

PERIYAR UNIVERSITY

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SALEM - 636 011, Tamil Nadu, India.

**CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION
(CDOE)**

**M.A ENGLISH
SEMESTER - III**



**ELECTIVE V: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
(Candidates admitted from 2024 onwards)**

PERIYAR UNIVERSITY

CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION (CDOE)

M.A 2024 admission onwards

ELECTIVE – V

Research Methodology

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UNIT I

What is Research—Definition and Explanation of the Terms: Research, Hypothesis, and Thesis Statement – Conducting Research – Compiling Working Bibliography – Plagiarism?

RESEARCH

Objectives

After completing this unit, students should be able to:

- Understand the concept of research.
- Distinguish between different types of research.
- Recognize the value, necessity, and significance of the research.
- Acquire a knowledge of research design and the research design process.
- Develop a research challenge and express it as a hypothesis.
- Learn how to apply research concepts and methodologies in English Literature and Language.
- Pursue research to advance knowledge in English studies.
- Understand how to compile a working bibliography using proper citation formats.
- Identify what plagiarism is and how to avoid it.
- Learn the importance of academic honesty and proper referencing.

1.1 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH

Research is a process of analysing and answering questions that arise in our minds. In everyday life, we frequently seek solutions to a variety of questions, some of which can be easily handled without scientific investigation. However, some topics necessitate logical reasoning and a



methodical approach. Research improves one's understanding of a subject, often reinforcing current opinions and viewpoints, but also challenging and modifying them. Regardless, it continually contributes to the evolution of one's ideas.

Research is a systematic approach that explores a certain topic, issue, or subject in order to solve problems validating through pre-existing knowledge, or by obtaining new information. It comprises collecting, evaluating, and analysing data to find answers, test concepts, or improve a field of study. In literary studies, research is especially dependent on the researcher's engagement in determining the solutions to her/his questions or the study topic. Research is carried out with the goal of satisfying curiosity or collecting knowledge in a certain topic, as well as conducting research for better decisions. When defining a research problem, a researcher must make key judgments in the early stages of the investigation.

1.2.1 DEFINITION OF RESEARCH

The following definitions will give us a clear understanding of Research.

1. [Research is] “a systematic investigation for the purpose of gaining new knowledge. In a broad sense, research is any study that leads to new knowledge for the person doing research.” **(New Standard Encyclopedia)**

2. [Research is] “a search or investigation directed to the discovery of some fact by careful consideration or study of a subject, a course of critical or scientific inquiry.” **(Oxford English Dictionary)**

3. [Research is] “a studious inquiry or examination; especially critical and exhaustive investigation or experimentation having for its aim the discovery of new facts and their correct information, the revision of accepted conclusions, theories, or laws in the light of newly discovered facts, or the practical applications of such new or revised conclusions, theories or laws.” **(Webster's International Dictionary)**

4. **Jonathan O'Donnell**, University of Melbourne, defined research on *The Research Whisperer* as “the creation of new knowledge and/or the use of existing knowledge in

a new and creative way so as to generate new concepts, methodologies and understandings”

5. According to **Clifford Woody**, “Research comprises defining and redefining problems ,formulating hypothesis or suggested solutions, collecting ,organizing and evaluating data, making deductions and reaching conclusions and at last careful testing the conclusions to determine whether they fit the formulated hypothesis.”

6. Clifford Woody defines “Research is a systematic effort to gain new knowledge.

A careful examination of these definitions leads us to the conclusion that research contains the following features:

- (a) Research is an analytical and systematic study.
- (b) It attempts to discover new information and reliable facts
- (c) It also refers to updating established laws or hypotheses in accordance with new information.
- (d) It can be the practical implementation of new or modified findings, hypotheses, or laws.

1.2.2 OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH:

The objective of research is to identify solutions to inquiries by employing methodologies. The primary objective of research is to uncover the truth that has yet to be revealed. Although each research study has its own unique objective, the following are some general research objectives:

- (i) To learn something new about a topic or to get a better understanding of it. Research done for this purpose is called exploratory or formative research.
- (ii) To accurately represent the characteristics of a specific individual, situation, or group. Descriptive research studies are those that are conducted with this objective in mind.
- (iii) To ascertain the frequency with which an event occurs or is linked to another event. Diagnostic research studies are studies that are conducted with this objective in mind.
- (iv) To evaluate a hypothesis regarding a causal relationship between variables.

(These investigations are referred to as hypothesis-testing research studies).

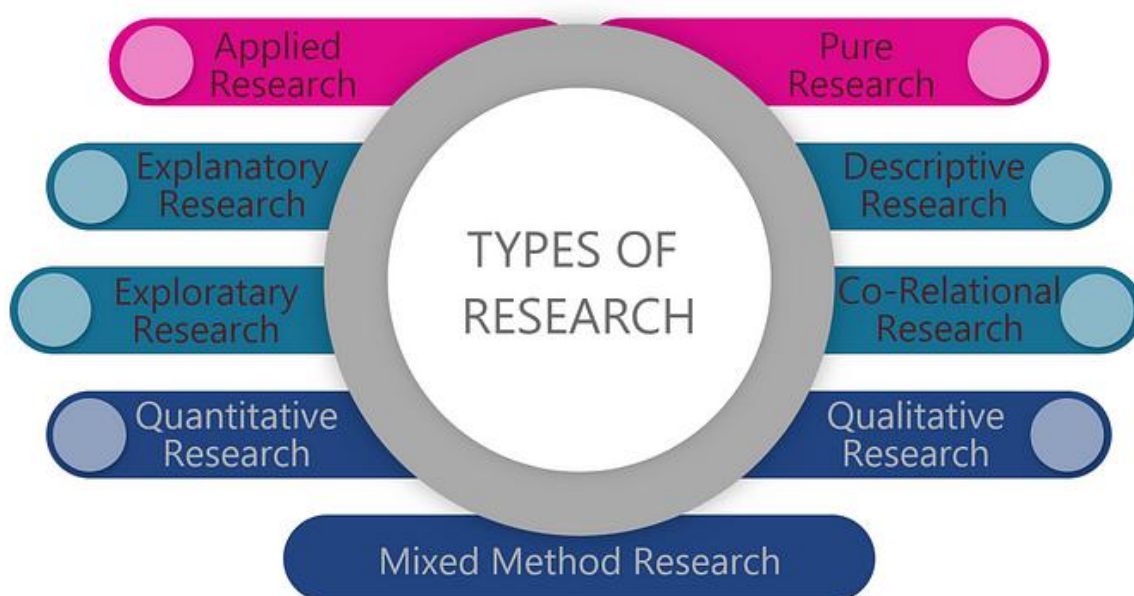
1.2.3 Characteristics of Good Research:

The following are the characteristics of research:

1. Research tries to solve a problem.
2. Research needs expert knowledge.
3. It aims to create general rules or theories to help predict future events.
4. Research is based on real-life experiences or observed facts.
5. It needs careful watching and clear description.
6. Research gathers new information or uses old data in new ways.
7. It follows strict steps and careful methods.
8. Research looks for answers to problems that are not yet solved.
9. It tries to be fair and logical, checking all steps, data, and results.
10. Research is slow and careful.
11. It is well recorded and collected in detail.
12. Sometimes, research requires patience and courage.

1.2.4 Types of Research

Research can be divided into three main categories based on its purpose, goals, and the methods used. The first category is **Application-based Research**, which includes **pure research** (done to gain knowledge for its own sake) and **applied research** (done to solve real-life problems). The second category is **Objective-based Research**, which focuses on what the study aims to do. This includes **descriptive research** (to describe a situation), **correlational research** (to find relationships between variables), **explanatory research** (to explain causes and effects), and **exploratory research** (to explore new or unclear topics). The third category is **Inquiry Mode-based Research**, which depends on how the study is carried out. This includes **qualitative research** (focused on understanding meanings and experiences), **quantitative research** (focused on numbers and statistics), and **mixed-method research** (a combination of both approaches).



1. Applied Research
2. Fundamental (Pure) Research
3. Hypothesis-Testing (Explanatory) Research
4. Descriptive Research
5. Exploratory Research
6. Co- Relational Research
7. Qualitative Research
8. Quantitative Research
9. Mixed Method Research

1. Applied Research

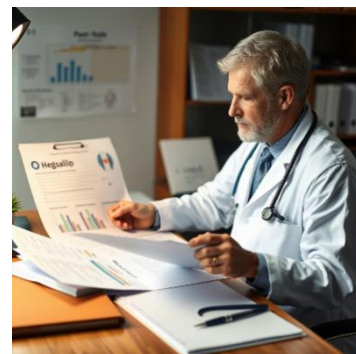
Applied research is aimed at solving specific, practical problems. It is often used in industry, medicine, technology, and education. The main focus is on using knowledge to make improvements or develop new products, systems, or procedures. For instance, a tech company may do research to improve the battery life of smartphones. Or a hospital may study how to reduce patient waiting times by adjusting staff schedules. The results of applied research are



directly useful in real-world situations and are usually implemented soon after the research is completed.

2. Fundamental (Pure) Research

Fundamental research, also known as pure or basic research, is mainly carried out to gain new knowledge and understanding of the world. It is not focused on solving a specific problem right away but rather on discovering new ideas, facts, theories, or principles. This type of research often leads to the formation of generalisations and helps in building or improving theories in a particular subject area. It plays a key role in expanding existing knowledge and may lead to innovations by changing traditional ideas or developing something new. Although it may not have an immediate practical use, fundamental research lays the foundation for future applied research and real-world applications. For example, scientists may study how plants grow in space without knowing exactly how the knowledge will be used. Later, these findings might help astronauts grow food on long space missions or assist farmers in growing crops in extreme climates on Earth. At the time of the research, the main goal was simply to learn and understand the process.



3. Hypothesis-Testing or Explanatory Research



5. Exploratory Research This type of research is used to test a specific idea or assumption, called a hypothesis, to see if it is true. It involves studying the relationship between two or more variables, often through experiments. The goal is to determine whether one factor causes or influences another. For example, a researcher may want to test the hypothesis that “students who sleep at

least Eight hours perform better in exams than those who sleep less.” To test this, two groups of students can be studied: one that gets eight or more hours of sleep and another that gets less. Their exam results are then compared. If the group with more

sleep scores higher, the hypothesis is supported. This type of research is common in scientific, medical, and educational fields.

4. Descriptive Research



Descriptive research is used to create a clear and detailed picture of a situation, group, or individual. It focuses on answering questions like who, what, when, where, and how, but it does not explain why something is happening. This type of research is common in fields like social sciences, business, and education. It involves methods such as observations, surveys, and case studies, allowing researchers to collect data on many variables related to the topic. Descriptive research helps in understanding the current status or condition of a subject.

For example, a university might conduct a survey to find out how many students come from rural or urban areas, what courses they are studying, and how many use the library. This information helps describe the student population, but it does not explain the reasons behind these patterns.

Exploratory Research is carried out when there is little or no earlier information available about a topic. The goal is to explore the subject, ask questions, and gather basic insights that can help define the problem more clearly or guide future research. It does not provide final answers but helps in identifying what to study next. For example, if a company wants to understand why a newly launched product is not doing well in the market, they might conduct interviews or focus group discussions with customers. These open-ended conversations help the company explore possible reasons, such as poor marketing, pricing issues, or lack of features. This type of research is also useful

in academic settings when studying a new area or topic where not much has been written or understood yet.

6. Co-relational research

Co-relational research is used to study the relationship between two or more variables. It helps researchers understand whether and how strongly the variables are connected. However, it does not prove cause and effect—it only shows if a relationship exists and how the variables move together. For example, a researcher may study the relationship between students' study time and their exam scores. If students who study more tend to score higher, it shows a positive correlation. On the other hand, if one variable increases while the other decreases, it shows a negative correlation. Sometimes, there may be no correlation at all. Co-relational research is useful in areas like psychology, education, and health, where it is important to identify patterns or trends between factors without manipulating them.

7. Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is used to understand people's emotions, opinions, behaviours, and social experiences. Instead of collecting numbers and statistics, it focuses on collecting detailed, descriptive information—usually through interviews, open-ended questions, observations, or focus groups. This helps researchers understand why people feel or act a certain way. It helps explore human behaviour in depth, especially in areas where feelings, motivations, or experiences matter more than numbers. It is often used in psychology, education, health, marketing, and social sciences. For instance, a researcher wants to study how students feel during exams. Instead of just asking, "Are you stressed? Yes or No?" they sit down with students and have conversations. They might ask:

"Can you describe how you feel before an exam?"

"What do you do to cope with stress?"

"Do you think the support from teachers helps?"

The researcher then looks for common themes in these responses to understand the emotional experiences of students during exams.

8. Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is a formal, objective, and systematic procedure in which numerical facts are used to learn about the world. This research method is employed in a variety of settings and at various stages of the research process. Quantitative research focuses on **numbers, measurements, and statistics**. It is used when a researcher wants to collect data that can be counted, measured, and analysed with mathematical tools. The aim is to **quantify (measure) relationships, behaviours, opinions, or patterns** in a large group of people or things.

This type of research is useful when you want to find out:

How many?

How often?

What percentage?

What is the average? It deals with **objective facts**, not personal opinions or feelings.

Quantitative research usually involves:

- **Surveys or Questionnaires** with closed-ended (yes/no, multiple choice, rating scale) questions
- **Experiments** with measurable outcomes
- **Statistical analysis** like averages, percentages, and charts

Quantitative research helps make decisions based on actual data. It gives clear, general results from a large group of people and helps answer questions in a way that is easy to present and compare. **For instance**, A mobile company wants to know if customers like their new phone model. They prepare a short questionnaire and give it to **500 people**. It includes questions like:

How satisfied are you with the phone? (Rate from 1 to 5)

Would you recommend this phone to others? (Yes or No)

What feature do you use the most? (Camera, Battery, Screen, etc.)

After collecting the responses, they calculate:

78% of users are satisfied (rating 4 or 5)

65% would recommend it to others

50% use the camera most often

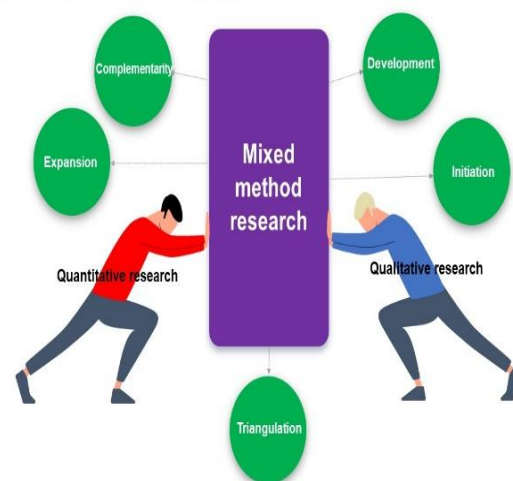
They present the results in **graphs and charts**, and use this data to improve the next model or guide marketing strategies.

9. Mixed Method Research

Mixed methods research integrates quantitative and qualitative research methodologies into a single study or a series of connected research. This approach seeks to provide greater depth and comprehensive knowledge of a study problem by combining the qualities of both approaches.

It entails gathering, analysing, and combining quantitative (numerical) and qualitative (descriptive) data to produce a more complete picture than either technique alone. Qualitative research can be used to explore a topic in depth and develop hypotheses, which can then be tested using quantitative research methods. For example, a researcher studies the impact of exam stress on college students. They first collect **quantitative data** through a survey measuring stress levels and exam scores. Then, they conduct **qualitative interviews** to understand how students personally experience and cope with stress.

Rationale for mixed method research



1.2.5 Types of Research in English Literature

Research in English literature is a broad and meaningful process that helps us understand, interpret, and appreciate literary works in a deeper way. Literature is not just about stories, poems, or plays — it is about the thoughts, emotions, culture, and context behind those works. To study literature properly, researchers use different types of research methods, depending on what they aim to explore. Each method serves a specific purpose and offers unique insights into the text, the author, and the society from which the work comes.

1. Historical Research

Historical research connects literature to the time in which it was written. It studies how social, political, and cultural events influenced literary texts. This type of research helps us understand the background and relevance of a literary work. For example, Victorian novels by authors like Charles Dickens often reflect the realities of the Industrial Revolution—poverty, class division, and child labour. When we study such novels through historical research, we understand not only the story but also the life and challenges of people in that era. This method shows that literature is a mirror of society and time.

2. Biographical Research

Biographical research focuses on the life of the author. It explores how a writer's personal experiences, relationships, struggles, and achievements are reflected in their works. This method involves studying letters, diaries, interviews, and other records related to the writer. For example, Sylvia Plath's poetry reveals her emotional pain and mental health issues. When we learn about her life, we can better understand her themes of depression, isolation, and identity. Biographical research helps us see the human behind the text and makes the work more relatable and emotional.

Theoretical research uses different literary theories to interpret texts. These theories act as lenses through which we can view literature from different angles. Some popular theories include feminism (studying gender roles), Marxism (studying class and economy), psychoanalysis (studying the mind and emotions), post colonialism (studying effects of colonial rule), and structuralism (studying the structure of language and literature). For example, reading a novel like *Jane Eyre* from a feminist perspective helps us understand the role of women and the challenges they faced in a male-dominated society. Theoretical research deepens our understanding of literature by connecting it to larger ideas and issues.

4. Textual Research

Textual research is all about finding the most accurate version of a literary work. Many famous texts have been published in different editions, and errors or changes may occur in each one. Scholars compare these versions to reconstruct the original or

most reliable text. This is especially important in the case of old texts, such as the plays of William Shakespeare. For example, *Hamlet* exists in several versions—the quarto and the folio—with significant differences. Textual research helps ensure that what we read and study today is as close as possible to what the author originally intended.

5. Comparative Research

Comparative research studies two or more literary texts together, often from different times, cultures, or languages. This approach helps highlight similarities and differences in themes, characters, settings, or styles. For instance, Homer's ancient Greek epic *The Odyssey* can be compared with Derek Walcott's modern Caribbean poem *Omeros*. Both deal with journeys and identity, but from different cultural perspectives. Comparative research encourages global understanding and appreciation of literature from around the world.

6. Critical or Analytical Research

Critical or analytical research involves close reading and detailed examination of a literary text. It focuses on the deeper meaning of words, symbols, themes, characters, and imagery. This method is about understanding what the author is trying to say and how they say it. For example, in John Keats's poem *Ode to a Nightingale*, we can analyse the symbolism of the nightingale, the use of rich imagery, and the poet's thoughts about life and death. This research requires attention to detail and a deep connection with the text.

7. Interdisciplinary Research

Interdisciplinary research combines literature with other academic fields such as history, psychology, sociology, or philosophy. This approach allows a wider and more meaningful understanding of a text. For example, we can study Virginia Woolf's *Mrs. Dalloway* using psychology to understand the mental health of her characters. We can also use history to understand the post-war setting of the novel. Interdisciplinary research shows how literature is connected to real-world knowledge and human experiences.

8. Empirical or Qualitative Research

Empirical or qualitative research is mostly used in educational and reader-based studies. It involves observing and collecting data about how readers respond to literature, especially in classrooms. For example, a teacher may study how students understand and react to Shakespeare's *Macbeth*. This method helps improve how literature is taught and how readers engage with texts. It often includes surveys, interviews, or discussions with readers.

9. Bibliographical Research

Bibliographical research involves collecting and organizing information about literary works, authors, and sources. It includes preparing reference lists, annotated bibliographies, and databases. This research is very helpful for students, scholars, and librarians. For example, a bibliographical study on the works of William Wordsworth might include a list of all his poems, editions, critical essays, and studies written about him. It is essential for building a strong foundation in literary study.

10. Digital Humanities Research

Digital humanities research is a modern method that uses technology to study literature. It includes using software and digital tools to analyse texts, count word usage, track themes, or create visual data. For example, a computer program can scan all of Emily Dickinson's poems and show how often she used certain words like "death," "soul," or "light." This method allows large-scale analysis and opens up new ways to study literature.

Therefore, research in English literature is rich and varied, with each type offering a different way to explore texts. Whether through the lens of history, biography, theory, or technology, each approach helps us uncover new meanings and appreciate literature more deeply. These research methods are not separate but often work together. For example, a biographical study may also involve theoretical analysis, and a historical approach may lead to interpretive insights. A good researcher should be open to all these methods and choose the right one based on the purpose of their study. In this way, literary research becomes a powerful tool for discovering the beauty, depth, and relevance of literature across time and culture.

1.2.6 Hypothesis

1.2.6.1 Definition and Purpose of a Hypothesis

The word *hypothesis* is formed from two Greek words: *hypo* meaning "under" or "beneath," and *thesis* meaning "a statement" or "idea." Together, they suggest a basic or underlying idea used as the starting point for further investigation. A hypothesis is a temporary or suggested explanation for a problem, which needs to be tested and verified. In research, it acts as an educated guess that helps guide observation, reasoning, and analysis. It is not a final answer but rather the first step in the research process that helps turn early questions into confirmed knowledge.

Different scholars define hypothesis in slightly different ways. According to **John W. Best**, a hypothesis is “a shrewd guess or a tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences.”

Boring, Langfeld, and Weld describe it as “a statement whose correctness is to be tested and verified logically or empirically.”

The *Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences* defines it as “a proposition not known to be definitely true or false, examined for the sake of determining the consequences which would follow from its truth.”

C. A. Mace sees it as “a suggested solution to a problem which is yet to be proved,” while **Bruce W. Tuckman** defines it as “a formal statement that presents the expected relationship between an independent and dependent variable.” These definitions show that a hypothesis plays a central role in the research process by offering a structure for testing, observation, and interpretation.

A **hypothesis** is a tentative explanation or prediction that guides a research study. In literary research, it often arises after examining earlier scholarly interpretations or analysing recurring patterns within a text. A well-crafted hypothesis not only narrows down the focus of a study but also provides a direction for deeper analysis.

In English literature, although hypotheses are less about measurable outcomes and more about interpretation, they still follow logical and structured thinking based on textual evidence and prior scholarship. The following are the steps to formulate a Hypothesis:

1. Start with a clear research question:

For example, *How does Shakespeare represent ambition in Macbeth?*

2. Propose a tentative answer based on observation and previous studies:

For instance, *Shakespeare portrays ambition as a destructive force that leads to moral and psychological downfall.*

3. Ensure the hypothesis is testable through literary analysis.

→ *In Macbeth, unchecked ambition—symbolized by Macbeth’s desire for power—ultimately causes his descent into guilt, madness, and death.*

Example of a Hypothesis in English Literature

Research Question:

How does Emily Dickinson express the theme of death in her poetry?

Hypothesis:

Emily Dickinson presents death not as a terrifying end but as a calm and inevitable transition, often personifying it to explore the spiritual and emotional acceptance of mortality.

→ This hypothesis is:

Based on previous observations of Dickinson's tone and imagery.

Testable through close reading of poems like "*Because I could not stop for Death*", "*I heard a Fly buzz—when I died*", etc.

Specific, offering a direction for analyzing symbols, personification, and tone.

1.2.6.2 Understanding Hypothesis in English Literary Research

In general research, a hypothesis is a statement that predicts or explains the relationship between variables. However, in English literary studies, the idea of a hypothesis is more interpretive and analytical. In this field, a hypothesis is not tested through statistics but rather explored through detailed reading and critical thinking. It works as a proposed interpretation or understanding of a literary text, theme, author,

or historical period. This interpretive hypothesis helps the researcher look closely at the text and build a focused and logical argument.

1.2.6.3 The Nature and Purpose of Hypothesis in Literature

In literary research, a hypothesis serves as a guiding idea or interpretive claim about a work of literature. For example, a scholar might hypothesize that “Shakespeare’s portrayal of fate in his tragedies reflects a conflict between Renaissance humanism and medieval beliefs.” This kind of statement provides direction and narrows the focus of the analysis. The main purpose of a hypothesis in literary research is to organize the study. It helps the researcher decide what questions to ask, which parts of the text to examine, and which theories or methods to apply. A good hypothesis also strengthens the writer’s argument in essays, theses, and academic papers by offering clarity and consistency in thought.

1.2.6.4 Types of Hypotheses in Literary Research

Although literary hypotheses are mainly qualitative, they can be categorized based on their focus. An **analytical hypothesis** looks at the form or technique of a work, such as its structure, style, or symbolism. For example: “The use of fragmented narrative in Faulkner’s *The Sound and the Fury* reflects the fractured consciousness of the modern individual.” A **historical hypothesis** connects the literary work to its historical and cultural background. For instance: “Romantic poetry developed as a reaction against Enlightenment ideals of reason and industrial progress.”

Other types include **comparative hypotheses**, which study similarities and differences between texts or authors, and **thematic hypotheses**, which focus on central ideas or recurring motifs in a literary work. While rare in traditional literary studies, **null and alternative hypotheses** may be used in digital humanities or computational literary studies where data analysis or stylometric techniques are applied to examine authorship or textual patterns.

1.2.6.5 Characteristics of Literary Hypotheses

A literary hypothesis can come from several sources. It may arise from close reading of a text, previous literary criticism, or the use of a specific literary theory like

feminism, psychoanalysis, or postcolonialism. Biographical details about the author or knowledge of the historical context can also help shape a meaningful hypothesis.

An effective literary hypothesis should meet certain criteria. It should be **based on the text itself**, arising from details found in the primary work. It must be **clear and focused**, dealing with a specific issue or theme. It should also be **debatable**, which means it should not be obvious or universally agreed upon, but open to discussion and backed by evidence. Above all, a good hypothesis must be **supportable** through analysis, interpretation, and secondary references such as scholarly articles or books.

1.2.6.6 Formulating and Testing the Hypothesis

To create a literary hypothesis, begin with a thoughtful question about the text. For example: “How does Sylvia Plath describe mental illness in her poetry?” This question might lead to the hypothesis: “Plath’s poetry presents mental illness as both a personal struggle and a feminist critique of social expectations.” After proposing this hypothesis, the researcher gathers evidence from the text, reviews critical opinions, and uses appropriate theories to test whether the idea holds true.

Unlike scientific research, literary studies do not involve mathematical testing. Instead, they rely on **critical reasoning, close reading, and interpretive skills**. A hypothesis is examined through arguments, examples, and reference to criticism rather than data. It may be supported, changed, or even rejected depending on how well it fits the text and scholarly context.

1.2.6.7 Hypothesis in Qualitative Research and Its Limitations

Since literary studies are a type of qualitative research, the hypothesis is not fixed. It may evolve or change during the course of the study as new insights are gained. In methods like thematic or narrative analysis, the hypothesis often grows through exploration rather than prediction.

However, there are **limitations**. Because literature allows for many interpretations, a hypothesis in this field is rarely absolute. There is always room for alternative readings. Relying too heavily on one hypothesis might limit the richness of

the text and cause researchers to miss other meanings. Therefore, a hypothesis should provide a direction but not close off new possibilities.

Therefore, a hypothesis in English literary research is a tentative explanation or interpretation that helps guide the analysis of a text. It is developed through careful reading, critical thinking, and knowledge of theory or context. Whether it focuses on form, theme, history, or intertextual connections, a strong hypothesis helps make the research focused and meaningful. Even though it is not tested like in science, a literary hypothesis is still an important tool in shaping clear, logical, and engaging interpretations of literature.

1.2.7 Thesis Statement

A thesis statement is the intellectual foundation of any academic writing - the central claim that gives direction, purpose, and coherence to an entire essay. Unlike a general topic, a factual observation, or a rhetorical question, a true thesis must be arguable: it presents a specific interpretation that reasonable readers could challenge, requiring evidence and analysis to support it. It is not merely a statement of subject matter — such as “ambition is a theme in *Macbeth*” — but the distilled essence of an argument: “In *Macbeth*, Shakespeare portrays ambition as a destructive force that unravels personal integrity, marital bonds, and the natural order of kingship.” This formulation does more than identify a theme; it asserts a perspective, defines the scope of inquiry, and implicitly outlines the essay’s structure by signalling three distinct lines of evidence. As the heartbeat of academic writing, the thesis guides every paragraph, ensuring that each point contributes meaningfully to proving the central claim. Without it, even well-written prose risks becoming unfocused, descriptive, or disjointed — lacking the logical momentum that transforms mere information into persuasive scholarship. Thus, the thesis is not simply a structural requirement; it is the living core of intellectual rigor, transforming passive observation into active, reasoned argument.

1.2.7.1 Characteristics of a Strong Thesis Statement

1. It Must Be Arguable

A good thesis presents a position that someone could reasonably disagree with. If your statement is universally accepted as true, it’s not an argument — it’s a fact.

Weak: “Shakespeare wrote plays.”

Strong: “Shakespeare’s use of soliloquies transforms internal conflict into public drama, revealing the psychological complexity of his characters.”

The first is a fact. The second is a claim that requires proof — and invites debate.

2. It Must Be Specific

Avoid broad, vague language like “good,” “bad,” “important,” “interesting,” or “shows.” Instead, identify precise elements: themes, symbols, structures, techniques, or relationships.

Weak: “The novel talks about loneliness.”

Strong: “The recurring motif of silence in the protagonist’s interactions reveals how emotional repression becomes a form of self-imposed isolation.”

Specificity allows you to anchor your claims in concrete details — even if no examples are given here, you still know *what kind* of evidence you’d use.

3. It Must Be Focused and Manageable

Your thesis should address one main idea. Trying to cover too many points’ leads to shallow analysis. A narrow focus enables depth.

Weak: “The book deals with love, power, race, and religion.”

Strong: “The tension between personal desire and societal duty shapes the protagonist’s moral choices throughout the narrative.”

One clear lens = one powerful argument.

4. It Must Be Analytical, Not Descriptive

Do not describe what happens — explain why it matters.

Weak: “The character dies at the end.”

Strong: “The character’s death is not merely a plot resolution, but a symbolic rejection of the system that failed to value their humanity.”

Analysis moves from *what* to *why* and *how*.

5. It Should Imply Structure (Optional but Helpful)

While not required, a strong thesis often hints at the organization of your essay by naming 2–3 key areas of support.

Example: “Through irony, juxtaposition, and shifting narration, the author critiques the illusion of progress in modern society.”

This signals to the reader — and to yourself — that you will discuss irony in one paragraph, juxtaposition in another, and narration in a third.

1.2.7.2 Significance of Thesis Statement

The thesis serves several critical functions:

1. It Gives Direction

The thesis acts as a roadmap for both the writer and the reader. Everybody paragraph should connect back to and support the thesis. Without it, an essay becomes a collection of unrelated thoughts.

2. It Sets the Tone and Scope

A well-crafted thesis defines the boundaries of your argument. It tells the reader whether you’re analysing character development, symbolism, historical context, or narrative structure — and how deeply you plan to explore it.

3. It Demonstrates Critical Thinking

A thesis reveals that you’ve moved beyond surface-level understanding. You’re not just retelling the story; you’re interpreting it, questioning it, and forming an original perspective.

4. It Makes Your Essay Count

In academic settings, essays are graded not on how much you summarize, but on how thoughtfully you argue. A weak or vague thesis leads to a weak essay — even if the writing is polished. A strong thesis elevates even modestly written work.

1.2.7.3 Common Misconceptions about Thesis Statement

✘ What It Is Not	⊘ Example	✔ Reason Why It Fails as a Thesis
A question	“Should schools ban smartphones?”	A thesis answers a question; it does not ask one.

✗ What It Is Not	⊘ Example	✓ Reason Why It Fails as a Thesis
A fact	“The Earth revolves around the Sun.”	Facts are established truths and do not require argument.
A topic	“This essay is about climate change.”	A topic is too broad; a thesis must take a stand or make a claim.
A summary	“The story is about a boy who grows up during war.”	Summaries only tell what happened; a thesis interprets or explains meaning.
An opinion	“I think poetry is beautiful.”	Personal feelings are subjective; a thesis must be supported by evidence and reasoning.

1.2.7.4 Crafting an Effective Thesis Statement

Step-by-Step Process for Developing a Strong Thesis

To build a strong thesis, begin with a clear subject—whether it’s a novel, historical event, social issue, or scientific concept. From there, move beyond simple observation by asking analytical questions: Why did the author choose this structure? How does this symbol function? What deeper truth is being revealed beneath the surface? These questions guide you from summary to interpretation. Next, formulate a tentative claim—an initial answer to your questions that expresses your emerging perspective. Don’t expect perfection at this stage; the goal is to start thinking critically. Then test your claim: Could someone reasonably disagree with it? Is it specific enough to be proven, or is it too broad? Finally, refine your language by replacing weak verbs like shows, tells, or is with stronger, more precise alternatives such as challenges, reveals, and critiques, undermines, or redefines. This final step transforms a vague idea into a sharp, persuasive argument.

The thesis statement is not merely a formal requirement of academic writing; it is the indispensable cornerstone upon which the integrity, coherence, and intellectual validity of an essay are built. As the primary analytical claim, it defines the scope, direction, and purpose of the entire argument, serving as both compass and contract: guiding the writer through a structured line of reasoning while obliging the reader to engage with the position on its own evidentiary terms. Without a precise, defensible

thesis—even the most meticulously crafted sentences risk becoming disjointed, descriptive, or superficial, failing to transcend mere exposition into genuine analysis. A robust thesis transforms passive summary into active interpretation, subjective opinion into evidence-grounded insight, and informal reflection into disciplined inquiry. It does more than identify a topic; it asserts a meaningful position—declaring, This is the claim I advance, and these are the reasons, grounded in textual, historical, or empirical support, that warrant your consideration.

In this way, the thesis transcends its structural function to embody the very essence of critical thinking: clarity of thought, rigor of expression, and intellectual responsibility. To craft such a statement is not simply to answer a prompt, but to enter an ongoing scholarly conversation—to contribute a reasoned voice to a broader dialogue, thereby elevating the essay from assignment to authentic academic contribution.



Research is a systematic process of discovering, verifying, or applying knowledge. Its objectives are to explore, describe, diagnose, or test ideas. Good research is logical, detailed, reliable, and problem-solving. There are different types of research (applied, fundamental, descriptive, explanatory, correlational, qualitative, quantitative, mixed-methods). In English literature, research can be historical, biographical, theoretical, textual, comparative, analytical, interdisciplinary, empirical, bibliographical, or digital.

Check your progress

1. Research is best defined as:
 - a) A casual collection of facts
 - b) A systematic investigation to gain new knowledge
 - c) An informal study of ideas

d) A random experiment

Answer: b

2. Which of the following is the **primary objective** of research?

a) To prove assumptions

b) To uncover hidden truth

c) To collect data without purpose

d) To support personal beliefs

Answer: b

3. Exploratory research is mainly carried out:

a) To explain cause-and-effect

b) To describe existing conditions

c) When little or no earlier information is available

d) To compare different variables

Answer: c

4. Which is **NOT** a characteristic of good research?

a) Systematic and logical

b) Patience and careful observation

c) Based on real-life facts

d) Random and unplanned

Answer: d

5. Applied research is usually conducted to:

a) Expand theoretical knowledge

b) Solve real-life practical problems

c) Study historical contexts

d) Test multiple hypotheses at once

Answer: b

6. Quantitative research mainly focuses on:

a) Words, opinions, and feelings

b) Numbers, measurements, and statistics

c) Personal experiences

d) Comparing literary theories

Answer: b

7. Studying how an author's life influences their works is called:

- a) Historical research
- b) Biographical research
- c) Comparative research
- d) Theoretical research

Answer: b

1.3 Conducting Research

Conducting research is the systematic and organized process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information to answer a specific question, solve a problem, or generate new knowledge.

1.3.1 Steps in Research Process



The research process is a sequence of acts or processes that must be taken in order for research to be conducted effectively. The acts or processes are:

- (i) Formulating the Research Problem
- (ii) Conducting literature review.
- (iii) Creating a research hypothesis.
- (iv) Planning the research design.
- (v) Determining the Research Design
- (vi) Collecting research data
- (vii) Executing the project
- (viii) Analysis of Data
- (ix) Hypothesis testing
- (x) Generalization and Interpretation
- (xi) Preparing the Report or Presentation of the Results

(i) Formulating a Research Problem: First, the researcher should identify a general area of interest or aspect of a subject matter to investigate. Then, the research problem should be defined.

