

Guide to writing academic papers

Tampere University
Faculty of Management and Business
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1. Introduction

This booklet is a guide to writing academic papers in Political Science and International Relations / Degree Programme in Politics at the Faculty of Management and Business. It is intended as a resource for both degree students and exchange students. During your studies you are required to submit many kinds of written work, such as learning diaries, literature reviews, essays and theses. These various kinds of academic writing assignment have different purposes, aims and forms. The guidelines provided in this booklet are intended to simplify the writing process and unify the format of written presentations. It is recommended that you read the whole booklet through to familiarize yourself with its contents and, later on, refer back to it when writing academic papers.

Individual professors and teachers can issue their own instructions for papers submitted in their courses. Always make sure to check and comply with the instructions given on a course (even when they differ from those in this booklet).

Each academic paper (including learning diaries) is a totality that should stand on its own. The starting point for preparing an academic paper should be what you want to say in it. In different kinds of academic paper the focus varies. For example, in a learning diary the focal point is what you have learned during the course, and this central theme should run through the whole paper and provide its structure. Formulating the research question(s) and deciding on the research method and material are the most important steps in any research process, and they are also the most difficult. Research is a creative process, which can generate great satisfaction when you are able to successfully complete these steps.

How the work and its structure start to come together is largely dependent on the type of paper you are writing and the research questions or problem you set out to solve. Research can be either theory driven (deductive) or empirical (inductive), which also has implications for how the paper and research process proceed. This dichotomy, of course, is misleading in that every research process contains both theoretical and empirical elements from the very beginning. Even the most empirical research has a theoretical background that the research problem relies on, and even the most purely theoretical research includes some kind of research material. Writing an essay or a thesis is a

continuous process of cross-fertilization between empirical data and theoretical understanding. As such, a research report is constructed piece by piece. The end result should be readable, logical and clear, and it should answer the research question(s) convincingly.

The common structure for academic papers is the following:

- Research task
- Theory and review of relevant literature
- Research problem and questions
- Hypotheses/assumptions/arguments
- Research material and methods
- Results/analysis
- Conclusions/discussion

It should be remembered that the decisions made about the structure of the paper in the beginning are not definitive but can change during the research and writing process. Sometimes the initial problem itself can change during the research process when something completely new is uncovered from the empirical material. It is good to write multiple drafts and not to place too great an importance on the early ones.

Theses often follow the above structure and it can be very helpful for other academic papers to do so as well. An essay is thesis-like (but not a mini-thesis!) in that it reflects on a specific problem from a particular point of view and uses multiple academic sources and references. An essay should also start with the research task and problem, introduce the material, discuss it and end with conclusions. A book review can follow the structure of the book and a literature review should be structured around the common themes of the books included. A learning diary should be structured around your perception of what you have learned during a course.

The aim of any research and academic writing is to increase understanding and knowledge of the phenomena it focuses on. An academic paper is primarily addressed to the academic community, which does not, however, mean that it should not be written in a style that is comprehensible to the general public. Research should always be reported in intelligible language. It is important to take note of the following:

- **Textual clarity**

In any kind of written presentation, you should aim for textual clarity and readability. Careless use of language can distort your ideas and arguments and at worst can lead to serious misunderstandings.

- **Grammar and spelling**

By following the rules of grammar and spelling accurately you can help the reader to understand your texts. Text that is full of mistakes is tiring to read and hardly inspires confidence in the validity of research itself. Make sure to use the spell-check and grammar-check features in your text-processing software and to proofread your academic papers before submitting them.

- **Conceptual clarity**

Concepts are central to academic writing and should be used logically. Academic concepts are meant to be exact and economic; they can function as a shorthand in specific contexts and thus save space when used correctly. Different schools of thought or subfields of political science can have different understandings of what a specific concept means; thus, it is important to define the central concepts you are using.

- **Time**

By its nature, academic writing takes time. Clear and readable text arises from the lucidity of your thoughts, and to achieve clarity in thinking is time-consuming. It is advisable to write multiple drafts, as each draft usually helps to clarify your thoughts on the subject in question.

- **Sources**

Each academic paper you submit should have proper references and citations and a complete bibliography (see chapter 5 for guidance on this). Failure to report sources leads to unacknowledged quotations or citations, which can amount to plagiarism.

2. Types of academic paper

Literature review

A literature review is a presentation which summarizes the essential contents of one or several monographs or scientific articles. In a literature review, you are expected to introduce the author's/authors' key arguments and present the results of her/their analysis in a concise form. It is important to note that a series of direct quotations from the literature under inspection does not in itself constitute a literature review.

When working on a literature review, you should always keep in mind its function. The purpose of a literature review is to analyze the essential characteristics of a particular text or texts. This means that you should pay attention to the structure and the central themes of the text(s) as well as to the arguments presented by its author(s). In this sense, a literature review could be thought of as a 'full-figure photograph' of the text(s). If a literature review is part of a larger research report (e.g. a thesis), which analyzes several sources, the purpose of the review should be assessed in this context; in such a case, it would be sensible to select relevant parts of the text(s) for detailed examination. This procedure could be thought of as a 'passport photograph', for only relevant parts of the source are analyzed. Reports of this kind constitute an essential part of scientific inquiry and your skill in preparing such reports will develop through practice.

