wash blood from one's hand. Nor can the blood on one's hand turn the green ocean red. The hyperbole works to illustrate the guilt Macbeth feels at the brutal murder of his king and kinsman.

Euphemism or understatement is the opposite of hyperbole. Euphemism is a substitution of a cultured or less offensive term for a harsh one. Euphemism is used to bring down the degree of harshness so that it avoids upsetting or grieving the other person. For example, death is a terrible thing that nobody would like to face or hear. Euphemism for 'death' can be 'breathed his last', 'eternal sleep', 'passed away', 'left for heavenly abode', 'exist no more in this world', and so on.

The purpose of euphemism is to cover up the truth, but academic writing is for information and that information should be conveyed directly without exaggeration or understatement.

3.5 Wordiness/Verbose

The use of more words than are needed to express ideas clearly and accurately result in weak and often vague writing. A sentence does not have to

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be short and simple to be concise. Instead every word in it must count, especially when the subject matter is complex and technical. The commonest types of wordiness are:

3.5.1 Circumlocution- using several words or roundabout phrasing to say what might be said more directly, in fewer words.

Example:

Wordy: With respect to its historical accuracy, the film is sound.

Better: The film is historically accurate.

Wordy: Owing to the fact that I had not yet completed the assignment for my class in algebra, I found myself unable to attend the pep rally held on that evening.

Better: Because I hadn't finished my algebra assignment, I couldn't go to the pep rally that evening.

Wordy: The ending definitely shocked us very much.

Better: The ending shocked us.

3.5.2 Deadwood- words that add nothing to the meaning. This is also known as redundancy or tautology. They are meaningless repetitions that results in wordiness. Academic readers have no time for unnecessarily elaborate information. Some

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of the examples are *return back*, *first and foremost*, *final result*, *red in colour*, *refer back* and so on.

The sweatshirt was too large (in size) for Milly.
Did the police ever discover the (true) facts
about the robbery?

He is 160 cm tall (in height)

The rope is 45 m long (in length)

3.5.3 Unnecessary subject-verb units.

A writer who puts almost every little detail into a separate clause – who uses more subject-verb units than he need to – is sure to sound wordy. This kind of wordiness can easily be corrected by reducing some of the clauses to phrases or single words:

Wordy: While Joe was driving the old road that goes by the mill, he saw a car that has been in a wreck and that the owner had abandoned, and he decided that he would report what he saw to the police.

Economical: While driving along the old mill road, Joe saw a wrecked and abandoned car and decided to report it to the police.

Wordy: The first short story that he wrote was about a battle that was fought with machine guns in

the mountains which are in the part of Spain which is not far from the French border.

Economical: The first short story was about a machine-gun battle fought in the mountains of Spain.

Exercise: Check yourself.

Revise the following sentences by avoiding circumlocutions, deadwoods and subject-verb units.

1. It is always the case that in the fall of every year I get homesick for Connecticut.
The Clayton Company contributed \$ 2,500 donation as their gift to the new hospital.
2. Before she makes a right-hand turn, she always switches on the turn signal that indicates to other drivers that she intends to turn.
3. Even though we spent all of the whole morning calking the boat for the purpose of making it watertight, we could not get rid of the leak which was near the keel.

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At that point in time
There is no doubt but that
He is a person who
A person who is honest
There are many boys who
He was there in person
Personally I think

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then
no doubt
he
an honest person
many boys
he was there
I think

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My father he	my father
Surrounded on all sides	surrounded
During the winter months	during the winter
Brown in color	brown
Refer back	refer
Repeat again	repeat
Two different kinds	two kinds
Free complimentary copy	complimentary copy
Free gift	gift
Very unique	unique
Past history	history
End result	result
Usual custom	custom
Due to the fact that	because

3.6 Clichés or triteness

Clichés have no place in the academic writing as they have been overused and do not convey any meaning. Academicians do not want phrases that have no meaning.

A cliché is not just something that lots of people say; It's something that lots of people say and it conveys some sort of idea or message. A cliché is, in other words, a metaphor characterised by its overuse.

A cliché is a vivid depiction of an abstract matter that works by means of analogy and/or exaggeration.

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A cliché is a phrase that is overworked or used excessively and has become a bit meaningless and even irritating

Or yet another, who rather eloquently suggested that, "A cliché is an analogy characterized by its overuse. It may be true ('Fat as a pig'), no longer true ('work like a dog') or inscrutable ('right as rain'), but it has been overused to the point that its sole function is to mark its user as a lazy thinker."

Given below are some of the most common clichés.

before I knew it
without a doubt
without a hitch
stopped in my tracks
little did I know
goose bumps all over
needless to say
well worth the wait
frightened to death
scared out of my wits
with only seconds to spare
without a care in the world
it couldn't happen to a nicer
a matter of time
lost track of time
seemed to take forever
lasted an eternity
made a big impression on
thought he/she was hot stuff

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in the nick of time
couldn't catch my breath
for the life of me
without moving a muscle
couldn't keep my eyes open
at the drop of a hat
did not have a pleasant bone in his/her
but to no avail
like the pot calling the kettle black
got the best of me
put two and two together
knows full well
honesty is the best policy
time heals all wounds
dumb as a rock
bored out of my mind
quiet as a mouse

Read the passage given below and list clichés that are in the passage from Ebbitt and Ebbitt (1982)

The world of fashion shows free enterprise in action – the good old American way. Spending six months as a salesgirl in a dress shop made me realize that there's lots of truth in the old saying "It takes all kind." Some of the customers made my life miserable. On more than one occasion, I had to bite my lip to keep from giving them a piece of my mind, and sometimes it was difficult to keep from crying. But there was laughter as well as tears, and I learned many valuable lessons in interpersonal relations. After all, getting along with others – even featherheaded spendthrifts – is a must if we want to make this old world a better place to live in. And if our economy is to stay healthy, we'll have to put up with women (and men too) breaking down the doors to grab up bargains that aren't bargains and making fools of themselves as they adjust to the wind of fashion, season after season.