Formulating a research problem is the first important step in literary research. The researcher must begin by choosing a general area of interest. Then, they should narrow it down to a specific problem or question that can be studied in detail.

For example, a researcher might be interested in Shakespearean drama, postcolonial fiction, or Romantic poetry. If someone chooses Shakespeare's *Othello*, that is a broad topic. To make it specific, they can ask: "How does Iago's manipulation reflect Elizabethan views on race and the idea of 'the other'?" This question focuses on cultural background and literary techniques.

In another case, someone may want to study postcolonial literature. They may choose Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's *Half of a Yellow Sun*. Instead of looking at the whole novel, they can ask: "How does the novel show the trauma of war through female characters?" This gives the study a clear gender and postcolonial focus.

A third example could come from Romantic poetry. A student who likes John Keats might ask: "How does Keats use nature in his odes to show his fear of death?" This question connects his use of nature to his personal feelings.

In nutshell, formulating a research problem means finding a gap or a new angle in a literary topic. It requires careful reading and an understanding of what has already been written. Asking the right question gives a clear direction to the research and helps produce original work.

(ii) Conducting a Literature Survey

Once the research problem is clearly defined, the next important step is to conduct a thorough literature survey. This involves studying previous research and critical works related to the chosen topic. By doing so, the researcher gains a deeper understanding of what has already been said and written, identifies gaps in knowledge, and avoids repeating existing studies. A literature survey may include

- ✓ Academic journals,
- ✓ Books,
- ✓ Dissertations,
- ✓ Government reports, and
- ✓ Conference proceedings.

The researcher should also explore bibliographies and indexing journals to find relevant sources. For example, if a student is researching the theme of betrayal in Shakespeare's plays, it is necessary to read scholarly articles and critical books on *Julius Caesar*, *Othello*, and *Hamlet* to understand how this theme has been interpreted over time. This background helps frame a unique angle for the new research.

(iii) Creating a Research Hypothesis

After studying the existing literature, the researcher should form a working hypothesis. A working hypothesis is a temporary and logical assumption based on the initial reading, which guides the research process. It helps the researcher focus on a particular issue or aspect of the topic. This hypothesis is tested later through analysis and can either be accepted or rejected based on the findings. For instance, if the research is on John Keats's poetry, a working hypothesis could be: **“Keats's frequent use of natural imagery reflects his deep anxiety about death and the desire for eternal beauty.”** This assumption gives direction to the study and can be refined as the research progresses.

(iv) Planning the Research Design

With a working hypothesis in place, the next step is to prepare a research design. This is the framework or plan that outlines how the research will be carried out. It includes

- ✓ Objectives of the study,
- ✓ Selection of primary texts,
- ✓ Theoretical approaches, and
- ✓ Methods of analysis.

A well-prepared design ensures that the study remains focused, organized, and cost-effective. The design also determines how data will be collected and analysed. For example, in a study of Virginia Woolf's narrative technique, the researcher may choose novels like *To the Lighthouse* and *Mrs. Dalloway*, apply stream-of-consciousness theory, and focus on specific character perspectives to examine how Woolf represents time and memory.

(v) Sample Design

Sample design refers to the selection of specific texts or sources from a larger group to be studied in detail. It is often not practical to study every literary work related to a broad theme, so researchers must choose a representative sample. Samples may be selected through probability methods (where each work has an equal chance of being selected) or non-probability methods (based on the researcher's judgment). For example, if a student is researching identity in African American literature, they might choose a few representative authors such as Langston Hughes, Toni Morrison, and Alice Walker, rather than studying the entire body of African American literature.

(vi) Data Collection

Data collection is the process of gathering information that will be used in the research. In literary studies, data mainly refers to primary texts (novels, poems, plays) and secondary sources (critical essays, articles, biographies). Depending on the availability of time and resources, data can be collected through library visits, digital

databases, archives, and interviews (if needed). Methods like close reading, thematic analysis, and historical research are commonly used. For instance, in researching Sylvia Plath's poems, the primary data would be her poetry collections, while biographies and critical commentaries would be used as secondary data to support the analysis.

(vii) Execution of the project

This stage involves putting the research plan into action. The researcher reads the texts carefully, takes notes, and begins applying the methods outlined in the design. The data must be collected systematically and thoughtfully, while staying open to unexpected findings. The success of the research depends largely on how well this stage is handled. For example, while studying irony in Jane Austen's novels, the researcher may discover additional insights about social class or gender roles that enrich the study. Therefore, careful execution allows for depth and flexibility in interpretation.

(viii) Data Analysis

Once the data has been collected, it must be analysed in order to draw meaningful conclusions. Data analysis in literary research includes identifying themes, symbols, patterns, and stylistic devices. It also involves categorizing findings, interpreting meanings, and making comparisons. In some cases, percentages or frequency counts (such as the use of a particular image or word) may be used. For example, in a study on the use of colour symbolism in Gothic literature, the researcher might examine how often black, red, or white are used and what meanings they convey in texts like *Frankenstein* or *Dracula*.

(ix) Hypothesis Testing

After analysing the data, the researcher evaluates whether the working hypothesis was correct. This process is known as hypothesis testing. The researcher checks if the collected evidence supports or contradicts the hypothesis. For example, if the hypothesis was that "Lady Macbeth represents unchecked ambition," the analysis of her actions, language, and transformation throughout *Macbeth* will help determine

whether the hypothesis holds true. If not, the researcher may need to modify the hypothesis or arrive at a new interpretation based on the findings.

(x) Generalizations and Interpretation

Based on the findings and hypothesis testing, the researcher can now make generalizations and interpretations. Generalizations are broad conclusions drawn from specific observations, while interpretation involves explaining the meaning behind the results. In literary studies, interpretation is especially important, as texts can have multiple meanings depending on the reader's perspective. For example, a study on *Half of a Yellow Sun* may conclude that Adichie uses personal experiences of female characters to represent collective trauma during war. Such interpretation adds depth to understanding literature and can also contribute to the formation of new theories.

(xi) Writing the Report or Thesis

The final stage of the research process is writing the report or thesis. This document presents the research in a clear, organized, and formal manner. The structure usually includes three main parts: the preliminary pages (title page, acknowledgements, contents), the main content (introduction, review of literature, methodology, analysis, conclusion), and the end matter (references and appendices). The writing should be accurate, well-supported with evidence, and follow academic style and citation rules. For example, a thesis titled "*The Role of Memory in Toni Morrison's Fiction*" would begin with a general introduction to the author and her works, followed by chapters discussing different novels, supported by both textual evidence and critical sources.

1.3.2 Methods and Methodology

These key points clearly establishes the difference between often mistaken methods and methodology section:

Aspect	Research Methods	Research Methodology
Definition	Techniques and procedures used to gather and analyse data.	The overarching strategy and rationale behind the choice and use of research methods.

Aspect	Research Methods	Research Methodology
Focus	Practical implementation: " How " to collect data	Theoretical analysis: " Why " a particular method is chosen
Nature	Action-oriented, tool-based	Philosophical and theoretical
Scope	Narrower – focuses on data collection and analysis	Broader – includes research design, objectives, and theoretical justification
Examples	Surveys, interviews, experiments, observations, content analysis	Quantitative vs. Qualitative approach, Positivism vs. Interpretivism, inductive vs. deductive reasoning
Application Stage	During data collection and data analysis phases	During the planning stage of the research
Concerned With	Operational aspects of the study	The logic and justification of the approach used
Output	Provides tools for gathering and analysing data	Helps in designing the framework of the entire research project
Questions Answered	<i>How will the data be collected? What tools or instruments will be used?</i>	<i>Why is this method appropriate? What is the research philosophy behind it?</i>
Example in Practice	Using a questionnaire to gather customer feedback	Choosing a quantitative approach because the study aims to test a hypothesis



The **research process** is a step-by-step sequence that ensures systematic and meaningful research outcomes.

- 1. Formulating the Research Problem** – Identify a broad area of interest and narrow it down to a specific researchable question. Example: Iago's manipulation in *Othello*.
- 2. Conducting a Literature Review** – Study previous works (books, journals, theses) to find gaps and avoid repetition.
- 3. Creating a Research Hypothesis** – Frame a temporary assumption that guides the study (e.g., Keats' use of nature reflects anxiety about death).

4. Planning the Research Design – Prepare a structured plan: objectives, texts, theories, and methods of analysis.

5. Sample Design – Select specific texts/authors from a wider field, using probability or judgment-based selection.

6. Data Collection – Gather primary (texts) and secondary (criticism, biographies) sources through close reading, archives, or databases.

7. Execution of the Project – Apply the design, take notes, and remain open to new findings.

8. Data Analysis – Identify patterns, themes, symbols, and interpret meanings.

Hypothesis Testing – Check whether the evidence supports or rejects the working hypothesis.

9. Generalizations & Interpretation – Draw broader conclusions and interpret meanings for literary understanding.

10. Report/Thesis Writing – Present findings systematically, with introduction, methodology, analysis, conclusion, and references.

Methods vs Methodology:

Methods are the practical tools and techniques (e.g., surveys, experiments, close reading) used during data collection and analysis.

Methodology is the theoretical framework that justifies why certain methods are chosen, ensuring validity and reliability.

Thus, methodology provides the “why” behind research design, while methods provide the “how.”



Check Your Progress

1. Which of the following is the **first step** in the research process?

- a) Data analysis
- b) Literature review
- c) Formulating a research problem
- d) Hypothesis testing

Answer: c

2. A literature review mainly helps in:

- a) Copying previous research
- b) Identifying gaps in existing studies
- c) Collecting raw data
- d) Avoiding interpretation

Answer: b

3. A **working hypothesis** is:

- a) A permanent conclusion
- b) A temporary assumption to guide research
- c) A summary of past research
- d) A final interpretation

Answer: b

4. In literary research, the **primary data** usually refers to:

- a) Critical essays
- b) Novels, plays, and poems studied
- c) Biographies of authors
- d) Research reports

Answer: b

5. The process of checking if evidence supports the assumption is called:

- a) Data collection
- b) Hypothesis testing
- c) Interpretation
- d) Sampling

Answer: b

6. Which of the following is **NOT** part of research design?

- a) Objectives of study
- b) Methods of analysis
- c) Generalizations and conclusions
- d) Selection of primary texts

Answer: c

7. **Methods** in research are concerned with:

- a) Theoretical justification of approach
- b) Practical tools like surveys, experiments, or close reading

- c) Writing and formatting reports
- d) Framing broad interpretations

Answer: b

8. Methodology refers to:

- a) Collecting raw data
- b) Practical techniques for analysis
- c) The rationale and theoretical framework of research design
- d) The list of references used in research

Answer: c

1.4 Compiling Working Bibliography

1.4.1 Definition and Purpose

A **bibliography** is an alphabetically ordered list of all the sources consulted during research, including books, journal articles, websites, and other resources. According to Wagner (1996), basic bibliographic information consists of the title, author or editor, publisher, and year of publication. Depending on the context, additional details such as acquisition information, price, or personal annotations may also be recorded. An entry for a book usually includes the author(s), title, place of publication, publisher, and date of publication, while entries for journal or periodical articles generally contain the author(s), article or journal title, volume, page numbers, and date of publication.

A **working bibliography**, on the other hand, is a preliminary and evolving list of sources compiled during the early stages of a research project. Unlike the final bibliography or “Works Cited” page, which includes only the sources directly quoted or cited in the completed work, a working bibliography documents every source that might potentially contribute to the research. Its primary purpose is to ensure that all consulted materials are systematically recorded and available for later evaluation, selection, and citation. This makes it an essential tool for organizing research efforts, particularly in large projects where the number of sources can become overwhelming.

1.4.2. Functions of a Working Bibliography

The working bibliography serves multiple functions within the research process.

It helps researchers keep track of the sources they encounter, whether or not they ultimately use them in the final stage. This prevents accidental plagiarism, since all bibliographic details are documented from the start. Additionally, it acts as a repository of knowledge, enabling researchers to revisit ideas, refine their arguments, and locate supporting evidence quickly. It also provides flexibility: as research evolves, the bibliography can be narrowed down or expanded according to the project's needs.

1.4.3. Types of Sources for a Bibliography

A comprehensive working bibliography should cover different types of sources to give a well-rounded perspective on the research topic.

1. **Primary sources** such as letters, historical documents, interviews, or creative works provide first hand evidence.
2. **Secondary sources**, including scholarly books, peer-reviewed journal articles, and analytical essays, offer interpretations and critiques. Depending on the subject, grey literature such as reports, theses, and conference proceedings may also prove valuable. Digital resources, including databases, e-books, and reputable websites, expand accessibility, while traditional print sources remain authoritative in many disciplines.

1.4.4. Information to Record in a Bibliography

Recording complete and accurate bibliographic information is crucial. Key details include

- ❖ **the author's full name,**
- ❖ **the full title of the work,**
- ❖ **publication year,**
- ❖ **publisher details, and**
- ❖ **Page numbers (if applicable).**

For journal articles, volume and issue numbers must also be noted. Online sources require digital identifiers such as DOI numbers, permanent URLs, or access dates. Keeping a habit of noting every piece of information at the time of consultation saves time later and ensures precision when creating citations. Incomplete records often lead to confusion and errors at the final writing stage.

1.4.5 Importance of Consistency in Citation Style

One of the most important aspects of compiling a working bibliography is maintaining consistency in citation style. Different disciplines prefer different systems:

- ❖ **MLA** is common in literature and the humanities,
- ❖ **APA** is standard in psychology and social sciences, and
- ❖ **Chicago** is widely used in history and interdisciplinary studies.

Recording entries in the required style from the beginning helps avoid unnecessary revisions later. For example, an MLA entry for a book records the author's name, italicized title, publisher, and year, while APA lists the author, year, italicized title, and publisher in a different order. Familiarity with the chosen style guide ensures accuracy.

Style Guides

Style guides, or style manuals, are collections of rules that ensure clarity and uniformity in writing. While they primarily prescribe how to structure citations, they also provide guidance on spelling, grammar, punctuation, capitalization, headings, tone, and document appearance. Traditionally published as books, style guides are now also available online as searchable databases.

Their chief advantage lies in **consistency**. Adhering to a common style guide makes it easier for readers to navigate a text—recognizing headings, quotations, abstracts, and citations without confusion. Style guides also prevent disorganization caused by personal preferences when multiple options are acceptable in English usage—for example, whether to begin a sentence with *and*, or whether to use the Oxford comma.

By standardizing details such as formatting of book titles, spelling choices (British vs. American), or rules for writing numbers, style guides minimize distractions and maintain focus on content. This is particularly valuable in collaborative writing projects where uniformity is essential. Among the most widely used guides are the **Associated Press (AP) Stylebook**, **APA**, **MLA**, and the **Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS)**.

Citation Formats

Several citation styles exist, but two of the most widely used are **APA** and **MLA**. While both contain the same essential information—author, title, and publication data—the order and formatting differ.

APA (American Psychological Association): **APA** is commonly used in the social sciences.

In-text citation: (Author, Year, p. xx)

Example: (Anderson, 1983, p. 23)

Reference list (book):

Format: Last name, Initials. (Year). *Book title*. City, State/Country: Publisher.

Example: Anderson, B. (1983). *Imagined communities: Reflections on the origins and spread of nationalism*. London, UK: Verso.

MLA (Modern Language Association): **MLA** is primarily used in the humanities.

In-text citation: (Author page number)

Example: Romantic poetry is defined by the “spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings” (Wordsworth 263).

Works Cited (book):

Format: Last Name, First Name. *Book Title*. Publisher, Year.

Example: Smith, John. *The Sample Book*. BibMe, 2008.

Citation Arrangement

Regardless of style, bibliographic entries should include essential details such as author/editor, title, publication information, and, for online materials, access dates. Formatting rules vary: APA lists works by the same author in **chronological order**, while MLA arranges them **alphabetically by the author’s last name**. Most citation styles use a **hanging indent**, where the first line of an entry is flush left and subsequent lines are indented.

Example (APA, hanging indent):

Anderson, B. (1983). *Imagined communities: Reflections on the origins and spread of nationalism*. London, UK: Verso.

1.4.6 Tools and Techniques for Compilation

Researchers can compile their working bibliography manually or digitally. Traditionally, scholars used note cards, where each card carried one complete bibliographic entry and notes about the source. Today, digital reference managers like Zotero, Mendeley, and EndNote simplify the process by automatically capturing citation details from online databases and generating formatted bibliographies. Spreadsheets or word processors can also be used to keep sources organized. Whichever method is chosen, the key is consistency and accuracy in recording data.

1.4.7 Annotating the Bibliography

Although not always required, annotating a working bibliography enhances its usefulness. An annotation is a brief note added under each entry summarizing the source's content, credibility, and relevance to the research question. While a working bibliography is primarily a list, an annotated bibliography provides evaluative commentary, helping researchers quickly recall why a source was considered important. This step is particularly valuable in large projects, where memory alone cannot sustain the connections between dozens of sources and research goals.

1.4.8 Organizing the Working Bibliography

Organization is a vital step in ensuring that the working bibliography remains functional rather than chaotic. Sources may be arranged alphabetically by the author's last name, which is the standard practice for most citation styles. Alternatively, researchers can group entries thematically, according to subtopics of the research, or chronologically, especially in historical studies where the sequence of publication is important. Digital tools allow tagging, keywording, and folder organization, which makes searching and retrieving sources far more efficient.

1.4.9 Maintaining and Revising Bibliographic Records

Since research is an evolving process, a working bibliography must remain dynamic. As the research question becomes more focused, irrelevant sources may be removed and new, more precise ones added. This process of constant revision ensures that the bibliography reflects the most accurate and updated understanding of the subject. By the final stages of writing, the working bibliography is trimmed into a

final bibliography or “Works Cited” page, containing only the sources directly referenced in the text.

1.4.10 Avoiding Errors in Bibliographic Entries

While compiling a working bibliography, researchers should remain cautious about certain common mistakes. Forgetting to record complete bibliographic information at the time of reading can cause difficulties later when sources need to be cited properly. Another frequent error is over-reliance on a single type of source, such as only internet articles or only books, which limits the depth of research. Mixing different citation styles within the same bibliography also creates inconsistency and reduces academic credibility. Avoiding these pitfalls ensures the working bibliography is reliable and professional.

Key Takeaways

A **bibliography** is an alphabetically arranged list of all the sources consulted in research, including books, journal articles, websites, and other materials. A **working bibliography** is a preliminary, evolving list compiled at the early stage of research. Unlike the final bibliography (Works Cited), it records every potential source, ensuring that no material is overlooked.

Functions of a Working Bibliography

- Keeps track of all sources to prevent plagiarism.
- Serves as a repository of knowledge and evidence.
- Helps refine arguments and adapt to evolving research needs.

Types of Sources

- **Primary sources:** original works, letters, historical documents.
- **Secondary sources:** scholarly books, journal articles, critiques.
- **Grey literature:** reports, theses, conference proceedings.
- **Digital resources:** e-books, databases, websites.

Recording Information

- Author(s), full title, publication year, publisher, and page numbers.
- For journals: volume/issue details.
- For online sources: DOI, URL, or access date.
- Accuracy at the time of consultation avoids later confusion.

Consistency in Citation Style

- Disciplines use different styles: MLA (literature), APA (social sciences), Chicago (history).
- Following one system from the beginning avoids errors.
- Style guides (e.g., APA Manual, MLA Handbook, CMOS) also prescribe spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and formatting.

Citation Formats

- **APA:** (Author, Year, p. xx); References list arranged chronologically.
- **MLA:** (Author page number); Works Cited arranged alphabetically.
- Both include essential details but differ in order and format.

Tools & Techniques

- Traditional note cards, or digital tools (Zotero, Mendeley, EndNote).
- Spreadsheets or word processors for manual organization.

Annotations

- Annotated bibliographies provide summaries and evaluations of each source.
- Useful for recalling relevance and credibility in large projects.

Organization

- Alphabetically (author's last name).
- Thematically (by subtopic).
- Chronologically (by publication date).
- Digital tools allow tagging and keyword search.

Revising & Maintaining

- Bibliography evolves with the research.
- Remove irrelevant sources and add precise ones.
- Final bibliography includes only directly cited works.

Avoiding Errors

- Record full details immediately.
- Use a balanced variety of sources.
- Do not mix different citation styles.
- Consistency ensures professionalism and credibility.

Check Your Progress

1. A **working bibliography** is best described as:
 - a) A final list of all sources cited in the thesis
 - b) A preliminary and evolving list of consulted sources
 - c) A glossary of research terms
 - d) A table of references used by others

Answer: b

2. Which of the following is a **primary source**?
 - a) A journal article about Keats' poetry
 - b) A biography of Shakespeare
 - c) A letter written by John Keats
 - d) A critical essay on Romanticism

Answer: c

3. In bibliographic records, which detail is **essential for journal articles**?
 - a) DOI or URL
 - b) Volume and issue number
 - c) Price of the article
 - d) Author's birthplace

Answer: b

4. Which citation style is most commonly used in literature and the humanities?
 - a) APA

- b) MLA
- c) Chicago author-date
- d) IEEE

Answer: b

5. A digital tool that helps manage bibliographies is:

- a) Photoshop
- b) Zotero
- c) Excel
- d) Grammarly

Answer: b

6. Which of the following is a **common mistake** in compiling a bibliography?

- a) Recording complete details of a source
- b) Mixing different citation styles
- c) Using both primary and secondary sources
- d) Arranging alphabetically by author's last name

Answer: b

1.5 Plagiarism



Plagiarism is the act of taking someone else's words, ideas, or creative work and presenting them as one's own without giving proper credit. It is often described as intellectual theft because it denies the original creator the recognition they deserve. In academics, plagiarism is considered a serious offense as it violates honesty, originality, and integrity. It may happen deliberately when a student knowingly copies material, or

unintentionally when a writer fails to cite sources correctly or misunderstands the rules of referencing. In either case, plagiarism undermines the value of learning and damages academic credibility. With the rise of the internet, copying information has become easier than ever, but at the same time, technology has also provided effective plagiarism detection tools that help in maintaining originality.

1.5.1 Types of Plagiarism

Plagiarism appears in several forms. One of the most common is **direct plagiarism**, where a writer copies text word for word from a source without quotation marks or citations. Another is **self-plagiarism**, which occurs when someone reuses their own previous work, such as essays, assignments, or published papers, without acknowledgment or permission. A more subtle form is **mosaic or patchwork plagiarism**, where phrases and sentences from multiple sources are pieced together to create a new text without giving credit. **Paraphrasing plagiarism** happens when an author rewrites another person's ideas using different words but fails to mention the source. Sometimes, plagiarism occurs accidentally, known as **accidental plagiarism**, when a student forgets to cite a source, misquotes information, or is unaware of citation guidelines. In more extreme cases, **global plagiarism** takes place when an entire work—such as a purchased essay or another person's assignment—is submitted as one's own.

1.5.2 Causes of Plagiarism

There are many reasons why plagiarism occurs. A major cause is **lack of knowledge**, as many students are not properly trained in academic writing and citation methods. Another common factor is **poor time management**, where last-minute pressure leads to copying from easily available sources. Plagiarism also results from **weak research and writing skills**, especially when students find it difficult to paraphrase or express ideas in their own words. **Academic pressure** to score high grades or publish papers can also push individuals towards dishonest practices. The **easy availability of digital content** on the internet makes copying tempting, while **language barriers** often cause non-native speakers to borrow text instead of writing

independently. Finally, some students fall into plagiarism because of **ignorance of ethical values**, not realizing the seriousness of intellectual dishonesty.

1.5.3 Consequences of Plagiarism

The consequences of plagiarism are far-reaching, affecting academic, personal, legal, and professional life. In academic institutions, plagiarism can result in failing grades, suspension, or even expulsion. Some cases remain permanently recorded in academic transcripts, which can harm future opportunities. Plagiarism also has **legal consequences**, as copying copyrighted material without permission may lead to fines, lawsuits, and bans from publishing. On a personal level, plagiarism can destroy a student's self-confidence and bring embarrassment when exposed. More importantly, it prevents genuine learning, as students fail to develop critical thinking and originality. In professional settings, plagiarism can damage a person's credibility and reputation. Scholars and researchers may face withdrawal of their published work, lose career opportunities, or even be dismissed from positions. Beyond these, plagiarism is also an **ethical violation**, breaking the trust between students and teachers, or between researchers and the academic community, and it devalues originality in knowledge creation.

1.5.3 How to Avoid Plagiarism

Plagiarism is more than just a mistake—it is an ethical failure that affects individuals and institutions alike. It can be avoided by learning how to cite sources correctly, taking careful notes during research, and practicing skills in paraphrasing and summarizing. Writers should also make use of plagiarism detection tools such as **Turnitin, Grammarly, Plagscan, or Copyscape** to review their work before submission. Above all, students and researchers must cultivate honesty, originality, and respect for intellectual property. By doing so, they not only avoid plagiarism but also strengthen their own learning and contribute meaningfully to academic growth.

Key Takeaways

Plagiarism is using another's work without credit, violating honesty and originality. It appears in many forms like direct, self, patchwork, paraphrasing, and

accidental plagiarism. Causes include lack of knowledge, poor time management, weak writing skills, and academic pressure. Its consequences are academic punishment, legal action, loss of credibility, and ethical failure. Plagiarism can be avoided through proper citation, paraphrasing, and using detection tools while practicing honesty and respect for intellectual property.

Check your Progress

1. Plagiarism is often described as:

- a) Fair use
- b) Intellectual theft
- c) Academic freedom
- d) Creative borrowing

Answer: b) Intellectual theft

2. Which type of plagiarism involves piecing together text from multiple sources without credit?

- a) Global plagiarism
- b) Patchwork (mosaic) plagiarism
- c) Self-plagiarism
- d) Accidental plagiarism

Answer: b) Patchwork (mosaic) plagiarism

3. A major cause of plagiarism among students is:

- a) Strong writing skills
- b) Proper time management
- c) Lack of knowledge of citation rules
- d) Overuse of original ideas

Answer: c) Lack of knowledge of citation rules

4. Which of the following is an academic consequence of plagiarism?

- a) Higher grades
- b) Expulsion or suspension
- c) Increased creativity

d) Automatic publication

Answer: b) Expulsion or suspension

5. Which practice can help avoid plagiarism?

a) Copying from online sources

b) Using plagiarism detection tools

c) Submitting another person's work

d) ignoring citation rules

Answer: b) Using plagiarism detection tools

Unit summary

This unit introduces students to the basics of academic research. It explains the key terms—research, hypothesis, and thesis statement—and shows how they are used in writing and investigation. Students learn how to conduct research, locate and evaluate reliable sources, and organize their findings. The unit also covers how to compile a working bibliography using proper citation styles. Importantly, it discusses plagiarism, teaching students how to avoid it through correct referencing and ethical research practices.

Glossary

- **Research:** A systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information to increase understanding of a topic or issue.
- **Hypothesis:** A tentative explanation or prediction that can be tested through study and research.
- **Thesis Statement:** A clear and concise sentence that presents the main argument or claim of a research paper.
- **Conducting Research:** The process of gathering information from various sources to explore a topic or answer a question.
- **Source:** Any book, article, website, or other material used to gather information for research.
- **Working Bibliography:** A list of sources collected during research that may be used in the final paper, often written in a specific citation style (e.g., MLA or APA).

- **Citation:** A reference to a source of information, properly formatted to give credit to the original author.
- **Plagiarism:** Using someone else's work, ideas, or words without proper acknowledgment; considered unethical and dishonest in academic work.
- **Academic Honesty:** The practice of giving proper credit to sources and avoiding cheating or plagiarism in academic work.

Self- Assessment Questions

5-Mark Questions

1. Define **research** and explain its main purpose.
2. What is a **hypothesis**? Give an example.
3. Explain the characteristics of a **good thesis statement**.
4. List any four steps involved in **conducting research**.
5. What is a **working bibliography**, and why is it important?
6. What are the key features of a **reliable source**?
7. Briefly explain what **plagiarism** is and give one way to avoid it.
8. Differentiate between a **primary** and a **secondary source**.
9. Why is it important to **cite sources** in academic writing?
10. What role does a **research question** play in the research process?

8-Mark Questions

11. Discuss the relationship between a **research question, hypothesis, and thesis statement** with examples.
12. Explain the **step-by-step process of conducting research** from choosing a topic to organizing findings.
13. Describe how to **evaluate sources for reliability** and usefulness in research.
14. What is **plagiarism**? Explain different types of plagiarism and how to avoid them.
15. What is a **working bibliography**? Describe how to create one using a standard citation style (e.g., MLA or APA).

Check Your Progress

1. What is the first step in conducting research?

- a) Writing the conclusion
- b) Choosing a topic
- c) Editing the final draft
- d) Citing sources

Answer: b) Choosing a topic

2. A **hypothesis** is:

- a) A final result
- b) A list of sources
- c) An educated guess
- d) A plagiarism checker

Answer: c) An educated guess

3. A **thesis statement** should be:

- a) Broad and general
- b) A question
- c) Clear and specific
- d) A quote from a book

Answer: c) Clear and specific

4. Which of the following is an example of plagiarism?

- a) Using your own words
- b) Quoting with citation
- c) Copying text without credit
- d) Summarizing a source

Answer: c) Copying text without credit

5. What does a **working bibliography** contain?

- a) Only books
- b) Final arguments
- c) Sources used during research
- d) Personal opinions

Answer: c) Sources used during research

Short Answer Questions

11. Define plagiarism and give one way to avoid it.

Answer: Plagiarism is using someone else's work or ideas without proper credit. It can be avoided by citing all sources correctly.

12. What is the role of a thesis statement in a research paper?

Answer: A thesis statement presents the main argument or point of the research. It guides the structure and focus of the paper.

13. List any two characteristics of a good research source.

Answer: It is credible and published by a trustworthy author or institution. It is relevant and up-to-date for the topic being researched.

Suggested Readings

1. **MLA Handbook (9th Edition)** – Modern Language Association
2. **The Craft of Research** – Wayne C. Booth, Gregory G. Colomb, Joseph M. Williams
3. **They Say / I Say** – Gerald Graff & Cathy Birkenstein
4. **A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations** – Kate L.
5. **Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques** – C.R. Kothari

Open Source Materials / Online Resources

1. **Purdue OWL (Online Writing Lab)** – <https://owl.purdue.edu>
2. **Writing Commons** – <https://writingcommons.org>
3. **MIT Open Course Ware: Writing and Experience** – <https://ocw.mit.edu>
4. **Coursera (Free Courses)** – *Academic English: Writing Specialization* – <https://www.coursera.org>
5. **Zotero (Free Citation Tool)** – <https://www.zotero.org>
6. <https://prezi.com/view/tMGXBkZn3aml8Vt7U9e4/> - plagiarism

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UNIT II

Review of Literature–Approaches to Research–Elements of Qualitative Studies–Elements of Quantitative Studies

2.1 Review of Literature

A literature review is a systematic survey of published work related to a specific topic, theory, or research question. It examines books, articles, and other credible sources to identify what is already known, what debates exist, and where gaps remain. Rather than merely summarizing sources, it critically analyses and synthesizes them to highlight patterns, issues, and developments in the field. By doing so, it helps researchers understand existing knowledge, avoid unnecessary duplication, and establish how their work contributes to the discipline. A literature review may serve as the foundation for a larger project, such as a research proposal, or stand alone as an independent study. Its purpose is to provide context, justify the need for the research, and demonstrate the value of the new study within the broader academic conversation.

2.1.1 Purpose of a Literature Review

A literature review involves a thorough study of research articles, books, and other documents related to a chosen problem. It is important because it helps the researcher know whether the problem has already been studied, what methods were used, and what results were found.

A literature review is more than just collecting information. It identifies connections between existing studies and the researcher's own area of work. By reviewing the literature, a researcher can understand what has already been written, see how different contributions are related, and assess the value of each source. It also helps in finding contradictions, research gaps, and unanswered questions that may guide further investigation.

Although the style of a literature review may vary depending on the type of study, its main purposes remain the same. A literature review helps to:

- ❖ Provide background and context for the research.
- ❖ Justify why the proposed study is important.
- ❖ Check whether the topic has already been studied, and if so, explain why repeating the study is still necessary.
- ❖ Show how the proposed research fits into existing knowledge.
- ❖ Learn from earlier theories and studies on the subject.
- ❖ Describe how the topic has been studied in the past.
- ❖ Point out weaknesses in previous research.
- ❖ Identify gaps or unanswered questions.
- ❖ Show how the proposed research can add new knowledge.
- ❖ Refine, adjust, or redirect the research focus.
- ❖ Writing a literature review involves three key steps:
 - ❖ Research – finding out what has already been written on the topic.
 - ❖ Critical Appraisal – evaluating the studies, comparing them, and identifying what has been done and what is still missing.
 - ❖ Writing – presenting what you have found in a clear and organized way.

In general, a literature review can be thought of as a funnel: it begins broadly by reviewing general research on the topic, then gradually narrows down to specific aspects, finally leading to the exact gap or issue that the new research will address.

2.1.2 Steps to Conducting a Literature Review

1. Formulate a Clear Research Question

Begin with a focused, researchable question that defines the scope of your inquiry. The question should be neither too broad nor too narrow, ensuring sufficient literature exists while allowing for in-depth analysis. Identify key concepts and related terms to guide your search strategy.

2. Set the Boundaries of the Review

Determine the temporal, geographical, and disciplinary scope. Decide whether to include only peer-reviewed journals or also books, conference papers, and grey literature. The extent of the review will depend on the project—dissertations require broader coverage than shorter research papers.

3. Select Suitable Academic Databases

Use discipline-specific and multidisciplinary databases such as Scopus, JSTOR, PubMed, IEEE Xplore, or Google Scholar. Consult university library guides to identify recommended resources and advanced search techniques tailored to your field.

4. Perform Systematic and Reproducible Searches

Employ keyword combinations, Boolean operators (AND, OR, NOT), and filters (e.g., publication date, document type) to retrieve relevant sources. Review abstracts to assess relevance before full-text analysis. Maintain a log of search terms and databases used to ensure transparency and allow replication.

5. Evaluate Sources Critically

Assess each study's purpose, methodology, data quality, and conclusions. Consider potential biases, funding sources, and the reputation of the authors. Analyse how frequently and in what context a work has been cited, as this reflects its impact and acceptance in the field.

6. Organize and Synthesize Information

Group studies by theme, methodology, or chronology to identify trends and contrasts. Move beyond summarizing individual papers to drawing connections between them. Highlight agreements, contradictions, and shifts in perspective over time.

7. Write with Purpose and Clarity

Present the review in a logical structure that builds an argument for your research. Integrate sources to show the development of ideas, emphasize unresolved issues, and clearly articulate the gap your study intends to address. Use formal but accessible language, ensuring coherence and flow.

2.1.3 Sources of Literature Review

The sources of literature used in a review can generally be divided into three main categories: **primary, secondary, and tertiary**. Each type serves a different purpose and has its own value in academic research. Understanding the difference between these categories is important because the strength of a literature review depends largely on how well the researcher balances and integrates them.

Primary sources are original works that provide direct, first-hand information or evidence on a topic. They are the closest sources to the actual event, experiment, or idea being studied. Examples include research articles reporting original findings, surveys, interviews, laboratory reports, government documents, historical records, diaries, autobiographies, and speeches. In scientific studies, a published experiment or field study is considered a primary source. In literature or history, an original novel, poem, or legal document serves the same purpose. Primary sources are highly valuable because they present raw data and original ideas that form the foundation of knowledge in any field.

Secondary sources are materials that discuss, analyse, or interpret primary sources. They are one step removed from the original event or work. Examples include review articles, scholarly books, commentaries, biographies, and critical essays. A secondary source does not create new data but instead explains, evaluates, or summarizes what primary sources have already presented. For instance, a journal

article reviewing several studies on climate change is a secondary source, while the original research studies it discusses are primary. Secondary sources are useful because they help researchers understand how others have interpreted the same material and provide insight into the broader scholarly conversation.