The aim of a literature review is to recount the arguments and thoughts presented in the text(s) as accurately as possible. A literature review must treat the author(s) of the text(s) respectfully and impartially, even if you, the writer of the review, do not agree with the views presented in the text(s). You should not underestimate the value of any text, nor dismiss a text only because it does not reflect your own views. **In a literature review you must clearly point out when the arguments and interpretations presented are your own.**

A review that has been prepared in a slipshod manner draws a distorted picture of the source text(s). Furthermore, a careless examination of the source text(s) can lead to the inclusion of elements that are irrelevant, inconsistent and controversial. A review that is not the result of independent and careful work becomes a fragmentary collection of quotations

and excerpts taken from other authors' texts. In such a case, if the student also fails to report the source, what results is **unacknowledged quotation, which can amount to plagiarism**. Plagiarism will be interpreted as cheating, which will lead to the rejection of the written presentation or thesis.

Plagiarism is a serious academic offence! Plagiarism means using direct or paraphrased quotations or ideas from other sources, including both printed and online texts, in your paper *without specifically citing* these in a way consistent with good academic practice. Political Science and International Relations staff use a computer program which can flag possible offences against good academic practice. If you are found guilty of plagiarism, your coursework will be failed.

Learning diary (Lecture diary)

The learning diary, also known as a lecture diary, is a tool for evaluating and reinforcing personal learning. Its purpose is to record and reflect on what has been learned through the course. The diary is an analysis, review and reflective report on the contents of the course and your learning experiences resulting from it. You should relate what was presented during the course to your own prior experience, knowledge and related readings.

The purpose of the learning diary is to comment on, evaluate and problematize themes arising during the course. It cannot consist of only describing lecture contents. In a learning diary you are analyzing critically the topics presented during the course and you are reporting your own insights, observations and reactions towards the material presented. Moreover, the new knowledge should be analyzed in the light of your earlier knowledge and experience. In a learning diary you are reflecting your own thoughts and learning process. You are explaining what new material you have learned and what remains unclear or unknown.

Your comments may be critical or complementary. Freely use material from other sources for your argumentation, but make sure to include details of those sources. **Always check**

with the lecturer or teacher in charge of the course how many other scientific sources (academic articles, monographs) you need to refer to in the learning diary. Generally a minimum of two sources are required in addition to notes on the lectures.

The following questions may help you to reflect on what you learned from each lecture:

1. What new things did I learn and how are they related to something I already know?
2. What remained unclear after the lecture?
3. What meaning do the things I learned in this lecture have for me and how do they affect my thinking?

The generally recommended length of a learning diary is 6–7 pages. As in all the other types of academic paper discussed in this booklet, this **length is measured with following settings: font size 10–12 (depending on the font used); line spacing 1.5; margins (both right and left) 2 cm.** A learning diary of this length, when the course or lecture series is 20–24 hours long, should result in 2 credits.

The learning diary is evaluated on a scale of fail–5.

- Fail: you have not demonstrated knowledge or understanding of what was discussed at the lectures.
- 1–2: it is clear from the learning diary that you have attended the lectures and understand what was discussed but you have not provided a commentary or evidence of personal reflection.
- 3: you have demonstrated in the learning diary a clear understanding of what was discussed at the lectures and you comment on the lectures and reflect on your process of learning to some degree.
- 4–5: you have shown that you are able to comment on the themes and issues discussed in the lectures by presenting coherent arguments, and have clearly demonstrated that you have reflected on your thinking and on the learning process during the course.

Note: When use of other sources is required, the evaluation takes into account their usefulness and relevance.

Essay

An essay is a piece of writing on a particular topic or theme. The objective of an essay is often to survey the literature or other material on a particular topic or theoretical or thematic discussion. In an essay, you are expected to clearly define and delimit the topic or theme of the essay, to examine and analyze the relevant material and to present your argument on the basis of this analysis. You should, moreover, familiarize yourself with the relevant debates in the field and, as far as possible, consider your own findings in the light of the arguments presented and questions raised in these debates. This procedure also allows you to show that you are aware of the canonical publications and the themes currently being discussed in the discipline (Political Science or International Relations).

A paper that relies entirely on either reporting the contents of the material under inspection or on presenting your personal opinions does not fulfil the requirements for an essay. **An essay is not a literature review.** When presenting personal views, it is very important that you support them with well-defined arguments; thus, it is imperative that the reader be able to identify clearly formulated conclusions or arguments, i.e. theses, in the text. **One of the prerequisites of academic writing is that the reader should be able to get from the text how the author has reached his conclusions.** Consequently, when arguing a specific point, it is not enough to merely state, 'I think this is so.' Although everyone is entitled to an opinion, a highly subjective position is not always interesting from the point of view of scientific inquiry.

An interactive relationship with the academic community in one's field of study (discipline) is an essential feature of scientific enquiry. This relationship may be one in which dissenting views are disregarded or, alternatively, one in which they are sharply criticized. The purpose of an academic essay is to contribute to this relationship and the relevant debate, whose focus may vary between theoretical and empirical questions. The purpose of writing an essay is, therefore, to familiarize yourself with the routines of academic debate and interaction.

Literature essay as compensatory work

It is possible to compensate for book exams (one or several books) by writing an essay. You must always make arrangements with the examiners in advance. With the examiner you can discuss and agree on the theme and scope of the essay, the book(s) it will compensate for, and its length. Furthermore, **the examiner must approve the bibliography** before you can start writing.

Again, an essay is not a literature review, but a paper on a particular theme or topic that you carefully analyze. You must define the question(s) you will cover and refer to the literature in broad terms. Focusing on only one chapter, or a few chapters, of the book(s) is insufficient. It is possible, and recommended, to use other academic sources in addition to the book(s) the essay is meant to compensate for. Citations, references and the bibliography need to be marked and listed in accordance with good scientific practice (see chapter 5).