3.7 Slang and colloquial

Slang is non-standard English that often appear in conversation, but rarely in the college writing – unless that writing is reported conversation. Slang should be avoided in the academic writing as it changes frequently, moreover it does not convey

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any concrete meaning in the writing, and rather it dilutes the effectiveness of the writing.

Here is an example of a writing containing colloquial:

I was in a lounge suit. It was a good one. Grey, charcoal sorta thing. Cost me a gotta dough...D'you ever feel outa place? I did at that party...These guys oughta be in a museum. I been down Greenwich village. But I never see guys quite like this. They wore jeans; O.K. so lotsa people wear jeans...I seen all kindsa dolls, but you shoulda seen them. I like cereals; they look O.K. in a bag. But you see a doll in one of them sacks...

(pp. 162)

An increasing number of colloquialisms find their way into print today even in serious writing. There are occasions when we see them even in the academic writing.

Here is an example of a good writing:

The good writer will express his thought in the most concise, and therefore, the briefest way possible. This does not mean that he will always write in short simple words, or strain after a sturdy Saxon vocabulary. *Far from it.* He will realise, if he is sensible, that he has all the resources of the language to draw upon it. (pp.158)

-Warner, Alan, A short Guide to English Style, 1975, Oxford University Press, London

4. Common Errors.

College writing or academic writing is a standard writing. The academicians expect error free writing both in terms of language structure and ideas. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the writers to take utmost care both in terms of thought and structure. Some areas where novice writers commit errors are discussed below.

4.1 Confusing word pairs

There are many words in English that have same or similar pronunciation but different spelling. A few of the examples are 'later, latter', 'former, formal', 'cite, site, sight', 'alley, ally', 'advice, advise', 'further, farther' and so on....

Care should be taken to differentiate the meaning of the words and use them correctly in your writing so that communication is effective. Look at the words and their meanings given as an Annexure.

4.2 Punctuation

Punctuation give life and meaning to your writing. Punctuation is a set of symbols or signals intended to help readers (Maimon & Peritz, 2003). They go on to compare the situation where a person speaks without smiling, nodding his head, pointing his finger, and rolling his eyes. We would be still communicating but his word would not be as

meaningful and interesting. Like physical gestures in spoken communication, correct punctuation matter in a good writing.

Punctuation marks are written symbols that do not correspond to either phonemes (sounds) of a spoken language nor to lexemes (words and phrases) of a written language, but which serve to organise or clarify written language.

Punctuation establishes the cadence of a sentence, telling the reader where to pause (comma, semicolon, and colon), stop (period, and question mark), or take a detour (dash, parenthesis, and bracket). Punctuation of a sentence usually denotes a pause in thought; different kinds of punctuation indicate different kind and length of pauses (American Psychological Association, 5th edition, 2007)

Some of the frequently used punctuation marks are capitalisation, full stop, comma, question mark, inverted commas, apostrophe, semicolon, colon, hyphen and spelling. It is important to consider the correct use of the punctuation marks during revising and editing process. You can always take the help of your friends and tutor in case of doubt.

4.3 Paragraph

Dewhurst (1991) defined a paragraph as a basic unit of organisation in writing in which a group of related sentences develops one main idea. According to Bonet (2005), a paragraph is a group

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of related sentences about one topic or idea. Each sentence fits into a logical pattern and relates to the other sentences in the paragraph. A well written paragraph is like a bushel of apples. A paragraph can contain several related sentences, but sometimes one or two sentences paragraphs are used for stylistic emphasis. Academic writing should avoid one sentence paragraphs as they do not give you chance to develop your ideas.

Usually the first sentence in the paragraph contains the main idea, and it is called topic sentence. This sentence is a basket that holds the apple of other sentences. The sentences that follow support or further develop the idea presented in the topic sentence in a clear and orderly arrangement. In other words each paragraph contains a single justified idea. All the paragraphs put together justify your topic or thesis.

Unity and coherence

Paragraph should have unity and coherence. Unity means that you discuss only *one* main idea in a paragraph. The main idea is stated in the topic sentence, and then *each and every supporting sentence* develops that idea. Coherence means that your paragraph is easy to read and understand because 1) your supporting sentences are in some kind of logical order and 2) your ideas are connected by the use of appropriate connecting words and transition signals.

Paragraph Structure

According to Dewhurst (1991) a paragraph has three parts: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.

The topic sentence states the main idea or focus of the paragraph. It not only names the topic of the paragraph, but also limits the topic to one or two areas that can be discussed completely in the space of a single paragraph.

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. In other words, they explain the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, facts, statistics and quotations. And the concluding sentence signals the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important points to remember.

The passage below contains all the elements of a good paragraph. Read it carefully two or three times and try to analyse its structure.

Gold

Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics. First of all, gold has a lustrous beauty that is resistant to corrosion. Therefore, it is suitable for jewellery, coins, and ornamental purposes. Gold never needs to be polished and will remain beautiful forever. For example, a Macedonian coin remains as untarnished today as the day it

was minted twenty-three centuries ago. Another important characteristic of gold is its usefulness to industry and science. For many years, it has been used in hundreds of industrial applications.

The most recent use of gold is astronauts' suits. Astronauts wear gold-plated heat shields for protection outside the spaceship. In conclusion, gold is treasured not only for its beauty but also for its utility.

4.4 Signal words

Signal words are also known as meaning markers or discourse markers. According to Jamtsho (1999) writers use certain words as signal words or sign post to indicate what is coming next. For instance, when you come across the word “*because*”, you know that the writer is going to give a reason or reasons for a point under discussion. Similarly, when we come across a word like “*therefore*” we know that a conclusion is being drawn after some explanations. Just like a road sign post saying “*Drive slow, School ahead*”, such words act as signpost as we read. We will call these signposts “Meaning Markers”.