Tertiary sources compile and summarize information from both primary and secondary sources. They are usually reference tools that point the researcher toward other materials. Examples include encyclopaedias, dictionaries, bibliographies, indexes, almanacs, and databases. For instance, an encyclopedia entry on psychology provides a general overview of theories and key figures, but it is not based on original data. Tertiary sources are particularly useful in the early stages of research, as they help students and researchers gain a basic understanding of the topic, identify important keywords, and locate reliable sources to explore in more depth.

A strong literature review often uses **a balanced mix** of these three types of sources. Relying only on tertiary sources would make the review too general and superficial, while depending solely on primary sources might make it too narrow or overwhelming. Secondary sources help to connect ideas and provide critical perspectives. Therefore, the researcher must skilfully combine all three types to ensure the literature review is comprehensive, credible, and meaningful.

2.1.4 Types of Literature Review

Different Types of Literature Review



Argumentative Review

Argumentative literature review inspects literature selectively to support or disprove an argument, deeply fixed assumption, or logical problem already established in the literature. The main aim is to create the body of the literature, which makes a contrarian viewpoint. Argumentative approach analysed literature review is genuine and important, for social science research like education reforms and immigration control. It uses the information to support the point like the lawyer uses evidence to prove their cases.

Integrative Review

Integrative Review is a research form that reviews, analyses, and synthesizes representative literature on a topic in a combined way such that new frameworks and perspectives on the topics are produced. The content of the literature must include all studies which address related or similar theories. A good integrative review or **Academic writing literature review** must meet the entire primary research standard with clarity, consistency, and replication.

Historical Review

Historical Review is a form of research review which examines research throughout a period, from where an issue, concept, theory, phenomena started in the literature and then tracing its evolution within the scholarship of a discipline. The main idea of historical review in research is to familiarize with state-of-the-art development and to find the direction for future research. It helps you to understand the research area about what are the methodologies already present in that research area? And how you can bring improvement in the particular research field.

Methodological Review

A methodological review is not just a summary of what other researchers have said. It examines how the research was conducted — the methods, theories, and techniques used. This type of review helps to understand the overall research framework, including the approaches, data collection methods, and analysis techniques.

By studying these aspects, researchers can gain insights from the conceptual (theoretical) level to the practical (applied) level. It also helps them understand important elements such as ontological and epistemological perspectives, qualitative and quantitative methods, sampling, data collection, analysis, and ethical considerations that are essential in any study.

Systematic Review

A systematic review gives an overview of existing research related to a specific question. It follows a fixed and organized method to find, study, and analyze relevant works. The goal is to collect and compare data from different studies to understand the

evidence clearly. It usually focuses on cause-and-effect questions, such as “How much does one study contribute to another?”

Theoretical Literature Review

A theoretical review focuses on the theories connected to a topic, concept, or idea. It explains which theories already exist, how they relate to one another, how much they have been studied, and how new theories can be created or tested.

When choosing literature, it is important to make sure the sources are relevant, reliable, recent, and unbiased. The methods and results of each source should be clear. Careful selection makes the review trustworthy and useful.

2.1.5 Organizing and Synthesizing Literature

A good literature review does more than just summarize existing studies; it requires proper **organization and synthesis** to present the material in a logical and meaningful way. Organization refers to how the researcher arranges the reviewed studies, while synthesis refers to how the researcher weaves the ideas together to create a clear picture of what is known and what still needs to be explored.

Organizing a literature review can be done in several ways depending on the nature of the research. One common approach is **thematic organization**, where studies are grouped according to key themes or topics. For example, in research on online learning, one theme might be “student engagement,” another “teacher effectiveness,” and another “technological challenges.” A second approach is **methodological organization**, in which studies are grouped based on the methods they used, such as qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods. This approach is helpful when the researcher wants to highlight differences in results that may have come from using different methods. A third approach is **chronological organization**, where studies are arranged in the order of publication to show how knowledge on a topic has developed over time. Often, researchers combine these approaches to give the review more depth and clarity.

While **organization** sets the structure, synthesis is what makes the literature review analytical rather than descriptive. Synthesis involves comparing and connecting ideas across studies instead of simply listing them one by one. The researcher should highlight areas of agreement, where many studies point to the same conclusion, as well as areas of disagreement, where results are contradictory or interpretations differ. Synthesis also involves identifying patterns and trends across the body of literature, such as the gradual shift from one theory to another or the increasing use of a certain research method.

By carefully organizing and studying previous research, a researcher can find **Research gaps** in existing studies. These gaps may occur when a topic has not been studied, when old methods were used, when results are unclear or conflicting, or when new issues have appeared. Finding these gaps is important because it shows why a new study is needed. A good literature review should explain what has already been done and what still needs to be explored. This helps the researcher show how their work adds something new to existing knowledge.

Students should also be aware of **common mistakes** when writing a literature review. These include summarizing without analysis, relying too much on outdated or irrelevant sources, depending heavily on only a few studies, and ignoring contradictory evidence. Poor organization and incorrect referencing are also frequent errors that reduce the quality of a review.

2.1.5 Writing style and referencing

The writing style of a literature review is an important factor in making it effective and professional. A good literature review should be written in a **formal, clear, and objective manner**. This means avoiding casual language, personal opinions, or emotional expressions. Instead, the focus should remain on presenting facts, arguments, and evidence in a balanced way. The discussion should be arranged in a logical order, usually moving from broader studies or general issues to more specific details related to the research topic. Smooth transitions between ideas and paragraphs are necessary so that the review reads like a connected discussion rather than a list of unrelated summaries.

Another key aspect is **paraphrasing**. Researchers must explain ideas in their own words instead of copying directly from sources. This not only shows true understanding of the material but also helps to avoid plagiarism, which is considered a serious academic offense. At times, direct quotations may be used, but only when the original wording is very important and cannot be changed without losing meaning. Even in such cases, proper quotation marks and references must be given.

Referencing is also an essential part of a literature review. Every idea, fact, or argument that comes from another author must be properly credited to the original source. This can be done by following standard citation styles such as **APA, MLA, or Chicago**, depending on the guidelines provided by the institution or discipline. In-text citations should match with the full references given in the bibliography or works cited list at the end of the review. Consistency in formatting is very important, as it shows attention to detail and respect for academic standards.

A well-written literature review does more than summarize existing studies; it also reflects the researcher's academic integrity, critical thinking, and analytical skills. By writing in a formal and precise style, paraphrasing ideas responsibly, and referencing correctly, the researcher builds credibility and trust. At the same time, such a review provides a solid foundation for the proposed study, showing how it is connected to existing knowledge and why it is necessary.

Key Takeaways

A literature review is a foundational element of scholarly work. It equips researchers with the knowledge needed to position their study within existing discourse, justify its significance, and contribute original insights. When conducted systematically and written with clarity, it becomes more than a background section it becomes a powerful tool for advancing academic understanding.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the primary purpose of a literature review in research?

- a) To summarize every book and article on a subject
- b) To provide background, context, and identify research gaps

- c) To repeat past studies in detail
- d) To present only the researcher's personal opinions

Answer: b) To provide background, context, and identify research gaps

2. Which of the following is NOT a key step in writing a literature review?

- a) Research – finding out what has already been written
- b) Critical appraisal – evaluating and comparing studies
- c) Writing – presenting findings clearly
- d) Collecting data from participants

Answer: d) Collecting data from participants

3. The funnel approach in a literature review means:

- a) Beginning with specific studies and expanding to general theories
- b) Reviewing studies in alphabetical order
- c) Starting broadly and narrowing to specific issues or gaps
- d) Listing studies without critical analysis

Answer: c) Starting broadly and narrowing to specific issues or gaps

4. Which section of a literature review compares and contrasts themes across studies?

- a) Introduction
- b) Body
- c) Conclusion
- d) References

Answer: b) Body

5. A well-conducted literature review strengthens a research study because:

- a) It guarantees approval from funding bodies
- b) It demonstrates deep engagement with prior scholarship
- c) It removes the need to conduct primary research
- d) It eliminates contradictions in the field

Answer: b) It demonstrates deep engagement with prior scholarship

2.2. Approaches to Research

A **research approach** is the overall plan or strategy that guides how a study is carried out. It provides direction on how data will be collected, analysed, and interpreted. Choosing the right research approach is important because it ensures that the study is conducted systematically and produces reliable results. In general, research approaches can be grouped into three main types:

- ❖ **Qualitative,**
- ❖ **Quantitative, and**
- ❖ **Mixed methods.**

2.2.1 Qualitative Approach

The qualitative approach to research focuses on exploring and understanding human experiences, behaviours, and social phenomena. Unlike quantitative methods, it deals with non-numerical data such as words, meanings, and interpretations. Common methods include interviews, observations, case studies, and focus groups. This approach helps researchers grasp insights from theoretical data, outline or refine theories, and identify the motivating factors behind human behaviour. By doing so, qualitative research deepens our understanding of variables within a research context.

Pros of Qualitative Research

- Qualitative research utilises small data, resulting in quicker research studies.
- Social scientists can efficiently gather data from participants using this framework, resulting in a generalisation that will be helpful to the general public.
- It encourages a more in-depth inquiry into attitudes and behaviour.
- It permits flexibility in research to attain desirable outcomes.

Cons of Qualitative Research

- The participants in the research can have a one-centred perspective, which does not provide a variety of outcomes to analyse.
- It is a very time-consuming research methodology as the data selection will be based on the researcher's perspective of thinking.

- In terms of sensitive research topics, often, the participant can be hesitant to share information and get insecure regarding their privacy.

2.2.2. Quantitative Research

The quantitative approach to research is based on collecting and analysing numerical data. It relies on measurement, statistics, and mathematical models to test hypotheses and examine relationships between variables. Common tools include surveys, experiments, and structured questionnaires. This method helps researchers quantify information, identify averages, and predict outcomes. For example, a study may investigate the effect of study hours on exam performance using statistical analysis. Quantitative research draws conclusions through objective evidence, often presented in the form of tables, facts, and graphs.

Pros of Quantitative Research Methodology

- Quantitative research can analyse large data through findings and assist in drawing broader judgments about the topic.
- Quantitative research uses surveys and experiments in real-time data collection. Thus, there are minimal delays in gathering the data under study.
- In Quantitative Data analysis, researchers can analyse information faster compared to other types of research methodology.

Cons of Quantitative Research Methodology

- In some cases, the researcher will not be able to conduct the research in the natural environment. The research can appear artificial and regulated.
- The quantitative research method is very limited and cannot dive in depth to identify behaviours, attitudes, and motives.
- Quantitative research methodology is very costly, and not everyone can afford it.

2.2.3 Difference between quantitative and qualitative research methodology

While qualitative research is defined as data that supplies non-numerical information, quantitative research focuses on numerical data. In general, if you are interested in measuring something or testing a hypothesis, use quantitative research

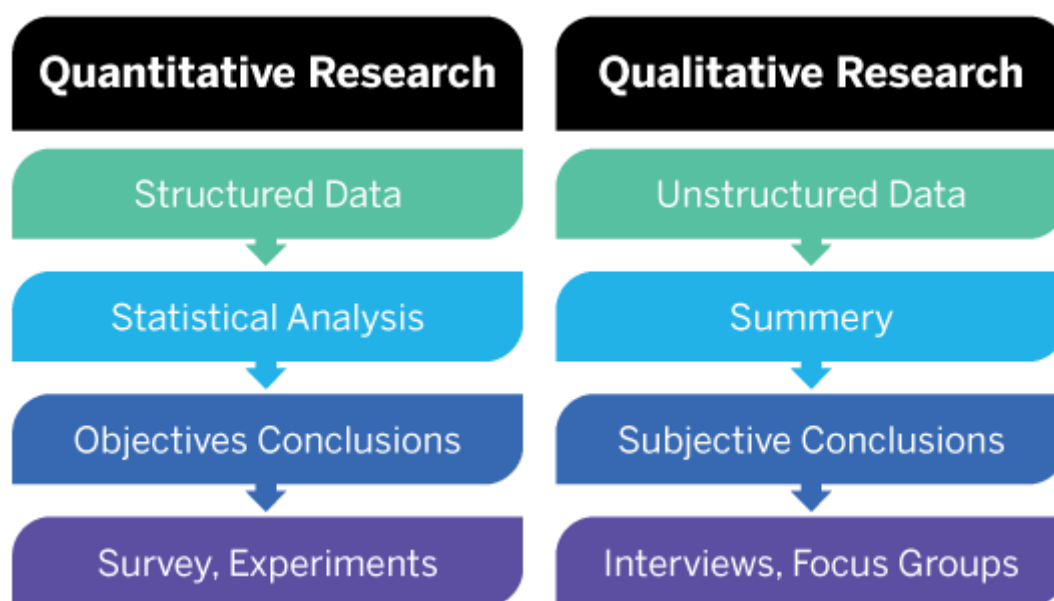
methods. If you want to explore ideas, thoughts, and meanings, use qualitative research methods.

While qualitative research helps you to properly define, promote and sell your products, do not rely on qualitative research methods alone because qualitative findings cannot always be reliably repeated. Qualitative research is directional, not empirical. The best statistical analysis research uses a combination of empirical data and human experience (quantitative research and qualitative research) to tell the story and gain better and deeper insights, quickly.

Where both qualitative and quantitative methods are not used, qualitative researchers will find that using one without the other leaves you with missing answers. For example, if a retail company wants to understand whether a new product line of shoes will perform well in the target market:

Qualitative research methods could be used with a sample of target customers, which would provide subjective reasons why they'd be likely to purchase or not purchase the shoes, while.

Quantitative research methods into the historical customer sales information on shoe-related products would provide insights into the sales performance, and likely future performance of the new product range.



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Qualitative research methods could be used with a sample of target customers, which would provide subjective reasons why they'd be likely to purchase or not purchase the shoes, while Quantitative research methods into the historical customer sales information on shoe-related products would provide insights into the sales performance, and likely future performance of the new product range.

Key Takeaways

A research approach is a systematic plan that guides how a study is carried out, including the processes of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The major research approaches include qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The qualitative approach focuses on non-numerical information such as ideas, experiences, and human behaviour, using tools like interviews and observations to gain deeper insights. In contrast, the quantitative approach relies on numerical data, statistics, and measurement to test hypotheses and draw objective conclusions through surveys and experiments. The key difference between the two approaches lies in the type of data and purpose: qualitative methods explore meanings and motivations, while quantitative methods measure and analyse relationships between variables. However, both approaches contribute uniquely to knowledge building, and using them together—known as mixed methods—provides a more complete and reliable understanding of a research problem by combining depth with statistical evidence.

Check Your Progress

- 1. Which of the following is the first step in a quantitative research study?**
 - a) Data analysis
 - b) Formulating a hypothesis
 - c) Drawing conclusions

d) Writing a literature review

Answer: b) Formulating a hypothesis

2. In quantitative research, the factor that is measured as the outcome is called the:

a) Independent variable

b) Dependent variable

c) Control variable

d) Random variable

Answer: b) Dependent variable

3. Which research design tests cause-and-effect relationships?

a) Descriptive design

b) Correlational design

c) Experimental design

d) Narrative design

Answer: c) Experimental design

4. A sample that represents the entire population is important because it helps in:

a) Collecting qualitative data

b) Ensuring bias in results

c) Generalizing findings

d) Avoiding statistical tests

Answer: c) Generalizing findings

5. Validity in measurement means:

a) The instrument gives consistent results every time

b) The instrument measures what it is supposed to measure

c) The instrument is free from numerical errors

d) The instrument uses advanced technology

Answer: b) The instrument measures what it is supposed to measure

6. Which of the following is an example of a quantitative data collection method?

a) Open-ended interview

- b) Participant observation
- c) Structured questionnaire
- d) Case study

Answer: c) Structured questionnaire

7. Statistical tests in quantitative research are used to:

- a) Explore personal experiences
- b) Test hypotheses and relationships between variables
- c) Avoid generalization of results
- d) Replace sampling procedures

Answer: b) Test hypotheses and relationships between variables

8. In quantitative research, presenting results in tables, graphs, and charts mainly helps in:

- a) Adding creativity
- b) Making data easier to interpret
- c) Avoiding statistical analysis
- d) Reducing objectivity

Answer: b) Making data easier to interpret

2.3. Elements of Qualitative Studies

Research in the field of social sciences often requires methods that go beyond numbers and statistics. Qualitative studies serve this purpose by focusing on human experiences, behaviours, and meanings. Unlike quantitative research, which emphasizes measurement and numerical data, qualitative research highlights interpretation and understanding. Its unique elements make it an essential approach in exploring complex social realities.

Research Problem and Purpos

The first element of a qualitative study is the research problem. It usually begins with broad questions that aim to explore human behaviour, perceptions, or cultural practices. Instead of seeking to prove or disprove a hypothesis, qualitative research aims to understand the “how” and “why” of a phenomenon. For example, a researcher

may ask how students experience online learning rather than how many students use digital platforms.

Research Design

Qualitative research design is flexible and adaptive. Unlike fixed structures in quantitative studies, qualitative designs allow changes as the research progresses. This flexibility is necessary because human experiences cannot always be predicted in advance. Researchers often conduct studies in natural settings where people live, work, or interact, ensuring that findings remain authentic and context-specific.

Participants

Another vital element of qualitative studies is the selection of participants. Instead of random sampling, qualitative studies rely on purposive sampling, where participants are chosen because of their ability to provide deep and meaningful insights. The focus is not on the size of the sample but on the richness of the data gathered from it.

Data Collection

Data in qualitative studies is collected through non-numerical methods such as interviews, focus groups, case studies, and observations. These approaches allow researchers to gather detailed narratives and perspectives directly from participants. In addition, documents, diaries, or audio-visual materials may be used as sources of information. Such methods help researchers capture the emotions, attitudes, and cultural context behind human behaviour.

Nature of Data

The data collected in qualitative studies is descriptive rather than numerical. It comes in the form of words, stories, images, and observations. The emphasis lies in understanding meanings, interpretations, and motivations rather than producing measurable outcomes.

Researcher's Role

In qualitative research, the researcher plays an active role. Unlike quantitative approaches, where objectivity is prioritized, qualitative studies acknowledge the researcher's subjectivity. The researcher often interacts closely with participants and may even become part of the setting being studied. Reflexivity—acknowledging personal biases and perspectives—is considered an important part of the process.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in qualitative studies involves identifying themes, patterns, and categories from the information collected. Researchers organize the data, code it, and interpret the meanings embedded within it. The aim is to develop an in-depth understanding of the subject rather than to produce statistical generalizations.

Findings

The findings of qualitative research are usually presented in the form of themes, narratives, or theoretical frameworks. Instead of numerical results, qualitative studies provide detailed descriptions and insights that explain social realities in depth.

Trustworthiness

Since qualitative research does not use traditional measures of validity and reliability, it emphasizes trustworthiness. Researchers ensure credibility, dependability, conformability, and transferability in order to establish the quality of their study. These measures help readers judge whether the findings are accurate, meaningful, and applicable in other contexts.

To conclude, the elements of qualitative studies—ranging from research design to data analysis—are designed to capture the richness of human experiences. This approach provides valuable insights into the complexities of social life by focusing on meanings rather than numbers. Qualitative research, therefore, stands as a powerful method to explore the motivations, behaviours, and perspectives that shape human society. Qualitative research is an essential tool for understanding the complexities of human actions and experience. By exploring the subjective experiences and perceptions of individuals and groups, qualitative research provides rich and detailed

insights that cannot be captured by quantitative data alone. Qualitative research has many applications in different fields, including healthcare, marketing, education, social sciences, and business. As the demand for a deeper understanding of human behaviour, attitude, and experience continues to grow, qualitative research will become an increasingly important tool for researchers and professionals alike.

Key takeaways

Qualitative research seeks to understand the qualities and attributes of social phenomena that cannot be measured in numerical terms. It is characterized by its emphasis on flexibility and responsiveness to the context in which the research is conducted. Researchers must be sensitive to the social and cultural context in which the research is conducted and must adapt their methods accordingly. This may involve adjusting interview questions, modifying observation methods, or selecting different data collection techniques.

This research approach is often criticized for its lack of generalizability. Unlike quantitative research, which is designed to test hypotheses and make generalizations about a population, qualitative research is focused on understanding the complexities of individual cases. However, it can provide rich and detailed data that can help inform the development of theories and generate hypotheses for future research.

Check Your Progress

1. **What is the main focus of qualitative research?**

- a) Measurement and numerical data
- b) Understanding meanings and experiences
- c) Statistical analysis
- d) Proving hypotheses

Answer: b) Understanding meanings and experiences

2. **Which sampling method is most commonly used in qualitative research?**

- a) Random sampling
- b) Systematic sampling
- c) Purposive sampling

d) Stratified sampling

Answer: c) Purposive sampling

3. Where qualitative studies are usually conducted?

a) In laboratories

b) In controlled environments

c) In natural settings

d) In online databases

Answer: c) In natural settings

4. Which of the following is a common data collection method in qualitative research?

a) Surveys with numerical scales

b) Experiments

c) Interviews and observations

d) Statistical modeling

Answer: c) Interviews and observations

5. In qualitative research, data is generally presented in the form of:

a) Tables and charts

b) Numbers and percentages

c) Themes and narratives

d) Formulas and equations

Answer: c) Themes and narratives

6. What does 'trustworthiness' in qualitative research refer to?

a) Accuracy of numerical data

b) Statistical reliability

c) Credibility and dependability of findings

d) Objectivity of results

Answer: c) Credibility and dependability of findings

7. Why qualitative research is sometimes criticized?

- a) It uses too much numerical data
- b) It lacks generalizability
- c) It ignores human emotions
- d) It relies only on experiments

Answer: b) It lacks generalizability.

2.4. Elements of Quantitative Studies

Quantitative research is focused on **numbers, measurement, and statistical analysis** to understand phenomena. Unlike qualitative research, which explores meanings and experiences, quantitative research seeks to answer questions like “how many?” or “to what extent?” It is widely used in fields such as **education, healthcare, social sciences, business, and natural sciences** where objective, measurable evidence is required. The purpose of quantitative research is to test hypotheses, examine relationships between variables, and generate results that can often be generalized to a larger population.

The first element of a quantitative study is the **research problem and hypothesis**. The research problem is usually **specific and narrowly defined**, often framed in terms of measurable variables. Once the problem is identified, a **hypothesis** is formulated — a testable statement predicting the relationship between variables. For example, a study might hypothesize that “students who study in groups score higher than students who study alone.” This sets the foundation for designing the study and determining the methods of data collection and analysis.

Research design is the next key element. Quantitative research designs are typically **structured and pre-planned**, providing a clear framework for collecting and analysing data. Common designs include **experimental, quasi-experimental, survey, correlational, and longitudinal studies**. The design ensures that the research process is systematic and that the collected data can provide valid and reliable answers to the research questions.

A critical element of quantitative studies is the identification of **variables**. These include **independent variables** (the factors that are manipulated or controlled to observe effects), **dependent variables** (the outcomes or effects being measured), and

control variables (factors kept constant to reduce bias). Clearly defining and operationalizing variables is essential to ensure that the study produces valid and interpretable results.

The **participants or sample** is another vital component. Quantitative studies often use **large sample sizes** selected through **probability-based sampling methods**, such as random sampling, to ensure that results are representative and can be generalized. Unlike qualitative research, the focus is on the **quantity and representativeness** of participants rather than in-depth individual experiences.

Data collection in quantitative research involves the use of **structured and standardized tools**, such as questionnaires, surveys, tests, or measurement instruments. These methods generate **numerical data** that can be analysed statistically. Precision and consistency in data collection are crucial to maintain the objectivity of the study.

The **nature of the data** in quantitative research is numerical and measurable. It includes counts, scores, percentages, rates, or scale-based measurements. Such data allows researchers to compare groups, test relationships, and make predictions. This makes quantitative research particularly effective for evaluating hypotheses and producing generalizable results.

Data analysis is conducted using **statistical methods** such as mean, median, standard deviation, correlation, regression, t-tests, and ANOVA. The primary purpose is to examine relationships between variables, test hypotheses, and determine the significance of the findings. The results are objective and based on mathematical computation rather than interpretation.

The **findings** of quantitative research are presented in **numerical or graphical form**, including tables, charts, graphs, and statistical summaries. These results illustrate patterns, trends, or differences between variables. Conclusions are drawn based on statistical evidence, making the findings **replicable and generalizable**.

Finally, **validity and reliability** are central to quantitative research. **Validity** ensures that the study measures what it intends to measure, while **reliability** ensures that the results are consistent and reproducible if the study is repeated. These elements guarantee the **accuracy, objectivity, and credibility** of the research findings.

Hence, quantitative research is a **systematic, structured, and objective approach** to studying phenomena. By focusing on measurable variables, large samples, and statistical analysis, it allows researchers to test hypotheses, determine relationships, and produce findings that are often generalizable to larger populations. This makes quantitative research a powerful tool for producing **evidence-based conclusions** in various academic, scientific, and professional fields.

Key Takeaways

Quantitative research focuses on numbers, measurement, and statistical analysis to study relationships, patterns, and trends. It begins with a specific research problem and a testable hypothesis and uses structured, systematic, and pre-planned designs such as experimental, survey, correlational, or longitudinal studies. Variables are clearly defined as independent, dependent, or control variables, and data is collected from large, representative samples using standardized tools like questionnaires or tests. Analysis relies on statistical techniques such as mean, correlation, regression, or ANOVA, and findings are presented in numerical or graphical form. Ensuring validity and reliability makes the results accurate, objective, replicable, and generalizable, which is why quantitative research is widely used across many fields.

Check Your Progress

1. **What is the primary focus of quantitative research?**

- a) Understanding meanings and experiences
- b) Numerical measurement and statistical analysis
- c) Exploring cultural practices
- d) Studying emotions and perceptions

Answer: b) Numerical measurement and statistical analysis

2. **Which of the following is a key element of quantitative research?**

- a) Reflexivity of the researcher
- b) Open-ended exploration of experiences
- c) Clear research problem and hypothesis
- d) Narrative data presentation

Answer: c) Clear research problem and hypothesis

3. **In quantitative studies, which type of sampling is commonly used?**

- a) Purposive sampling
- b) Snowball sampling
- c) Random or probability-based sampling
- d) Convenience sampling

Answer: c) Random or probability-based sampling

4. **Which of the following is an example of a dependent variable?**

- a) Teaching method used in a classroom
- b) Student performance scores
- c) Number of classrooms
- d) Age of students

Answer: b) Student performance scores

5. **What type of data is collected in quantitative research?**

- a) Words and narratives
- b) Images and observations
- c) Numerical and measurable data
- d) Personal diaries

Answer: c) Numerical and measurable data

6. **Which of the following ensures the credibility of quantitative research?**

- a) Reflexivity
- b) Trustworthiness
- c) Validity and reliability
- d) Thematic analysis

Answer: c) Validity and reliability

7. **How the findings of quantitative research are usually presented?**

- a) Themes and narratives
- b) Stories and descriptions
- c) Tables, charts, and graphs
- d) Participant interviews

Answer: c) Tables, charts, and graphs

Unit - Summary

This unit introduces students to the fundamentals of research, focusing on how to review existing literature, different research approaches, and the core elements of qualitative and quantitative research methods. The key objectives are:

- **Review of Literature:** Understanding the purpose, process, and significance of reviewing existing research. Literature review helps identify research gaps, develop conceptual frameworks, and justify the relevance of the study.
- **Approaches to Research:** Differentiating between **qualitative** and **quantitative** research approaches, their philosophical underpinnings, and applicability.
- **Elements of Qualitative Studies:** Exploring features like participant observation, interviews, case studies, thematic analysis, and data interpretation. Qualitative research emphasizes meaning, context, and depth of understanding.
- **Elements of Quantitative Studies:** Covering features such as hypothesis formulation, variables (independent, dependent, control), sampling, measurement, statistical analysis, and result interpretation. Quantitative research emphasizes objectivity, measurement, and generalizability.

By the end of the unit, students will be able to select appropriate research approaches, design qualitative or quantitative studies, and conduct an effective literature review.

Glossary

Term	Definition
Literature Review	A systematic survey of existing research and publications relevant to a research topic.

Term	Definition
Qualitative Research	Research focusing on understanding phenomena through experiences, narratives, and context rather than numerical measurement.
Quantitative Research	Research that relies on numerical data, statistical analysis, and measurable outcomes.
Hypothesis	A testable statement predicting a relationship between variables.
Variables	Characteristics or attributes that can vary; include independent, dependent, and control variables.
Sampling	The process of selecting a representative subset from a population for study.
Thematic Analysis	A method of analysing qualitative data by identifying patterns or themes.
Correlation	A statistical measure indicating the strength and direction of a relationship between two variables.
Ethics in Research	Principles guiding research conduct, ensuring honesty, integrity, and respect for participants.

Self – Assessment Questions

Short Answer Questions

1. What is the purpose of a literature review in research?
2. Differentiate between qualitative and quantitative research approaches.
3. Define independent, dependent, and control variables.
4. What are the common methods of data collection in qualitative research?
5. Explain the role of hypothesis in quantitative research.

Long Answer Questions

6. Discuss the process and significance of reviewing literature for a research study.
7. Explain the main elements of qualitative research with examples.
8. Describe the steps involved in conducting a quantitative research study.
9. Compare and contrast qualitative and quantitative research in terms of methodology and data interpretation.
10. Discuss ethical considerations in both qualitative and quantitative research.

Check your progress

1. **Purpose of literature review:** To identify gaps in research, understand prior findings, build theoretical frameworks, and justify the study's relevance.
2. **Qualitative vs Quantitative:** Qualitative research focuses on experiences, meanings, and context, while quantitative research focuses on numerical data, measurement, and statistical analysis.
3. **Variables:**
 - **Independent Variable:** The variable that is manipulated.
 - **Dependent Variable:** The variable that is measured.
 - **Control Variable:** The variable kept constant to avoid confounding results.
4. **Qualitative data collection methods:** Interviews, focus groups, observations, case studies, document analysis.
5. **Hypothesis role:** Provides a testable statement to guide quantitative research and statistical analysis.
6. **Literature review significance:** Helps understand what has been studied, identify gaps, and build the research context.
7. **Elements of qualitative research:** Context, depth of understanding, rich descriptive data, non-numerical analysis, subjective interpretation.
8. **Quantitative research steps:** Formulate hypothesis → define variables → design study → collect data → analyze statistically → interpret results → draw conclusions.

9. **Comparison:** Qualitative is exploratory and subjective; quantitative is confirmatory and objective. Both can complement each other in mixed-method research.
10. **Ethical considerations:** Informed consent, confidentiality, avoiding plagiarism, honest reporting, respect for participants.

Suggested Readings

1. Creswell, J. W. (2018). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. SAGE Publications.
2. Kumar, R. (2021). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners*. SAGE Publications.
3. Neuman, W. L. (2020). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Pearson.
4. Punch, K. F. (2016). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. SAGE Publications.
5. Hart, C. (2018). *Doing a Literature Review: Releasing the Research Imagination*. SAGE Publications.

Open source E- Content Links

- [SAGE Research Methods](#) – Free summaries and resources on research methods.
- [ResearchGate](#) – Access articles and literature reviews in multiple disciplines.
- [NCERT Research Methodology PDFs](#) – Open-source educational material.
- [MIT OpenCourseWare – Research Methods](#) – Free course materials on research approaches.
- [Coursera Free Courses on Research Methods](#) – Short courses on qualitative and quantitative research.

References

1. Creswell, J. W. (2018). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. SAGE Publications.

2. Kumar, R. (2021). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners*. SAGE Publications.
3. Neuman, W. L. (2020). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Pearson.
4. Punch, K. F. (2016). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. SAGE Publications.
5. Hart, C. (2018). *Doing a Literature Review: Releasing the Research Imagination*. SAGE Publications.

UNIT III

Mechanics of Prose: Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization of Terms, Names of Persons, Titles of Works, Numbers, Principles of Inclusive Language – Abbreviations

MECHANICS OF PROSE

Objectives of the Unit:

- Studying the mechanics of prose helps students write clearly, correctly, and professionally.
- It teaches proper formatting of citations and references according to MLA 9th edition.
- It improves the way students organize and present their research ideas.
- Learning these skills makes editing and proofreading easier and more effective.
- It helps students pay attention to details and maintain consistency in their writing.

3. Introduction to Mechanics of Writing

Writing becomes more effective and clear when information is presented in a standardized and consistent manner. This chapter focuses on the mechanics of prose, addressing key technical aspects such as capitalization, grammar, spelling, and number formatting.

3.1 Spelling

Spelling in a paper should remain consistent. Certain words have multiple correct spellings, but once you choose one—like "acknowledgment"—you should use it consistently rather than switching to an alternative such as "acknowledgement."

3.1.1 Dictionaries

To ensure consistency, use a single dictionary, such as Merriam-Webster or Oxford (merriam-webster.com); if an entry has variant spellings, generally adopt

the spelling listed first.

3.1.2 Plurals

Most nouns (e.g., kids, laws, stars, Fridays, Obamas) can be made plural by simply adding -s. The plural, however, is typically created by adding -es to nouns that end in -ch, -s, -sh, -x, and -z (e.g., sketches, masses, Dickenses, brushes, taxes, Kleenexes, spritzes).

To learn more about nonstandard plurals, see a dictionary. These include

Noun		Plurals
ends in 'fe'	gaffe	gaffes
	wife	wives
ends in 'f'	serif	serifs
	thief	thieves
ends in 'o'	mosquitoes	mosquitoes or mosquitos
ends in 'y'	guys	guys
	allegories	allegories

Besides, there are compound plurals (fathers-in-law, poets laureate, nurse practitioners), irregular plurals (children is the plural of kid), and phrases that still use the plural forms of their native language (foci, phenomena).

Some words even have multiple plural forms that have distinct meanings (for example, the term "mouse" has the plural form "mice" when referring to rodents, but "mice" when referring to the computer component). Use the first phrase listed when the dictionary offers many plural forms (for example, mosquito).

If the term is included in a dictionary as a "foreign term," "French phrase," or something similar, it has not been naturalized into English. In this case, add a s (mise en abyme becomes mise en abymes). These kinds of terms ought to be italicized in your writing. Certain terms, such as politics and statistics, can be interpreted as either singular or plural. In most cases, the dictionary will tell you when this is true.

Possessive plurals:

Nouns	Possessive plurals
Singular noun like poem	Add an apostrophe and an s. For example, a poem's meter
Singular and plural noun ending in –s like ethics	Add only an apostrophe. For example, ethics' contribution to philosophy
Irregular plural noun not ending in -s	Add an apostrophe and an s. For example, women's studies
Any singular proper noun	Add an apostrophe and an s. For example, Du Bois's essays Rome's ancient monuments
Plural proper noun	Add only an apostrophe. For example, the Democrats' legislation the Dickenses' economic woes

Foreign words in an English-language text: Foreign words used in English can often appear in their original form, whether singular or plural.

Plurals of numbers:

To form the plural of a spelled-out number, consider the word as a regular noun. For example, threes, sixes, and forties. To form plurals, add a 's' to numbers. For example, 1990s, 747s.

Key takeaways**1. Consistency:**

- ❖ Spelling must remain consistent throughout a paper.
- ❖ Example: Choose either *acknowledgment* or *acknowledgement* and use it consistently.

Dictionaries:

- ❖ Use one dictionary (e.g., Merriam-Webster or Oxford).
- ❖ If multiple spellings exist, adopt the **first-listed spelling**.