You will receive credits for a compensatory essay according to following scale:

- 2 credits: the essay is based on a narrow use of sources, length 6–8 pages.
- 4 credits: the essay is based on a moderate use of sources, length 10–12 pages.
- 5 credits: the essay is based on a broad and resourceful use of sources, length 14–16 pages.

Seminar presentation

A seminar paper or presentation prepares you for more far-reaching research. Its aim is to help you to understand the nature of larger research reports, such as articles or monographs. Literature reviews and essays usually constitute an essential part of the writing process of a larger academic work. Seminar papers are also intended to familiarize you with the various procedures and practices that apply to written and oral presentations.

The purpose of seminar work is to give you an opportunity to come to grips with the different stages and procedures in scientific thinking and the research process. The final research report, however, is not a description of this process but a medium for presenting the results of the process. It is for this reason that the structure of the presentations that precede larger research reports – the proseminar paper (undergraduate seminar paper) and subsequent seminar presentations – are allowed to differ slightly from that of the final report, i.e. Bachelor's or Master's thesis. A seminar presentation may be structured as a research plan or outline, whose function is essentially to identify the stages in the forthcoming writing process and to divide the research project into smaller, more manageable parts. However, a seminar often constitutes an independent and distinct whole, which means that a seminar presentation may also be regarded as a 'mini-thesis'. You should always discuss the scope and nature of a seminar presentation with your supervisor.

Seminars rely on independent work, which is supported by small group tutorials and by personal supervision. Seminar presentations also give you an impression of how your main contribution – the Bachelor's or Master's thesis – will be evaluated. For this reason, particular attention is paid to the following points in seminar work:

- Clear formulation of the research problem and research question(s)
- Consistent and appropriate reporting of research material
- Acquisition and use of diverse sources and material
- Resourceful use of the material and methods of analysis
- Argumentation and articulation of conclusions
- Style and grammar

The first task when preparing a seminar presentation is to define the topic of the presentation, which can be surprisingly difficult. It is helpful to begin by making a distinction between the *topic* and the *title* of the presentation. The topic refers to the contents of the paper and to the questions raised in the text, whereas the purpose of the title is to describe the structure and the organization of the paper as precisely and concisely as possible.

As a general rule, the definition of the topic is presented during the early stages of a seminar, when you are expected to prepare an idea paper, a synopsis or an outline of the presentation. The idea paper should be approximately one page (c. 350 words) long. At this stage you should consider what theme or problem area you are interested in. In this regard, the organization of the study programme into modules that cover specific theoretical and empirical areas of study may prove helpful. There may also be other material available that helps you to become aware of the structure of the discipline and to choose an area of study that is of particular interest to you. **In order to be successful you must be well motivated.** Consequently, you should not expect to be given a topic, although it may be useful to discuss your topic with members of the teaching staff as well as with researchers who are experts in that particular field. In any case, the final selection of a topic should be made with your thesis supervisor or seminar teacher.

Having selected a theme, you should start analyzing the topic. The aim is to identify clearly defined research questions, to which the paper seeks answers. When formulating research questions, you should find out what the relevant research in the area is, as well as the questions that have been investigated in these studies. The idea of a research question is to highlight specific elements of the topic and, at the same time, to limit the object of study so that the analysis can be conducted within the scope of the time and resources available. The tentative analytical structure of the presentation emerges from this preparatory work.

Technically, a seminar presentation usually starts with an introduction to the research area and research question(s). At the same time, you have an opportunity to explain why your perspective is justified and meaningful.

When choosing a topic and formulating specific research questions, you should spend some time tentatively exploring relevant sources and thinking how it is possible to access these sources. There is, however, no need to collect large amounts of material in the early stages of a project, as this might both prove pointless and involve unnecessary expense. The most important thing is to **make sure that the presentation relies on sources that are relevant to the topic, readily available and representative of the area of study.** The analysis of some sources may also require special skills, such as knowledge of foreign languages, special terminology or foreign languages or expertise in quantitative data analysis or text analysis.

You should not start to write the final version of the presentation until you have properly digested the source material. It is also ill-advised to finalize the structure and organization of the presentation before you have gone through all the stages of the research process.

It is generally only after these stages that you will be able to give the paper a title. The title should communicate to the reader the theme of the paper and the problem examined in the presentation as well as the organizing concepts that refer the reader to the theoretical orientation and background of the study. A title should be brief and apt; it should arouse the reader's interest but not promise more than the presentation can deliver.

Often, academic texts have a subtitle in addition to the main title. The idea here is to use the main title, which may even be slightly dramatic, to capture the reader's interest in the text and a subtitle to communicate the theme, the problem and the organizing concepts. A metaphorical main title should always be supplemented by a subtitle.

The research process normally proceeds in the order that has been described above. There are, however, no hard and fast rules governing this process; rather, the process tends to reflect the personal preferences of the student and the specific piece of research.

Thesis

The general requirements for Bachelor's and Master's theses can be found in the curricula guides.

It is important to note that a Bachelor's thesis is not intended as a small-scale Master's thesis. Rather, it is an independent and distinct piece of work, the preparation of which you should discuss with your supervisor. A Bachelor's thesis is submitted at the end of Intermediate Studies and requires the knowledge and skills provided by the studies completed so far.

The process leading to a Master's thesis starts when you reach Advanced Studies. As this process may vary slightly from one discipline to another, you should get to know the directions given specifically for your major subject. A thesis should have proper references and citations and a bibliography (see chapter 5 for guidance). Failing to report sources leads to unacknowledged quotations or citations, which can amount to plagiarism. All academic papers are evaluated on the scale of fail–5.