Time sequence words indicate that the author is arranging ideas according to the order in which they happened.

Time sequence: *first, second, finally, then, later, next, before, subsequently, presently.*

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A writer uses these words to alert you that s/he is going to explain an idea by giving an example.

Example: *for instance, for example, in the case of, to illustrate, such as*

These words signal that a cause-effect relationship exists. They say that one thing caused another or something happened as a result of something else.

Cause-effect: *because, thus, as a result, therefore, consequently, since, hence*

Signal words are also used to show two or more things are the same or similar. When a writer intends to discuss differences between two or more things or opposite situations, s/he uses these words to notify the reader of the change.

Comparison: *similarly, likewise, both, as*

Contrast: *however, on the other hand, but, although, nevertheless*

If a writer is planning to continue with the same thought or intends to give additional information about the same topic, s/he often uses these words.

Continuation: *in addition, also, and, further*

To show the relative importance of ideas, writers use these words to identify and separate their ideas.

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Order of importance: *first, second, primarily, secondly*

To signal that s/he plans to summarize the discussion of a particular topic, a writer frequently uses these words.

in summary, in conclusion, therefore, again, to repeat, to reiterate, finally, in brief, to sum up

4.5 Grammar

Modifiers

A modifier can be an adjective, an adverb, or a phrase or clause acting as an adjective or adverb. In every case, the basic principle is the same: the modifier adds information to another element in the sentence. It is important to make sure modifiers modify the intended words, phrases or clauses.

There are three types of modifiers: misplaced modifiers, dangling modifiers and squinting modifiers.

Misplaced modifiers

These are the modifiers that are positioned so that they appear to modify the wrong thing. In general, you should place single-word modifiers near the word or words they modify, especially when a reader might think that they modify something different in the sentence, for example:

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After our conversation lessons, we could understand the Spanish spoken by our visitors from Madrid **easily**. (**Wrong**)

Do we *understand* the Spanish easily, or do the visitors *speak* it easily? This revision eliminates the confusion:

We could **easily** understand the Spanish spoken by our visitors from Madrid. (Right)

It is particularly important to be careful about where you put **limiting modifiers**. These are words like "almost," "hardly," "nearly," "just," "only," "merely," and so on. Many writers regularly misplace these modifiers. You can accidentally change the entire meaning of a sentence if you place these modifiers next to the wrong word:

Randy has **nearly** annoyed every professor he has had. (he hasn't "nearly annoyed" them)
(Wrong)

Randy has annoyed **nearly** every professor he has had. (Right)

We **almost** ate all of the Thanksgiving turkey. (we didn't "almost eat" it) (Wrong)

We ate **almost** all of the Thanksgiving turkey. (Right)

Misplaced Phrases and Clauses

It is important that you place the modifying phrase or clause as close as possible to the word or words it modifies:

I heard that my roommate intended to throw a surprise party for me **while I was outside her bedroom window**. (Wrong)

While I was outside her bedroom window, I heard that my roommate intended to throw a surprise party for me. (Right)

After the wedding, Ian told us at his stag party that he would start behaving like a responsible adult. (Wrong)

Ian told us at his stag party that he would start behaving like a responsible adult **after the wedding**. (Right)

Dangling Modifiers

The **dangling modifier**, a **persistent and frequent grammatical problem in writing**, is often (though not always) located at the beginning of a sentence. A dangling modifier is usually a phrase or an **elliptical clause** -- a dependent clause whose subject and verb are implied rather than expressed -- that functions as an adjective but does not modify any specific word in the sentence, or (worse) modifies the *wrong* word. Consider the following example:

Raised in Nova Scotia, it is natural to miss the smell of the sea.

The introductory phrase in the above sentence looks as if it is meant to modify a person or

persons, but no one is mentioned in the sentence. Such introductory adjective phrases, because of their position, automatically modify the first noun or pronoun that follows the phrase -- in this case, "it." The connection in this case is illogical because "it" was not raised in Nova Scotia. You could revise the sentence in a number of ways:

For a person raised in Nova Scotia, it is natural to miss the smell of the sea. (the phrase no longer functions as an adjective)

Raised in Nova Scotia, **I** often miss the smell of the sea. (the phrase functions as an adjective but now automatically modifies "I," a logical connection)

A dangling modifier can also appear when you place an elliptical clause improperly:

Although nearly finished, we left the play early because we were worried about our sick cat.

The way this sentence is structured, the clause "Although nearly finished" illogically modifies "we," the pronoun directly following the clause. An easy way to rectify the problem is to re-insert the subject and verb that are understood in the elliptical clause:

Although **the play** was nearly finished, we left early because we were worried about our sick cat.

Relieved of your responsibilities at your job,
your home should be a place to relax.
(Incorrect)

Relieved of your responsibilities at your job,
you should be able to relax at home. (Revised)

Squinting Modifier

A **squinting modifier** is an ambiguously placed modifier that can modify either the word before it or the word after it. In other words, it is "squinting" in both directions at the same time:

Defining your terms **clearly** strengthens your argument. (does defining "clearly strengthen" or does "defining clearly" strengthen?) (Wrong)
Defining your terms **will clearly** strengthen your argument. *OR* **A clear definition** of your terms strengthens your argument. (Right)

Exercise: Check yourself

1. The thief who was gesturing **wildly** stalked his victim.
2. He said **tonight** he'd call me.

Phrasal Verb

Phrasal verb is a phrase that has a verb followed by a preposition to make the meaning complete. Phrasal verbs often have an idiomatic meaning that changes significantly when the attached preposition changes. Idiomatic expressions have no place in the academic writing as their meaning can easily be misunderstood.

For example the verb is **run**. The literal meaning of run is to go quickly by moving the legs more rapidly than at a walk, but if you add the preposition **into**, the phrase formed is **run into** which has complete a different meaning. **Run into** actually means **meet** as in the example:

Karma did not go to the movie in the fear that he would **run into** his teacher

Karma did not go to the movie in the fear that he would **meet** his teacher.