2. Plurals:

- ❖ Most nouns: add **-s** (kids, laws, stars).
- ❖ Nouns ending in **-ch, -s, -sh, -x, -z**: add **-es** (sketches, brushes, taxes).
- ❖ Nonstandard plurals:
 - ❖ ends in *-fe*: wife → wives
 - ❖ ends in *-f*: thief → thieves
 - ❖ ends in *-o*: mosquito → mosquitoes or mosquitos
 - ❖ ends in *-y*: guy → guys
- ❖ Compound plurals: fathers-in-law, poets laureate
- ❖ Irregular plurals: child → children
- ❖ Foreign terms: add **-s** and italicize (mise en abyme → mise en abymes)
- ❖ Some words can be singular or plural (e.g., politics, statistics)

3. Possessive Plurals:

Type	Rule	Example
Singular noun	Add apostrophe + s	a poem's meter
Singular/plural ending in –s	Add apostrophe only	ethics' contribution
Irregular plural not ending in –s	Add apostrophe + s	women's studies
Singular proper noun	Add apostrophe + s	Du Bois's essays, Rome's ancient monuments
Plural proper noun	Add apostrophe only	the Democrats' legislation, the Dickens's economic woes

5. Plurals of Numbers:

- ❖ Spelled-out numbers: treat as regular nouns → threes, sixes, forties

- ❖ Numerals: add s → 1990s, 747s

Check Your Progress

1. Which of the following sentences uses consistent spelling?

- a) The paper included both acknowledgment and acknowledgement.
- b) The paper used acknowledgment throughout.
- c) The paper used acknowledgement in one paragraph and acknowledgment in another.

Answer: b

2. Which dictionary should you follow for consistent spelling?

- a) Any online dictionary
- b) One chosen dictionary, such as Merriam-Webster or Oxford
- c) Multiple dictionaries at once

Answer: b

3. How is the plural of “brush” formed?

- a) brushes
- b) brushes
- c) brushies

Answer: b

4. Which is correct for the possessive plural of “women”?

- a) womens'
- b) women's
- c) womens's

Answer: b

5. How do you pluralize the number 747?

- a) 747s
- b) 747es
- c) 747ies

Answer: a

6. How should you treat a foreign term like *mise en abyme* in plural form?

- a) *mise en abyme*
- b) *mise en abymes* (italicized)
- c) *mise en abymes* (not italicized)

Answer: b

3.2 Punctuation

The basic function of punctuation is to make your text clear and readable. Punctuation aids in understanding sentence structure by separating and grouping words. The rules listed here address typical punctuation errors.

3.2.1 Commas

The comma is an essential device for efficient and successful communication. Commas may be regarded as essential, wrong, or optional.

When a comma is necessary

1. When combining independent clauses in a sentence, a **coordinating conjunction** (and, but, for, nor or, so, yet) should come before it with a comma.

Congress passed the bill, and the president signed it into law.

The poem is sentimental, yet the poet takes a pragmatic view of death.

However, when the coordinating conjunction combines short independent sentences, the comma may be omitted.

Wallace sings and Armstrong plays cornet.

2. Put a comma in **between coordinating adjectives**, which are adjectives that alter the same word in different ways.

Critics praise the novel's unaffected, unadorned style.

The adjectives unaffected and unadorned each modify style.

However, do not use a comma when the adjectives do not alter the same noun, or when they are not coordinate.

A famous photograph shows Marianne Moore in a black tricornered hat.

The adjective black modifies tricornered hat.

3. Adjectives that express **size, colour, age, substance, temperature, form, and amount** are usually not coordinate. **For instance**, a big white dog, a large brown rectangular briefcase, seven cold metal stools.

4. Nouns can be modified using both **coordinate and non-coordinate adjectives**.

The author crafted an unremitting, forceful narrative persona.

The adjectives unremitting and forceful both modify narrative persona.

5. Use commas **to set off a parenthetical comment, or an aside**, if the comment is brief and closely related to the rest of the sentence.

The Ming dynasty, for example, lasted nearly three hundred years.

His testimony is not, I submit, an accurate account.

6. Use a comma **after a long introductory phrase or clause**.

By 2010, smartphone use was widespread.

In the fall, students attend convocation.

7. Use commas to set off **alternative or contrasting phrases**. For example, Julio, not his mother, sets the plot in motion. But do not use commas if the phrase expresses a relation between two terms.

Several cooperative but autonomous republics were formed.

The conjunction but expresses the relation between cooperative and autonomous.

8. Use commas to **divide words, phrases, and clauses in a series of words**. The final comma in a series is referred to as the serial (or Oxford) comma. But use semicolons when the elements in a series have internal commas.

Words

Ta-Nehisi Coates has written books, comics, and works of journalism.

Phrases

Anne Frank's diary has been translated into many languages, adapted for the screen, and turned into a play.

Clauses

In the Great Depression, millions of people lost their jobs, businesses failed, and charitable institutions closed their doors.

9. When presenting a **date in the month-day-year** format, use a comma. Put a comma after the year if the date falls in the midst of a sentence.

Roberto Bolaño was born on April 28, 1953, and died on July 15, 2003.

Roberto Bolaño was born on 28 April 1953 and died on 15 July 2003.

However, dates expressed in the day-month-year format do not include commas.

There is also an absence of commas in the transitions from one month to the next and from one season to the next.

The events of July 1789 are as familiar to the French as those of July 1776 are to Americans.

I passed my oral exams in spring 2007.

10. Use a comma to set off the components of a place-name (e.g., a city from a state, a province from a country, a campus from its main institution, and so on. **For example,**

The University of Toronto, Mississauga, is located about twenty miles west of Toronto, Ontario.

When a comma is incorrect

The following sentences should not have commas inserted between them.

1. Subject and verb
2. Verb and object
3. Parts of a compound subject
4. Parts of a compound object
5. Two verbs that share a subject

6. Two subordinate elements that are parallel.

Rule	Description	Correct Example	Notes
Subject and Verb	Do not use a comma between subject and verb	What makes Sartre's theory of commitment relevant to our discussion is its insistence that choice in today's world can be only political.	Use commas only when a phrase/clause interrupts between subject and verb: <i>Many of the characters who dominate the early chapters and then disappear, often leaving behind no trace other than a farewell letter, are portraits of the author's friends.</i>
Verb and Object	Do not use a comma between a verb and its object	The agent reported that the vehicle had been traced to an underground garage.	Even when the object is a full clause, no comma is needed.
Parts of a Compound Subject	Do not use a comma between parts of a compound subject	A dozen wooden chairs and a window that admits a shaft of light complete the stage setting.	These are both parts of the subject.
Parts of a Compound Object	Do not use a comma between parts of a compound object	Ptolemy devised a system of astronomy accepted until the sixteenth century and a scientific approach to the study of geography.	Both are objects of "devised."

Rule	Description	Correct Example	Notes
Two Verbs That Share a Subject	Do not use a comma between two verbs with the same subject	He composed several popular symphonies but won the most fame for his witticisms.	No comma between the verbs.
Parallel Subordinate Elements	Do not use a comma between two subordinate phrases	From his darkness, Lear has gained insight into himself as a fallible man and negligent king and into the evil of Goneril and Regan.	Also: <i>The current economic climate has given rise to a technology sector that demands workers receive training in basic coding skills but that is unwilling to pay for it.</i>

When a comma is optional

1. Throughout your work, use commas next to brief introductions and sentences whenever appropriate.
2. When a sentence does not unite two separate clauses, commas are optionally placed after words and phrases like perhaps, thus, indeed, and of course. However, a comma is required when a word or phrase links two independent sentences.
3. The comma is optional when a coordinating conjunction combines brief independent phrases.

3.2.2 Semicolons

Semicolon marks a more significant separation than commas. They are typically used in sentences to connect separate clauses that are not united by a conjunction.

Don't touch the stove; it's hot.

A dash can be used in some circumstances to represent a sharp break.

Don't touch the stove—it's hot.

When a succession of objects contains commas, use semicolons between them.

3.2.3 Colons

Colons join two separate clauses similarly to semicolons, although they can be used for other purposes as well. A list, an explanation of the previous point, or the formal articulation of a rule or concept are all introduced with colons. Whatever comes after a colon should be written in lowercase, unless it is a word that is typically capitalised, a sequence of sentences, a rule or principle, or a question.

Elaboration

Rule	Description	With Comma	Without Comma
Short Introductory Phrases or Clauses	Use a comma or not , but be consistent	<i>By 2010, smartphone use was widespread. In the fall, students attend convocation.</i>	<i>By 2010 smartphone use was widespread. In the fall students attend convocation.</i>
Around Words like perhaps, therefore, indeed, of course	Commas optional around these in mid-sentence (not joining full clauses)	<i>This assumes, of course, that we finish the test on time. We could, perhaps, approach the problem from another angle.</i>	<i>The instructor saw our confusion and is therefore going to explain the principle again. Rather than speculate further, we could indeed consult a reference work.</i>
<i>(Joining two independent clauses)</i>	Use comma when joining two independent clauses	<i>This assumes that we finish the test on time; of course, we may not.</i>	<i>(No correct version without comma in this case.)</i>
Before Some Coordinating Conjunctions	Comma optional before coordinating conjunctions (like <i>and</i>) joining short independent clauses	<i>Wallace sings, and Armstrong plays cornet.</i>	<i>Wallace sings and Armstrong plays cornet.</i>

The plot is founded on deception: the protagonist has a secret identity.

The moderator then posed a question to the panelists: In what ways has the New Queer Cinema amplified the visibility of queerness in film?

Rule or principle

Many books would be briefer if their authors followed the logical principle known as Occam's razor: Explanations should not be multiplied unnecessarily.

List

The musicology syllabus includes three genres: jazz, blues, and hip-hop.

Do not use a colon before a list if the list is grammatically essential to the introductory wording. **For example**, when the list is the object of the verb that introduces it. In the first example below, the list is the object of the verb 'are', so the colon is incorrect. To revise, recast the sentence so that what precedes the colon is a full sentence, or omit the colon.

Incorrect

The three assigned topics for your essay on Infinite Jest are: tennis, lenses, and mathematics.

Correct

These are the three assigned topics for your essay on Infinite Jest: tennis, lenses, and mathematics.

3.2.4 Dashes and Parentheses

Parentheses and dashes show a change or pause in thought. They add extra information or explain something in a sentence. You can choose to use parentheses, dashes, or commas, but using too many dashes or brackets can make writing hard to read because they interrupt the flow. Be careful not to use a single unpaired dash or more than two dashes in one sentence, as it can confuse readers. In typed writing, a dash can appear as two hyphens (--) or as an **em dash (—)**, which is as long as the letter **m**. There should be **no spaces** before or after the dash.

When to Use

1. Use dashes or parentheses to enclose a sentence element that interrupts the train of thought.

For example, The play's "hero" (the townspeople see him as heroic, but he is the focus of the author's satire) introduces himself as a veteran of the war.

2. Use dashes or parentheses to set off a parenthetical element that contains a comma **and that might be misread if set off with commas.**

For example, The qualities of Corinne's character—honour, patience, and kindness—are lacking in her fellow country woman, the play's antagonist.

3. Use a single dash before a phrase like for example, that is, or namely when the phrase introduces an elaboration of what was just said.

For example,

She argues against limiting her speech to the court to only one style—for example, a formal register. The play's lead had one thing on her mind—namely, making up for lost time.

4. A dash may also be used instead of a colon to introduce a list.

For example, The course covers three epics from different literary traditions—the Odyssey, the Tale of the Heike, and Omeros.

3.2.5 Hyphens

By combining two or more words, hyphens show the relationship between those words. They combine prefixes with words as well. The main purpose of hyphens in text is to avoid misreading. Creating compound adjectives is one of the most popular uses for hyphens. Words that are compound—that is, composed of more than one word—can be expressed as single words (hardheaded), as distinct words (hard drive), or as words with hyphens (hard-boiled). The dictionary provides style information for several chemicals. In general, compound words that are not included in dictionaries should be represented as separate words when used as nouns (knitting needle).

Topic	When to Hyphenate	When Not to Hyphenate	Examples
Adverbs	Compound adjective starts with <i>ill, well, better, etc.</i> , before a noun	When after the noun	<i>ill-prepared student</i> <i>The student was ill prepared.</i>
Number-noun combinations	Number + noun before noun Include hyphen before adjectives like <i>early</i>	When after the noun	<i>fifteen-day trip, early-thirteenth-century architecture</i> <i>The trip lasted fifteen days.</i>
Prepositional phrases	When the phrase functions as a compound adjective before a noun	When after the noun	<i>on-campus housing</i> <i>The event is on campus.</i>
Clarity	Use hyphen to avoid ambiguity	N/A	<i>three-layer cake</i> (vs. three cakes) <i>Swiss-cheese maker</i> (not a Swiss cheese maker)
-ly Adverbs / too, very, much	N/A	Do not hyphenate compounds with -ly adverbs or	<i>thoughtfully written book,</i> <i>much loved teacher</i>

Topic	When to Hyphenate	When Not to Hyphenate	Examples
		with <i>too</i> , <i>very</i> , <i>much</i>	
Comparatives/Superlatives	N/A	Do not hyphenate compounds with <i>less</i> , <i>least</i> , <i>more</i> , <i>most</i>	<i>less interesting movie</i> , <i>most useful tool</i>
Familiar compound terms	N/A	Do not hyphenate familiar or dictionary-listed compounds	<i>high school reunion</i> , <i>civil rights movement</i> , <i>second language acquisition</i>
Foreign language terms	N/A	Do not hyphenate foreign phrases	<i>ad hoc approach</i> , <i>mise en abyme image</i>
Proper nouns	N/A	Do not hyphenate compound adjectives with unhyphenated proper nouns	<i>Asian American students</i> , <i>Pulitzer Prize ceremony</i>
Suppressed words	Use hyphen with space when words are omitted in compounds	N/A	<i>five- and ten-dollar bills</i> , <i>pre- and postwar periods</i> , <i>first-, second-, and third- semester students</i>
Prefixes	Use hyphen if: Listed in dictionary with hyphen Double vowels (e.g., anti- itch) Before caps (post-	Don't use if dictionary lists word without a hyphen	Hyphenated: <i>co-occurring</i> , <i>anti-academic</i> , <i>post- Victorian</i> Unhyphenated:

Topic	When to Hyphenate	When Not to Hyphenate	Examples
	Victorian) Meaning distinction (re-cover vs recover)		<i>coworker, nonjudgmental, subculture</i>
Fractions	Use hyphen in simple fractions	N/A	<i>three-quarters full, one-third of the class</i>
Hyphen vs. en dash	Use hyphen if lowercase compound is joined to another word	Use en dash if prefix precedes multi-word proper noun	Hyphen: <i>post-civil-rights legislation, cultural-studies-based approach</i> En dash: <i>post–World War II era</i>

3.2.6 Apostrophes

Apostrophes are used to construct certain plurals and to denote possession. In formal writing, contractions like “can’t” and “wouldn’t” should be avoided.

Singular and plural nouns

1. To form a singular noun possessive, add an apostrophe and an s. For instance, a poem’s meter
2. To form the possessive form of a plural word ending in -s, simply add an apostrophe. For example, firefighters’ trucks
3. To form the possessive of a noun ending in -s in both singular and plural forms, use an apostrophe. For example, ethics’ contribution to philosophy
4. To form the possessive of an irregular plural noun that does not end with -s, add an apostrophe and an s. For example, women’s studies

Proper nouns

1. To form the possessive of a singular proper noun, use an apostrophe and an s.

Like, Du Bois's essays, Rome's ancient monuments

2. To form the possessive of a plural proper noun, simply add an apostrophe.
Democrats' legislation.

For example, the Dickenses' economic woes

Nouns expressing shared possession

To form the possessive of a sequence of nouns, add a single apostrophe and a "s" indicate shared ownership. To indicate separate ownership, add an apostrophe and s after each term.

For example, Palmer and Colton's book on European history is on the syllabus.
Mom's and Dad's cars are both at the shop.

Letters

1. Use an apostrophe to form plurals of letters. For instance,

The word accommodation has two c's and two m's.
She ended her message by typing three Z's.

2. Use an apostrophe to construct the plurals of letter grades.

She got three A's this semester.
Letters referred to as letters: 2.62.

Plural abbreviations and numbers

Do not use an apostrophe to form the plural of an abbreviation or a number. Such as PhDs, 1960s, fours, TVs.

3.2.7 Quotation Marks

To quote from a source or style the title of some works, use quotation marks. They serve two more primary purposes in your writing.

1. To Flag provisional meaning

One can express doubt, criticism, or deliberate misuse of a word or phrase by putting quotation marks around it. The purpose of these quotation marks, often known as *scare quotes*, is not always obvious, thus they should be used sparingly and carefully.

For example, A silver dome concealed the robot's "brain."

Many "experts" offer advice on training babies to sleep on a schedule.

Quotation marks are not needed after 'so-called'.

Many so-called experts offer advice on training babies to sleep on a schedule.

2. To mark translations of words or phrase

When you have translated a foreign word or phrase, you should indicate it with quotation marks. Either put the translation between double quote marks and brackets, or between single quote marks and brackets.

For example,

The first idiomatic Spanish expression I learned was *irse todo en humo* as ("to go up in smoke").

The first idiomatic Spanish expression I learned was *irse todo en humo* as 'to go up in smoke.'

3.2.8 Slashes

1. The slash, or diagonal, is rarely necessary in formal prose, except between two nouns paired as opposites.

Examining fundamental binaries like good/evil, East/West, and aged/young deeply affects one's understanding of history and culture.

2. Use a hyphen rather than a slash when such a compound precedes and modifies a noun. Like 'nature-nurture conflict'

3. Slashes for co publishers

If a source lists **two or more publishers** that are equally responsible for the work, include **all of them** in the Publisher section, using a **slash (/)** to separate the names.

For example, Penguin Books / Random House.

4. Slashes for line breaks in poetry

When quoting poetry in your writing, you should indicate line breaks with a slash (/). To indicate where one line stops and the next begins when quoting two or three lines of verse while maintaining the sentence's flow, use a single slash with spaces on each side. A double slash (//) should be used to denote a stanza break.

3.2.9 Periods, Question Marks, and Exclamation

Periods, question marks, and exclamation points are possible sentence endings. Declarative sentences terminate with a period. Interrogative sentences end with question marks. In formal prose, do not use exclamation points unless specifically quoted. **Italics in Prose** Words in languages other than English are distinguished and designated as such in writing by using italics. It is best to avoid using italics for emphasis too often as it quickly loses its impact.

1. Words and phrases that are referred to as words should be italicised.

The word albatross probably derives from the Spanish and Portuguese word alcatraz.

When scholars refer to open access, they could be referring to various models of publication.

2. Letters referred to as Letters

Italicize letters referred to as letters. Example: Shaw spelled Shakespeare without the final e.

3. Foreign Words in English Texts

Italicise foreign words that are utilised in English-language texts generally.

Example: The Renaissance courtier was expected to display *sprezzatura*, or nonchalance, in the face of adversity.

However, there are some exceptions:

- If a full quote is in another language, do not italicize it.
Example: Julius Caesar said, “Veni, vidi, vici.”
- Titles of foreign poems, stories, or articles that are part of larger works should go in quotation marks, not italics.
Example: “Unidad,” a poem by Pablo Neruda.
- Proper names (like the Kremlin) are not italicized, unless they fall under another rule (like ships or planes, which are italicized).
Example: *Amistad*.
- Words from other languages that are now commonly used in English don’t need italics.
A dictionary (like Merriam-Webster) can tell you if a word is considered part of English—these words often have a label like “French phrase.”

Key takeaways

Punctuation makes writing clear by separating ideas, grouping words, and showing relationships.

- ✓ **Commas:** Used for combining independent clauses, separating coordinate adjectives, setting off parenthetical comments, after long introductions, in lists (Oxford/serial comma), and for dates and place names. Avoid between subject and verb, verb and object, compound elements, or parallel subordinate phrases. Optional after short introductions or with brief independent clauses.
- ✓ **Semicolons:** Connect independent clauses without conjunctions and separate complex list items.
- ✓ **Colons:** Introduce lists, explanations, or formal statements; do not use when the list is grammatically part of the sentence.
- ✓ **Dashes & Parentheses:** Indicate pauses, changes in thought, or extra information. Use em dash without spaces; avoid overuse.
- ✓ **Hyphens:** Join words to form compound adjectives or clarify meaning; avoid with familiar compounds, -ly adverbs, or most foreign terms.
- ✓ **Apostrophes:** Show possession, form plurals of letters or grades; do not use for plural numbers or abbreviations.

- ✓ **Quotation Marks:** For quoting, translations, or signaling provisional meaning; avoid unnecessary “scare quotes.”
- ✓ **Slashes:** Rare in formal writing; used for opposites, co-publishers, or poetry line breaks.
- ✓ **Periods, Question Marks, Exclamation Points:** Periods for statements, question marks for questions; avoid exclamation points unless quoted.
- ✓ **Italics:** For words as words, letters, foreign words, or sparing emphasis.

Check Your Progress

1. Which sentence correctly uses a comma?

- a) Wallace sings and Armstrong plays cornet.
- b) Wallace sings, and Armstrong plays cornet.

Answer: b

2. When should you use a semicolon?

- a) To join two independent clauses without a conjunction
- b) To end a sentence

Answer: a

3. Which colon usage is correct?

- a) The three assigned topics are: tennis, lenses, and mathematics.
- b) These are the three assigned topics: tennis, lenses, and mathematics.

Answer: b

4. How should an em dash be used?

- a) To join words in a compound noun
- b) To indicate a pause or set off a parenthetical element

Answer: b

5. Which sentence uses an apostrophe correctly?

- a) The Dickens's economic woes
- b) The Dickens' economic woes

Answer: b

6. How do you pluralize the letter A in formal writing?

- a) As
- b) A's

Answer: b

7. When should quotation marks be used for foreign words?

- a) Always italicize and never use quotation marks
- b) For translations of foreign words or phrases

Answer: b

3.3 Capitalization of Terms

3.3.1 English

For English-language terms, capitalize the following:

- ❖ The first letter of the first word of a sentence
- ❖ The subject pronoun I
- ❖ The names and initials of persons (except for some particles)
- ❖ The names of months of the year and days of the week
- ❖ Titles that immediately precede personal names (Senator John Smith) but not a person's title used alone (the senator, a professor of Economics)
- ❖ Proper nouns (Australia)
- ❖ Most adjectives derived from proper nouns (Indian wildlife)
- ❖ Musical notes (middle C)
- ❖ Academic grades (I got a A in statistics)

In general, lowercase generic forms of proper nouns. The United States Army, the army President Kennedy, the president The Brooklyn Bridge, the bridge The Housatonic River, the river

3.3.2 French

The following **nouns are not capitalized in French unless they start sentences or, occasionally, lines of verse**. Otherwise, French capitalization is the same as English capitalization:

- ❖ the subject **pronoun je ("I")**

- ❖ the names of **months of the year and days of the week**
- ❖ the names of languages and nationalities
- ❖ adjectives derived from proper nouns
- ❖ titles preceding personal names
- ❖ the words meaning **street, square, lake, mountain, and so on in most place-names**

Examples

Un homme m'a parlé anglais près de la place de la Concorde.

Hier j'ai vu le docteur Maurois qui conduisait une voiture Ford.

Le capitaine Boutillier m'a dit qu'il partait pour Rouen le premier jeudi d'avril avec quelques amis normands.

3.3.3 German

All nouns, including adjectives, infinitives, pronouns, prepositions, and other speech components when used as nouns, as well as the pronoun Sie ("you"), its possessive Ihr ("your"), and their inflected forms, must be capitalized in German. The terms listed below are typically not capitalized unless they start sentences or, more often, verse lines:

- ❖ the subject pronoun ich ("I")
- ❖ the names of languages and of days of the week used as adjectives, adverbs, or complements of prepositions
- ❖ adjectives and adverbs formed from proper nouns, except when the proper nouns are names of persons and the adjectives and adverbs refer to the persons' works or deeds

Examples

Meine Eltern glauben, ich verbringe den Sommer in ihrem Haus.

Er schreibt, nur um dem Auf und Ab der Buch-Nachfrage zu entsprechen.

Fahren Sie mit Ihrer Frau zurück?

Ein französischer Schriftsteller, den ich gut kenne, arbeitet sonntags immer an seinem neuen Buch über die platonische Liebe.

Der Staat ist eine der bekanntesten Platonischen Schriften.

3.3.4 Italian

Italian capitalization is similar to English in prose and verse, with the exception of capitalizing centuries and great divisions of time (el Seicento). The following nouns are not capitalized unless they begin sentences or lines of poem:

- ❖ the subject pronoun io (“I”)
- ❖ the names of months of the year and days of the week
- ❖ the names of languages and nationalities
- ❖ nouns, adjectives, and adverbs derived from proper nouns
- ❖ titles preceding personal names
- ❖ words meaning street, square, and so on in most place-names

Examples

Un italiano parlava francese con uno svizzero in piazza di Spagna.

Il dottor Bruno ritornerà dall'Italia giovedì otto agosto e io partirò il nove.

3.3.5 Spanish

Spanish capitalization is similar to English in prose and verse. However, the following terms are not capitalized in Spanish unless they start a sentence or line of verse:

- ❖ the subject pronoun yo (“I”)
- ❖ the names of months of the year and days of the week
- ❖ the names of languages and nationalities
- ❖ nouns and adjectives derived from proper nouns
- ❖ titles preceding personal names
- ❖ the words meaning street, square, and so on in most place-names

Examples

El francés hablaba inglés en la plaza Colón.

Ayer yo vi al doctor García en un coche Ford.

Me dijo don Jorge que iba a salir para Sevilla el primer martes de abril con unos amigos neoyorquinos.

3.3.6 Latin

Latin generally follows English capitalization norms, with the exception of ego (“I”), which is not capitalized.

Examples

Semper ego auditor tantum? Numquamne reponam / Vexatus totiens rauci Theseide Cordi?

Quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes. Nil desperandum.

Quo usque tandem abutere, Catilina, patientia nostra?

Key takeaways

1. English

- ✓ Capitalize the first word of a sentence, the pronoun *I*, names of people, months, days, titles before names, proper nouns, adjectives from proper nouns, musical notes, and academic grades.
- ✓ Do not capitalize generic forms of proper nouns (e.g., *the president*, *the bridge*).

2. French

- ✓ Only capitalize the first word of a sentence.
- ✓ Do not capitalize *je* ("I"), months, days, languages, nationalities, adjectives from proper nouns, or titles before names.
- ✓ Common words in place names remain lowercase.

3. German

- ✓ All nouns are capitalized, including adjectives and other parts of speech when used as nouns.
- ✓ *Sie* ("you") and *Ihr* ("your") are always capitalized.
- ✓ Do not capitalize *ich* or days/languages used as adjectives/adverbs.

4. Italian

- ✓ Similar to English.
- ✓ Centuries (e.g., *el Seicento*) are capitalized.
- ✓ Do not capitalize *io* ("I"), months, days, languages, nationalities, or adjectives from proper nouns.
- ✓ Spanish
- ✓ Similar to English.

- ✓ Do not capitalize *yo* ("I"), months, days, languages, nationalities, adjectives from proper nouns, or titles before names.

6. Latin

- ✓ Follows English rules but does not capitalize *ego* ("I").

Check Your Progress

1. In English, which of the following is capitalized?
 - a) common nouns
 - b) months of the year
 - c) seasons
 - d) prepositions

Answer: b) months of the year

2. In French, which word is not capitalized?
 - a) Maurois
 - b) je
 - c) place de la Concorde
 - d) April

Answer: b) je

3. In German, which of the following is always capitalized?
 - a) ich
 - b) sie
 - c) Sie
 - d) er

Answer: c) Sie

4. In Italian, which of the following is capitalized?
 - a) months of the year
 - b) io
 - c) centuries like *el Seicento*
 - d) nationalities

Answer: c) centuries like *el Seicento*

5. In Latin, the pronoun *ego* is:
- a) always capitalized
 - b) never capitalized
 - c) capitalized at sentence start
 - d) capitalized in titles only
- Answer:** b) never capitalized

3.4 Names of Persons

3.4.1 First Uses of Personal Names

When mentioning a name for the first time in writing, use the full form. After the first mention, only the last name should be used in later references.

Example:

First mention: *Henry Louis Gates, Jr.*

Later mention: *Gates*

There are exceptions to this rule. Some very well-known people are commonly referred to by **surname only**, even on first mention.

Cervantes or *Shakespeare* (no need to say *Miguel de Cervantes* or *William Shakespeare*)

Other names are very long and rarely used in full.

Hegel instead of *Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel*

Sometimes, the person is better known by their **first name**.

Dante instead of *Dante Alighieri*

Deciding whether to use the full name or not depends on what makes the text **clear, consistent, and fair**, especially in academic or formal contexts. Also, be mindful to avoid any appearance of **bias**.

When giving a full name, always write it **exactly as it appears** in your source, including any **suffixes, accents, or punctuation**.

Correct examples:

Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (not *Henry Louis Gates*)

Ramón del Valle-Inclán (keep the accents and hyphen)

After the full name is introduced, use only the last name unless more than one person in the text has the same surname.

Example:

First mention: *Ramón del Valle-Inclán*
Later mention: *del Valle-Inclán*

3.4.2 Surnames Used Alone**3.4.2.1 English**

- ❖ Use full names at first mention; refer to individuals by surname thereafter.

Example: "James Fenimore Cooper" becomes "Cooper";
"Walter de la Mare" becomes "de la Mare."

- ❖ Some full surnames are retained without shortening.

Example: "David Lloyd George" remains "Lloyd George."

- ❖ Retain both parts of hyphenated surnames.

Example: "Arthur Quiller-Couch" remains "Quiller-Couch."

- ❖ In French, omit "de" unless the surname is one syllable or elided.

Example: "Étienne de La Boétie" becomes "La Boétie;" "Charles de Gaulle" retains "de Gaulle."

Elided example: "Pierre d'Arcy" remains "d'Arcy."

Capitalized forms like "Des Périers" retain the full surname.

- ❖ In German, "von" is usually excluded from the surname.

Example: "Annette von Droste-Hülshoff" becomes "Droste-Hülshoff."

Exception in English contexts: "Wernher Von Braun" remains "Von Braun."

- ❖ Italian name particles are capitalized and retained.

Example: "Gabriele D'Annunzio" becomes "D'Annunzio."

- ❖ Historic families may drop the particle.

Example: "Lorenzo de' Medici" becomes "Medici."

- ❖ In Spanish, "de" is not part of the surname, but "del" is.

Example: "Salvador de Madariaga" becomes "Madariaga;" "Ángel Del Río" remains "Del Río."

- ❖ Compound names include both paternal and maternal parts

Example: "Gabriel García Márquez" becomes "García Márquez."

- ❖ Even if known by maternal name, use full surname.

Example: "Federico García Lorca" becomes "García Lorca."

- ❖ Use English forms of Roman names.

Example: "Marcus Tullius Cicero" becomes "Cicero;" "Gaius Julius Caesar" becomes "Julius Caesar."

- ❖ Asian names typically list surnames first.

Example: "Gao Xingjian" becomes "Gao;" "Haruki Murakami" becomes "Murakami."

- ❖ Premodern figures with place-based surnames use the given name.

Example: "Leonardo da Vinci" becomes "Leonardo."

- ❖ If the surname is familial, use surname.

Example: "Geoffrey Chaucer" becomes "Chaucer."

- ❖ Use accepted romanization standards for non-Latin scripts.

Example: "Ahmad al-Rahuni" follows romanization conventions.

- ❖ Omit honorifics and titles when naming individuals.

Example: "Dr. Johnson" becomes "Samuel Johnson;" "Saint Augustine" becomes "Augustine."

- ❖ For nobility, state full title at first, then surname.

Example: "Henry Howard, earl of Surrey" becomes "Surrey."

- ❖ Include suffixes like Jr., Sr., and roman numerals with full names.

Example: "Henry Louis Gates, Jr." includes commas.

- ❖ Avoid possessives with suffixes.

- **Incorrect:** "Martin Luther King, Jr.'s legacy."
- **Correct:** "Martin Luther King, Jr., has an enduring legacy."

- ❖ Capitalize initials and hyphenated initials.

Example: "George R. R. Martin," "J.-P. Sartre."

- ❖ Initialisms: "JFK" is fully abbreviated.

- ❖ Follow the naming style of fictional characters as used in their texts.

Example: "Dr. Jekyll," "Harry Potter," or simply "Harry."

- ❖ Capitalize names of organizations, retain internal capitals, and spell out on first mention.

Example: "University of North Texas (UNT)" later becomes "UNT."

- ❖ Capitalize names of literary periods or movements if needed for clarity.

Example: "Harlem Renaissance," "Sturm und Drang."

- ❖ Do not capitalize genres or forms.

Example: "ghazel," "terza rima."

3.4.2.2 Usage of Surnames in Italian, Spanish, Latin, and Asian Languages

Language	Rule/Note	Full Name	Surname Used Alone
Italian	<i>Particles like da, de, del, della, di, and d' are capitalized and treated as part of the surname.</i>	Gabriele D'Annunzio	D'Annunzio
		Lorenzo Da Ponte	Da Ponte
		Oreste Del Buono	Del Buono

Language	Rule/Note	Full Name	Surname Used Alone
		Andrea Della Robbia	Della Robbia
		Vittorio De Sica	De Sica
		Angelo Di Costanzo	Di Costanzo
Historic Italian Families	<i>The particle is lowercased in the full name but dropped when using the surname alone.</i>	Lorenzo de' Medici	Medici
Spanish	<i>The particle de is not part of the surname.</i>	Salvador de Madariaga	Madariaga
		Lope de Rueda	Rueda
		Juan de Timoneda	Timoneda
Spanish (del)	<i>The particle del (from de + el) is capitalized and treated as part of the surname.</i>	Ángel Del Río	Del Río
Spanish (Double Surnames)	<i>May include both paternal and maternal names, with or without "y" (and).</i>	Juan Carreño de Miranda	Carreño de Miranda
		Gabriel García Márquez	García Márquez
		Pero López de Ayala	López de Ayala
		Ana María Matute	Matute
		José Ortega y Gasset	Ortega y Gasset
		María de Zayas y Sotomayor	Zayas y Sotomayor
Spanish (Common Usage)	<i>Even if authors are known by maternal surnames, use the full surname when shortening.</i>	Federico García Lorca	García Lorca
		Benito Pérez Galdós	Pérez Galdós

Language	Rule/Note	Full Name	Surname Used Alone
Latin	<i>Use the most common English form of Roman names.</i>	Marcus Tullius Cicero	Cicero
		Quintus Horatius Flaccus	Horace
		Gaius Julius Caesar	Julius Caesar
		Titus Livius	Livy
		Publius Ovidius Naso	Ovid
		Publius Vergilius Maro	Virgil
Medieval/Renaissance (Latinized)	<i>Some are best known by their Latin names.</i>	Albertus Magnus	Albert von Bollstädt
		Copernicus	Mikołaj Kopernik
Asian Languages	<i>In Chinese, Japanese, Korean, etc., the surname usually comes first.</i>	Gao Xingjian	Gao
		Ariyoshi Sawako	Ariyoshi
		Yi Mun-yol	Yi
Note: Some Asian names may follow Western order (surname last).			

3.4.2.3 Surnames and Names in Other Languages and Contexts

1. Asian Names

In Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and many Asian languages, the **surname comes first**. However, some writers use the Western order (surname last).

Full Name	Surname Used Alone
Haruki Murakami	Murakami
Gao Xingjian	Gao
Ariyoshi Sawako	Ariyoshi
Yi Mun-yol	Yi

2. Premodern Names (Middle Ages and Renaissance)

Many people from these periods are known **by their first name**, because their surnames often come from places. Use the **given name** after the first mention.

Full Name	Given Name Used Alone
Christine de Pizan	Christine
Geoffrey of Monmouth	Geoffrey
Leonardo da Vinci	Leonardo

However, if the **surname is a family name**, use it after the full name is first mentioned.

Full Name	Surname Used Alone
Giovanni Boccaccio	Boccaccio
Geoffrey Chaucer	Chaucer
Jean Froissart	Froissart

Always check reference books to confirm correct usage.

3. Transliterated Names

When names are from languages **not using the Latin alphabet** (like Arabic, Chinese, or Russian), they are **romanized** — written as they sound in English.