3. Structure and form of academic papers

The structure of an academic paper should be as follows:

- Cover sheet (see annex 1)
- Table of contents
- Body text (page numbering starts on the first page of the body text)
- End notes (if you choose to use them)
- Bibliography (or reference list)

All academic papers should follow the same logic of composing a title, referencing, marking citations and bibliographies as discussed above. Master's thesis also includes an abstract (see Chapter 4 and annex 3).

Academic papers should be written in formal (as opposed to colloquial) language, which is also precise and grammatically correct. A paper must not rely on exclusively personal views, nor should it be a mere collection of quotations. Seminar presentations at a more advanced level, as well as theses, should include a chapter that summarizes previous debate on the specified topic or theme. In this respect, it is important that you are familiar with the classics and the essential contemporary research, which is discussed in relevant academic journals. Your ability to locate relevant sources of information that help to elucidate the research question, your skill in analyzing this information in the light of your own ideas and in synthesizing separate pieces of information, and your ability to draw conclusions on the basis of this analysis will determine the quality of your personal contribution.

The requirements for the substance of a paper include the following:

- Clear definition of the research topic
- Logical progression of analysis
- Relevant selection of sources
- Conceptual clarity
- Precise and well-argued conclusions

When planning a paper, it is often useful to compose a concise (approx. 1 page long) outline of the analytical structure of the paper. The purpose of the outline is to help you to organize the research process. In the early stages of preparing a paper, you must decide the order in which you are going to present the different parts of the analysis. The following guidelines may be helpful:

- 1. A paper should go straight to the point.** Academic papers generally start with an introduction, which orients the reader to the subject in question. An introduction is necessary if the topic or the treatment of the topic is unconventional; otherwise, the introductory section may be omitted. You should avoid writing a lengthy and unfocused introduction. A research paper may begin directly with an introduction to the analytical framework or purpose of the presentation. In this case, you should explain the problem investigated in the paper and the aim of the study. You should also define the concepts employed in the paper, discuss the relations between these concepts and, whenever feasible, consider the theory underlying the concepts. If a specific research technique or methodology plays a pivotal role in the analysis, this can also be reported at the beginning of the presentation.
- 2. You should try to find the essential, most representative and most recent sources** and concentrate on the crucial and relevant parts of these sources. It is advisable that you familiarize yourself with articles published in relevant academic journals and use them. The objective is to construct an interpretation of the subject under discussion that is as clear and well-argued as possible. A superficial examination of many sources does not always yield the best results. On the other hand, you should avoid referring exclusively to one source. Encyclopaedias, handbooks, yearbooks and similar sources may be referred to in a seminar presentation or thesis. In principle, you should always use primary sources. Although this is not always possible, you should nevertheless avoid using oversimplified secondary sources that recount the findings of earlier studies inadequately or inaccurately. Whenever possible, you should **refer to a source in the original language and preferably use the latest edition of a book.**

- 3. You should strive to explain things in your own words. Lengthy verbatim quotations should be avoided.** Direct quotations are acceptable when they are carefully considered and justifiable. An academic text consists of references to other people's texts and ideas, and of your own writing and thinking. It is important to carefully distinguish between the two. This distinction becomes clear when citations and references are properly marked (see chapter 5).

Citations are the building blocks of your argumentation, and your writing presents your own reflections on the research literature and the results of your research. There are two types of citation: **paraphrasing** and **direct quotation**. When you paraphrase, you report someone else's argument in a condensed form and using your own words. Direct quotation must be clearly separated from the body text. Direct quotations less than two (2) lines long are to be put in quotation marks. Those ones over two lines long must be 'displayed', i.e. using a smaller font (11), line spacing 1, indentation more than that of the body text and no quotation marks (see examples below). You should use direct quotations when you want to emphasize particular phrases in the text, i.e. when paraphrasing is not possible without distorting the meaning of the original phrase or when there is an exceptionally vivid figurative expression in the original text.

Some texts require more direct quotations than others; for example, a text analysis may require more than an analysis based on statistics. Direct quotations must be copied verbatim from the text or translated from the original language as accurately as possible. Direct quotations are always presented in the language you are writing in and the quotation in the original language is inserted in a footnote (see the example below). It is also required that the name of the person responsible for the translation be inserted in parentheses after the translation, unless this information is given, for example, in the introduction.

Example: Original text in a footnote

Peace research analyses the causes of war and the preconditions of peaceful social relations. As Gaston Boutoul describes the assumptions underlying peace research:

All the aspirations of pacifists and all the hopes to create an polemic-proof world, that is, a world where war is banned, are implicitly based on one postulate that identifies war as a pathological state and the sociological equivalent of a disease. Conversely, peace is identified as the normal state, that is, good health. (Translation N.N.)¹

If you are uncertain about the translation of a particular word or phrase, you may refer to the phrase in the original language in a footnote or in parentheses after the word or phrase in the text. This procedure applies especially to concepts that are difficult to translate.

There is usually a lesser need for direct quotations in an empirically oriented presentation. The aim is to present the basic material and the essential background studies with the help of concise commentaries. In this context, it is usually enough to document the source material paragraph by paragraph – unless the structure of the text requires a different strategy. In larger research papers, the theoretical background and debate may be surveyed in essay-type chapters.

- 4. Since you must analyze a source from the perspective of the problems investigated in your study, you should include and scrutinize only relevant pieces of information.** You should then make a synthesis of different pieces of information, which you have absorbed from different sources, and present this synthesis in a clear and concise fashion.