But a different meaning is obtained when another preposition is added to **run**, suppose **over** or **through**: **Run over** and **run through** have completely different meanings. Therefore, we should avoid using phrasal verbs in the college writing.

Subject-verb Agreement

The simplest sentence in English will have three things: subject, verb and object. Subject performs the action, verb is the action performed, and object

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is the thing action is performed upon. The subject and verb must agree in number: both must be singular, or both must be plural. Problems occur in the present tense because one must add an **-s** or **-es** at the end of the verb when the subjects or the entity performing the action is a singular third person: **he**, **she**, **it**, or words for which these pronouns could substitute.

Karma (*singular subject*) **plays** (*Singular verb*) **archery** (*object*)

Boys (*plural subject*) **play** (*plural verb*) **archery** (*object*)

Subject verb agreement becomes bit difficult when sentence structure becomes complex. However, care must be taken to use it correctly.

4.6 Diction

Your **diction** is simply your choice of words. English is a very rich language. There are more than one word whose meaning is equivalent, though not parallel, to a word in consideration, for example the word under consideration is **clever**, there are other words such as intelligent, bright, elite, astute, smart, gifted and so on. Academic writing requires you to use rich array of words, but it does not mean to use big unfamiliar words.

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There is *no* single, correct diction in the English language; instead, you choose different words or phrases for different contexts:

To a friend : "a screw-up"

To a child : "a mistake"

To the police : "an accident"

To an employer : "an oversight"

All of these expressions mean the same thing - that is, they have the same denotation - but you would not likely switch one for the other in any of these three situations: a police officer or employer would take "screw-up" as an insult, while your friends at the bar after a hockey game would take "oversight" as an affectation.

Connotations and Denotations

The relationship between words and meanings is extremely complicated, and belongs to the field of **semantics**. For now, though, what you need to know is that words do not have single, simple meanings. Traditionally, grammarians have referred to the meanings of words in two parts:

denotation: a literal meaning of the word

connotation: an association (emotional or otherwise) which the word evokes.

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For example, both "woman" and "chick" have the denotation "adult female" in North American society, but "chick" has somewhat negative connotations, while "woman" is neutral.

In academic writing you must go for denotation - literal meaning, and not connotation - associated meaning.

For another example of connotations, consider the following:

negative : There are over 2,000 **vagrants** in the city.

neutral : There are over 2,000 **people with no fixed address** in the city.

positive : There are over 2,000 **homeless** in the city.

All three of these expressions refer to exactly the same people, but they will invoke different associations in the reader's mind: a "vagrant" is a public nuisance while a "homeless" person is a worthy object of pity and charity.

Many of the most obvious changes in the English language over the past few decades have had to do with the connotations of words which refer to groups of people. Since the 1950's, words like "Negro" and "crippled" have acquired strong negative connotations, and have been replaced either by words with neutral connotations (i.e. "black," "handicapped") or by words with deliberately positive connotations (i.e. "African-

Canadian," "differently-abled"). Academic writing demands neutral and formal words.

4.7 Sentence fragments.

A sentence fragment is an **incomplete sentence**. Some fragments are incomplete because they lack either a subject or a verb, or both. The fragments that most students have trouble with, however, are **dependent clauses**—they have a subject and a verb, so they look like complete sentences, but they don't express a complete thought. They're called "dependent" because they can't stand on their own. Look at these dependent clauses. They're just begging for more information to make the thoughts complete:

Because I was in the bathroom (*What did I do?*)

After you reach home (*What then?*)

When you finally appear the examinations (*What will happen?*)

Since you have decided to go with me (*What should you do?*)

Fragments are incomplete sentences. Usually, fragments are pieces of sentences that have become disconnected from the main clause. One of the easiest ways to correct them is to remove the period between the fragment and the main clause.

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Other kinds of punctuation may be needed for the newly combined sentence.

Purdue offers many majors in engineering.
Such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering. (Wrong)

Purdue offers many majors in engineering,
such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering. (Right)

Exercise: Check yourself.

- a- Since he was determined to come with me. I had to agree.
- b- You must buy me a new pen. You lost the one I had.
- c- All the three women in red tigo.
- d- I need to find a new roommate. Because the one I have now isn't working out too well.
- e- Toys of all kinds thrown.

Part B

Referencing and documentation

1. Documentation

Introduction

Documentation in academic writing refers to the professional practice of acknowledging in a clear and consistent form all the sources of information and ideas used by the writer in her/his research paper either in the text or in a footnote or an endnote. It is advised that the student becomes intimately familiar with the guidelines and practical suggestions offered under the *Reference Citations in Texts*. The college insists on American Psychological Association style of referencing and documentation that emphasises the author and the year of publication, partly because this style is easier to tell in the sources cited are current (Maimon & Peritz, 2003). The information on the system of referencing and documentation using APA is based on the 5th edition of its *Publication Manual* (Washington, 2007).

1.1 Types of Research Papers

It is important to know the types of research papers you are required to write and their academic purposes. Your programme in the college will demand you to write research paper of different kind and length. These research papers include action research, review papers, maintenance of journals and full length conventional research. In all these papers you need to do critical evaluations of the state of knowledge in the areas of your research. In other words, you

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need to analyse literature that already exists on specific areas.

1.2 Ethics of Academic Writing

The word 'ethics' refers to the study of the moral value of human conduct and of the rules and principles that ought to govern it. In writing, as in other professions, there are a number of conventionalised rules, principles or expectations that govern a writer's practice of his profession. A common breach of conduct, for which some writers have had to bear the consequences of, lies in the act of claiming someone else's thoughts, ideas and language as one's own. This is a breach of the writer's code of conduct and is known as plagiarism.