Example:

- Arabic → *Ahmad al-Rahuni*
- Spanish place → *al-Andalus*

If unsure, check the **Library of Congress Romanization Tables**

4. Titles with Personal Names

Usually, **omit titles** such as Mrs., Dr., Professor, Sir, etc., in your writing.

Just use the name itself.

Incorrect	Correct
Saint Augustine	Augustine
Dr. Samuel Johnson	Samuel Johnson
Sir Philip Sidney	Philip Sidney

For Nobility:

- *Henry Howard, earl of Surrey* → use **Surrey** after first mention.
- *Benjamin Disraeli, first earl of Beaconsfield* → use **Disraeli** after first mention.

Follow how the name appears in trusted sources.

5. Suffixes with Personal Names

Suffixes like *Jr.*, *Sr.*, or Roman numerals (II, IV) are **part of the name** and must be included.

Correct Usage	Example
With Roman numeral (no comma)	John D. Rockefeller IV

Correct Usage	Example
With Jr. or Sr. (comma before and after)	Henry Louis Gates, Jr.
When followed by other words	Joseph Robinette Biden, Jr., became president.

Instead, write it correctly as:

“Martin Luther King, Jr., has an enduring legacy.”

Here, the commas correctly set off *Jr.* as a parenthetical element, and the possessive form is avoided for clarity.

6. Given Names and Personal Initials

Capitalize all initials and names. Use a **period and a space** after each initial.

Full Name	With Initials
Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie	—
George R. R. Martin	G. R. R. Martin
Octavia E. Butler	O. E. Butler
V. S. Naipaul	V. S. Naipaul
Jean-Paul Sartre	J.-P. Sartre

Keep the hyphen when using initials (e.g., *J.-P.* for *Jean-Paul*).

7. Names of Fictional Characters

Use the name **as it appears in the story**. Titles may be kept if the work uses them.

Full Name in Work	How to Refer
Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde	Dr. Jekyll

Full Name in Work	How to Refer
Harry Potter	Harry or Harry Potter
Madame Defarge (<i>A Tale of Two Cities</i>)	Madame Defarge

8. Names of Organizations and Groups

Capitalize the **official names** of organizations, companies, or institutions. Do **not capitalize articles** (a, an, the) unless they are part of the name.

Example in Sentence	Rule Applied
The study was conducted by the Pew Research Center .	Official name capitalized.
He studied at the Bibliothèque Nationale .	Retain original name.
Our teacher spoke before the Fondo de Cultura Económica .	Original capitalization kept.
The university houses YouTube archives .	Internal capital kept.

If the organization is mentioned often, you may abbreviate it **after the first full mention**.

Example:

The **University of North Texas (UNT)** is a research university.
Later references can use **UNT**.

9. Names of Literary Periods and Cultural Movements

Capitalize the name only if it refers to a **specific movement** or **period**. Do **not capitalize** when used as a general term.

Correct Capitalization	Notes
Frankfurt school	“school” not capitalized
New Criticism	Specific movement

Correct Capitalization	Notes
Harlem Renaissance	Proper noun capitalized
Romanticism	Specific literary period
modernism	Generic term, lowercase
Risorgimento	Proper noun (Italian period)
Négritude movement	Proper noun with lowercase “movement”
Sturm und Drang	German cultural movement
magical realism	Literary genre, lowercase
ghazel	Poetic form, lowercase
terza rima	Verse form, lowercase

Key Takeaways

When mentioning a person’s name for the first time, use the full form (e.g., *Henry Louis Gates, Jr.*). Later references should use only the surname (*Gates*). However, some famous figures (like *Shakespeare* or *Dante*) may be referred to by one name only. Always write names exactly as they appear in the source, including accents and punctuation.

Different languages follow specific rules for surnames:

- **English:** Use surnames after the first mention (e.g., *Cooper, de la Mare*).
- **Italian:** Particles like *De*, *Di*, or *D’* are capitalized and kept (e.g., *Gabriele D’Annunzio* → *D’Annunzio*).
- **Spanish:** *De* is not part of the surname, but *Del* is (e.g., *Ángel Del Río* → *Del Río*).
- **Latin:** Use the most common English form (*Cicero, Virgil*).
- **Asian names:** Surname comes first (*Gao Xingjian* → *Gao*).
- **Premodern names:** Often known by given name (*Leonardo da Vinci* → *Leonardo*).

- **Suffixes:** Use commas with *Jr.* or *Sr.* (*Henry Louis Gates, Jr., has an enduring legacy*).
- **Omit titles** like *Dr.*, *Saint*, *Sir* in general writing.
- **Organizations:** Capitalize full official names; abbreviate after first mention (*University of North Texas (UNT) → UNT*).
- **Literary periods:** Capitalize specific movements (*Harlem Renaissance*), not general terms (*modernism*).

Check Your Progress

1. How should a person's name be written at first mention?
 - a) Only the surname
 - b) Only the initials
 - c) Full name**
 - d) Nickname
2. After the first mention, how should a name appear?
 - a) Initials only
 - b) Surname only**
 - c) Full name again
 - d) Abbreviated form
3. Which of the following is correct?
 - a) Martin Luther King, Jr.'s legacy
 - b) Martin Luther King, Jr., has an enduring legacy**
 - c) Martin Luther King Jr's legacy
 - d) Martin Luther King Jr, has an enduring legacy
4. In Spanish names, which particle is **not** part of the surname?
 - a) de**
 - b) del
 - c) y
 - d) la
5. Which name order is correct for Asian authors?
 - a) Surname first, given name second**

- b) Given name first, surname second
 - c) Only surname
 - d) Only given name
6. How should titles like “Dr.” or “Saint” be treated in MLA style?
- a) Always included
 - b) Omitted in most cases**
 - c) Used in first mention only
 - d) Used only for saints
7. Which of the following movements should be capitalized?
- a) Harlem Renaissance**
 - b) romanticism
 - c) modernism
 - d) magical realism

3.5 Titles of Works

3.5.1 Titles of Works in Prose

When using a source’s title in your writing, take it from a reliable place such as the book’s title page, not the cover. Avoid copying special styles like writing all letters in capitals or lowercase. Use a colon (:) to separate the title and subtitle, and apply standard capitalization—capitalize the first word and all main words, but not short articles, prepositions, or conjunctions.

3.5.2 Capitalizing Titles in English

When writing the title of your own research or copying an English-language title, use **title-style capitalization**. This means you **capitalize the first and last words** and all **main words** in the title. Main words include **nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and subordinating conjunctions**. Also, capitalize the word that comes **after a hyphen** in a compound phrase.

Examples of capitalized main words:

- ❖ Nouns: *Europe’s Flowers*

- ❖ Pronouns: *Some Like It Hot*
- ❖ Verbs: *What Is Literature?*
- ❖ Adjectives: *The Ugly Duckling*
- ❖ Adverbs: *Go Down, Moses*
- ❖ Subordinating conjunctions: *Life As I Find It*

Do **not capitalize** small connecting words in the middle of the title unless they are the first or last words. These include:

- ❖ **Prepositions:** in, of, to, for, at (*The Artist as Critic*)
- ❖ **Coordinating conjunctions:** and, but, or, so, yet (*Romeo and Juliet*)
- ❖ **Articles:** a, an, the (*Under the Bamboo Tree*)
- ❖ **“to”** in infinitives (*How to Play Chess*)

Begin a **subtitle** with a capital letter. If a hyphenated prefix is listed in the dictionary as one word, do **not capitalize** the second part.

For untitled works like poems or letters, use the **first line or full text** as the title exactly as it appears in the source.

Examples:

- ❖ Untitled poem: first line “*O my Luve is like a red, red rose*”
- ❖ Untitled letter: first sentence “*Dear Sir, I hope this finds you well.*”

3.5.3 Punctuation and Formatting of Titles

1. Serial Commas

A serial comma is employed before the final item in a list within a title when the title page specifies its use. If the title page does not indicate a comma, it should be omitted. Additionally, any ampersand (&) present in the title should be replaced with the word *and*, accompanied by a serial comma, to enhance clarity.

Examples

- ❖ *Research Methods in Literature, History, and Art*
- ❖ *Pride and Prejudice and Zombies*

2. Subtitles

A subtitle provides supplementary information that clarifies or extends the main title. Even if the source does not include punctuation between the title and subtitle, a **colon (:)** and a **space** should be inserted. In instances where two subtitles are present, a colon should precede each. A colon should not be used if the main title concludes with a **question mark, exclamation point, or dash**, as these punctuation marks sufficiently separate the title and subtitle.

When a title appears **within another title**, a colon should still be used to maintain clarity. If the title concludes with quotation marks, the colon should be placed **outside the quotation marks**.

Examples:

- ❖ *The History of English Literature: From Chaucer to the Present Day*
- ❖ *“The Gift of Magi”*: Women’s Discourse

3. Titles That Are Not italicized or quoted

Certain titles, although capitalized according to standard title conventions, are **not italicized or enclosed in quotation marks**. These include: scriptures, legislative documents, political acts, musical compositions identified by form, number, and key, columns or categories in periodicals or websites, formal or informal series, conferences, courses, workshops, events, and divisions of a work.

Examples:

- ❖ *Fondo de Cultura Económica*
- ❖ *Bibliothèque Nationale*

This convention ensures that such titles are distinguished from titles of books, poems, or articles.

4. Titles Within Titles

When a title appears within another title, the formatting of the internal title depends upon the style of the surrounding title:

- **Surrounding title in quotation marks:** Internal titles should remain italicized if normally italicized. If the internal title is also presented in quotation marks, **single quotation marks** should be employed to distinguish it from the surrounding title.

Examples:

- ❖ “Identity Crisis in Anita Nair’s *Ladies Coupe*”
- ❖ “‘The Gift of Magi’ and Women’s Discourse”
- **Surrounding title in italics:** Internal titles that are normally in quotation marks should retain quotation marks. Internal titles that are normally italicized should be converted to roman type to maintain contrast with the surrounding italics.

Examples:

- *Silent Souls and Other Stories*
- *Approaches to Teaching Murasaki Shikibu’s The Tale of Genji*
- **Surrounding title with no formatting:** Titles that are normally italicized should be italicized, and titles normally enclosed in quotation marks should retain quotation marks.

Examples:

- ❖ *Romeo and Juliet and Renaissance Politics*
- ❖ *Language and Childbirth in The Awakening*
- ❖ *Lines after Reading “Sailing to Byzantium”*
- ❖ *The Uncanny Theology of “A Good Man Is Hard to Find”*

This practice ensures the internal title is visually distinct and clearly identifiable within the surrounding title.

5. Quotations within Titles

Quotations appearing within English-language titles should be capitalized according to standard title conventions. Titles composed entirely of a quotation should also follow title capitalization rules. For quotations within titles that are already enclosed in double quotation marks, **single quotation marks** should be used.

Examples:

- ❖ “‘Mind’s Internal Heaven’: Wordsworth’s Fair Region”
- ❖ “Full of Fire and Greedy Hardiment: Youth and Coming of Age in *The Faerie Queene*”

In cases where the first line of an untitled poem is used as its title, the capitalization should match the original text to preserve the author’s intended style.

Example:

Wordsworth’s Vision in the Lyric ‘Most sweet it is with unuplifted eyes’.

Key Takeaways

- ✓ Take titles from the **title page**, not the cover.
- ✓ Use **title case**: capitalize first, last, and main words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns).
- ✓ Don’t capitalize **articles**, **prepositions**, or **coordinating conjunctions** (unless first/last word).
- ✓ Separate title and subtitle with a **colon (:)**.
- ✓ Use **first line** as title for untitled works (keep original capitalization).
- ✓ Replace **&** with **“and.”**
- ✓ Some names (e.g., scriptures, organizations, acts) are **not italicized or quoted**.
- ✓ **Titles within titles:**
 - Outer in quotes → inner italicized.
 - Outer italicized → inner in roman type.
- ✓ **Quotations in titles:** use **single quotes** inside **double quotes**.

Check Your Progress

1. From where should a title be taken when citing a book?
 - a) The book cover
 - b) The title page**
 - c) The table of contents
 - d) The introduction
2. Which of the following is capitalized in MLA title style?
 - a) Prepositions like *of* and *in*
 - b) Verbs and nouns**
 - c) Articles like *the* and *a*
 - d) Conjunctions like *and*
3. Which punctuation separates a title from its subtitle?
 - a) Colon (:)**
 - b) Semicolon (;)
 - c) Dash (–)
 - d) Comma (,)
4. Which of these should NOT be italicized or quoted?
 - a) Names of organizations or laws**
 - b) Titles of poems
 - c) Titles of books
 - d) Titles of plays
5. How should “&” be written in titles?
 - a) Replace it with ‘and’**
 - b) Keep it as it is
 - c) Remove it completely
 - d) Replace it with a comma
6. When a poem’s first line is used as a title, how should it appear?
 - a) With the original capitalization preserved**
 - b) In all lowercase
 - c) In title case
 - d) In all uppercase

7. If a title ends with a question mark, how should the subtitle be separated?
- a) **Without a colon**
 - b) With a colon
 - c) With a semicolon
 - d) With a dash
8. How should titles within italicized titles be formatted?
- a) **In roman type (non-italic)**
 - b) In bold
 - c) In uppercase
 - d) In quotation marks

3.6 Numbers

3.6.1 Use of Numerals or words

If a number appears in a discussion in a few words or less, spell out the numbers.

- ❖ one
- ❖ one hundred
- ❖ two-thirds
- ❖ thirty-six

When more than two words are required, use numerals. Arabic numerals are the most widely used representation of non-spelled numbers (1, 2, 3).

- ❖ 2½
- ❖ 101
- ❖ 1,275

3.6.2 Number – heavy contexts

In discussions where numbers appear frequently, such as reports of experimental data, use numerals for all numbers that precede units of measurement and to express ratios.

- ❖ 5 kilograms

In such contexts, express related numbers in the same style. Thus, use numerals for numbers usually spelled out if they appear alongside numbers that must be expressed as numerals.

- ❖ only 5 of 250 delegates
- ❖ exactly 3 ships and 129 trucks

3.6.3 Street Addresses

For numbered streets, use ordinal numbers instead of formatting the suffix (such as -nd, -rd, -th, or -st) in the superscript.

3.6.4 Decimal fractions

When given fractions as decimals, represent them using numerals.

Percentages and amounts of money If you can express a percentage or a sum of money in three words or less, do so when having a discussion that involves rare usage of figures. When using more than three words, use numerals with symbols.

- ❖ \$5.35
- ❖ \$970
- ❖ 48.5%

3.6.5 Commas in Numbers

It is customary to place commas without a space between the third and fourth numbers from the right, the sixth and seventh, and so on.

- ❖ 1,432
- ❖ 20,230
- ❖ 7,854,321

Street addresses, four-digit years, and page and line numbers do not use commas.

3.6.6 Dates and Times

Do not shorten dates in the body of your essay. Use numerals to express numbers and be consistent when using the month-day-year or day-month-year method.

- ❖ 5 April 2022
- ❖ April 5, 2022

Use just the day-month-year Style for works cited list entries. In writing, the month-day-year format requires a comma after the year unless there is another punctuation mark following it.

- ❖ On April 10, 1940, Clareece Spector was born.
- ❖ Clareece Spector was born on April 10, 1940.

There is no need to use comma to separate a year from a season.

- ❖ National Poetry Month was started in April 1996 by the Poetry Foundation.
- ❖ The seminar on modernist poetry was last offered in spring 2019.

One can write out or express decades using numbers. In your prose, stick to one style consistently.

- ❖ The nineties
- ❖ The 1940s

Put the letters —centuriesll in lowercase.

- ❖ The nineteenth century

In prose and other written language, eras are shortened as follows: AH (anno Hegirae, meaning —in the year of Hegirall), BC (—before Christll), BCE (—before the common erall), and CE (—common erall). AD and AH come before the year, whereas the acronyms BC, BCE, and CE come after it.

- ❖ 12 BC
- ❖ AD 545
- ❖ AH 652

For the most part of the day, numerals are used. In prose, you should generally utilise the 12-hour clock system.

- ❖ 2:00 p.m.

3.6.7 Number Ranges

Give the second number, up to ninety-nine, in full within a range of numerals.

- ❖ 2-3
- 21-48

If more digits are required for clarity, only include the final two of the second numeral for greater values.

- ❖ 96-101
- ❖ 102-04
- ❖ 395-401
- ❖ 923-1,003
- ❖ 1,003-05
- ❖ 1,608-774

Ranges for roman numerals must be provided in whole.

- ❖ ii-iii
- ❖ x-xii

❖ xxi-xlvi

Key Takeaways

- ✓ **Spell out** short numbers (one, thirty-six); use **numerals** for long ones (101, 1,275).
- ✓ In **number-heavy texts**, use **numerals** for all measurements and ratios (5 kg, 3 ships).
- ✓ **Street names:** write *10th Street* (no superscript).
- ✓ **Decimals, money, %:** use numerals (48.5%, \$5.35).
- ✓ **Commas:** every three digits (7,854,321), not in years or pages.
- ✓ **Dates:** write fully (5 April 2022 / April 5, 2022); keep one style.
- ✓ **Centuries:** lowercase (nineteenth century).
- ✓ **Eras:** AD, AH before year; BC, BCE, CE after (AD 545, 12 BC).
- ✓ **Time:** use numerals, 12-hour format (2:00 p.m.).
- ✓ **Ranges:**
 - Below 100: 21–48
 - Above 100: 395–401, 923–1,003
 - Roman: x–xii
- ✓ **Spell out** short numbers (one, thirty-six); use **numerals** for long ones (101, 1,275).
- ✓ In **number-heavy texts**, use **numerals** for all measurements and ratios (5 kg, 3 ships).
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- ✓ **Eras:** AD, AH before year; BC, BCE, CE after (AD 545, 12 BC).
- ✓ **Time:** use numerals, 12-hour format (2:00 p.m.).
- ✓ **Ranges:**
 - Below 100: 21–48
 - Above 100: 395–401, 923–1,003

- Roman: x–xii

Check Your Progress

1. Numbers that can be written in a few words should be:
 - a) Written as numerals
 - b) Written in words**
 - c) Written in Roman numerals
 - d) Omitted
2. Which number form is correct according to MLA style?
 - a) One thousand, two hundred seventy-five
 - b) 1.275
 - c) 1,275**
 - d) 1275,0
3. In number-heavy contexts, numbers should be:
 - a) Spelled out
 - b) Written in Roman numerals
 - c) Written as numerals**
 - d) Written in words and numerals both
4. Which of the following uses commas correctly?
 - a) 7854321
 - b) 7,854,321**
 - c) 7 854 321
 - d) 7-854-321
5. Which date is correctly written in MLA style?
 - a) 05/04/22
 - b) 5 April 2022**
 - c) April/5/2022
 - d) 2022, April 5th
6. Which of the following is *not* written with a comma?
 - a) 7,000
 - b) 2,350
 - c) 2024**
 - d) 1,250

7. How are centuries written in MLA style?
- a) The Nineteenth Century
 - b) The nineteenth century**
 - c) 19th Century
 - d) nineteenth Century
8. Which is correctly punctuated for an era?
- a) BC 12
 - b) 12 BC**
 - c) 12, BC
 - d) BCE 12
9. Which is the correct time format?
- a) 14:00 hrs
 - b) 2:00 p.m.**
 - c) 2 p.m
 - d) 02.00 PM
10. Which range follows MLA rules?
- a) 395–401**
 - b) 395–01
 - c) 395–400–1
 - d) 395:401

3.7 Principles of Inclusive Language

Inclusive language tries to respect others by sensitively articulating individual and group identities and avoiding biases that may make some feel excluded. Writers that strive for linguistic inclusivity understand that their audience consists of people from a variety of backgrounds and experiences, some of which are intersectional.

The following principles guide writers in using inclusive language that considers color, religion, gender, sexual orientation, ability, age, and socioeconomic background. Although these rules are generic, writers should use their discretion when selecting inclusive language, taking into account the context and audience.

3.7.1 Make references to identity relevant

Consider whether terms such as ethnicity, religion, gender, sexual orientation, disability, age, or economic status are relevant to the context. Including such information

(e.g., African American congresswoman, female conductor, transgender actor) may suggest that the subject is outside the norm.

Gender-specific phrases can be modified for neutrality, such as using "human-made" instead of "man-made." Avoid using "man" to refer to human beings, humanity, or people.

Gender-specific terminology, such as Latino or Latina, are appropriate for individuals of known gender. However, a non-specific term, such as Latinx, is more inclusive in describing people of uncertain gender or mixed gender. Avoid using gender-specific phrases (e.g., poetess, policeman) to describe individuals.

3.7.2 Be precise

Broad phrases applied to varied people may necessitate greater detail. To avoid confusion, avoid using phrases like "Muslim community" and "Native American language." Instead, use specific terms, such as Sunni Muslims in India or Chinookan languages.

Avoid making broad assumptions about group identities to prevent stereotypes from being perpetuated. Try changing a phrase like "Jews believe..." to "A Jewish belief is..." or specifying the Jewish community to which you are referring. Avoid making generalizations that imply readers understand what concepts or texts are referred to by religious words (for example, God, scripture).

3.7.3 Choose terms of identity that respect your subject

Using people-first language—such as "a person with diabetes," "a person on probation," or "a person with autism"—emphasizes the individual rather than defining them solely by one characteristic. In contrast, identity-first language—like "a queer person" or "an autistic person"—places the identity at the forefront. Some individuals or communities intentionally choose identity-first language as a way to assert and embrace their identity. Both approaches are widely recognized and valid, but it's important to respect and use the terminology preferred by the person or group whenever that preference is known.

3.7.4 Be thoughtful about capitalization and styling.

The dictionary capitalizes identity-related phrases derived from proper nouns, such as Egyptian, Mormon, yet bisexual, and retiree. When a dictionary has both capitalized and lowercase forms, choose the appropriate one to maintain consistency. When a dictionary specifies which form is more usually used, like Merriam-Webster does for Black, use the more common form. However, whether working directly with an author or discussing a person or community with established preferences, stick to those preferences. Some writers use Deaf to refer to the Deaf community and culture, while others use it to refer to hearing loss. Culturally Deaf individuals may prefer the term Deaf.

Avoid using language or punctuation that undermines a subject's identity. For example, do not quote or italicize words used to define a person's or group's identity, or to indicate a transgender person's chosen name or pronoun, even if the terms are neologisms (not yet in the dictionary).

3.7.5 Minimize pronouns that exclude

Writers who want to use inclusive language often try to avoid using only "he" or "she" when referring to people in general. One good way to do this is by making the subject plural or removing gendered pronouns altogether. For example, instead of saying, "*When a student studies abroad, he or she improves his or her language skills,*" you can say, "*When students study abroad, they improve their language skills,*" or "*Studying abroad helps improve language skills, especially when English is avoided.*" These options are more inclusive and do not assume the person's gender.

Some people prefer using **they/them** pronouns to describe themselves. If a person's pronouns are known, you should always use them. For instance, "*Jules is writing their research paper on Jane Austen's Persuasion.*"* In this case, "their" is used instead of "his" or "her" because that's Jules's preferred pronoun.

Even when you don't know someone's gender, it's okay to use **they**. For example: "*Each employee must submit their report by Friday,*" or "*The winner will be*

notified so they can receive their prize." These uses of "they" are now widely accepted, even in formal writing, because they help avoid assuming someone's gender.

It is also important not to assume that your audience shares your background, beliefs, or culture. For example, saying, *"In our society, we value independence above all,"* may not include everyone. A better version would be, *"Many people in this society value independence,"* which avoids assuming all readers are the same.

Inclusive language helps everyone feel respected and seen. By choosing words carefully, using correct pronouns, and avoiding generalizations, writers can communicate more clearly and respectfully.

3.7.6 Avoid negatively judging others' experiences

When writing about someone with a disability, health condition, or trauma, avoid using terms like "suffers from," "afflicted with," "prisoner of," or "victim of." Even while such language is acceptable in some situations, it may conjure up false feelings or images. When describing someone who uses a wheelchair, avoid using terms like "wheelchair-bound" or "confined to a wheelchair," as these can make assumptions about their experiences.

3.7.7 Use a dictionary to check for offensive terms

If you are unsure about using a term, consult a modern dictionary. An updated dictionary will indicate offensive or problematic terms (Keep in mind that language is constantly changing; the connotations of words and phrases shift over time.) When discussing a work, avoid using offensive terms as your own words. When quoting from a source, include an annotation indicating the offensive aspect of the term. To prevent completely replicating a term, put a dash after the first letter. A polite alternative may be available for use in the debate (for example, if you cite from historical texts about a "Gypsy," you can use Rom in your prose).

3.7.8 Abbreviations

Abbreviations are commonly used in lists of books referenced and parenthetical citations, but not in scholarly prose. When using abbreviations in writing, utilize

approved forms found in dictionaries. Clear communication is more vital than maximizing space. If your readers are confused by the acronym, define a term.

Key takeaways

Inclusive language is respectful and unbiased. It avoids stereotypes and acknowledges people's identities fairly. Mention identity (like gender or ethnicity) only when relevant and use specific, respectful terms. Prefer *people-first* expressions (e.g., *person with a disability*) unless *identity-first* is preferred. Use *they/them* for gender neutrality and avoid assuming shared beliefs or backgrounds. Check dictionaries for correct capitalization (e.g., *Black, Deaf*) and avoid offensive or outdated words. Abbreviations should be standard, clear, and defined if needed.

Check Your Progress

1. Inclusive language aims to:

- a) Use complex vocabulary
- b) Respect and include all identities**
- c) Follow only grammatical rules
- d) Avoid long sentences

2. Mentioning a person's identity (like race or gender) is acceptable only when:

- a) It sounds impressive
- b) It is relevant to the context**
- c) The writer prefers it
- d) It fits the sentence rhythm

3. Which phrase follows inclusive writing?

- a) Man-made materials
- b) Human-made materials**
- c) Mankind's progress
- d) The common man

4. People-first language emphasizes:
- a) The condition first
 - b) The individual first**
 - c) The group identity
 - d) The background
5. Which is a correct inclusive expression?
- a) The disabled man
 - b) A person with a disability**
 - c) A handicapped person
 - d) A victim of disability
6. Which pronoun use is most inclusive?
- a) Each student must bring his notebook.
 - b) Each student must bring their notebook.**
 - c) Each student must bring his or her notebook.
 - d) Each student must bring the notebook of him.
7. Which sentence avoids stereotyping?
- a) Muslims are very religious.
 - b) A Muslim belief is that...**
 - c) Jews believe...
 - d) Christians always...
8. Which capitalization rule is correct?
- a) Always lowercase *black*
 - b) Follow dictionary preference for *Black***
 - c) Always capitalize *bisexual*
 - d) Capitalize *retiree* and *deaf* in all cases
9. Which phrase should be avoided?
- a) A person who uses a wheelchair
 - b) confined to a wheelchair**
 - c) A person with limited mobility
 - d) Someone using mobility aids

10. When quoting an offensive term, MLA suggests:

- a) Writing it fully for accuracy
- b) Omitting it completely
- c) Adding a dash after the first letter**
- d) Replacing it without mention

Unit Summary

The **Mechanics of Prose** refers to the foundational rules and conventions that ensure clarity, consistency, and precision in academic writing. This includes proper spelling, punctuation, capitalization, formatting of names and titles, writing numbers correctly, using inclusive language, and applying standard abbreviations. Mastering these elements is essential for clear communication and adherence to academic standards.

Topic	Guideline	Examples
General Rule	Use abbreviations mainly in citations, not prose. Spell out terms if unclear.	Use <i>e.g.</i> not <i>ex.</i> , <i>etc.</i> not <i>and so forth</i>
Capital Abbreviations	Do not use periods or spaces in abbreviations made of capital letters.	AD, BC, BCE, CE, DVD, NJ, PhD, US
Person's Initials	Use a period and space after each initial unless using only initials.	J. R. R. Tolkien, JFK
Lowercase Abbreviations	Abbreviations ending in lowercase letters should end with a period.	ed., pp., vol.
Abbreviated Phrases	Use a period between each lowercase letter representing a word, no spaces.	a.m., p.m., e.g., i.e.
Common Academic Abbreviations	Used in citations; add 's' for plural unless otherwise noted.	bk., ch., col., def., ed., e.g., et al., fig., pp., trans., UP, vol.
Months	Abbreviate months longer than four letters in citations.	Jan., Feb., Mar., Apr., Aug., Sept., Oct., Nov., Dec.
Bible Book Abbreviations	Use standard abbreviations in citations.	Gen., Exod., Lev., Num., Deut., Ps., Matt., John, Rom., 1 Cor., Rev.
Chaucer Abbreviations	Use specific short forms for Chaucer's works in citations.	CT (Canterbury Tales), GP (General Prologue), MiIT (Miller's Tale), WBT (Wife of Bath's Tale)
Shakespeare Abbreviations	Use play title-based abbreviations for citations.	Ham. (Hamlet), Mac. (Macbeth), Rom. (Romeo and Juliet), 1H4 (Henry IV, Part 1), TN (Twelfth Night), JC (Julius Caesar)
Abbreviating Titles	Use known abbreviations or base on syllables/initials.	Aen. (Aeneid), Be (Beloved), CO (Cherry Orchard), DQ (Don Quixote), MD (Moby-Dick), RJ (Return of the

		Jedi), SW (Star Wars), VRW (Vindication of Rights of Woman)
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Glossary of Key Terms

Term	Definition
Homophones	Words that sound alike but have different meanings/spellings (e.g., pair/pear).
Ellipsis (...)	A punctuation mark indicating omission or pause.
Title Case	Capitalizing the first and important words in a title.
Inclusive Language	Language that avoids exclusion or bias.
Abbreviation	A shortened form of a word or phrase.

Self-Assessment Questions

Short Answer (2 Marks)

1. Define punctuation and explain its role in sentence clarity.
2. What is the rule for capitalizing the names of persons?
3. When should a title be italicized?
4. Write two examples of gender-inclusive language.
5. How are abbreviations introduced in academic writing?

Long Answer (5 Marks)

1. Differentiate between American and British spelling conventions with examples.
2. Explain the appropriate use of numbers in academic writing.
3. List five common punctuation marks and describe their functions.
4. Describe the principles of inclusive language with examples.

Long Essay Questions (8–10 Marks)

1. Discuss the importance of proper punctuation, capitalization, and spelling in academic prose.
2. Evaluate how inclusive language affects scholarly writing and communication.
3. Examine the conventions for using abbreviations and formatting titles in MLA or APA style.

Suggested Readings and References

1. **MLA Handbook** (9th Edition) – Modern Language Association.
2. **The Elements of Style** by Strunk and White.
3. **A Writer's Reference** by Diana Hacker.
4. **Chicago Manual of Style** – University of Chicago Press.
5. **Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers** – Snooks & Co.
6. **Purdue OWL** – <https://owl.purdue.edu> (Open resource for writing and forma

Open Source E-Content Links

1. Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL) – MLA Formatting and Style Guide

https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/mla_style/mla_style_introduction.html. *Comprehensive guide on MLA 9th edition, covering punctuation, capitalization, numbers, and inclusive language.*

2. MLA Style Center – Official Resources

<https://style.mla.org/>. *Official website by the Modern Language Association with examples, FAQs, and style updates.*

3. Modern Language Association – Inclusive Language Guidelines

<https://style.mla.org/inclusive-language/>. *Detailed principles and examples for writing inclusively and respectfully.*

4. Grammarly Handbook – Grammar and Punctuation Rules

<https://www.grammarly.com/blog/>. *Free articles and tips on spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and stylistic precision.*

5. British Council – Learn English Grammar and Writing Skills

<https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/grammar>. *Interactive grammar and spelling practice with examples in British English.*

6. University of Manchester Academic Phrase bank

<https://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/>. *Useful for academic writing structure, sentence variety, and stylistic correctness.*

7. Oxford Learner's Dictionaries Online

<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>

Unit IV

Formatting Research Project

4.1 Introduction

Many instructors and educational institutions use these rules to make sure that all manuscripts are formatted in a similar manner. This makes it easier for teachers to grade papers and theses and for writers to focus on making choices about their research, ideas, and writing. These guidelines are based on usual practices, but there are acceptable exceptions. If you are asked to use a different set of formatting rules, do what your teachers, school, or editor tell you to do. You should also pay attention to what your project needs. It might have its own specifications that suggest you need to use a different style of writing than what is described below.

4.2 Margins

Leave one-inch margins at the top, bottom, and on both sides of the text.

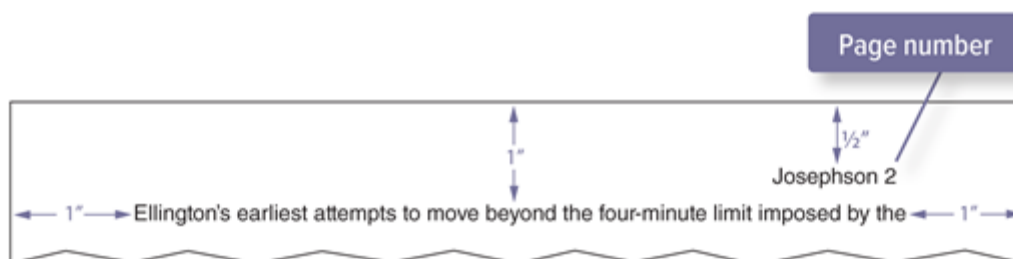


Figure 1 - for margins used with a running head.

4.3 Text Formatting

Always use an easily readable typeface (Times New Roman is one option) with a regular type style that contrasts clearly with the italic, and set the font size to anywhere between 11 and 13 points, unless your instructor advises otherwise. Generally, use the same typeface and size across the paper. Do not justify the lines of text at the right margin, and disable your word processor's automatic hyphenation feature. It isn't necessary to split words at the end of lines in a text. (When examining word breaks in professionally typeset material, reference your dictionary to see where words should

break.) Double-space your whole research paper, including quotations, notes, and a list of works cited. Indent the first line of a paragraph 1/2 inch from the left margin. Indent block quotations by half an inch as well. Unless your instructor requests two spaces, leave one space after a period or other last punctuation mark.

4.4 Title

On separate double-spaced lines, type your name, your instructor's name (or instructors' names, if there are multiple instructors), the course name and number, and the date, located one inch from the top of the first page and aligned with the left margin. Center the title on a new double-spaced line (see fig. 1.1). Do not italicize or underline your title, use quotation marks or boldface, or type it entirely in capital letters. Adhere to the capitalization guidelines outlined in 2.90 and capitalize only the words that are italicized in the text.

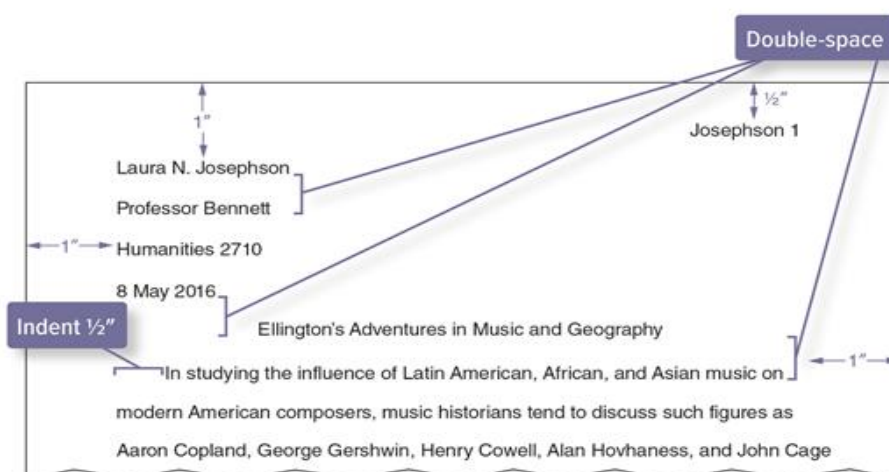


Figure 2 - The top of the first page of a research paper.