¹ “Toutes les aspirations pacifistes, tous les espoirs de créer un monde polémofuge, c’est-à-dire dont la guerre serait bannie, sont implicitement fondés sur un postulat : celui qui assimile la guerre à un état pathologique, à l’équivalent sociologique d’une maladie, alors que la paix serait l’état normal, c’est-à-dire la bonne santé.” (Boutoul 1967, 229)

4. Layout of academic papers

The recommended length of a Bachelor's thesis is approximately 20–30 pages, whereas the length of a Master's thesis is from 60 to 90 pages. Familiarize yourself with the programme instructions on theses.

- The Bachelor's thesis and the Master's thesis are submitted electronically according to the library guidelines – see https://libguides.tuni.fi/theses/submitting_tau. A Master's thesis includes a 1–2 page abstract (see annex 3), which should contain information about the research problem, research material and methods used and the key findings or results.
- Guidelines for the length, submission procedure and distribution of seminar essays and papers are given in each seminar.

The recommended line spacing for all academic papers is 1.5. However, quotations that extend over two lines should be single-spaced (see chapter 3, guideline 3). For all papers, side margins should be of equal width (2–3 cm), and top and bottom margins should be 2 cm each. The Master's thesis must be printed double-sided if the page count exceeds 60, and therefore the margins should be of equal width, and the page numbering should be in the middle of each page, either at the top or at the bottom. Begin numbering pages only from the introduction section, i.e. the first page of the body text should be page 1. It is also recommended that both the text and footnotes, if there are any, be justified (text aligned to both left and right margins).

The following guidelines should be kept in mind:

1. Chapter headings should be short and encapsulate the subject discussed in the following text. The chapter headings should also be connected with the theme of the presentation (e.g. 'General' does not encapsulate what is discussed in the chapter).
2. Main headings and subheads should be written in different styles; for example, main headings in UPPER CASE and subheads in lowercase or Title Case.

3. There should be no more than three heading levels. When considering the hierarchy of headings, you should pay attention to the balance between the chapters: it is good style to apply, if possible, the same structure to all the main chapters. It is not, however, always possible to divide each main chapter into the same number of main and sub-sections without distorting the content of the paper. In this case, the content of the presentation rather than symmetry should determine the hierarchy of headings.
4. Chapters should be numbered. Headings should be numbered with Arabic numerals – not with Roman numbers or letters. **The number of a heading should always end with a full stop** (e.g. 1.1., not 1.1).
5. If the paper includes **tables** and **figures**, the captions of these should be precise and relevant to the content of the tables and figures. Normally table headings are marked above the table and figure headings below the figure.
6. The cover sheet of an academic paper should include information about the course in question (e.g. the names of the seminar, the supervisor and the discussants and the date), the title of the paper and the author's name. See annex 1.
7. The table of contents page should follow the cover sheet. Sections should be indented to separate them from chapters; a page number should be inserted after each heading to indicate the page where the chapter or section starts. There should be no full stop after the page number.
8. The page numbering of an academic paper should begin with the first text page. The cover sheet and table of contents pages are not paginated. The page number is inserted into the header or the footer, i.e. at the top or bottom of the page.

Furthermore, it is important to remember that:

- “double quotation marks” and ‘single quotation marks’ differ in that the former are used normally (e.g. to separate short direct quotations from text), while the latter are only used within quotations or when there is a need to emphasize that a certain word or phrase is used outside its normal meaning.
- square brackets are used to inform the reader that the author has changed the quotation (e.g. by changing a [c]apital letter to a lowercase letter) or added something to or abridged the quotation, e.g. ‘This statement constitutes a defamation of the KI [the Komintern] [...] and the Communist Party.’

Plagiarism is a serious academic offence! Plagiarism means using direct or paraphrased quotations or ideas from other sources, including both printed and online texts, in your paper *without specifically citing* these in a way consistent with good academic practice. . Political Science and International Relations staff use a computer program which can flag possible offences against good academic practice. If you are found guilty of plagiarism, your coursework will be failed.

5. References and citation practices

Citations and your own text

Transparency is the main feature of academic texts. In other words, anyone should be able to check the integrity and follow the logic of the text. **The main purpose of referencing systems is to enable the reader to check what sources have been used in the text.** A referencing system consists of two parts: references and a bibliography (or a reference list). These are meant to identify the source of a specific argument cited by the author or the source of a particular piece of information. A reference refers to the bibliography and the bibliography provides the full information on the source. The referencing system must be clear enough to enable the reader to locate a particular source.

Good academic practice requires precision, diligence and transparency when marking references. The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity has published detailed instructions on the responsible conduct of research, which you should familiarize yourself with. See: <http://www.tenk.fi/en/responsible-conduct-research-guidelines>.

It should be noted that a reference is not needed when the author discusses an issue that is generally known. For example, when the author informs the reader that 'Finland was declared independent on 6 December 1917' or that 'The UN was founded in 1945', a reference is clearly not required. There is also no need to use a reference when the source has been discussed in detail in the text.

Marking references

A textual reference consists simply of **who has written the text being cited and in which year**, the reference should also include the page number(s) on which the original text appears. The reference refers to the bibliography. References and the bibliography have to match: all the works referenced need to be listed in the bibliography and vice versa; the bibliography must not contain any works that are not referenced.

There are multiple referencing systems, and different publications use different systems, as do different disciplines and national academic cultures. Publishers and academic journals are specific on what type of referencing system they use. Any referencing system is easy to adopt once you have learned one system properly.

We will next introduce two different referencing styles: as footnotes or endnotes and as in-text citations, i.e. embedded references.

Footnotes or endnotes are placed, respectively, at the bottom of the page and at the end of the text.

- Footnotes use continuous numbering (the first footnote is 1, the second 2, etc.), and are located at the bottom of the page.
- Endnotes similarly use continuous numbering and can be located at the end of each chapter or at the end of the whole text.
- Both footnotes and endnotes end with a full stop.
- Footnotes or endnotes can also be used to discuss related themes, clarify or comment on a point or criticize a source, etc. without upsetting the balance of the presentation.