Plagiarism is presenting work as your own that originates from some other source, which you have not acknowledged. It is an offence against academic honesty and is a breach of professionalism. As in any profession, there is a code of ethics for students, which demands that when using someone else's words or ideas you must acknowledge them. Sometimes students fall into plagiarism through carelessness, by neglecting to make clear when taking notes from books or articles where the quoted material ends and where their commentary on that material begins; hence, it is important to make careful notes that distinguish between others' words and your own. (pp. 242-243).

The magnitude of plagiarism depends on the degree of crime committed. The college considers an act of plagiarism committed by a student in writing an assignment, be it a

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review paper or a project report, a serious academic offence, a breach of professional ethics; and if detected, can result in very unpleasant consequences, ranging from serious reprimands to failure in the concerned course module or having to re-do the paper.

1.3 Reference Citations in Texts

Academic writings usually require study of some form of theoretical background or literature review by way of citing ideas and information from the sources researched. The work you researched can be documented in your text by citing the author's last name and the date of publication. This style of citation helps the readers to identify the source and enables them to locate the source of information in the alphabetical reference list at the end of your work.

One Work by One Author

APA journals use the author-date method of citation; that is, the surname of the author (do not include suffixes such as Jr, Sr.) and the year of publication are inserted in the text at the appropriate point:

Cite only the year of publication in parentheses, if the name of the author appears as part of the narrative, as in the example below:

Dorji (2006) argued that global warming has a direct impact on the production of hydroelectricity in Bhutan.

Otherwise, place both the name and year in parentheses separated by a comma. For example:

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Bhutanese are one people who are self-disciplined, loyal, dedicated to authority (Mehra, 1974)

Within a paragraph, you need not include the year in subsequent references to study as long as the study cannot be confused with other studies cited:

In a study on the origins of monarchy in Bhutan, Aris (1994) describes Bhutan's political scenario prior to the establishment of the monarchy, and the rise of Tongsa Penlop. Although Sir Ugyen Wangchuk unified Bhutan, Zhabdrung Ngawang Namgyel is remembered as the true founder of Bhutan. Aris' opinion that Zhabdung came to Bhutan in 1616 as a political refugee is hardly an agreeable statement to many devout Bhutanese.

One Work by Multiple Authors

This refers to the work done by multiple authors (two, three, four, five, six or more). In case of multiple author citation in running text, join the names by the word "and". In parenthetical material, in tables and captions, and in the reference list, connect the names by an ampersand "&" as indicated in the following examples:

Maimon and Peritz (2003) demonstrated that....

The American Psychological Association (APA) is the largest psychological organization in the world (Maimon & Peritz, 2003).

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According to Laird, Maxwell, Tenzin, and Jamtsho (2002)....

One Work by Multiple Authors (two authors)

In case of works by two authors, mention the last name of both the authors followed by the publication date.

According to the studies conducted in Kenya, Mullis and Jenkins (1988) point out that girls have negative attitudes toward mathematics. This negative attitude towards maths spreads to science, pervading many girls from pursuing science.

One Work by Multiple Authors (three to five authors)

When a work has three, four, or five authors, cite all authors the first time the reference occurs. In the subsequent citations, include only the surname of the first author followed by "et al." (do not italicise and put full stop after "al") and the year if it is the first citation of the reference within a paragraph:

According to Bloom, Madaus, and Hastings (1981), the most important value of formative evaluation is the aid it can give students in learning the subject matter and behaviours for each unit of learning.

Bloom et al. (1981) state that clearly stated objectives help ensure communication teacher-teacher and between teacher – taught. Bloom et al. also found that they can improve communication between parents and teachers.

One Work by Multiple Authors (more than six authors)

When a work has six or more authors, cite only the surname of the first author followed by "et al." (do not italicise and put full stop after "al") and the year for the first and subsequent citations. (However, in the reference list all the last names and initials of the first six authors should be included, and the remaining can be shortened to et al.)

Broch et al. (1990) states that the parents prefer the education of boys over girls....

In turn girls lack confidence, which prevents them from making links between self-confidence and competency in the subjects (Broch et al., 1990).

Two or More Works within the Same Parentheses

Two or more works by different authors with different publication dates supporting the same idea or reporting similar findings can be cited in the same parentheses in alphabetical order by the authors' surname. Separate the citations using semicolons.

The masculinisation of science subjects affect girls' identification with science and their willingness to pursue science as an avenue of study, and as a result few girls attempt to enter science fields (Keeler, 1985; Kelley, 1987; Versey, 1990).

Groups as Authors

Collective work of a group (e.g., corporations, government agencies, study groups, and associations) where the names of groups serve as authors are usually spelled out each time they appear in a text citation. However, if the name is too long and cumbersome we may shorten the name by using its acronym in the second and subsequent citations but the acronyms must be familiar. If the name is too short or if the abbreviation would not be readily understandable, write out the name each time it occurs.

First text citation: (Paro College of Education [PCE], 1999)

Subsequent citations: (PCE, 1999)

Example 1 (First text citation):

According to Curriculum and Professional Support Section [CAPSS] (1999) Continuous assessment helps teachers to understand the needs of children find their weaknesses and provide remedial help.

The earlier transactions used in Bhutan were in rupees and paise. The Chetrums and Ngultrums were released on the 6th of April, 1974 (Bank of Bhutan [BOB], 1993).

Example 2 (Subsequent text citations):

The Bank financed Druk Air Corporation a loan of Nu.600 million for the purchase of its second aircraft from British Aerospace (BOB, 1993).

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CAPSS (1999) also envisage continuous assessment to gradually replace the current system of one-shot examinations...

Works with no Author

When the work has no author, cite the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. Use double quotation marks around the title of an article or chapter, and italicize or underline the title of a periodical, book, brochure, or report.

On free care ("Study Finds," 1982)
The book College Bound Seniors (1979)

Authors with the same surname

If the authors of two or more sources have the same surname, include the first author's initials in all the text citations, even if the year of publication differs.