- Social Media Coverage of International News Events
- Concepts of Justice in *To Kill a Mockingbird*
- The Use of the Words *Fair* and *Foul* in Shakespeare's *Macbeth*
- Romanticism in England and the *Scapigliatura* in Italy
- Do not use a period after your title or any other heading in the document (for example, Works Cited). The first line of the paragraph should be indented half an inch from the left margin, and the text should begin on a new double-spaced line following the title. A title page is not typically required for a research paper;

however, if the paper is a group project, a title page should be composed and all authors should be listed on it, rather than in the heading on page 1 of your essay (fig. 1.2). Format the title page in accordance with the instructions provided by your instructor, whether in place of or in addition to the header.



Figure 3 - The title page of a paper written by several students.

4.5 Running Head and Page Numbers

Number all pages consecutively throughout the research paper in the upper right-hand corner, half an inch from the top and flush with the right margin. Type your surname, followed by a space, before the page number (fig. 1.3). If a project has several authors and all authors' surnames do not fit in a running head, include only the page number. Do not use the abbreviation "p." before the page number or add a period, a hyphen, or any other mark or symbol. Your word processing program will probably allow you to create a running head of this kind that appears automatically on every page. If your paper is only one page, you may not need to include a page number.

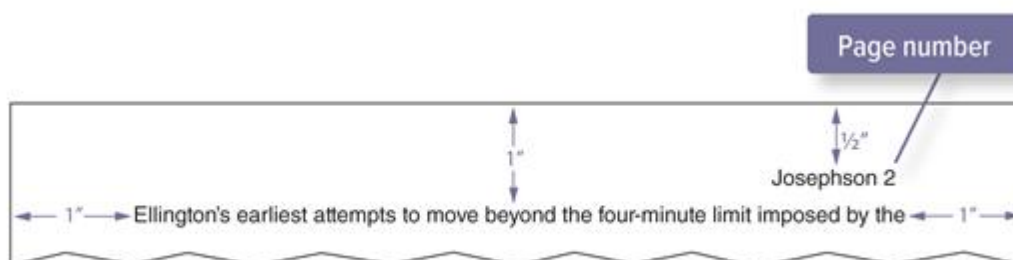


Figure 4 - The running head of a research paper.

4.5 Internal Headings and Subheadings

In the body of your research project, headings and subheadings can help you organize and structure your work, but you shouldn't use them too much. Headings are typically unnecessary in brief, essay-length works and should never be utilized to make up for poor structure or to clarify an underdeveloped concept. When you need to use headings in your writing, keep them short and follow these simple rules. Formatting headings and subheadings consistently is important for letting readers know how a research project is organized. Most word processors come with built-in styles for headings.

In the body of your research paper, the headings should be written so that they get less important as you go down the page. The other headings are subheadings, which means they come after the first level. Font style and size are used to show how important something is. The style and size of each level 1 heading should be the same as that of the next level's heading, and so on. In general, boldface, larger fonts show prominence, while smaller fonts, italics, or no boldness indicate subordination. For easier reading, don't use all capital letters for titles. Small capitals may work in some situations.

There should be more than one instance of each sub heading level. You should have at least one other level 1 heading if you use a level 1 heading. The only places this is not true are the title of the paper or chapter, the notes, and the list of works mentioned.

Headings should be flush with the left border in the body of the paper. They shouldn't be centered or indented. Add a line space above and below a heading to make it easier to read.

If you are not working in a field where using numbers and letters to identify headings is common, then don't use them.

Capitalize and punctuate headings like the titles of works as explained in [2.90–2.119](#).

4.6 Placement of the List of Works Cited

At the conclusion of the paper, following any endnotes, is the list of works cited. Centre the heading "Works Cited" one inch from the top of the page (see fig. 1.4). If the list consists of a single entry, the header should be "Work Cited." Place a double space between the first entry and the heading. For entries that exceed one line, indent the subsequent line or lines by half an inch from the left margin. Begin each entry flush with the left margin. Another name for this format is hanging indent, and you can configure your word processor to automatically generate it for collection of paragraphs. Hanging indents make it easy to use alphabetical lists. Double-space the entire list.

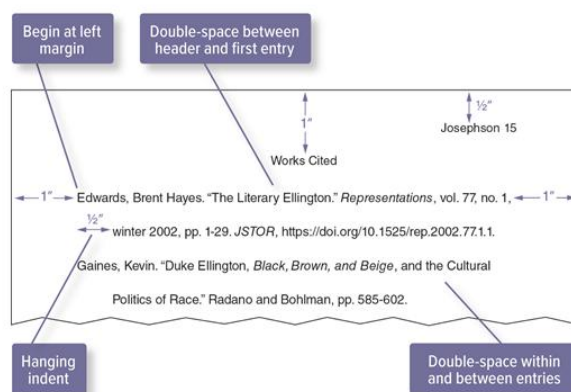


Figure 5 - The top of the first page of a works-cited list.

4.7 Tables and Illustrations

Figures and tables should be put as close as possible to the words they go with. A table is generally called "Table," given an Arabic number, and given a title. Label and title should be typed flush left on different lines above the table. As titles, they should be capitalized, but not all capital letters. Just below the table, in a description, write down where the table came from and any notes you have. When making notes for the table, use lowercase letters instead of numbers so that people avoid mixing them up with notes for the text. Throughout, double-space and use division lines as needed.

Table 1
Degrees in Modern Foreign Languages and Literature Conferred by Degree-Granting Institutions of Higher Education in the United States^a

Year	Bachelor's Degrees	Master's Degrees	Doctor's Degrees
1996-97	13,053	2,470	793
1997-98	13,618	2,367	819
1998-99	14,163	2,267	757
1999-2000	14,186	2,228	804
2000-01	14,292	2,244	818
2001-02	14,236	2,284	780
2002-03	14,854	2,256	749
2003-04	15,408	2,307	743
2004-05	16,008	2,517	762
2005-06	16,762	2,637	777

Adapted from: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*, 2007 ed., June 2007, table 297, nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d07/tables/dt07_297.asp.

a. These figures include degrees conferred in a single language or a combination of modern foreign languages and exclude degrees in linguistics, Latin, classics, ancient and Middle and Near Eastern biblical and Semitic languages, ancient and classical Greek, Sanskrit and classical Indian languages, and sign language and sign language interpretation.

Figure 6

Any other kind of visual material used to show something, like a picture, map, line drawing, graph, or chart, should be called Figure (often abbreviated as Fig.), given an Arabic number, and a description.

In most cases, the label and description go right below the picture and have the same one-inch margins as the text. There is no need to include a source in the works-cited list if the source information is given in full in the table or illustration caption and the source is not mentioned in the text. If you give full bibliographical information in a caption, indicate it like a works-cited entry, but do not invert the author or artist's name around at the beginning of the caption (fig.6).



Fig. 1. Berthe Morisot. *Reading*. 1873, Cleveland Museum of Art.

Figure 7 - A figure in a research paper, with full bibliographic details in the caption.

Otherwise, use commas to separate elements in a caption and provide full publication details in the works-cited list (fig 7).

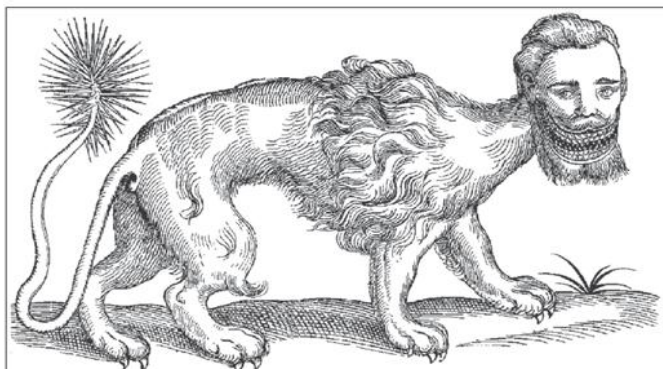


Fig. 1. Edward Topsell, *Manticore*, woodcut, 1658.

Work cited

Topsell, Edward. *Manticore*. *Curious Woodcuts of Fanciful and Real Beasts*, by Konrad Gesner, Dover, 1971, p. 8. Originally published in *The History of Four-Footed Beasts and Serpents . . .*, by Topsell, London, 1658.

Figure 8

Musical pictures are labelled Example (sometimes shortened to Ex.), assigned a caption, and a number in Arabic. Typically, the example is immediately followed by a label and caption, which share the same one-inch margins as the paper's text (fig.8).

Ex. 1. Ludwig van Beethoven, Symphony No. 3 in E-flat, Opus 55 (*Eroica*), first movement, opening.

Figure 9 - A musical example in a research paper

4.8 Lists

Lists can help you organize data and show it in a clear way. Any list is meant to make things easier for people to understand. On the other hand, using too many lists can make writing harder to understand. You can add lists to your writing or set them up vertically. You can number them if you need to make your point clearer by listing them.

4.9 Integrated into your prose

- When the information is easily comprehensible in this style, it is better to incorporate lists into your writing rather than arrange them vertically. An integrated list is often introduced with a colon unless the list is grammatically necessary to the introduction phrasing, such as in the second example below, where the list is the object of the verb include. Punctuate items in an unnumbered, integrated list exactly as you would words in a sentence.
- Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie has written four books of fiction: *Purple Hibiscus*, *Half of a Yellow Sun*, *The Thing around Your Neck*, and *Americanah*.
- Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's books of fiction include *Purple Hibiscus*, *Half of a Yellow Sun*, and *The Thing around Your Neck*.

In your prose, numbers in lists should be surrounded by parenthesis.

The five main steps of the research process will be covered in the workshop.

- ❖ Choosing a topic,
- ❖ Finding sources,
- ❖ Assessing sources,
- ❖ Reading and
- ❖ Collecting notes from pertinent sources, and
- ❖ Refining the topic

4.10 Set Vertically

Vertical lists are appropriate for extensive, complex, or separate information from the main prose. Below are examples of vertical lists—unnumbered, numbered, or bulleted—and how to introduce, punctuate, and capitalize them. Word processing tools automatically generate list styles so that they are indented and so readily distinguished from the text, as well as such that each item in the list forms a single unit.

Most versions of Microsoft Word come with tools that can help you make MLA-style vertical lists. For instance, Word makes a numbered list when you type “1” and then a stop at the start of a paragraph and press the space bar. If you type a star (*) and press the space bar, a list of bullet points will appear. By right-clicking anywhere

in the list, you can change how it looks by changing things like the numbers, the spacing, and the indentation.

Word has a feature that automatically makes lists. To make lists with uneven space or appearance, deselect the boxes that say “Automatic bulleted lists” and “Automatic numbered lists” in the AutoCorrect window's “AutoFormat As You Type” tab. On a PC, open the File menu and choose Options to get to the AutoCorrect box. On a Mac, open the Word menu and choose Preferences to get to the AutoCorrect box.

4.11 Lists introduced with a Complete Sentence

What is the portrayal of laborers in the novel's urban scenes? The following examples illustrate how a list can be initiated with a complete sentence followed by a colon. The items in the list may consist of either complete sentences or fragments, but they must be consistent in their use.

The starting letter of the first word of each item should be capitalized if the list items are complete sentences. The item should be followed by a closing punctuation, such as a period or question mark.

In their group presentations, students were required to address one of the following inquiries:

- ❖ In the novel, what signs of the ancient régime continue to influence the social mores of the characters?
- ❖ In what ways does the novel demonstrate realism, and when does it deviate from it? What is the relationship between the subplot of the dictator's revolt and the moments of magical realism in the novel?

In bulleted lists, the first element is a lowercase letter (unless it is a proper noun, in which case the first word is typically capitalized). Punctuation is not used after list elements unless they are part of a complete sentence.

The sole official website dedicated to MLA style is the MLA Style Center (style.mla.org), a free companion to the MLA Handbook. It offers a variety of valuable features:

- ❖ the opportunity to submit inquiries regarding MLA style
- ❖ Sample research papers
- ❖ Teaching resources
- ❖ Tools for generating works-cited-list entries

If the list items are not complete sentences and the list is not bulleted, start each item with a lowercase letter and punctuate the fragments as if they were portions of a sentence, regardless of whether the list is numbered. Place semicolons between the list items and include the words "and" or "or" before the final item. The list should be concluded with a period.

The author's work is influenced by four primary contexts:

1. Boethius' ideas regarding free will and the mutability and change that accompany human decision-making;
2. The significance of translating the Bible into English;
3. The founding precepts of humanism, particularly the writings of Petrarch;
4. The political insurrection that occurred as a consequence of the heavy taxation imposed to continue funding the Hundred Years' War.

4.12 Lists that continue the sentence introducing them

A list may also start with a sentence continued in the list, as shown in the examples below. No colon should appear before such lists. In most cases, list items continuing the sentence introducing them will not be complete sentences, and each item can therefore begin with a lowercase letter.

In formal contexts, you may punctuate the fragments in numbered and unnumbered lists like parts of a sentence. Use semicolons between the list items and write *and* or *or* before the final item. A period should conclude the list.

The campus health clinic is expanding its advocacy efforts by

- launching a twenty-four-hour care hotline;
- developing strategic partnerships with community health care providers; and
- running a website that provides reliable, up-to-date health information, mental health resources, nutritional advice, and more.

In bulleted lists, elements begin with a lowercase letter (unless the first word is normally capitalized, such as a proper noun), and no punctuation follows list elements unless they are composed of a full sentence.

A free companion to the *MLA Handbook* and the only official website devoted to MLA style, *The MLA Style Center* (style.mla.org) provides

- the opportunity to submit questions about MLA style
- sample research papers
- teaching resources
- tools for creating works-cited-list entries

4.13 Paper and Printing

If you print your paper, use only white, 8½-by-11-inch paper. Use a high-quality printer. Some instructors prefer papers printed on a single side because such papers are easier to read, but others allow printing on both sides to conserve paper.

4.14 Proofreading and Spellcheckers

Proofread and correct your research paper carefully before submitting it. Spellcheckers and usage checkers can be helpful but should be used with caution. They do not find all errors, such as words spelled correctly but misused, and they sometimes label correct material as erroneous, such as many proper nouns as well as terms from languages other than English.

Microsoft Word, for example, uses its own dictionary to check spelling. If you are writing an essay that uses specialized terms or non-English terms that aren't in *Word's* dictionary, you might want to add those terms to the dictionary. If you right-click on the term and then click "Add to Dictionary," *Word* won't mark the term as misspelled.

4.15 Binding a Printed Paper

Pages of a printed research paper may get misplaced or lost if they are left unattached or merely folded down at a corner, so be sure to use a staple or paper clip.

Although a plastic folder or a binder may seem an attractive finishing touch, most instructors find that such devices make it harder to read and comment on students' work.

4.16 Electronic Submission

If you are asked to submit your paper electronically, follow your teacher's guidelines for formatting, mode of submission (e.g., by e-mail or on a website), and so forth.

Key Takeaways

Formatting a research project is essential to ensuring clarity, consistency, and credibility in academic writing. Proper formatting involves adhering to specific guidelines related to page setup, in-text citations, references, headings, fonts, spacing, and other stylistic elements defined by citation styles like MLA, APA, or Chicago. Beyond aesthetics, formatting demonstrates scholarly integrity and allows readers to navigate and verify information efficiently. This unit helps students understand the components of formatting and how to apply them systematically in their academic projects.

1. General Formatting Guidelines

- Use standard paper size (A4 or 8.5" × 11") with 1-inch margins.
- Font: Times New Roman or similar, size 12.
- Double-spacing throughout the paper.

- Paragraph indentation (0.5 inches).
- Include a title page if required.

2. Title Page and Header

- MLA: Name, instructor, course, and date on the top left (no cover page).
- APA: Title page with paper title, author name, institution, course, instructor, date.
- Page numbers on top right (APA), or top right with last name (MLA).

3. Headings and Subheadings

- APA: Uses five levels of headings.
- MLA: No fixed heading levels, but use consistent bold/italics hierarchy.
- Chicago: Often uses centered headings and subheadings with proper title case.

4. In-Text Citations

- MLA: Author–page format (e.g., Smith 23).
- APA: Author–date format (e.g., Smith, 2020).
- Ensure citations match the Works Cited or References section.

5. Quotations and Block Quotes

- Short quotes within quotation marks.
- Block quotes for prose over 4 lines (MLA) or 40+ words (APA).
- No quotation marks for block quotes; indented from left margin.

6. Figures and Tables

- Numbered and labeled below (MLA) or above (APA).
- Include source/citation below figures/tables.
- Mention in-text before inserting.

7. Works Cited / References / Bibliography

- MLA: “Works Cited” – alphabetized by author's last name.
- APA: “References” – author–date order.

- Chicago: “Bibliography” – includes footnotes if needed.

Glossary of Key Terms

Term	Definition
Block Quote	A longer quotation formatted separately from the main text.
In-Text Citation	A brief reference within the text that directs the reader to the full source.
Heading Levels	Hierarchical formatting structure used to organize sections of a paper.
Bibliography	A list of all sources consulted or cited in a research paper.
Pagination	The numbering of pages in a consistent and visible manner.

Self-Assessment Questions

Short Answer (2 Marks)

1. What is the standard font and size for most research papers?
2. When should a block quote be used in APA format?
3. What is the purpose of a “References” or “Works Cited” page?
4. State two differences between MLA and APA title page formats.
5. Why is consistency in headings important?

Long Questions (5 Marks)

1. Compare and contrast MLA and APA in-text citation styles with examples.
2. Discuss the importance of formatting tables and figures accurately.
3. Explain the role of headings in structuring a research paper.
4. Describe the standard layout for a research paper’s first page in MLA format.

Essay Questions (8 Marks)

1. Explain the process of formatting an academic research paper using APA style.
2. Discuss the role of proper formatting in enhancing academic integrity and clarity.

3. Compare MLA and APA styles in terms of citation, structure, and overall formatting requirements.

Check Your Progress

1. Which abbreviation is correctly used in MLA for “and others”?
 - a) et. al
 - b) **et al.**
 - c) et.al
 - d) etc al.
2. What is the correct abbreviation for “page” in MLA?
 - a) pg.
 - b) **p.**
 - c) p
 - d) pg
3. Which of the following is punctuated correctly for academic degrees?
 - a) **Ph.D.**
 - b) PHD
 - c) PhD
 - d) Ph D
4. Which is the MLA-accepted abbreviation for “translated by”?
 - a) trsl.
 - b) transl.
 - c) **trans.**
 - d) t.b.
5. In MLA style, how are months longer than four letters abbreviated in a works-cited list?
 - a) **Mar.**
 - b) March.
 - c) Mar
 - d) March

6. Which abbreviation is correct for “chapter”?

- a) cpt.
- b) ch.
- c) **chap.**
- d) chp.

7. How should you punctuate “J. R. R. Tolkien” in MLA?

- a) J.R.R. Tolkien
- b) J R R Tolkien
- c) **J. R. R. Tolkien**
- d) J.R. R. Tolkien

8. What is the correct abbreviation for “volume” in MLA?

- a) v.
- b) vl.
- c) **vol.**
- d) vo.

9. In MLA, how is “University Press” abbreviated?

- a) UniPr
- b) U. Press
- c) **UP**
- d) Univ.P.

10. Which abbreviation means “that is”?

- a) e.g.
- b) **i.e.**
- c) etc.
- d) et al.

11. What does “qtd. in” indicate in an MLA citation?

- a) A quotation by the original author

b) **A citation from a secondary source**

c) A misquoted line

d) A paraphrase

12. Which of the following correctly shows an abbreviation made of capital letters in MLA?

a) U. S.

b) U.S.

c) **US**

d) U. S

13. How are abbreviations like “a.m.” and “p.m.” punctuated?

a) am, pm

b) **a.m., p.m.**

c) a. m., p. m.

d) a.m, p.m

14. Which abbreviation refers to “book”?

a) **bk.**

b) b.

c) bk

d) b.k.

15. How is “et cetera” abbreviated in MLA?

a) **etc.**

b) etc

c) et.c.

d) e.c.

16. What is the abbreviation for “figure”? a) fg.

b) **fig.**

c) fig

d) fgr.

17. Which is the correct abbreviation for “definition”?

- a) d.
- b) defn.
- c) **def.**
- d) def

18. What is the abbreviation for “supplement”?

- a) supl.
- b) **supp.**
- c) supp
- d) spl.

19. How should the abbreviation “e.g.” be used in MLA prose?

- a) With no commas
- b) **With commas before and after**
- c) With a colon
- d) As part of a sentence without punctuation

20. Which of the following is *not* recommended in academic prose per MLA?

- a) **Using “etc.” in body text**
- b) Using “PhD” without periods
- c) Using “et al.” in citations
- d) Abbreviating “January” to “Jan.” in the works cited

Suggested Readings and References

1. **MLA Handbook** (9th Edition) – Modern Language Association.
2. **Publication Manual of the APA** (7th Edition) – American Psychological Association.
3. **Chicago Manual of Style** – University of Chicago Press.
4. Purdue OWL: <https://owl.purdue.edu>
5. Hacker, Diana. *A Writer’s Reference*.
6. Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*

UNIT V

Documenting Sources: An Overview – The List of Works Cited, Core Elements, Ordering the List of Works Cited–Citing Sources in the Text, Quoting and Paraphrasing Sources, Citations in Forms other than Print, Notes, Harvard and APA System

DOCUMENTING SOURCES

Objectives

- Understand the importance of citing sources to avoid plagiarism and build credibility.
- Identify the core elements of a citation (author, title, date, etc.).
- Learn how to format a Works Cited or References list.
- Know how to cite sources within the text using quoting and paraphrasing.
- Apply citation rules to non-print sources (websites, videos, social media, etc.).
- Differentiate between Harvard, APA, and other citation styles.
- Practice ethical academic writing through proper documentation.
- Gain confidence in using citation tools and resources.

5.1 Documenting Sources: An Overview

5.1.1 Understanding the Importance of Source Documentation in Academic Writing

Academic writing is a continuous exchange of ideas among scholars, where researchers share their studies through books, journals, and other publications to participate in an ongoing discussion. Across all fields—humanities, science, and social science—writers follow a standard system to credit the sources they use. By quoting, paraphrasing, or summarizing accurately, they enable readers to trace the original works and understand how these ideas connect to their own arguments.

Citations play an important role in this process, acting as a guide that helps readers locate sources and see the relationships between different ideas. Just as

mathematical symbols are universally recognized, citation styles create a common language that makes academic writing clear, transparent, and trustworthy. Learning to cite correctly is not just about following rules—it demonstrates integrity, respect for others' work, and helps build credibility within the academic community.

5.1.2 What Is Plagiarism and Why It Matters

Plagiarism occurs when someone presents another person's words, thoughts, or work as their own, whether intentionally or by accident. This includes copying text without attribution, paraphrasing ideas without giving credit, or submitting someone else's paper as your own. **Plagiarism violates the principles of academic integrity and can lead to serious consequences, including disciplinary action, loss of credibility, or even legal issues related to copyright infringement.**

The effects of plagiarism extend beyond the individual involved. It undermines the trustworthiness of academic work and damages the reputation of institutions and disciplines. For professionals, a single act of plagiarism can ruin a career, casting doubt on all previous accomplishments. Therefore, understanding how to avoid plagiarism is essential for maintaining ethical standards in both academic and professional settings.

5.1.3 Strategies to Avoid Plagiarism

Many instances of unintentional plagiarism stem from poor research practices. To prevent this, take thorough and organized notes during your research process. Clearly distinguish between direct quotes (which should be recorded exactly as written), paraphrased material, and your own original thoughts. Always note the page numbers and source details so you can accurately cite them later.

Use digital tools carefully, as automated citation generators may contain errors that need manual correction. Keep all your sources well-organized for easy reference and verification. Remember, while technology can assist in managing citations, it cannot replace critical thinking and careful writing. Proper documentation reflects your respect for intellectual property and your commitment to academic honesty.

5.1.4 When and How to Give Credit

If an idea, phrase, or piece of information comes from someone else's work, it's important to give proper credit. This applies whether you are quoting directly,

paraphrasing, or summarizing. In **MLA style**, this involves providing an **in-text citation** that corresponds to a full entry in your **Works Cited list**.

Giving credit allows you to support your arguments with credible evidence while clearly distinguishing your voice from that of your sources. The goal of academic writing is not just to report what others have said but to engage with those ideas and present your own interpretations.

5.1.5 Effective Paraphrasing Techniques

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill that shows your understanding of a source while allowing you to express ideas in your own words. A good paraphrase changes both the vocabulary and sentence structure of the original—not just a few synonyms. It maintains the core meaning but presents it differently.

For example, if a source states that American exceptionalism was rooted in domestic identity rather than foreign policy, a strong paraphrase might rephrase this idea using different syntax and word choices, while preserving the original concept. Some terms, however, such as "American exceptionalism" or "democracy," are widely recognized and do not need to be altered.

5.1.6 Knowing When to Use Direct Quotes

Direct quotations should be used sparingly and only when the exact wording is significant to your argument. They are most effective when the language is powerful, the phrasing is unique, or you're analysing the author's specific choice of words. Quotes should never dominate your writing—they should enhance your points and be clearly explained in relation to your own ideas.

When quoting, always include a citation that leads the reader to the full source in your Works Cited list. Make sure the quote is relevant, concise, and integrated smoothly into your prose.

5.1.7 When Citation Is Not Necessary

There are certain cases where formal documentation is not required. Common knowledge—information widely accepted and easily verified—does not need to be cited. Examples include well-known historical dates, basic biographical facts, or commonly accepted scientific principles.

Similarly, passing mentions—such as stating a preference for a particular book or film—do not require citation since no specific ideas or phrases are being borrowed. Allusions to well-known literary or cultural references also generally do not need citations unless they are central to your argument.

An epigraph—a short quotation at the beginning of a paper used to set the tone—also does not require a full citation unless it plays a key role in your analysis.

These paraphrased summaries reflect the main themes and guidelines provided in the original document, emphasizing responsible academic writing, accurate citation, and ethical scholarship.

Key Takeaways

Academic writing is a conversation among scholars that relies on proper documentation of sources. Citations guide readers to original works, support arguments, and maintain clarity and trustworthiness. Plagiarism—using others' work without credit—violates academic integrity and has serious consequences. To avoid plagiarism, keep organized notes, distinguish between your ideas and sourced material, and use accurate citations. Paraphrasing and direct quotes should be used appropriately, giving credit whenever someone else's ideas are used. Common knowledge and general references do not require citation. Overall, proper source documentation reflects honesty, respect for intellectual property, and credibility in academic work.

Check Your Progress

1. Plagiarism occurs when someone:
 - a) Uses their own ideas
 - b) Copies someone else's work without credit
 - c) Paraphrases correctly
 - d) Cites all sources

Answer: b) Copies someone else's work without credit

2. Which of the following does **not require citation**?
 - a) Direct quotations
 - b) Commonly known facts
 - c) Paraphrased ideas

d) Summarized research

Answer: b) Commonly known facts

3. Paraphrasing means:

a) Copying text word for word

b) Changing a few words only

c) Expressing someone else's idea in your own words and structure

d) Ignoring the original meaning

Answer: c) Expressing someone else's idea in your own words and structure

4. Citations help readers to:

a) Ignore sources

b) Locate sources and understand connections

c) Increase word count

d) Avoid reading the original work

Answer: b) Locate sources and understand connections

5. Direct quotations should be used:

a) Frequently, for all ideas

b) Only when exact wording is significant

c) To replace paraphrasing

d) Without explanation

Answer: b) Only when exact wording is significant

6. Proper documentation in academic writing reflects:

a) Creativity only

b) Academic honesty and respect for intellectual property

c) Grammar skills

d) Personal opinions

Answer: b) Academic honesty and respect for intellectual property

5.2 The List of works Cited

Each source that is referenced in the text or notes of your project should be included in a list at the conclusion of the paper, following any necessary endnotes. The

list should be titled Works Cited. (If you wish to record works that you consulted but did not cite, assign a different title to the list, such as “Works Cited and Consulted.”)

5.2.1 Creating and Formatting Entries: An Overview

Entries in the works-cited list are generated using the **MLA template**, which comprises essential elements that are commonly found in the majority of sources, including the author, title, and publication date (fig.1).



Fig.1. The MLA template of core elements

To use the template, identify the details that apply to the source being cited and record the publication information from the version consulted. Arrange each relevant element in the order given in the template, leaving out any that do not apply—except for

the title, which must always be included. If no title is provided, supply a brief descriptive one. End each element with the punctuation mark shown in the template, and ensure the entry concludes with a period.

Repeat the process from the **Title of the Container** to the **Location** when the source is part of another work—for example, an article in a journal that appears within a database.

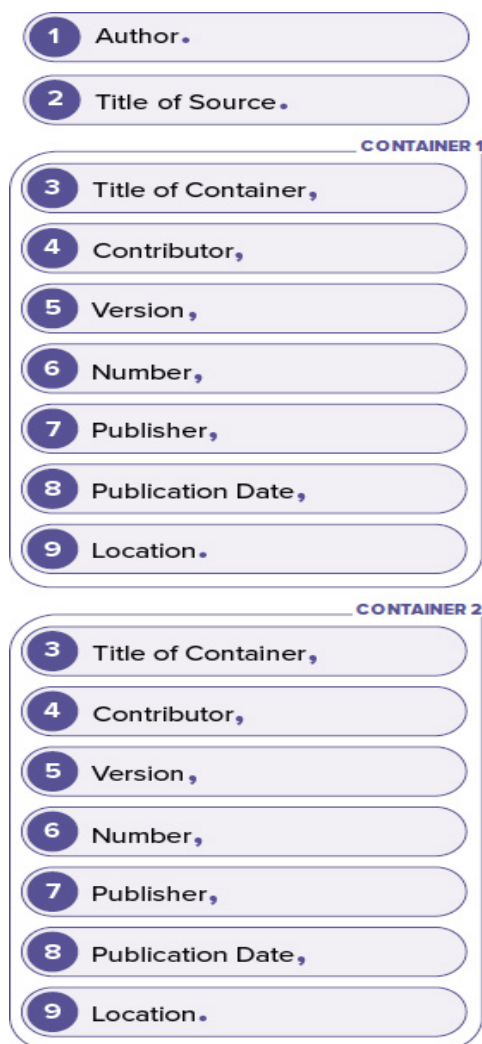


Fig.2 The MLA template of core elements with two containers.

In the MLA style, works-cited-list entries are constructed from the template of core elements. However, supplemental elements may be incorporated into the template to provide the reader with additional information about the source.

The works-cited-list entry should generally adhere to the same guidelines as the prose entry for the following:

- a) capitalisation of titles, names, and nouns
- b) title formatting (e.g., italics or quotation marks)
- c) Treatment of individual names (including the identification of the element to alphabetise)
- d) numerical intervals

Key takeaways

At the end of a paper, all cited sources are listed in a **Works Cited** section, or **Works Cited and Consulted** if including additional sources. Entries follow the MLA template, including core elements like author, title, and publication date, with only relevant details included. Titles must always appear, and each element ends with the specified punctuation. For sources within other works, the template is applied to the container as well. Entries follow proper formatting rules for capitalization, titles, names, and numbers, and supplemental elements can be added for clarity.

Check your progress

1. The list of all sources cited in a paper is called:
 - a) Bibliography
 - b) References
 - c) Works Cited
 - d) Endnotes

Answer: c) Works Cited
2. If you want to include sources consulted but not cited, you can title the list:
 - a) Works Consulted Only
 - b) Works Cited and Consulted
 - c) References Only
 - d) Sources Used

Answer: b) Works Cited and Consulted

3. Which of the following is **always included** in a works-cited entry?

- a) Author
- b) Title
- c) Publication date
- d) Page numbers

Answer: b) Title

4. For a source that is part of another work (e.g., an article in a journal), the MLA template should be:

- a) Ignored
- b) Repeated for the container
- c) Only partially used
- d) Skipped entirely

Answer: b) Repeated for the container

5. Works-cited-list entries should follow formatting rules including:

- a) Capitalization, italics/quotation marks, treatment of names, and numerical intervals
- b) Bold text only
- c) Underlining all titles
- d) Random punctuation

Answer: a) Capitalization, italics/quotation marks, treatment of names, and numerical intervals

6. Supplemental elements in a works-cited entry are used to:

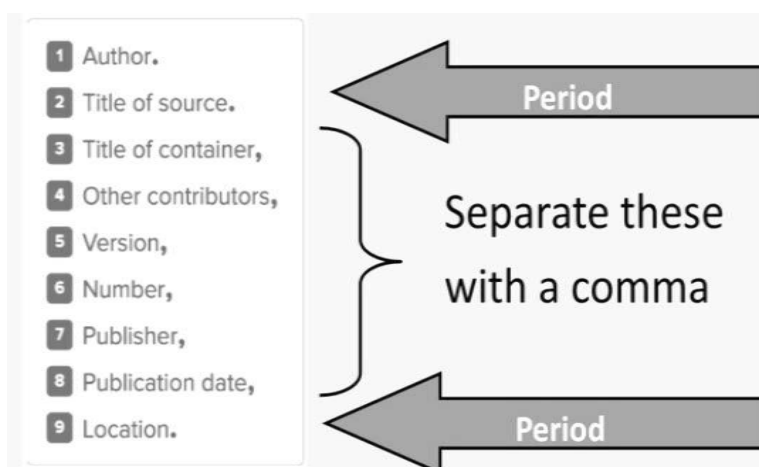
- a) Add unnecessary information
- b) Provide extra details to help the reader locate or understand the source
- c) Replace core elements
- d) Avoid citing the source

Answer: b) Provide extra details to help the reader locate or understand the source.

5.3 Core Elements

Works Cited references are made up of a list of **Core Elements**. The Core Elements allow writers to create reference citations for any type of source, regardless of the medium.

S.No.	Elements	Definition
1.	Author	Writer of the document you are citing - Personal author(s), editor(s), corporate author, director
2.	Title of the source	Document you are citing –,Book title, article title, chapter title, title of TV episode, video, speech film title
3.	Title of the container	Source of the document – anthology, newspaper, website, conference- title of TV series
4.	Other contributors	Editors, directors, translators, narrators, performers
5.	Version	Edition (updated, expanded, 7th, etc.), director's cut (film), Version (King James), abridged/unabridged.
6.	Numbers	Volume and issue numbers, season and episode numbers (vol.1, no.5)
7.	Publisher	A publisher is the company or group that makes a source available to the public. This includes book publishers, universities, organizations, governments, or production companies.
8.	Publication Date	Date that the source/container was published. , full dates are given in this format: 24 Aug. 2016. For sources with a season and year, give the season in lowercase letters: spring 2003.
9.	Location	Page number, chapter, section, web address, DOI, stable URL, time on a recording, DVD disc number



Each core element is named with a shorthand label that covers a range of situations.

The element name is not always literal. For example, **Publication Date** can include an actual date of publication, a date of composition for unpublished material, the date a performance was attended, and other dates relevant to the work you are citing.

The rest of this section defines each element and explains when to use it, provides guidance on finding publication information and other relevant details about each element, and explains styling decisions unique to the list of works cited.

5.3.1 Components of Works cited Entries

Works Cited entries are made up of core elements. To create your Works Cited reference citation, move down this table from Author to Location, inputting the relevant information into your citation.

Some core elements will not be necessary or available for some sources. Include the core elements you have, need, and are relevant to your use of the source. Supplemental Elements may be added.

Some sources are part of one or two containers and will require the repetition of some core elements for each container. Add the elements to your reference entry from Author through to Location, then add any second elements in that same order. **For example**, online articles from databases have two containers: the first is the journal in which the article is contained and the second is the database in which the journal is contained. The same article could also have two locations: the first is the page number and the second is **the Digital Object Identifier (doi)**.

	Books	Part of a book or anthology	Articles	Websites
1. Author.	Author(s) and/or editor(s).	Author of essay or chapter.	Author(s).	Author(s) and/or editor(s).