Footnotes and endnotes at the end of a sentence are always marked after the period.² If the footnote or endnote is marked within a sentence³, it refers to the single word it is located after.

A footnote following a quotation is marked like this:

² Like this.

³ A sentence is ...

The existing humanitarian framework provides a vital source of legitimacy in the present world order for all those who can tap into it. As in any order, the hierarchical element of the contemporary human polity designates those who benefit and those who do not. The legitimizing power of humanitarianism is at its most distinct in alleviating the sense of injustice stemming from such hierarchies.⁴

In-text citations, i.e. embedded references

The style of referencing usually used in theses distinguishes between in-text citations that refer to an individual sentence and those referring to a longer section.

If the reference refers to the whole of the **previous paragraph** (or some other longer section), the reference is located after the period at the end of the last sentence. Also, there is a full stop within the reference, ending it.

The contemporary world order is hierarchical and gains its legitimacy from the humanitarian framework, especially for those actors who have access to it. The power hierarchy defines who benefits in the current world order and who does not, which can create a sense of injustice; humanitarianism can in turn ease these tensions. (Aaltola 2009, 9.)

If the reference refers to the **previous sentence only**, it is placed before the period ending the sentence:

Humanitarianism can be understood as a key frame of contemporary world politics, ordering the various actors in relation to each other and providing them with a sense of legitimacy (see Aaltola 2009, 1).

A simplified version of in-text referencing is used by the Finnish political science and international relations journals (*Politiikka* and *Kosmopolis*). In this system the reference is **always** marked within a sentence, **before the last full stop**:

The contemporary world order is hierarchical and gains its legitimacy from the humanitarian framework, especially for those actors who have access to it. The power hierarchy defines who benefits in the current world order and who does not, which can create a sense of injustice; humanitarianism can in turn ease these tensions (Aaltola 2009, 9).

⁴ Aaltola 2009, 9.

The most important thing to remember when using any referencing system is to **use the same system and style consistently throughout** the whole academic paper.

Referring to different sources

Single-authored source (i.e. monograph or journal article): the reference includes the author, publication year and page number(s), e.g. '(Aaltola 2009, 9)'.

In references to multiple works by the same author published in the same year, the works must be distinguished by a lowercase letter following the year (with no space), e.g. '(Rosenau 1969a, 425–427; Rosenau 1969b, 100–112)'.

If the author's name is mentioned in the text, the bracketed reference may contain only the year and page number(s), e.g. 'Tickner (1997, 618), however, focuses on [...]'.

If you refer to the same source several times on the same page, without other references in between, you can use '**ibid.**', e.g. when referring to the same page in Tickner's work again, '(ibid.)', or '**idem**' when referring to a different page in the same work, e.g. '(idem, 620)'.

Source with two authors: both authors are included in the reference, e.g. '(Lindberg and Scheingold 1970, 62)'.

Multiple-authored source (more than two authors): the first author's name followed by 'et al.' is sufficient, e.g. '(Heiskanen et al. 1975, 123)'.

Classics: If you want to refer, for example, to Aristotle's *Nicomachean Ethics*, the reference must report the relevant points (as opposed to page numbers) you are citing, e.g.

'(Aristotle 1989, 1130a–1130a5)' or, alternatively, in a footnote⁵.

⁵ Aristotle 1989, 1130a–1130a5.

Chapters in edited volumes: the reference gives the **chapter author(s)** (not the editors!), publication year and page number(s).

Newspaper articles: the reference gives the name of the author of the article and the date of publication. If the author is not known, the name of the newspaper and date is reported. It needs to be made clear in the bibliography which type of article is being referred to, e.g. news article, column, opinion piece or editorial.

General references to a whole book or article: these are allowed only when you want to refer to a general idea or a specific mode of thinking that this source represents.

Referring to multiple sources at once: you can refer to a number of studies on the same issue, e.g. when you believe that the matter is generally known, by marking '(see e.g. ...)'. If you want to demonstrate that there are **roughly similar, but nevertheless different, arguments** elsewhere, you can use '(cf. ...)', meaning 'compare'.

Electronic sources: when referring to Internet sources you should follow the same rules as with more conventional sources. The relevant URL must be listed in the bibliography.

For example, **in the text** '(Derksen 1998)'

and **in the bibliography**

'Derksen, Wilfried (1998), *The Electoral Web Sites' Electoral Calendar*. Available at: <<http://www.geocities.com/~derksen/election/calendar.htm>>, retrieved 25.3.2010.'

If the source is in pdf format, it can be referred to as if it was a paper source. For example, a report downloaded from the World Bank website does not require a URL in the bibliography:

'Aden, Jean (2001), *Decentralization of Natural Resources Sector in Indonesia: Opportunities and Risks*. EASES Discussion Paper Series. Environment and Social Development Unit, East Asia and Pacific Region, the World Bank, September.'

References to archive material and microfilm: references to archive material should report the nature of the document (e.g. diary, letter, email message, email list, news group), the date of the document and the name and location of the collection or archive. References to a source that has been microfilmed should also report the number of the microfilm, e.g. 'Letter by Manner to Kuusinen, 17 December 1922, p. 7. RTsHIDNI, f. 522,

op. 1, d. 123.' Here the code RTsHIDNI refers to the location of the source and f. (= fond), op. (= opis), d. (= delo) help to locate the source in the archive. The codes may differ from one archive to another; in this example, a Russian source is referred to.