R. D. Luce (1959) and P.A. Luce (1986) also found....

J.M. Goldberg and Neff (1961) and M.E. Goldberg and Wurtz (1972) studied....

Works Discussed in a Secondary Source

Give the secondary source in the reference list; in the text, name the original work, and give a citation for the secondary source. For example, if Zam's work is cited by Rinchen through Dolkar (2000) without reading the original work, list

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Dolkar (2000) in the reference. In the text use the following citation:

Zam quotes an old Bhutanese proverb which says, “You cannot be what you are and what you are rusts while busy being what you are not.” (as cited in Dolkar, 2000).

Works in Press

If you cite from a work that has been accepted for publication but is not yet published, the words “in press” should be written within the parentheses instead of the publication date.

Rinchen (in press) describes the Bhutanese as being very proud of their culture and language...

Unknown author

When no author or editor is listed for a work, use the first one or two important words of the title. Use quotation marks for titles of articles or chapters and italics for titles of books or reports.

The transformation of women’s lives has been hailed as “the single most important change of the past 1,000 years” (“Reflections,” 1999. p. 77)

1.4 Quotations

When citing from other sources, we either quote them directly or paraphrase in our own words while maintaining the same meaning. In the following section, we will look at some of the

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ways of quoting or reporting while documenting the sources used at the same time.

Direct Quotations

You are using direct quotations when you reproduce materials word to word from another's work or from one's own previously published work. Some of the ways of acknowledging your sources when making direct quotations are given below.

Quotations Shorter than Forty Words

Quotations shorter than forty words are enclosed in double quotation marks and are usually a part of the narrative:

Solverson (1992) states that education in Bhutan aims "To prepare every student to take a more mature and responsible, loyal and intelligent part in the new society that is being created...." (p.12).

Quotations More than Forty Words

Quotations longer than 40 words should be displayed in a freestanding block of type written lines, and omits the quotation marks. Start such a block quotation on a new line, and indent it five spaces from the left margin. Type subsequent lines flushed with the indent.

Important government policy documents clearly specify the need to promote Dzongkha as a national language beyond its

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use as a means of convenient communication. Here is an extract from one such document:

The promotion of Dzongkha is more than any means of communication. It is a complex phenomenon that is inseparable from intellectual and psychological processes related to ways in which we organize and express our thoughts. Our language is the way in which we identify ourselves and distinguish ourselves from others. Strategies to conserve and promote our culture and heritage cannot thus be indifferent to language (Planning Commission, 2000, p.70).

For direct quotation always provide author, year and specific page citation in the text, and include a complete reference in the reference list.

Quotation within Quotations

Single quotation marks are used to set off material that in the original source was enclosed in double quotation marks.

Miele (1995) found that “The ‘placebo effect’, which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner” (p. 276).

Indirect Quotations

Paraphrasing or referring to an idea from another work but not directly quoting the material, you only have to make reference to the author and year of publication in your in text reference.

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When paraphrasing another person's words, whether they be the ideas conveyed in two pages of a book or to sentences from a passage, you must also acknowledge the source. This can be done in a variety of ways, one of which is to precede the paraphrased section with a general phrase, such as:

- Aris (1994) believes that
- Zeppa (1999) states that
- Laird et al. (1999) are of the opinion that...
- Thinley (2002) argued that....
- Rinchen (2001) posits that....
- Dyenkar (1999) contends that....

Example

Dyenkar (1999) contends that the poor performance of Bhutanese students in Dzongkha is because of the western influence.

Referencing

2.1 Writing a Reference List

You should include a list of references used at the end of your paper/assignment. Typically this list should include only the sources that were used in writing the paper. This is different from a “bibliography” which may include a list of resources available on a topic. All the references cited in the text must appear in the reference list. The purpose of the reference list is not only to acknowledge, but also to enable readers to find and use them.

The guide provides clearly spelt-out rules of referencing and documentation. *References* refers to the list of books, magazines, journals, online journals, websites, newsletters, etc. referred to by you in writing your research paper, added as the last page of the essay and arranged alphabetically by the author’s or editor’s last name.

General Forms of References

References may be categorised into three general forms – Periodicals, Non-Periodicals, and Electronic sources. A basic structure of the different forms are provided below.

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Periodicals (newsletters, magazines, journals)	Author, A.A., Author, B.B., & Author, C.C. (1994). Title of article. <i>Title of Periodical</i> , xx, xxx-xxx.
Non-Periodicals (books, reports, brochures, audio-visual media)	Author, A.A. (1994). <i>Title of work</i> . Location: Publisher. Author, A.A., & Author, B.B. (1994). Title of chapter. In A Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor (Eds.), <i>Title of book</i> (pp. xxx-xxx). Location: Publisher.
Electronic Sources (databases, Websites, online journals etc.)	Author, A.A., Author, B.B., & Author, C.C. (1994). Title of article. <i>Title of Periodical</i> , xx, xxx-xxx. Retrieved month day, year, from source. Author, A.A. (1994). <i>Title of work</i> . Retrieved month day, year, from source.

Elements of Reference

The entries in the reference list usually include these elements: author, year of publication, title, and publication information. Each element is discussed below with examples.

The examples of elements under discussion are written in **bold** for the sake of clarity.

Author

Aris, M. (1994). *The raven crown – The origins of Buddhist monarchy in Bhutan*. London: Serindia.

Zeppa, J. (1999). *Beyond the sky and the earth: A journey into Bhutan*. Toronto, Ontario: Doubleday Canada.

- Invert the author's name to start with the surname followed by a comma and the initials (The author's and editor's names in the examples above are Michael Aris and Jamie Zeppa).
- Use commas to separate authors, their surnames and initials; and use an ampersand (&) before the last author in case of more than one author.
- In case of edited works, enclose the abbreviation Ed. Or Eds. in parentheses after the editors' name. This element should end with a period.

Publication Date

Zeppa, J. **(1999)**. *Beyond the sky and the earth: A journey into Bhutan*. Toronto, Ontario: Doubleday Canada.