2. Title of source.	<i>Book Title: And Subtitle if Included.</i>	"Title of Essay or Chapter."	"Article Title: And Subtitle if Included."	"Web Page or Article Title."
Container 1				
3. Title of container,		<i>Book Title,</i>	<i>Title of Journal, Newspaper, or Magazine,</i>	<i>Title of the Website,</i>
4. Contributors,	Contributors (if applicable),	Book editors or compilers,	Editor(s) (if applicable/relevant),	Contributors (if applicable),
5. Version,	Edition (if applicable),	Edition (if applicable),		
6. Number,	Volume (if applicable),	Volume (if applicable),	vol. #, no. #,	
7. Publisher,	Publisher (shortened name),	Publisher (shortened name),		Publisher (if applicable and available),
8. Publication date,	Publication date,	Publication date,	Publication date,	Publication date,
9. Location.	Page number (p.) or page range (pp.).	Page number (p.) or page range (pp.).	Page number (p.) or page range (pp.).	URL.
Container 2				
3. Title of second container,			<i>Database Name,</i>	
4. Contributors,				
5. Version,				
6. Number,				

7. Publisher,				
8. Publication date,				
9. Second location.			URL ("http://" or "https://" omitted) or DOI (https://doi.org/xxxxxx xxxx).	

5.3.2 Author

Author is the first core element of the Works Cited entry. The term "author" is used loosely to mean the person or group primarily responsible for producing the source. Editors, translators, performers, and corporate authors may fill the author core element, but a descriptive label should be included.

- ❖ List author names as they appear in the document or text - meaning do not abbreviate the names.
- ❖ Reverse only the name of the first author followed by a comma. "Sam Jones" becomes "Jones, Sam."
- ❖ Give the other names in normal form (as they appear).
- ❖ Use the word "and", not an ampersand (&), before the last author's name.
- ❖ For three or more authors, list the first author with the name reversed followed by a comma and "et al."
- ❖ If a work has no personal or organizational author, but has an editor, begin the citation with the name(s) of the editor(s).
- ❖ If a work has no identifiable author (personal, organization, or editor), begin the citation with the title.
- ❖ For corporate authors omit any initial articles in the name, like "the".
- ❖ For editors, follow the same rules as authors but include a comma followed by "editor" or "editors" then a period.
- ❖ This element ends with a period.

One author:

Brinkley, Alan. *The Unfinished Nation: A Concise History of the American People*. 7th ed, McGraw Hill, 2014, p. 525.

Two authors:

McKee, Timothy, and James A. McKee. *Business Ethics: The Political Basis of Commerce*. Oxford UP, 2009.

Three or more authors:

Tucker, Virginia M., et al. "Learning Portals: Analyzing Threshold Concept Theory for LIS Education." *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, vol. 55, no. 2, Apr. 2014, pp. 150-65. *Academic OneFile*, db12.linccweb.org/login?url=http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA369065399&v=2.1&u=lincclin_ircc&it=r&p=AONE&sw=w&asid=481641178d785366b35d618e23308ebf.

One editor:

DiYanni, Robert, editor. *Literature: Reading Fiction, Poetry, and Drama*. 6th ed., McGraw Hill, 2007.

Two editors:

Zeigler-Hill, Virgil, and David K. Marcus, editors. *The Dark Side of Personality: Science and Practice in Social, Personality, and Clinical Psychology*. American Psychological Association, 2016.

Three or more editors:

Damrosch, David, et al., editors. *The Longman Anthology of World Literature*, 2nd ed., vol. A, Pearson Education, 2009.

Organization, corporation, or group as author:

Planned Parenthood. "Body Image." *Learn*, 2016, www.plannedparenthood.org/learn/body-image.

5.3.3 Title of source

The title of source is the second core element in the Works Cited entry. In general, the title of a work is taken from the title page of the publication.

- ❖ List the **full title as it is written on the source**. Exceptions to this rule are for standardization of capitalization and subtitle punctuation.
 - Capitalize all principal words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.). Do not capitalize articles, prepositions, or conjunctions when they fall in the middle of a title.
 - Separate a subtitle with a colon and a space.
- ❖ **Italicize titles** if the source is self-contained and independent. Titles of books, plays, films, periodicals, databases, and websites are italicized.
- ❖ Place titles in quotation marks if the source is part of a larger work. Articles, essays, chapters, poems, webpages, songs, and speeches are placed in quotation marks.
- ❖ Sometimes titles will contain other titles. For example, a journal article about a novel, short story, play, film, etc. may mention the title of the work the article is about in the article's title.
- ❖ If the title mentioned is usually indicated by italics, use italics for the title within the title. Examples of these titles are films, novels, entire books, journals, and entire websites.
 - ✓ Example of a journal article title which includes the title of a book: "Unbearable Weight of Authenticity: Zora Neale Hurston's *Their Eyes Were Watching God* and Theory of 'Touristic Reading'."
- ❖ If the title mentioned is usually indicated by double quotation marks, enclose the title in single quotations marks. Examples of these titles are poems, short stories, book chapters, and journal articles.
 - ✓ Example of a journal article title which includes the title of a short story: "Individualism in O'Connor's 'A Good Man is Hard to Find'."

Books:

Danticat, Edwidge. *Brother, I'm Dying*. Knopf, 2007.

Chapter title in a book or anthology:

Howard, Rebecca Moore. "Avoiding Sentence Fragments." *Writing Matters: A Handbook for Writing and Research*, 2nd ed., McGraw Hill, 2014, pp. 600-10.

Journals, Magazines, and Newspapers:

Houtman, Eveline. "Mind-Blowing: Fostering Self-Regulated Learning in Information Literacy Instruction." *Communications in Information Literacy*, vol. 9, no. 1, 2015, pp. 6-18. www.comminfolit.org/index.php?journal=cil&page=article&op=view&path%5B%5D=v9i1p6&path%5B%5D=203.

Web page:

Meade, Rita. "It's Not Too Late to Advocate." *Screwy Decimal*, 1 June 2016, www.screwydecimal.com/2016/06/its-not-too-late-to-advocate.html.

Entire Website:

Meade, Rita. *Screwy Decimal*. 2010-16, www.screwydecimal.com/.

5.3.4 Title of Container

Title of container is the third core element. Containers are either

- 1) complete works which contain smaller works, like a book containing essays, a book containing short stories, or an academic journal containing articles, or
- 2) larger containers holding smaller containers, like a database containing academic journals or a website containing webpages.

- ❖ The title of the container is italicized and followed by a comma.
- ❖ It is possible for a source to have more than one container, for example an article [title of source] from a journal [title of first container] accessed from an online database [title of second container].
- ❖ Sometimes titles will contain other titles. For example, a book of stories may be titled the name of one story "and Other Stories".

- ✓ If the title mentioned is usually indicated by italics, do not use italics or quotation marks for the title within the title. The title within the title will be in Roman. Examples are a book about a novel and a book about a film. Example of a book title which includes the title of a book: *The Complete Gone with the Wind Trivia Book*,
- ✓ If the title mentioned is usually indicated by double quotation marks, italicize the title, along with the rest of the title of container, and enclose the title in double quotations marks. Examples are a book about a poem and a book of short stories.
- ✓ Example of a book title which includes the title of a short story: "*The Sneetches*" and *Other Stories*,

Collection of essays, stories, poems, etc.:

Poe, Edgar Allan. "The Black Cat". *Literature: Reading Fiction, Poetry, and Drama*, edited by Robert DiYanni, 6th ed., McGraw Hill, 2007, pp. 137-43.

Print journal, magazine, or newspaper article:

Dukes, Charlene. "Recognizing our Camelot Moment." *Community College Journal*, vol. 86, no. 5, Apr./May 2016, p. 1.

Journal, magazine, or newspaper article from an online database:

Tucker, Virginia M., et al. "Learning Portals: Analyzing Threshold Concept Theory for LIS Education." *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, vol. 55, no. 2, Apr. 2014, pp. 150-65. *Academic OneFile*, db12.linccweb.org/login?url=http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA369065399&v=2.1&u=lincclin_ircc&it=r&p=AONE&sw=w&asid=481641178d785366b35d618e23308ebf.

Television series episode:

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox, season 4, episode 10, Bad Robot, 2008.

Web page:

Meade, Rita. "It's Not Too Late to Advocate." *Screwy Decimal*, 1 June 2016, www.screwydecimal.com/2016/06/its-not-too-late-to-advocate.html.

Comic book:

Byrne, John and Jim Lee. "The Resurrection and the Flesh." *X-Men*, vol. 2, no. 4, Marvel Comics, Jan. 1992.

5.3.5 Contributors

Contributors is the fourth core element. If someone other than the primary author (or editor) contributed to the source in a way that is relevant to your paper, you can identify that person by including this element.

- ❖ This element begins with a description of the other contributor. The descriptor is capitalized or not depending on the punctuation directly preceding it - if preceded by a comma, do not capitalize, if preceded by a period, do capitalize the first word. Some common descriptors include:
 - ✓ adapted by
 - ✓ directed by
 - ✓ edited by
 - ✓ illustrated by
 - ✓ introduction by
 - ✓ narrated by
 - ✓ performance by
 - ✓ translated by
- ❖ If you use information from an introduction, preface, foreword or afterword, begin the citation with the author of that piece.
- ❖ This element ends with a comma.

Personal author(s) with editor(s):

Tynan, Kenneth. "The Kansas Farm Murders." *The Critical Response to Truman Capote*, edited by Joseph J. Waldmeir and John C. Waldmeir, Greenwood Press, 1999, pp. 129-34.

Personal author(s) with translator(s):

Kafka, Franz. *The Metamorphosis*. Translated by Stanley Corngold, 2013 ed., Modern Library, 1915.

Multiple relevant contributors:

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox, season 4, episode 10, Bad Robot, 2008.

5.3.6 Version

Version is the fifth core element. It is not always needed. If different versions of the source exist, use this element to state which version is being cited. Some examples of different versions include editions, director's cuts, and abridged or unabridged versions.

- ❖ This element begins with a capital letter only if the preceding element ended with a period. If the preceding element ended with a comma, the first letter of this element will be lower case.
- ❖ Abbreviate the word "edition" and other descriptive words.
- ❖ This element ends with a comma.

Edition:

Howard, Rebecca Moore. "Avoiding Sentence Fragments." *Writing Matters: A Handbook for Writing and Research*, 2nd ed., McGraw Hill, 2014, pp. 600-10.

Abridged/unabridged:

Sewell, Anna. *Black Beauty*. Unabridged version, F. M. Lupton, 1877.

Director's cut:

Scott, Ridley, director. *Alien*. 1979. Performance by Sigourney Weaver, director's cut, Twentieth Century Fox, 2004.

5.3.7 Number

Number is the sixth core element. This element may not be necessary for every Works Cited entry. Number is used to document multiple volume works which are numbered. For example, journals are typically numbered by volume and issue.

- ❖ This element begins with a capital letter only if the preceding element ended with a period. If the preceding element ended with a comma, the first letter of this element will be lower case.
- ❖ Abbreviate the word volume as "vol." and the word number as "no.". Separate the two parts with a comma and a space in this format: vol. 10, no. 2,
- ❖ This element ends with a comma.

Book in multiple volumes:

Damrosch, David, et al, editors. *The Longman Anthology of World Literature*. 2nd ed., vol. A, Pearson Education, 2009.

Journal article:

Houtman, Eveline. "Mind-Blowing: Fostering Self-Regulated Learning in Information Literacy Instruction." *Communications in Information Literacy*, vol.9, no. 1, 2015, pp. 6-18. www.comminfolit.org/index.phpjournal=cil&page=article&op=view&path%5B%5D=v9i1p6&path%5B%5D=203.

Comic book issue:

Byrne, John and Jim Lee. "The Resurrection and the Flesh." *X-Men*, vol. 2, no. 4, Marvel Comics, Jan. 1992.

Television series episode:

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox , season 4, episode 10, Bad Robot, 2008.

5.3.8 Publisher

Publisher is the seventh core element. The company or organization primarily responsible for producing the source or making it available is the publisher. For books, the publisher is listed on the title page.

- ❖ This element begins with a capital letter because it will almost always be a proper noun.
- ❖ Use shortened forms of publisher names. For example, "University Press" is shortened to "UP". Omit all business words like "Company", "Corporation", "Incorporated", and "Limited".
- ❖ If more than one party appears to be equally responsible for the source, document both separated by a forward slash "/".
- ❖ Some sources will not have a publisher. Common examples include articles from periodicals (journals, magazines, and newspapers), self-published works, Web sites with no publisher listed, and Web sites functioning as a container instead of a publisher like YouTube, WordPress.com, JSTOR, etc.
- ❖ This element ends with a comma.

Book:

Brinkley, Alan, *The Unfinished Nation: A Concise History of the American People*. 7th ed, McGraw Hill, 2014, p. 525.

Website:

Couceiro, Sofia and Jason Hanna. "Kate's Sister, Pippa Middleton, Announces Engagement." *CNN*, 19 July 2016, www.cnn.com/2016/07/19/europe/uk-pippa-middleton-engagement/index.html.

Blog network:

DiFrancesco, Tim. "The 4-Week Fitness Plan to Increase Strength: Day 9." *Hello Healthy*, My Fitness Pal, 2 June 2016, blog.myfitnesspal.com/4-week-fitness-plan-increase-strength-day-9/.

Films or television series:

The Big Lebowski. Directed by Joel Coen, performances by Jeff Bridges and Julianne Moore, Polygram Filmed Entertainment, 1998.

5.3.9 Publication date

Publication date is the eighth core element. Whether the year, month and year, or complete date is cited depends on the information available, the type of source, and the use of the source.

- ❖ This element begins with a number (year or date) or a capital letter for the name of the month.
- ❖ Full dates are given in this format: 28 Jan. 2016
- ❖ Use abbreviations for months with names longer than four letters:
 - ✓ Jan.
 - ✓ Feb.
 - ✓ Mar.
 - ✓ Apr.
 - ✓ Aug.
 - ✓ Sept.
 - ✓ Oct.
 - ✓ Nov.
 - ✓ Dec.
- ❖ If a season is given instead of a month, include the season in lowercase letters:
 - spring 2015
- ❖ If there are multiple dates available, give the date that is most relevant to your use of the source.
- ❖ Give the date as shown or use what is most relevant to your use of the source. If the month, day, and year are given, use all three. If only the year is given, that is sufficient.

- ❖ For online content, give the date the material was posted online unless it was originally made available through another medium that is more relevant to your use of the source.
- ❖ This element ends with a comma unless it is the final element in an entry.

Book:

DiYanni, Robert, editor. *Literature: Reading Fiction, Poetry, and Drama*. 6th ed., McGraw Hill, 2007.

Journal, magazine, or newspaper article:

Dickman, Kylie. "Apocalypse in the Garden State." *Rolling Stone*, no. 1260, 5 May 2016, pp. 36-9.

Magazine article from a Web site:

Garber, Megan. "The Trump Campaign Just Became Literature." *The Atlantic*, 28 June 2016, www.theatlantic.com/entertainment/archive/2016/06/the-trump-campaign-just-became-literature/489140/.

Television series episode:

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox, season 4, episode 10, Bad Robot, 2008.

or

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox, season 4, episode 10, American Broadcasting, 1 May 2008.

Online video:

"The H Bomb: Making up for Lost Time: Lost." *YouTube*, uploaded by ABC's Lost, 24 Nov. 2009, www.youtube.com/watch?v=ueh4yEciCp4

5.3.10 Location

Location is the ninth core element. This element describes where the source was accessed/can be found. Locations can be cities, page numbers, URLs, DOIs, disc numbers, etc.

- ❖ The location used depends on the medium of the source.
- ❖ For print sources, the location is the page number or range of page numbers.
 - The format is "p. 166" for one page and "pp. 123-166" for a range of pages.
- ❖ For online sources, the location is the URL or DOI (if available). When using DOIs add the prefix <https://doi.org/>
- ❖ For a DVD, use the disc number.
- ❖ For physical objects like artwork or live events, use the place it is held.
- ❖ Optional elements include:
 - ✓ the original date of publication, if it is relevant to the use of the source. Place the original date of publication after the source's title followed by a period.
 - ✓ original city of publication for sources published prior to 1900 or books with different versions depending upon the audience, like a book available in a British or American version. Place the city name before the publication date followed by a comma.
- ❖ This element ends with a period.

Book:

Brinkley, Alan. *The Unfinished Nation: A Concise History of the American People*. 7th ed. McGraw Hill. 2014, p. 525.

Print journal, magazine, or newspaper article:

Dickman, Kylie. "Apocalypse in the Garden State." *Rolling Stone*, no. 1260, 5 May 2016, pp. 36-39.

Journal, magazine, or newspaper article from an online database with a permalink (no DOI provided):

Tucker, Virginia M., et al. "Learning Portals: Analyzing Threshold Concept Theory for LIS Education." *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, vol. 55, no. 2, Apr. 2014, pp. 150-65. *Academic OneFile*, db12.linccweb.org/login?url=http://go.galegroup.co

m.db12.linccweb.org/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA369065399&v=2.1&u=lincclin
_ircc&it=r&p=AONE&sw=w&asid=481641178d785366b35d618e23308ebf.

Journal, magazine, or newspaper article from an online database with a DOI:

Gleeson-White, Sara. "A Peculiarly Southern Form of Ugliness: Eudora Welty, Carson McCullers, and Flanner O'Connor." *Southern Literary Journal*, vol. 36, no. 1, fall 2003, pp. 46-57. *Literary Reference Center*, <https://doi.org/10.1353/slj.2003.0032>.

Magazine article from a Website:

Garber, Megan. "The Trump Campaign Just Became Literature." *The Atlantic*, 28 June 2016, www.theatlantic.com/entertainment/archive/2016/06/the-trump-campaign-just-became-literature/489140/.

Television series episode:

"Something Nice Back Home." *Lost*, directed by Stephen Williams, performance by Matthew Fox, season 4, episode 10, American Broadcasting, 1 May 2008.

Online video:

"The H Bomb: Making up for Lost Time: Lost." *YouTube*, uploaded by ABC's Lost, 24 Nov. 2009, www.youtube.com/watch?v=ueh4yEcjCp4.

5.3.11 Supplemental elements

Supplemental elements should be included if they are relevant to the source and/or your use of the source. A supplemental element is placed after Title of Source if it does not pertain to the entry as a whole. Otherwise, it is placed at the end of the Works Cited entry. Occasionally, the supplemental element applies only to the first container and will be placed after the first container and before the second container. Follow a supplemental element with a period. If you need or want to include more than one supplemental element, place a comma between them. Please consult pages 208-9 of the MLA Handbook, Ninth Edition.

Supplemental elements include:

- ❖ Contributors other than the Author - most commonly placed after Title of Source
- ❖ Date of Original Publication - most commonly placed after Title of Source
- ❖ Generically labeled sections - most commonly placed after Title of Source
- ❖ Date of access - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source; used when there is no publication or if the source has since been altered or deleted.
 - ✓ Accessed 28 June 2016.
- ❖ Medium of publication - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source; used when there are two or media options at the same location such as an audio recording and a transcript
- ❖ Unexpected type of work or ambiguous format - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source:
 - ✓ Transcript.
 - ✓ Address.
 - ✓ EPUB.
 - ✓ Lecture.
- ❖ Information about a prior publication - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source; only include when relevant:
 - ✓ Originally published in *Harper's Magazine*, Jan. 2007, pp. 2-10.
- ❖ Series name and number - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source:
 - ✓ Not italicized or in quotations.
 - ✓ Example: A Song of Ice and Fire 3.
- ❖ Recurring titled features - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source
- ❖ Total number of volumes or the unique title for the volume referenced - placed at the end of the citation to refer to the entire source:

- ✓ 8 vols.
- ✓ Vol. 4 of *The Years of Ronald Reagan*
- ✓

Key Takeaways

MLA *Works Cited* entries are built from a set of **core elements**, arranged in a specific order. Each element provides essential details about the source, ensuring accuracy and uniformity in academic writing.

1. **Author** – The first core element identifies who is responsible for the work. The first author's name is reversed (e.g., *Smith, John*), while others are written normally and joined by *and*. Use *et al.* for three or more authors. Editors, translators, or organizations may replace authors when applicable.
2. **Title of Source** – The second element includes the full title from the source's title page. Standalone works like books or films are *italicized*, while parts of larger works (like articles or poems) are in *quotation marks*. Titles within titles use opposite formatting styles (italics vs. quotation marks).
3. **Title of Container** – The larger source that holds the smaller work. For example, a journal containing an article or a website containing a webpage. Containers are *italicized* and followed by a comma.
4. **Contributors** – Lists other relevant contributors such as *translated by*, *edited by*, or *directed by*. These are included if they are important to your citation.
5. **Version** – Specifies which version or edition of the source was used (e.g., *2nd ed.*, *unabridged version*, *director's cut*).
6. **Number** – Indicates numbered parts like *volumes* and *issues* (e.g., *vol. 10, no. 2*).
7. **Publisher** – Names the organization or company responsible for publishing the work. Use abbreviations like *UP* for *University Press* and omit business terms such as *Company* or *Ltd.*
8. **Publication Date** – Lists when the source was published. Use the most relevant date and abbreviate long month names (e.g., *5 May 2016* or *spring 2015*).
9. **Location** – Indicates where to find the source: *page numbers* for print works, *URLs or DOIs* for online materials, or *disc numbers* for multimedia.

10. **Supplemental Elements** – Optional details that add context, such as *access date, medium of publication, series name, or original publication information*.

Together, these elements ensure clarity and consistency when citing sources across different media types.

Check your Progress

1. In MLA style, how should the first author's name appear in the Works Cited entry?
- a) First name first
 - b) Only initials
 - c) Last name first, followed by a comma
 - d) Full name without punctuation

Answer: c) Last name first, followed by a comma

2. Which of the following titles should be italicized?
- a) "The Road Not Taken"
 - b) *The Times of India*
 - c) "A Clean, Well-Lighted Place"
 - d) "The Raven"

Answer: b) *The Times of India*

3. How should you list three or more authors in a citation?
- a) List all names in full
 - b) Use the first author followed by *et al.*
 - c) Use the initials of all authors
 - d) Use "and others"

Answer: b) Use the first author followed by *et al.*

4. What does the "Title of Container" refer to in MLA style?
- a) The original title of the book
 - b) The larger work that holds the source
 - c) The file name of a document
 - d) The publisher's name

Answer: b) The larger work that holds the source

5. Which of the following correctly represents an edition in MLA format?

- a) Second edition
- b) Edition 2
- c) 2nd ed.
- d) Ed. Second

Answer: c) 2nd ed.

6. What is the correct abbreviation for “volume” and “number” in MLA?

- a) Vol., Num.
- b) v., no.
- c) vol., no.
- d) Volume, Number

Answer: c) vol., no.

7. When should a *date of access* be included in a citation?

- a) Always for books
- b) For print sources only
- c) Only when there is no publication date or for web sources likely to change
- d) Only for sources older than 10 years

Answer: c) Only when there is no publication date or for web sources likely to change.

5.4 Ordering List of Works-Cited List

The works-cited list is sorted by the first part of the author's name in each entry or, if the works are named by title, the first word that can be used in the Title of Source element.

5.4.1 Alphabetizing: An Overview

Use the letter-by-letter alphabetisation system, where entries are arranged according to the section of the name, title, or description that comes first. For authors' names inverted, corporate authors (i.e., organisations), or

Letters after the comma are only taken into account in alphabetisation when two or more names start in the same way. Government authors, who are composed of administrative units separated by commas, alphabetise up to the comma. When alpha

numericing titles, descriptions, and company names, other punctuation signs and spaces are disregarded. When alphabetising titles, do not include the beginning articles (a, an, the, or their equivalent in other languages) for corporate authors (such as the United Nations, the Beatles, or the Modern Language Association).

In alphabetisation, accents and other diacritical signs should be disregarded; for instance, é is treated the same as e.

Götz would be alphabetised as Goetz and would come before Gott in an alphabetic listing because Germanists writing for specialised audiences might regard an umlauted vowel as though it were preceded by an e.

However, many English-speaking libraries and nonspecialists alphabetise these words without taking into account the umlaut; this is the standard method for publications primarily intended for English speakers.

The following list shows letter-by-letter alphabetization

Examples

- “The Beatles” would be listed as “Beatles.”
- “The Modern Language Association” is listed under “M.”
- “Götz” is alphabetized as “Gotz,” and typically follows “Gott.”

The following list shows letter-by-letter alphabetization.

- ❖ Achebe, Chinua
- ❖ Beatles
- ❖ Beowulf
- ❖ Christine de Pizan
- ❖ Descartes, René
- ❖ Duong Thu Huong
- ❖ Executive summary
- ❖ Film Crit Hulk
- ❖ Gott

- ❖ MacDonald, George
- ❖ McCullers, Carson
- ❖ Moonlight
- ❖ Morris, Robert
- ❖ Morrison, Toni
- ❖ Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de
- ❖ The Second Shepherds' Play
- ❖ United Nations
- ❖ United States, Congress, House, Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence

5.4.2 Alphabetizing by Author

Special attention must be given when ordering numerous works by one author, multiple works by two writers, and multiple works by more than two authors.

Multiple Works by the Same Author

When listing two or more books by the same author, the author's name should only be in the first item. Next, replace the name with three em dashes (or hyphens if you're using them). Usually, the source's title and a space come after the three hyphens or em dashes, which stand for the exact same name as in the previous item and are usually followed by a period and then by the source's title.

Borroff, Marie. *Language and the Poet: Verbal Artistry in Frost, Stevens, and Moore*. U of Chicago P, 1979.

—. translator. *Pearl: A New Verse Translation*. W. W. Norton, 1977.

—. "Sound Symbolism as Drama in the Poetry of Robert Frost." *PMLA*, vol. 107, no. 1, Jan. 1992, pp. 131–44. *JSTOR*, <https://doi.org/10.2307/462806>.

—., editor. *Wallace Stevens: A Collection of Critical Essays*. Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Multiple Works by Two Authors

Before recording the title, put a comma after the three dashes or hyphens and a word that describes the job (for example, editor, translator, or director) of the person

who was named. Sources by the same person are arranged in alphabetical order by their names; terms that describe the person's roles are not taken into account.

Gilbert, Sandra M., and Susan Gubar, editors. *The Female Imagination and the Modernist Aesthetic*. Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, 1986.

—. "Sexual Linguistics: Gender, Language, Sexuality." *New Literary History*, vol. 16, no. 3, spring 1985, pp. 515–43. *JSTOR*, <https://doi.org/10.2307/468838>.

Multiple Works by More Than Two Authors

For works with the same first author and same coauthors (in the same order), use the lead author's name followed by *et al.* for the first entry and replace the names with em dashes in the next. However, if the coauthor list changes or is ordered differently, list all names and do not use dashes. Alphabetize these entries by title.

Perry, John, et al. *Introduction to Philosophy: Classical and Contemporary Readings*. 7th ed., Oxford UP, 2015.

—. *Introduction to Philosophy: Classical and Contemporary Readings*. 8th ed., Oxford UP, 2018.

Horner, Bruce, et al., editors. *Cross-Language Relations in Composition*. Southern Illinois UP, 2010.

Horner, Bruce, et al. "Language Difference in Writing: Toward a Translingual Approach." *College English*, vol. 73, no. 3, Jan. 2011, pp. 304–21.

Single and Coauthored Works

If an author has both individual and coauthored works, list the solo works first. For coauthored works, order by the coauthor's name. Works with two authors are listed before those with more than two.

Tannen, Deborah. *Talking Voices: Repetition, Dialogue, and Imagery in Conversational Discourse*. 2nd ed., Cambridge UP, 2007. *Studies in Interactional Sociolinguistics* 26.

—. *You're Wearing That? Understanding Mothers and Daughters in Conversation*. Ballantine Books, 2006.

Tannen, Deborah, and Roy O. Freedle, editors. *Linguistics in Context: Connecting Observation and Understanding*. Ablex Publishing, 1988.

Tannen, Deborah, and Muriel Saville-Troike, editors. *Perspectives on Silence*. Ablex Publishing, 1985.

Tannen, Deborah, et al., editors. *Family Talk: Discourse and Identity in Four American Families*. Oxford UP, 2007.

5.4.3 Alphabetizing by Title

If a source doesn't have an author or is part of multiple entries by the same author(s), alphabetize by the title. Ignore any initial articles like *A*, *An*, or *The*, and treat numerals as if spelled out.

- ✓ For example, *1914: An Anonymous Diary...* is alphabetized as if it starts with "Nineteen."
- ✓ Exceptions apply when the number indicates sequence, like *Henry IV* and *Henry V*, which are ordered numerically.

Cross-References

If you're citing multiple pieces from the same anthology or collection, avoid repeating publication details. Create a full entry for the anthology and refer to it in the other entries by naming the anthology and its editors, along with the relevant page numbers. This method isn't appropriate for periodicals, websites, or other ongoing publications.

5.4.4 Annotated Bibliographies

Annotated bibliographies follow standard works-cited formatting, but include a summary or evaluation after each citation.

- ✓ The annotation is indented further than the main entry and usually consists of a brief phrase or a complete sentence.
- ✓ It should avoid unnecessary details and aim to be concise—usually one paragraph long.
- ✓ Paragraphs in longer annotations should be indented but not separated by extra spaces.

- ✓ The list can be titled *Annotated Bibliography* or *Annotated List of Works Cited*, and it may be arranged by author, title, date, or subject, depending on your instructor's instructions.

5.5 Citing Sources in the Text

5.5.1 Citations in the text - Overview

There are short, unobtrusive references in the text that lead readers to the sources you used in the works-cited list and, if necessary, to the part of the source being referenced.

The shortest piece of information that leads your reader to the entry in the works-cited list is the first thing that goes in an in-text reference. If the author's name or the title (or description) of the work comes first in the record, that's what it starts with. It is possible for the reference to be in your writing or in parentheses. For example,

1. Citation in prose

Naomi Baron broke new ground on the subject.

Parenthetical citation

At least one researcher has broken new ground on the subject (Baron).

Work cited

Baron, Naomi S. "Redefining Reading: The Impact of Digital Communication Media."
PMLA, vol. 128, no. 1, Jan. 2013, pp. 193–200.

2. Citation in prose

According to the article "Bhakti Poets," female bhakti poets "faced overwhelming challenges through their rejection of societal norms and values."

Parenthetical citation

The female bhakti poets "faced overwhelming challenges through their rejection of societal norms and values" ("Bhakti Poets").

Work cited

"Bhakti Poets: Introduction." *Women in World History*, Center for History and New Media,

An in-text citation has a second part that is included when it is needed: if a specific part of a work is quoted or paraphrased and the work has a page number, line number, time stamp, or other marker that shows where the information can be found, that marker must be included in brackets/ parenthesis

Parenthetical citations

Reading is “just half of literacy. The other half is writing” (**Baron 194**). One might even suggest that reading is never complete without writing.

Despite an apparent decline in reading during the same period, “the number of people doing creative writing—of any genre, not exclusively literary works—increased substantially between 1982 and 2002” (**Reading 3**).

Works cited

Baron, Naomi S. “Redefining Reading: The Impact of Digital Communication Media.” *PMLA*, vol. 128, no. 1, Jan. 2013, pp. 193–200.

Reading at Risk: A Survey of Literary Reading in America. National Endowment for the Arts, June 2004.

Every in-text reference should be brief. Avoid including an author's name or work title in both prose and parentheses.

Citations (incorrect)

According to Naomi Baron, reading is “just half of literacy. The other half is writing” (Baron 194).

Reading at Risk notes that despite an apparent decline in reading during the same period, “the number of people doing creative writing—of any genre, not exclusively literary works—increased substantially between 1982 and 2002” (*Reading 3*).

Citations (correct)

According to Naomi Baron, reading is “just half of literacy. The other half is writing” (194).

Reading at Risk notes that despite an apparent decline in reading during the same period, “the number of people doing creative writing—of any genre, not exclusively literary works—increased substantially between 1982 and 2002” (3).

Use only the portion of an author's name—typically just the last name—necessary to locate the entry in the list of works mentioned when using parenthetical citations.

Citation (incorrect)

At least one researcher has broken new ground on the subject (Naomi S. Baron).

Citation (correct)

At least one researcher has broken new ground on the subject (Baron).

Use shortened titles in parenthetical citations.

In prose	In parenthetical citations	In works-cited list
<i>Reading at Risk</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Reading at Risk: A Survey of Literary Reading in America</i>

As in the list of works referenced, if such abbreviations provide clarity, avoid using p. or pp. before a page number in a parenthetical citation for the sake of concision. A designation such as chapter or section (commonly abbreviated in parenthesis) or line or lines (do not abbreviate) should come before any number other than a page number in a parenthetical citation. If not, the numeral is supposed to be interpreted by your reader as a page number.

In prose	In parenthetical citations
chapter 2	(ch. 2)
line 110	(line 110)
scene 4	(sc. 4)

5.5.2 Citing a work listed by author

- ❖ When citing an author named in the works-cited list, **use the full name** the first time in your text, and **just the last name** afterward.

- ❖ **Middle initials** from the works-cited list can be **omitted** in your prose.
- ❖ In **parenthetical citations**, use **only the surname**.
- ❖ For **authors from East Asian cultures**, provide both the **surname and given name** at first mention, and only the **surname** thereafter, including in parentheses.
- ❖ For **premodern writers** known by a given name (e.g., Christine de Pizan), use **only the given name** in both prose and parentheses.

5.5.3 Coauthors

- ❖ If a source has **two authors**, name **both** in the prose using full names the first time. In parentheses, use **both last names joined by “and.”**
- ❖ For **three or more authors**, the citation uses the **first author’s name followed by “et al.”**
 - ✓ In **prose**, you may list all authors or use **“and others”** or **“and colleagues.”**
 - ✓ In **parenthetical citations**, write: **(FirstAuthor et al. PageNumber)**.
- ❖ **“Et al.”** should be in **roman type**, not italicized, unless you're discussing the term itself.

5.5.4 Corporate Authors

- ❖ For organizations as authors, **shorten** the name to the **smallest noun phrase** in parentheses, excluding leading articles like "the."
 - ✓ *Example:* “Modern Language Association of America” becomes “Modern Language Association.”
- ❖ If citing different branches of a large group (e.g., parts of the U.S. government), include **enough of the name** to distinguish the source.

5.5.5 Two Authors with the Same Surname

- ❖ If citing works by authors with the **same last name**, always use the **full first name** in prose—even after first mention—to avoid confusion.
- ❖ In **parentheses**, add a **first initial** (or full first name if both authors share the same initial).
 - ✓ *Example:* (N. Baron 194) or (Naomi Baron 194)

5.5.6 Two or More Works by the Same Author(s)

- ❖ When citing **multiple works** by the same author(s), **add the title** (or a shortened version) to your citation to identify the source.

You can do this in three ways:

- ✓ **Author in prose, title in parentheses:**
Morrison writes... (“Beloved” 35).
 - ✓ **Author and title in prose:**
As Morrison writes in *Beloved*... (35).
 - ✓ **Both in parentheses:**
(Morrison, *Beloved* 35)
- ❖ These rules also apply when citing **multiple works by the same group of coauthors** (e.g., Horner et al.).

The above mentioned in- text citation details are presented in tabular form:

Scenario	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Notes
Single author	Full name at first mention; surname after	(Surname)	Omit middle initial in prose

Scenario	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Notes
East Asian names (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Korean)	Surname + Given name first; Surname after	(Surname)	Follow name order; use surname only in parentheses
Premodern figures known by given name (e.g., Christine de Pizan)	Given name only	(Given name)	No surname required
Two authors	Full names of both authors	(Surname and Surname)	Use “and” to join surnames in parentheses
Three or more authors	First author + “and others” or “and colleagues”	(First author et al.)	“Et al.” is in roman (not italic) unless used as a term
Corporate authors	Full name in prose	(Shortened noun phrase)	Shorten name to essential noun phrase; drop initial articles
Multiple units from same organization	Full name of branch/unit	(Distinguishing part of name)	Include enough to identify specific entry
Authors with same surname	Full first and last names always	(First initial Surname) or (Full first name Surname)	Use full first name if initials are the same
Two or more works by same author(s)	Author in prose + title in citation or prose	(Author, <i>Short Title Page</i>)	Add title to identify source; use short form if needed

5.5.7 Citing a work listed by title

If a source in the works-cited list begins with its **title instead of an author's name**, you can reference it in prose or in parentheses:

- ❖ **In prose:** You can mention the full title naturally in your sentence.
Example: Reading at Risk states that...
- ❖ **In parentheses:** Use a **shortened version of the title**, usually just the first few words.
Example: ... (Reading 3).