6. Bibliography

The purpose of a bibliography is to provide the reader with details of the sources used in an academic text. **All** the books, articles, archive material, manuscripts, interviews, Internet documents, etc. **that have been referred to in the text must be included** in the bibliography (sometimes called a reference list for this reason). Together, the bibliography and references enable the reader to easily find the sources used in the paper. It is useful to develop the habit of listing the source in the bibliography at the same time as inserting a reference in the text. The bibliography is placed at the end of the paper before the appendices and the entries are listed in **alphabetical order** by (the first) author's last name. It is recommended that primary sources (research material) be separated from secondary sources (literature).

Listings of monographs (or book-length written presentations by multiple authors) must include the following bibliographical information, found on the title page of the book:

- Author(s)
- (Year of publication), in parentheses, followed by a comma or a colon. If there is more than one book by the same author published in the same year, they are distinguished by lowercase letters, as explained above.
- *Full title, including the subtitle* (if there is one) in italics
- Volume or part (if there are several volumes or parts)
- Name of the publication series, if the book was published as part of a series
- Edition (if other than the first edition)
- Place of publication, followed by a colon:
- Publisher
- A bibliographical listing always ends in a full stop.

The main author's name is listed as follows: Last name, first name (separated by a comma). If there are two authors, their names are separated by an ampersand (&). Where

there are three or more authors, the last two are separated by an ampersand, the rest by commas. The first author is always listed 'last name, first name', but other authors are listed 'first name last name' (without a comma). In the rare cases where the name of the author cannot be found, this is shown by the abbreviation 's.n.' (= sine nomine, 'anonymous') in the bibliography. Sometimes the name of the author of a literary work can be detected from another source; in this case, the author's name is put in square brackets in the bibliography.

Examples:

Aaltola, Mika (2009), *Western Spectacle of Governance and the Emergence of Humanitarian World Politics*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Habermas, Jürgen (1990), *Moral Consciousness and Communicative Action*. Translated by Christian Lenhardt and Shierry Weber Nicholsen. Introduction by Thomas McCarthy. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Mitchell, Christopher & Michael Banks (1996), *Handbook of Conflict Resolution. The Analytical Problem-Solving Approach*. New York: Printer.

Robertson, A.H. & J.G. Merrills (1996), *Human Rights in the World. An Introduction to the Study of the International Protection of Human Rights*. Glasgow: Manchester University Press.

Listing a chapter in an edited volume or a journal article:

- Author(s)
- (Year of publication), in parentheses, followed by a comma or a colon. If there is more than one book by the same author published in the same year, they are distinguished by lowercase letters, as explained above.
- The 'title of the chapter or article' in quotation marks
- Edited volume: the editor(s), followed by (ed.) when a single editor, (eds) when more than one editor, preceded by 'in'
- Edited volume: *the title and subtitle of the volume* in italics
- Journal article: *the name of the journal* in italics
- Edited volume: place of publication, followed by a colon:
- Edited volume: publisher
- Journal article: Volume number and (issue number), in brackets, followed by a colon
- Pages of the chapter or article

Bibliographical listings always end with a full stop.

Examples:

Chapter in an edited volume

George, David (1996), 'National Identity and National Self-Determination' in Caney, Simon, David George & Peter Jones (eds) *National Rights, International Obligations*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 13–33.

Pijpers, Alfred A. (1991), 'European Political Cooperation and the Realist Paradigm' in Holland, Martin (ed.), *The Future of European Political Cooperation. Essays on Theory and Practice*. Basingstoke: Macmillan, 8–35.

Journal article

Clapham, Christopher (1998), 'Rwanda: The Perils of Peacemaking', *Journal of Peace Research* 35 (2): 193–210.

Moravcsik, Andrew (1991) 'Negotiating the Single European Act: National Interests and Conventional Statecraft in the European Community', *International Organization* 45 (1): 651–688.

If there are **multiple works** by the same author(s), they are listed in chronological order. If there are multiple works by the same author(s) published in the same year, they are listed in the order they appear in the text and distinguished by lowercase letters, as indicated above.

In the case of **unpublished material** (e.g. theses and seminar presentations that are kept in a departmental or scientific library), the bibliographical information should include the name of the department or library, the name of the university and the year when the document was written.

A great number of academic papers are published in various **publication series**. In order to enable the reader to find a specific paper, the bibliography must report the name of the publication series, part or number of issue, place and year of publication. If the document in question is a research report, you must – in addition to the normal bibliographical information – mention the type of report and the name of the institution where the document was produced, e.g.:

Griffin, Keith – Azizur Rahman Khan (1992), *Globalization and the Developing World: An Essay on the International Dimensions of Development in the Post- Cold War Era*. UNRISD Report, 92.3. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

Internet sources are listed among all the other sources in alphabetical order when used as secondary sources. Primary sources, i.e. research material, are usually listed separately. **It is important to include the date when you read or downloaded an Internet document** – see the example below. It is strongly recommended that you download the essential parts of any Internet material used, because it might disappear from the server. Internet sources are listed by the name of the author or organization, when possible. When the name of the author is not available, they can be listed by the title of the page.

Examples:

Derksen, Wilfried (1998), *The Electoral Web Sites' Electoral Calendar*. Available at: <<http://www.geocities.com/~derksen/election/calendar.htm>>, retrieved 25.3.2010.

Listing specific types of internet sources:

Blog posts:

Lastname, Firstname (Year, Month Day), "Title of the Blog Post", *Blog Title* (blog).
Publisher. Url, date accessed.

Youtube video:

Lastname, Firstname OR Username (Year, Month Day), *Title of Video*. Youtube. Url, date
accessed.