Wangchuk, S. **(2002, 2 November)**. Youth issues must involve young people. *Kuensel – Bhutan's National Newspaper*, p. 4.

- Give the year in which the work was copyrighted or produced in case of unpublished works in parentheses. However for periodicals that are weeklies or dailies, exact date should be provided right after the year.

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- Write 'n.d.' in the parentheses where no date is available; and 'in press' if the work is accepted for publication but not yet printed.
- This element should also end with a period after the parentheses.

Title of Article or Chapter

Evans, M.A. & Whigham, M. (1995). **The effect of role model project upon the attitudes of ninth grade science students.** *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32, 195-204.

Zanna, M. P & Rempel, J.K. (1986). **Attitudes: A new look at an old concept.** In D. Bartal & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology of knowledge* (pp.315-334). New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Capitalise only the first word of the title and the subtitle. Put a period at the end of the element.

Title of Work and Publication Information

Periodicals:

Choden, D. (1993). Learning how to learn. ***Sherub Doenme – Academic Journal of Sherubtse College***, 1, 35-40.

Evans, M.A. & Whigham, M. (1995). The effect of role model project upon the attitudes of ninth grade science

students. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32, 195-204.

- The title should be in italics (underlined if hand-written or typed).
- Capitalise the important words in the title, followed by the volume number (month/ season where volume numbers are not used) after a comma.
- Where there is an issue number, place it within parentheses after the volume number. This should be followed by a comma.
- Provide the inclusive page number, followed by a period.

Non-Periodicals:

Aris, M. (1994). *The raven crown – The origins of Buddhist monarchy in Bhutan*. London: Serindia.

Good, T.L. & Brophy, J.E. (2000). *Looking in classrooms (8th ed.)*. New York: Longman.

- The title should be written in italics (underlined if hand-written).
- Capitalise only first word of the title, subtitle, and proper nouns.
- Any additional information such as edition or description of the form of work should be provided in parentheses.

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- Finish the element with a period.

Part of Non-Periodicals (Book Chapters)

Zanna, M. P & Remple, J.K. (1986). Attitudes: A new look at an old concept. **In D. Bar-tal & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology of knowledge* (pp.315-334).** New York: Cambridge University Press.

- In case of edited books, the title should be preceded by the name(s) of editor(s), if any. The word “In” should appear before the name of the editor(s). As the names are not in the author position, they should be written with the initials first followed by the surname(s). This should be followed by the parenthetical information “Ed(s)” if it is an edited book.
- A comma is placed after the parenthetical information followed by the title of the work with the inclusive pages of the article or chapter preceded by “pp.” in parentheses.
- End this element with a period.

Publication Information: Non-Periodicals

Good, T.L. & Brophy, J.E. (2000). *Looking in classrooms* (8th ed.). **New York: Longman.**

Zeppa, J. (1999). *Beyond the sky and the earth: A journey into Bhutan.* **Toronto, Ontario: Doubleday Canada.**

- Provide the city where it was published, and the state or province where the city is not very well known for publishing after a comma.

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- The place of publication is followed by a colon, after which you should write the publisher's name.
- Use a period to end the element.

Retrieval Information for Electronic Sources

Guenov, K.S. (2000). *Guide to resume writing*. Retrieved July 25, 2000 from

<http://www.jobweb.org/catapult/guanov/res.html#build>

Divita, S. (1995). Resume writing requires proper strategy. *Marketing News*, 29 (14), 6-11. Retrieved July 25, 2000 from EBSCOhost database.

- When electronic sources are used, the date the information was retrieved and the name and/or address of the source should be provided.
- If the information is retrieved from the Internet, give the Internet address for the document after the retrieval date.
- If it is from a database, provide the name of the database, followed by a period.

Order and Layout of References

- Entries should be ordered alphabetically by the surname of the first author.

Good, T.L. & Brophy, J.E. (2000). *Looking in classrooms* (8th ed.). New York: Longman.

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Wangchuk, S. (2002, November 2). Youth issues must involve young people. *Kuensel – Bhutan's National Newspaper*, p. 4.

Zeppa, J. (1999). *Beyond the sky and the earth: A journey into Bhutan*. Toronto, ON: Doubleday Canada.

- If there is more than one reference by the same author, arrange them by the year of publication. The earliest should be entered first.

Strasburger V.C. (1995). *Adolescents and the media: Medical and psychological impact*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Strasburger, V.C. (1997). "Sex, drugs, rock 'n roll" and the media: are the media responsible for adolescent behavior? *Adolescent Medicine: State of the Art Reviews*, 8, 403-414.

- If the entries were published in the same year, use lowercase alphabets, placed immediately after the year of publication in the parentheses.

Corey, G. (2001a). *The art of integrative counselling*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks-Cole/Wadsworth.

Corey, G. (2001b). *Theory and practice of counselling and psychotherapy* (6th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks-Cole/ Wadsworth.

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- One-author entries should precede multiple author entries.

Fraser, B.J. (1986). Determinants of classroom psychosocial environments: A review. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 1, 5-19.

Fraser, B.J. & Fisher, D.L. (1986). Using short forms of classroom climate instruments to assess and improve classroom psycho-social environment. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 5, 387-413.

- If there is no author, the entry is alphabetized by the first significant word of the title.
- The reference list should be placed immediately after the conclusion of your paper on a new page with the title - "References."
- Use hanging indentation for the reference list. Indentation should be about five spaces.