5.5.8 Shortening Titles in Parenthetical Citations

When a title is **longer than a noun phrase**, shorten it for parenthetical citations:

- ❖ Keep only the first **noun and any adjectives before it**.
- ❖ **Articles** like *the*, *a*, or *an* should be removed.
- ❖ For **foreign titles**, you may omit or keep initial articles, but be consistent.
- ❖ If the title forms a **rhetorical unit** (e.g., *Is Nothing Sacred?*), you may keep the full title.
- ❖ If the title starts with something other than a noun phrase, stop at the first punctuation or end of the first phrase.

5.5.9 Titles in Quotation Marks Beginning with a Title

When a title in quotation marks **includes another title in quotation marks**, use the **inner title** for the short form.

- ❖ Use **double quotation marks** outside and **single quotation marks** inside.
- ❖ Drop initial articles like *the* or *a*.

5.5.10 Quoted Titles That Begin with a Quotation

If the title begins with a quotation, use that quoted portion as the short title in citations.

- ❖ Keep the **single quotes** inside **double quotes**.
- ❖ If the quotation is long, shorten it reasonably.

5.5.11 Using Abbreviations Instead of Titles

Long or frequently repeated titles can be replaced with abbreviations, especially when citing multiple times.

- ❖ Multiple works by the same author.
- ❖ Introduce the abbreviation **in parentheses** after first mention in text.
- ❖ For single-word titles, use the first **syllable** plus a period (e.g., *Sym.*).
- ❖ For multi-word titles, use the **first letter of each capitalized word**, excluding articles and punctuation (e.g., *MND* for *A Midsummer Night's Dream*).
- ❖ **Do not** use these abbreviations in prose—use a shortened form instead.

5.5.12 Shortening Descriptions in Place of Titles

When a source doesn't have a formal title and instead uses a **description** (like "Letter to..." or "Advertisement for..."):

- ❖ In citations, shorten to the **first noun or noun phrase**.
- ❖ **Do not** italicize or put quotes around the shortened phrase.
- ❖ If the original description starts with a generic term like *review*, use lowercase in prose and uppercase in the parenthetical citation.

5.5.13 When Author and Title Aren't Enough

If an author has multiple works with the **same title**, or if titles alone can be confusing:

- ❖ Add the **next identifying detail** in square brackets after the title (e.g., editor, translator, edition, publisher, or year).

- ❖ Apply this method **consistently** throughout your work.

Tabular format for easy reference:

Description	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Key Guidelines
Work listed by title in the Works Cited	Use full title in prose.	Use full or shortened title. E.g., (Reading 3)	Italicize book titles; shorten only in parenthetical if needed.
Shortening titles of works	Use full title in prose.	Shorten if longer than a noun phrase. E.g., (Double Vision)	Shorten to first noun + adjectives; drop initial articles (“a,” “the”). Consistent rule for foreign titles.
Title begins with another title in quotation marks	Use full title in prose.	Use the inner quoted title in shortened form. E.g., (“Yellow Wallpaper” 311)	Keep single quotes within double quotes in parentheses. Omit articles.
Title begins with a quotation (not another title)	Use full title in prose.	Use the inner quotation in shortened form. E.g., (“These Problematic Shores”)	Truncate long quotes but retain inner single quotation marks.
Abbreviating titles (optional method)	Use full title with abbreviation introduced: <i>The Sympathizer</i> (Sym.)	Use abbreviation. E.g., (Sym. 9–10), (MND 1.1.134)	Abbreviate consistently. Don’t use abbreviation in prose. Use initial letters or syllables.
Work listed by a descriptive phrase instead of a title	Use general term in lowercase in prose: “a review”	Capitalize the first word of description. E.g., (Review)	Do not italicize or use quotes in parenthetical. Capitalize in citation.

Description	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Key Guidelines
Author and title are not enough to distinguish works	Christine de Pizan, <i>Livre</i> [Willard and Hicks] 3–4	Add distinguishing info in square brackets	Use editor, translator, edition, publisher, or year. Be consistent across citations.

5.5.14 Page Numbers and Divisions

- ❖ Use the **same numeral style** (e.g., Roman, Arabic, alphanumeric) as shown in the source for page numbers.
- ❖ For other divisions (like chapters, acts), always use **Arabic numerals**—even if the source uses another style.
- ❖ Do **not** write "p." or "pp." in parenthetical citations (only in the works-cited list).

5.5.15 One-Page Works

- ❖ Don't include a page number for works that are just **one page long**.

5.5.16 Multi-Page Quotations

- ❖ If a quotation **spans pages**, cite the **page range** (e.g., 9–10).

5.5.17 Nonconsecutive Pagination

- ❖ Cite **actual page numbers used** in your quote, even if the **works-cited entry** uses a plus sign (e.g., pp. 27+).
- ❖ **Order** the page numbers as they appear in the paper.

5.5.18 Numbered Paragraphs, Sections, or Lines

- ❖ If no page numbers are given but other parts are numbered (e.g., **pars.**, **secs.**, **chs.**), cite those.
- ❖ Don't invent numbers not present in the source.
- ❖ Example: (Silko, ch. 2) or (Shakespeare, line 4).

5.5.19 Common Literary Works

- ❖ For classics or works with **multiple editions**, cite **division numbers** (e.g., book, scene) instead of pages to help all readers find the text.

5.5.20 Poems and Verse Plays

- ❖ Use **line numbers**, not page numbers.
- ❖ Cite divisions first if lines **restart numbering** (e.g., Hamlet 1.5.35–37).
- ❖ If using only line numbers, **omit** "l." or "ll."—just write the numbers after explaining they are lines.

5.5.21 Prose Works (e.g., novels)

- ❖ First give the **page number**, then **division** (e.g., act, section), separated by a **semicolon**.
- ❖ Example: (Miller 9; act 1)

5.5.22 Ancient or Medieval Works

- ❖ These are usually cited by their **traditional reference system**, not page number (e.g., Aristotle 1453a15–16).

5.5.23 Scripture

- ❖ Identify the **version** of the scripture in your first citation.
- ❖ Cite by **division** (e.g., Ezek. 1.5), not page.
- ❖ Later references can **omit** the edition if already established.

5.5.24 No Numbered Parts

- ❖ If there are **no numbers** (pages, sections, etc.), don't cite numbers.
- ❖ Mention the **author or title in prose**, or include it parenthetically.

5.5.25 Multivolume Works

- ❖ If you use **only one volume**, the volume info is in the works-cited entry—**omit it in-text**.
- ❖ If you cite **multiple volumes**, give volume and page (e.g., 1: 5).
- ❖ For references to a **whole volume**, use (Author, vol. 2).

5.5.26 Time-Based Media

- ❖ Use **time stamps** (e.g., 00:03:16–17) when citing audio or video.

5.5.27 Numbered Notes

- ❖ Cite notes using **n** or **nn** for numbered notes, or **un** for unnumbered (e.g., 77n5, 3 un).

5.5.28 Citation Punctuation Rules

- ❖ **No punctuation** between author/title and page number (e.g., Baron 194).
- ❖ Use a **comma** if the citation includes both **author and title** (e.g., Wollstonecraft, *Vindication* 185).
- ❖ Use **labels** (e.g., par., ch., lines) when referring to non-page parts.
- ❖ **Semicolon** separates page number and other divisions (e.g., Wollstonecraft 185; ch. 13).
- ❖ **Semicolons** separate **multiple sources**: (Baron 194; Jacobs 55).
- ❖ **Commas** separate **different places** in one source: (Baron 194, 200).
- ❖ For **multiple works** by the same author, separate titles with *and*, using the **serial comma** if needed.
- ❖ If your citation includes explanation (e.g., "my emphasis"), add it after a semicolon.
- ❖ If other parentheses are present (e.g., for dates), use **square brackets** inside the citation or **reword** for clarity.

Tabular format for easy reference:

Description	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Key Guidelines
Page Numbers and Divisions	Refer to pages or divisions in your text	(Author 23)	Use the same numeral style as in the source. For chapters/acts, use Arabic numerals. Do not write "p." or "pp." in parentheses.
One-Page Works	Mention the work in text	(Author)	No page number needed for works just one page long.
Multi-Page Quotations	Refer to page range	(Author 9–10)	Cite the range of pages for quotations spanning multiple pages.
Nonconsecutive Pagination	Refer to each page used	(Author 27, 30)	Cite actual pages used; order as they appear in paper.
Numbered Paragraphs, Sections, Lines	Mention in text	(Author, ch. 2)	Cite numbered parts if no pages. Do not invent numbers.
Common Literary Works	Mention division	(Author, book 2)	Use division numbers instead of pages for classics/multiple editions.
Poems and Verse Plays	Mention line numbers	(Author 1.5.35 – 37)	Use line numbers, not pages. Cite divisions if line numbers restart. Omit "I." or "II." if explained.
Prose Works (e.g., novels)	Mention page and division	(Author 9; act 1)	Give page first, then division separated by semicolon.
Ancient or Medieval Works	Refer by traditional system	(Aristotle 1453a15–16)	Cite using historical reference system, not pages.
Scripture	Mention version and division	(Ezek. 1.5)	Cite division, not page. Include version in first citation. Later citations may omit edition.
No Numbered Parts	Mention author/title	(Author)	If no numbers, do not cite pages or sections.
Multivolume Works	Mention volume if multiple used	(Author 1:5)	Single volume info is in works-cited; multiple volumes require volume and page. For whole volume: (Author, vol. 2).
Time-Based Media	Mention time in text	(Author 00:03:16–17)	Use time stamps for audio/video citations.
Numbered Notes	Refer to notes	(Author 77n5)	Use n or nn for numbered notes, un for unnumbered notes.
Citation Punctuation Rules	Embed in prose	(Author 194; Title 185)	No punctuation between author/title and page. Use comma if both author and title. Use labels for non-page parts (par., ch., lines). Semicolons separate

Description	Citation in Prose	Parenthetical Citation	Key Guidelines
			page and division or multiple sources; commas separate different places in one source. Use serial comma for multiple works by same author. Explanations go after semicolon. For nested parentheses, use square brackets or reword.

5.6. Quoting and Paraphrasing Sources

Quotations are significant in research papers when used judiciously. Select and quote only the most intriguing, vivid, uncommon, or suitable words, phrases, sentences, or passages, keeping them as brief as feasible. Excessive quoting can be tedious for readers and may give the impression that you lack originality and writing proficiency.

Quoting accurately in research writing is important. They are required to replicate the original sources precisely. Changes to the spelling, capitalization, or interior punctuation of the source are not allowed unless specified in brackets or parentheses. You need to create a precise and grammatically correct statement that introduces or includes a quotation accurately. You can also rephrase the original content and include certain parts of it, which might be simpler to incorporate into the text. When modifying a quotation, ensure that the changes are clearly indicated to the reader in accordance with the provided guidelines and recommendations.

5.6.1 Short Quotations

- ✓ For quotations that are no longer than four lines, enclose them in double quotation marks and integrate them into the text. Enclose quotations within single quotation marks.
- ✓ Punctuation markers like periods, commas, and semicolons should come after the parenthetical reference. Question marks and exclamation marks should be placed within the quotation marks if they are part of the quoted piece, and after the parenthesis if they are part of your content.

Examples Shelley thought poets —the unacknowledged legislators of the World!! (794).
Dorothea responds to her sister, —what a wonderful little almanac you are, Celia!! (7)

5.6.2 Long Quotations

- ✓ For quotations exceeding four lines in your paper, start a new line and indent half an inch from the left margin. Do not indent the initial line of a single paragraph or portion of a paragraph more than the remainder of the quotation.
- ✓ There should be no quote marks used at the beginning or the end of the sentence.
- ✓ When the quotation is lengthy, a period is put at the end of the quotation, which is then followed by the parenthesis.
- ✓ Indent the initial line of the block quotation if you are beginning a new paragraph within the block quotation.

Example: At the conclusion of *Lord of the Flies*, Ralph, realizing the horror of his actions, is overcome by great, shuddering spasms of grief that seemed to wrench his whole body. His voice rose under the back smoke before the burning wreckage of the island; and infected by that emotion, the other little boys began to shake and sob too. (186)

5.6.3 Poetry

Put the portion of a line of verse that does not require special emphasis that you quote within your text in quotation marks, just as you would do with a line of prose. This applies whether you quote part or all of the verse. Using a forward slash with a space on each side (/) to indicate to your reader where the line breaks fall, you may also include two or three lines in this manner.

Bradstreet frames the poem with a sense of mortality:

—All things within this fading world hath end. . . .ll

Reflecting on the —incidentll in Baltimore,

Cullen concludes, —Of all the things that happened there /That's all that I remember.//
If a stanza break occurs in the quotation, mark it with two forward slashes (//).

The *Tao te ching*, in David Hinton's translation, says that the ancient masters were —
so deep beyond knowing /
we can only describe their appearance:
// perfectly cautious, as if crossing winter streams. . . .//

When you quote verses that are longer than three lines, you should separate them from the rest of your text as a block. A half inch of indentation should be placed from the left margin of the citation, unless the quotation needs peculiar spacing. If the original does not contain quote marks, you should not add them. It is possible that a verse citation needs to be cited with line and other division numbers, a page number, or no number at all, depending on the length of the poem and whether or not it was published in editions that had numbered lines. In the event that it is necessary, the in-text citation for a poetry quotation that is separated from the text in this manner follows the final line of the quotation (at the same time that it does for prose quotations). It is recommended that the citation be placed on a new line, flush with the right margin of the page, in the event that it cannot be accommodated on the same line as the conclusion of the quotation.

5.6. 4 Drama

When you quote dialogue in a play or film, make sure to separate the citation from the rest of the text. To begin each section of the dialogue, the name of the appropriate character should be put in all capital letters and indented by half an inch from the left margin. **For example, HAMLET** in all capital letters. First, a period should be placed after the name, and then the quotation should begin. Increase the indentation of all next lines in that character's dialogue. Begin a new line indented half an inch when the conversation transitions to a different character. Consistently follow this technique in the entire quotation.

limited to text that is enclosed in quotation marks in the original work, as long as the introduction clearly identifies the unique nature of the quoted content. Quotation marks that you copy directly from the source may wind up looking like double quotation marks since block quotations do not display in quotation marks.

Marking the end of a quotation

Whether you include the closing punctuation mark for a quotation depends on where the quoted material appears in your sentence, what type of punctuation mark it is, and whether it is followed by a parenthetical citation.

Periods and commas

If you conclude your sentence with this quotation and a parenthetical citation, omit the closing period inside quotation marks. A sentence-ending period should follow the parenthetical citation. If the quotation ends in the middle of your sentence, replace the period with a punctuation mark appropriate to the new context—in this case, a comma.

By convention, commas and periods that directly follow quotations go inside the closing quotation marks, as shown above. If a quotation ends with both single and double quotation marks, the comma or period precedes both.

Other punctuation marks

- ❖ A closing quotation mark should come before any other punctuation, like as semicolons, colons, question marks, and exclamation points that you use to structure your phrase.
- ❖ But if a quotation ends in an exclamation point or a question mark, keep the original punctuation. A period should come after the parenthetical citation in a sentence.
- ❖ A period does not come before or after the question mark or exclamation point if your sentence finishes with one of these quotations and no parenthetical citation follows.
- ❖ To indicate a paraphrasing, put an exclamation point or a question mark after the parenthetical citation.

Using an Ellipsis to Mark Material Omitted from Quotations

Two guidelines should always guide your omissions from quoted passages: maintaining the grammatical integrity of your writing and being fair to the author you are quoting. This applies to words, phrases, sentences, and more. Never display a quotation in a way that could lead the reader to interpret the source's meaning or sense incorrectly. Mark the content you left out of a sentence or group of sentences with an ellipsis point or three evenly spaced periods (...) if it is not immediately apparent. It is evident that you have omitted some of the original text when you quote just a word or phrase, hence there is no need for ellipsis points before or after the citation.

In his inaugural address, John F. Kennedy spoke of a —new frontier. However, if your quote flows naturally as a whole, you should eliminate some words in the middle or at the end if the original statement didn't end there. The section that results from removing words from a quotation, both your prose and the quotation incorporated into it, must be grammatically complete and correct.

Omission within a sentence

- ❖ Use an ellipsis to indicate an omission in a sentence.
- ❖ Add three periods with a space before each after the last word of the citation when the ellipsis appears at the conclusion of your sentence.
- ❖ Use three periods with a space before each, and position the sentence period after the last parenthesis if your sentence ends with a parenthetical citation.

Omission in a quotation of one or more sentences

A quotation mark (ellipsis) can denote the removal of any number of words.

Omission in a quotation of poetry

Use three or four spaced periods in ellipses in quotations of poetry, as in quotations of prose. An ellipsis is needed at the end of the quotation below because without it readers would think that *people* was the last word of the original sentence. The omission of a line or more in the middle of a poetry quotation that is set off from the text is indicated by a line of spaced periods approximately the length of a complete line

of the quoted poem. No ellipsis is needed at the end of the quotation below because *early* is the last word of the original sentence.

An ellipsis in the source

If the author you are quoting uses ellipses, distinguish them from your ellipses by putting square brackets around the ones you add or by including an explanatory phrase in a parenthesis after the quotation.

Other Permissible Alterations of Quotations Emphasis

- ❖ You can emphasise terms in quotes by italicising them, but you must tell readers why you did so in brackets. Limit the amount of these changes.
- ❖ A semicolon separates the explanation from the citation, which comes after it if a parenthetical citation is required.
- ❖ When a quotation has italics, it is considered to be from the source unless otherwise specified, hence there is no need to state when emphasis is from the source.

Errors in the source

- ❖ Add "sic" (an English word from the Latin for thus or so, so not italicised when used in your prose) to maintain the accuracy of the quotation and make it clear that the error appears in the source when readers are likely to assume that an error in your source is an error you made in reproducing the quotation. Put the word "sic" in square brackets inside the quotation or in parenthesis right after it.
- ❖ Do not use this device to call out other types of errors. If a quoted text has numerous or repeated errors, explain this fact in a note. An alternate method that publishers occasionally do is to subtly fix glaring mistakes in quotations from printed materials without altering the content. This is done to prevent drawing attention to a mistake that the author may not want their work to be replicated, like a famous person's name being misspelt.

Clarification

- ❖ You can use square brackets to gloss over the meaning of quoted words or phrases or to add contextual information that is important for the reader to understand the quotation if you believe that the reader will find the quotation unclear or perplexing without explanation.
- ❖ Likewise, you can include an identification in square brackets if a pronoun in a citation looks ambiguous.
- ❖ Optimally, though, you should make sure the surrounding writing makes the pronouns in the citation clear.

Syntax

- ❖ To make a quotation fit grammatically within your phrase, you can adjust the verb tenses using square brackets. However, revision is usually preferable to this strategy, so use it rarely.
- ❖ Another way to denote a pronoun change is with square brackets. However, an altered pronoun frequently also involves a tense shift. It is therefore preferable to keep the quotation exactly as it is in the source and permit disagreement between the pronoun and its antecedent word when the integrated quotation is neither startling nor ambiguous.
- ❖ When removing a letter from a verb, do not indicate this with empty square brackets. Using a paraphrase is the best choice.

5.7 Citations in Forms Other Than Print

The research paper is just one type of academic work. Academics create interactive web projects, films, and presentations. As media evolves, so too will the requirements for source documentation in nonprint formats, but the goals will always be the same: to present information that allows you to acknowledge the people whose work influenced you and that makes it possible for your audience to comprehend and locate the sources you mention.

5.7.1 Slides

When using software like PowerPoint or Keynote to create a slide-based presentation, you may provide brief citations on each slide that incorporates borrowed content. At the conclusion of the presentation, you may include a works-cited list on a different slide. If you do not mention the image elsewhere, you may include full publishing data in the caption of the image, or you may include a quick reference pointing to an entry on a works-cited-list slide. Your audience may also be given printed copies of your works-cited list, or it may be made available online.

5.7.2 Videos

When making a video, you can include full documentation in your closing credits and overlay text at the bottom of the screen to give your audience a quick overview of what they are watching (for example, the name of the person being interviewed or the producer and title of a borrowed video clip).

5.7.3 Web Projects

Links to the internet resources you cite can be included in web projects so that readers can follow relevant references. As an appendix to the project, a works-cited list is still preferred because it provides readers with a structured overview of all your sources.

5.7.4 Oral Presentations

Give enough details about a source when introducing it for the first time in an oral presentation so that others can find it and comprehend its context. Usually, the source's author, title, and date are required.

If pertinent, additional publication details may be included. When introducing a

source that you quote or paraphrase, use concise yet diverse language. Finish quotes succinctly by assuming the role of the speaker again (for example, "In this quotation we see..."; "As we can infer from Katzmann's statement..."; "Jefferson's words are especially apt because...").

5.8 Notes

Although the MLA documentation system depends on in-text citations to maintain the reader's attention on the text, occasionally a note is required to add a comment or more details. Notes can be formatted in MLA style.

5.8.1 Bibliography Notes

By using bibliographic notes, authors can prevent their writing from being cluttered or straying from the main point of the work. Here are some typical note-taking applications.

Similar to sources that are parenthetically cited within the text, bibliographic notes must include sources that match entries in the list of works cited.

To cite a lengthy string of sources

1. See Piketty, *Capital* 291 and "On the Long-Run Evolution" 1072; Acemoglu and Robinson; Stiglitz, *Price and Globalization*, esp. ch. 7; Atkinson et al.; Dell, "Top Incomes" 415.
2. For a sampling of materials that reflect the range of experiences related to recent technological changes, see Taylor A1; Moulthrop, pars. 39–53; Armstrong et al. 80–82; Craner 308–11; Fukuyama 42.

To explain an unusual documentation practice

3. Citations of the Latin marginalia refer to Macaulay's edition of the poem and are cited by page number. References to the Middle English poem cite Peck's edition by line number.

To flag editions and translations used

4. Citations of *Othello* refer to Bevington's *Complete Works* unless otherwise noted.

5. Translations are mine unless otherwise noted.

The most straightforward approach is frequently to include the note in the text when the work is first quoted. Editions and translations typically only need a note when multiple editions or translations of the same work are cited. Making an initial, unnumbered note is an alternative.

Notes:

Margaret E. W. Jones translated *Usos amorosos* for this article. I am the author of all other translations.

- 1 Another option is to assign Labanyi's "Resemanticizing Feminine Surrender."
2. Another way to translate Topolino is "scamp."

5.8.2 Content Notes

The reader can access information or comments from the content notes that is not possible in the main text. Make use of them as follows.

To amplify

1. Often the heroine and her eventual husband are kept apart by misunderstanding, by the hero's misguided attraction to another, by financial obstacles, or by family objections.
2. Green considers *Mansfield Park* a courtship novel, including it in a list of such novels in the period 1740–1820 (163–64).
3. Blackstone makes this point explicit: "literary Composition, as it lies in the Author's Mind, before it is substantiated by reducing it to Writing, has the essential Requisites to make it the subject of property" (322).

To explain word choice

4. She refers here to a form of theoretical knowledge.
5. I chose to translate the verb (rendered by Tan as "to see") as "to discern" in order to focus on the role of cognition.

To justify the scope of your study

6. The charter school debate is beyond the scope of this essay, but I point readers to Ravitch's discussion.

7. Whether the *Gawain* poet might have written *Saint Erkenwald* is not pertinent to my argument.

To provide more examples

8. The same point applies to Irish writers, as David Lloyd's *Nationalism and Minor Literature* attests (160).

9. Readers will call to mind, for instance, that Othello's jealousy focuses on the handkerchief.

To provide counterexamples

10. Alvarez (102–32) advances an alternative thesis.

To identify or comment on allusions

11. The references to Mordor and Gollum in Led Zeppelin's lyrics recall J. R. R. Tolkien's *Lord of the Rings*.

To point to an area of future research

12. Important scholarship remains to be done on this topic.

To identify authors whose names appear as *et al.* in documentation?

13. The editors of *Cross-Language Relations in Composition* are Bruce Horner, Min-Zhan Lu, and Paul Kei Matsuda.

To acknowledge

14. Meghan Dutra, from our astrophysics department, brought *The Demolished Man* to my attention.

5.8.3 Styling of Notes

Notes might be formatted as endnotes or footnotes. (Endnotes are used by the MLA in its publications. One or the other may be required by your instructor.) In your word processing program, choose Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3) for the number format. The reader should not be directed to the material in the note above by using the abbreviation *ibid.* Note numbers in the text and notes section will probably be styled in superscript by default in your word processing program.

Notes or Endnotes are two possible titles for the notes section that appears at the end. When page numbers are provided at the conclusion of a sentence or when they break a sentence, they should be enclosed in parenthesis in the notes. Citations in notes are typically inserted at the end of a sentence, just like parenthetical citations in the text, but they can also be placed in the middle of a sentence, as shown in the first example below.

1. As Baron (194) and Jacobs (55) argue, while reading may be the core of literacy, literacy can be complete only when reading is accompanied by writing.
2. Baron considers the relation between literacy, reading, and writing (194).

When the note only directs the reader to where the material is located in the source, do not include brackets around page numbers.

5.8.4 Placement of Notes in the Text

Note numbers in the text are generally placed after a mark of punctuation. Whenever possible, place them at the end of sentences.

Critics are divided on whether the interplay of genres is successful in the film. Young wizards at Hogwarts learn how to throw flames by incanting “incendio.” Las Casas asserts that preachers who spread the gospel in the context of war are “unworthy to have their words believed” (173).

An exception is the dash, which is placed after, not before, a note number.

Positioned in the margins of each scene, the servant⁴—immobilized, silent, cast in shadow—uncannily substantiates Rodriguez’s claim.

If clarity demands that the note be placed somewhere other than at the end of the sentence or if the sentence requires more than one note, find the least distracting unambiguous spot.

Placement of note mid-sentence, for clarity of citations

Despite Fredric Jameson's influential imperative to historicize, Chakrabarty has criticized the "continuous, homogenous" characteristics of this understanding of history (111).

Placement of more than one note in a sentence

Huck's reverence for the circus—like his admiration for the Shakespeare rehearsal (which he says "knocked the spots out of any acting ever / see before" [Twain 125]6)—is so intense that it ultimately parodies itself.



Documenting sources is an essential part of academic writing, ensuring credibility, avoiding plagiarism, and allowing readers to locate the materials used. In MLA style, this process begins with the Works Cited list, which appears at the end of the paper and includes full details of all sources cited. Entries are organized alphabetically by the author's last name and follow a standardized structure based on core elements: author, title of source, title of container, other contributors, version, number, publisher, publication date, and location. This flexible template can be applied to any type of source, whether print or digital. In-text citations in MLA typically include the author's last name and page number, helping readers quickly find the corresponding entry in the Works Cited. When incorporating sources into writing, it's important to distinguish between quoting—using the exact words of the original—and paraphrasing—restating ideas in your own words—both of which require proper citation. For non-print sources such as websites, videos, podcasts, or social media posts, MLA provides specific guidelines to ensure accurate documentation, often requiring URLs or DOIs. Some papers may also use footnotes or endnotes for additional commentary or alternative citation methods. While MLA is widely used in the humanities, other disciplines rely on different systems: the Harvard (author-date) system and APA style. Both Harvard and APA emphasize the publication year more

prominently than MLA and are commonly used in scientific and social science fields. Their reference lists are similar in appearance but differ in formatting rules, such as punctuation, inclusion of location, and citation structure. Understanding these differences allows writers to choose and apply the appropriate citation style according to their field and academic requirements.



1. Citation

A reference to a source used in academic writing, giving credit to the original author and allowing readers to locate the source.

2. Plagiarism

Using someone else's ideas, words, or work without proper acknowledgment or citation, which is considered academic dishonesty.

3. Works Cited (MLA)

An alphabetized list of all sources cited in an MLA-style paper, placed at the end of the document with full publication details.

4. Reference List (Harvard & APA)

A list of all sources cited in the text using Harvard or APA style, usually titled "References" and arranged alphabetically by author's last name.

5. Core Elements (MLA)

Standardized components used to build each MLA citation; includes: Author, Title of Source, Title of Container, Other Contributors, Version, Number, Publisher, Publication Date, and Location.

6. Container (MLA)

The larger work that holds the source being cited (e.g., a journal that contains an article or a website that hosts a blog post).

7. In-Text Citation

A brief reference included in the body of the text to indicate the source of a quote, paraphrase, or idea. Varies by style:

- MLA : (Author Page)
- Harvard : (Author Year, Page)

- APA : (Author, Year) or (Author, Year, p. X)

8. Quoting

Using the exact words from a source, enclosed in quotation marks or as a block quote, and followed by a citation.

9. Paraphrasing

Restating another person's ideas or information in your own words, while still giving credit through a citation.

10. DOI (Digital Object Identifier)

A unique alphanumeric string assigned to digital content (like journal articles), used to provide a permanent link to the source.

11. URL (Uniform Resource Locator)

The web address used to locate online sources. In MLA, it is written without "http://" or "https://".

12. Footnote / Endnote

Additional comments or citations placed either at the bottom of a page (footnote) or at the end of a paper before the Works Cited (endnote). Used mainly in Chicago style but sometimes in MLA for extra detail.

13. Bibliography

A general term for a list of sources used in research. In some contexts, it may include all works consulted, not just those cited.

14. MLA (Modern Language Association)

A citation style commonly used in the humanities, especially in literature and language disciplines.

15. APA (American Psychological Association)

A citation style widely used in the social sciences, such as psychology, education, and sociology.

16. Harvard Style

An author-date referencing system commonly used in scientific and academic writing, especially in the UK and Australia.

17. Publisher

The organization responsible for producing or distributing the source (e.g., a book publisher, journal, or website host).

18. Publication Date

The date when a source was published. Important in all citation styles, though formatted differently depending on the system used.

19. Alphabetical Order

The standard way entries are arranged in the Works Cited or References list, typically by the author's last name.

20. Hanging Indent

A formatting style used in bibliographies where the first line of a citation is flush left and subsequent lines are indented, making entries easier to read.

Self- Assessment Questions

5-Mark Questions

1. Explain the purpose and importance of documenting sources in academic writing.
2. What are the core elements used in MLA Works Cited entries? Provide an example of a properly formatted MLA citation.
3. Differentiate between quoting and paraphrasing. Why is it necessary to cite both?
4. How do you format in-text citations in MLA style when the source has multiple authors or no author at all?
5. Describe how to cite a non-print source such as a website or social media post using MLA guidelines.
6. What is the difference between MLA and APA styles with respect to in-text citations and reference lists?
7. Briefly explain the Harvard referencing system. How does it differ from MLA in terms of structure and usage?
8. Why is alphabetical order important in a Works Cited or References list? What are hanging indents and why are they used?

8-Marks Questions

9. Compare and contrast MLA, APA, and Harvard citation systems in terms of their use in different academic disciplines, formatting rules, and in-text citation

styles.

Write detailed notes on the role of the Works Cited list in MLA style. Include information about its formatting, ordering, and the use of core elements.

10. Explain the proper way to quote and paraphrase sources in academic writing. Illustrate your answer with examples of correctly cited quotes and paraphrased content.
11. Discuss the challenges of citing non-print sources such as videos, podcasts, and online articles. Provide MLA-style examples for each type.
12. What are footnotes and endnotes? In what situations are they used in academic writing? Compare their use in MLA with other citation styles like Chicago.



Suggestive Readings

1. Graff, Gerald, and Cathy Birkenstein. *They Say / I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing* . W. W. Norton & Company, 2020.
2. Lester, James D., and Jaime Lester. *Writing Research Papers: A Complete Guide* . Pearson, 2017.
3. Booth, Wayne C., et al. *The Craft of Research* . University of Chicago Press, 2016.
4. Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Handbook* . 9th ed., Modern Language Association of America, 2021.
5. American Psychological Association. *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* . 7th ed., American Psychological Association, 2019.
6. Pears, Richard, and Graham Shields. *Cite Them Right: The Essential Referencing Guide* . 12th ed., Bloomsbury Academic, 2022.



Open Access Resources – Freely Available Online

These are accessible to all users and ideal for students seeking free support on citation styles and academic writing.

1. Purdue OWL – *Online Writing Lab* . Purdue University, <https://owl.purdue.edu> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
(Includes MLA, APA, and Chicago citation guides)
2. EasyBib – *Citation Guides* . <https://www.easybib.com/guides/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
(Step-by-step tutorials for citing sources in MLA and APA)
3. Scribbr – *Citation Tools & Guides* . <https://www.scribbr.com/citation-tools/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
(Offers detailed examples for MLA and APA citations)
4. University of Wisconsin-Madison Writing Center – “Quoting and Paraphrasing.” <https://writing.wisc.edu/handbook/assignments/quoting/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
5. Harvard College Writing Program – “Avoiding Plagiarism.” <https://writing.college.harvard.edu/tips/avoiding-plagiarism> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
6. Inside Higher Ed – “Why Do We Cite?” <https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2018/09/10/essay-why-do-we-cite> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.

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4. Graff, Gerald, and Cathy Birkenstein. *They Say / I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing* . 5th ed., W. W. Norton & Company, 2020.
5. Harvard College Writing Program. “Avoiding Plagiarism.” <https://writing.college.harvard.edu/tips/avoiding-plagiarism> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.

6. Inside Higher Ed. "Why Do We Cite?"
<https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2018/09/10/essay-why-do-we-cite> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
7. Lester, James D., and Jaime Lester. *Writing Research Papers: A Complete Guide* . 15th ed., Pearson, 2017.
8. Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Handbook* . 9th ed., Modern Language Association of America, 2021.
9. Pears, Richard, and Graham Shields. *Cite Them Right: The Essential Referencing Guide* . 12th ed., Bloomsbury Academic, 2022.
10. Purdue OWL. "Online Writing Lab." Purdue University, <https://owl.purdue.edu> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
11. Scribbr. "Citation Tools & Guides." <https://www.scribbr.com/citation-tools/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
12. University of Wisconsin-Madison Writing Center. "Quoting and Paraphrasing." <https://writing.wisc.edu/handbook/assignments/quoting/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.



References (MLA 9th Edition)

1. American Psychological Association. *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* . 7th ed., American Psychological Association, 2019.
2. Booth, Wayne C., et al. *The Craft of Research* . 5th ed., University of Chicago Press, 2016.
3. EasyBib. "Citation Guides." <https://www.easybib.com/guides/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
4. EasyBib. "MLA Format Guide & MLA Citation Guide (9th Edition)." *EasyBib* , <https://www.easybib.com/guides/mla/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.

5. Graff, Gerald, and Cathy Birkenstein. *They Say / I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing* . 5th ed., W. W. Norton & Company, 2020.
6. Harvard College Writing Program. "Avoiding Plagiarism." <https://writing.college.harvard.edu/tips/avoiding-plagiarism> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
7. Inside Higher Ed. "Why Do We Cite?" *Inside Higher Ed* , 10 Sept. 2018, <https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2018/09/10/essay-why-do-we-cite> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
8. Lester, James D., and Jaime Lester. *Writing Research Papers: A Complete Guide* . 15th ed., Pearson, 2017.
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14. SlideShare. "APA vs. MLA: What's the Difference?" Uploaded by Research Help, 5 June 2022, <https://www.slideshare.net/researchhelp/apavsmldifference> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
15. SlideShare. "How to Avoid Plagiarism." Uploaded by Academic Skills, 1 Nov. 2021, <https://www.slideshare.net/AcademicSkills/how-to-avoid-plagiarism> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
16. University of Wisconsin-Madison Writing Center. "Quoting and Paraphrasing." <https://writing.wisc.edu/handbook/assignments/quoting/> . Accessed 5 Apr. 2025.
17. <https://libguides.csudh.edu/citation/mla#s-lg-box-20293207>