Tweet:

Lastname, Firstname (Username) OR Username (Year, Month Day), "The whole tweet
message". Tweet. Url, date accessed.

Facebook:

Lastname, Firstname (Year, Month Day), "The whole Facebook post". Facebook. Url, date
accessed.

Note: sometimes it might be relevant not only list the date of the tweet or Facebook post,
but the exact time as well.

Latin abbreviations in references

cf.	confer: compare
et al.	et alii: and others, and so on. Used to indicate that a book or article has several authors.
ibid.	ibidem: the same pages of a book, article, etc. referred to in the previous note
idem	the same book, article, etc. (followed by different page numbers)
op. cit.	opere citato: the same book, article, etc. referred to above
passim	scattered throughout the book
s.a.	sine anno: no year
s.l.	sine loco: no place
s.n.	sine nomine: no author

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Model for cover sheet

Tampere University

Faculty of Management and Business

Politics

TITLE OF THE PAPER

First name last name, student number

Email address

Code and name of the course

Supervisor / Teacher of the course

Opponents

BIBLIOGRAPHY

PRIMARY SOURCES

Committee reports

Report No. 1/1994 of the Special Parliamentary Committee Set up to Consider the Government Report on Charting Finland's Future Options. Helsinki 1995.

Newspaper articles

Gove, Michael, 'The Flight from History: How Labour has Unravelling the Union'. Commentary. The Times Literary Supplement, 8 January 1999.

The People's Korea, 'Women from N-S Korea, Japan Urge Tokyo to Take State Responsibility for "Comfort Women" Issue'. News Report, 31 October 1998.

Interviews

Vihne, Mikko, Head of Secretariat. Interview in the Ministry of Justice, 7 March 1980.

Internet sources

Aden, Jean (2001), *Decentralization of Natural Resources Sector in Indonesia: Opportunities and Risks*. EASES Discussion Paper Series. Environment and Social Development Unit, East Asia and Pacific Region, the World Bank, September.

Derksen, Wilfried (1998), *The Electoral Web Sites' Electoral Calendar*. Available at: <<http://www.geocities.com/~derksen/election/calendar.htm>>, retrieved 25.3.2010.

SECONDARY SOURCES

Aaltola, Mika (2009), *Western Spectacle of Governance and the Emergence of Humanitarian World Politics*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Brown, Chris (1997), *Understanding International Relations*. Hong Kong: Macmillan.

Clapham, Christopher (1998), 'Rwanda: The Perils of Peacemaking'. *Journal of Peace Research* 35 (2):193–210.

George, David (1996), 'National Identity and National Self-Determination' in Caney, Simon, David George & Peter Jones (eds), *National Rights, International Obligations*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 13–33.

Griffin, Keith & Azizur Rahman Khan (1992), *Globalization and the Developing World: An Essay on the International Dimensions of Development in the Post-Cold War Era*. UNRISD Report, 92.3. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development

Habermas, Jürgen (1990), *Moral Consciousness and Communicative Action*. Translated by Christian Lenhardt and Shierry Weber Nicholsen. Introduction by Thomas McCarthy. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Hollis, Martin & Steve Smith (1991), *Explaining and Understanding International Relations*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Lindberg, Leon N. & Stuart A. Scheingold (1970), *Europe's Would-be Polity. Patterns of Change in the European Community*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall.

Link, Arthur S. (ed.) (1984), *The Papers of Woodrow Wilson*. Vol. 45: November 11, 1917 – January 15, 1918. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Mitchell, Christopher & Michael Banks (1996), *Handbook of Conflict Resolution. The Analytical Problem-Solving Approach*. New York: Printer.

Moravcsik, Andrew (1991) 'Negotiating the Single European Act: National Interests and Conventional Statecraft in the European Community'. *International Organization* 45 (1): 651–688.

Pijpers, Alfred A. (1991), 'European Political Cooperation and the Realist Paradigm' in Holland, Martin (ed.), *The Future of European Political Cooperation. Essays on Theory and Practice*. Basingstoke: Macmillan, 8–35.

Robertson, A.H. & J.G. Merrills (1996), *Human Rights in the World. An Introduction to the Study of the International Protection of Human Rights*. Fourth edition. Glasgow: Manchester University Press.

Annex 3: Model for abstract page of Master's thesis

Tampere University

Faculty of Management and Business

Master's Programme in ...

NAME OF AUTHOR: Title of thesis

Master's Thesis, 72 pages, 5 appendices

Politics / Political Science / International Relations

May 2014

The abstract page is to be placed after the title page. The purpose of the abstract is to summarize the contents of the thesis. The upper part of the abstract page (about 60 mm) consists of the following information:

- Name of university and school, Master's programme
- Family name and first name(s) of the author (in CAPITAL LETTERS)
- Title of thesis
- Level of thesis (e.g. Master's thesis, Licentiate thesis) and number of pages and appendices
- Name of discipline
- Month and year of completion

It should be followed by a separating line.

After this bibliographical information, the actual abstract is presented. It must be based on the assumption that the reader has general knowledge of the topic. The reader must be able to understand the abstract without having read the thesis. The sentences in the abstract must be complete – a list of chapter headings is not sufficient. References and quotations must not be used, nor should there be anything in the abstract that does not appear in the thesis. The abstract should be as concise as possible: it is recommended that it does not exceed one single-spaced page (c. 120 to 250 words). On no account should the abstract exceed two pages.

An abstract should contain the following information:

- Topic of thesis
- Object of study

- Research methodology (if the thesis is mainly theoretical and based on specific literary sources, the principal sources must be identified; if the thesis is mainly empirical, the methods of analysis must be mentioned)
- Main results
- Conclusions and possible recommendations