Some More Examples

REFERENCE TYPE	EXAMPLE
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Academic writing, referencing and documentation

<p>PERIODICAL S</p> <p>Journal article, one author</p>	<p>Strasburger, V.C. (1997). "Sex, drugs, rock 'n roll" and the media: Are the media responsible for adolescent behavior? <i>Adolescent Medicine: State of the Art Reviews</i>, 8, 403 - 414.</p>
<p>Journal article, more than one author</p>	<p>Fraser, B.J. & Fisher, D.L. (1986). Using short forms of classroom climate instruments to assess and improve classroom psycho-social environment. <i>Journal of Research in Science Teaching</i>, 5, 387 - 413.</p>
<p>Journal article, more than six authors</p>	<p>Wolchik, S.A., West, S.G., Sandler, I.N., Tein, J., Coatsworth, D. Lengua, L., et al. (2000). A experimental evaluation of theory-based mother and mother-child programs for children of divorce. <i>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</i>, 68, 843-856.</p>
<p>Magazine article</p>	<p>Roach, M. (2002, August). To do or not to do. <i>Reader's Digest</i>, 81- 82.</p>
<p>Newsletter article</p>	<p>Thinlay, D. (2002, November). The common stylistic features of Bhutanese proverbs. <i>Kalapinka - The NIE Newsletter</i>, 5 - 8.</p>

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Newsletter article, no author	Farming: A self employment. (2002, November). <i>Looking ahead – A Guide to Your Future</i> , 3, 7.
Newspaper article	Misra, M. (2002, 20 November). IIT unleashes mini robots. <i>The Times of India</i> , p.1.
BOOKS, CHAPTERS Book	Devine, T.G. & Meagher, L. D. (1989). <i>Mastering study skills</i> . Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
Book, later editions	Barras, R. (1995). <i>Students must write – A guide to better writing in coursework and examinations</i> (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
Edited book	Goldstein, G., & Hersen, M. (Eds.).(1984). <i>A guidebook of psychological assessment</i> . New York: Pergamon Press.
Non-English book	Dzongkha Development Commission. (1999). <i>Dpal 'brug-pa rin-po-che Zhabdrung Ngag-dbang rNamgyal gyi rnam-thar</i> [Biography of Zhabdung Ngawang Namgyel]. Thimphu, Bhutan: Publisher.

Academic writing, referencing and documentation

<p>Article/ chapter in edited book</p>	<p>Donnerstein, E., Slaby, R. & Eron, L. (1995). The mass media and youth aggression. In L. Eron, J. Gentry, & P. Schlegel (Eds). <i>Reason to hope: a psychological perspective on violence and youth</i>. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association</p>
<p>Entry in encyclopedia</p>	<p>McGuire, W.J. (1982). Attitudes. In <i>The New Encyclopaedia Britannica</i> (Vol.2, pp. 360-363). Encyclopaedia Britannica.</p>
<p>Unpublished Thesis</p>	<p>Rinchen, S. (2001). <i>Bhutanese high school girls' perceptions of science and the impact of science on the career choice</i>. Unpublished master's thesis, University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, New Brunswick, Canada.</p>
<p>ELECTRONIC MEDIA Article in Internet journal</p>	<p>Kelly, C. (1997, September). David Kolb, the theory of experiential learning and ESL. <i>The Internet TESL Journal</i>, 3(9). Retrieved from http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/Kelly-Experiential/</p>

Non-Periodical document on the Internet	Kunkel, D., Kirstie, M.C., Farinola. W.J.M., Biely, E., Rollin, E., & Donnerstein, E. (1999). <i>Sex on TV: A biennial report to the Kaiser family Foundation</i> . Santa Barbara: Kaiser Family Foundation. Retrieved March 16 th , 2000 from www.kkf.com/
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2.2 Basic Rules to Remember in Referencing and Documentation.

- Always acknowledge the source when you use ideas and information from other sources in your work.
- The title page should include the full title of the paper, author's full name, course for which the assignment is written in parentheses and institutional affiliation. You should also include the course title, subject code, tutor's name and the date of submission.
- While making citations, the author(s)' last name(s) and the year of publication should be inserted in the text at the appropriate point.
- Cite only the year of publication in parentheses, if the name of the author appears as part of the narrative. Otherwise, place both the name and year in parentheses separated by a comma.

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- In case of multiple author citation, join the names by using the word “and”, and an ampersand (&) when it is within parentheses.
- When work has three to five authors, cite all authors the first time the reference occurs. In the subsequent citations, include only the surname of the first author followed by "et al."
- When a work has six or more authors, cite only the surname of the first author followed by "et al." and the year for the first and subsequent citations.
- Quotations shorter than forty words should be enclosed in double quotation marks.
- Quotations longer than 40 words should be displayed in a freestanding block without quotation marks and indented five spaces from the left margin.
- For direct quotations always provide author, year and specific page citation in the text.
- When paraphrasing another person’s words, you must acknowledge the source by mentioning the author(s)’ last name(s) and the publication date.
- Entries in reference list should include the author(s), publication date, title, publication information and retrieval information for electronic sources.

Academic writing, referencing and documentation

- Entries should be ordered alphabetically by the surname of the first author.
- If there is more than one reference by the same author, arrange them by the year of publication. The earliest should be entered first.
- One-author entries should precede multiple author entries. If there is no author, the entry is alphabetized by the first significant word of the title.
- Use hanging indentation for the reference list. Indentation should be about five spaces.
- Use ampersand “&” instead of “and” when listing multiple authors of a single work (in text citations in parentheses, too).
- Capitalise only the first letter of the first word of a title and sub title of a work unless they are proper nouns.
- Italicise or underline titles of books and journals.

Reference

- American Psychological Association. (2007). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (5th ed.)*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
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- Oliver, P. (2007). *Writing your thesis*. New Delhi: Vistaar Publication.

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Palmer, R. (2003). *Write in style: A guide to good English*.
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Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Samtse College of Education. (2007) *Referencing and documentation: A guide to presentation of academic writing*. Samtse; Samtse College of Education.

Thomson, O.M. (1981). *The Craft of Writing*. London: Oxford University Press.

Warner, A. (1975) *A short guide to English style*. London: Oxford University Press. .

Ziegler, A. (1981). *The writing workshop*. New York: Teachers & Writers Collaborative.