Master Philosophy 60/120 EC

Master's thesis

Course manual

FTR-FIMA11

Radboud Universiteit 

CONTENTS

ATTACHMENTS

1 WORKSHOP MASTER'S THESIS

1.1 Contents, location and function

The Master's programme concludes with a master's thesis. The preparation and supervision takes place in the context of the practical 'Workshop Master's thesis'(FTR-FIMA12) with compulsory attendance. The workshop is offered in both the first and second semesters. In the first semester, students - under the guidance of a teacher and with feedback from fellow students - develop a question for their own thesis. For this they choose a research method and a subject and that they try to work out in a first set-up, in line with the content of the master's programme followed. These steps are carried out by the individual student/e and discussed in the workshop groups. In the second semester, the thesis is actually written under the guidance of a teacher and with feedback from fellow students and a teacher during the thesis workshop. The master's thesis will be completed at the end of the second semester. The size of the thesis is 20 EC, of which 5 EC in the first semester.

The workshop groups are divided per master trajectory. The course is scheduled for days when the students have to come to the university for master's courses (see overview below and timetable website).

1.2 Objective

With the master's thesis, the student gives an aptitude test of competence to scientific, i.e. independent, critical, methodical and systematic research, thinking and writing. In concrete terms, the aim is to show, on the basis of a clearly defined and clear problem statement, through a consistently constructed argument, that one has insight into the themes to be treated and in one or more ways in which the theme in question must be approached.

1.3 Linking of internship and thesis

In the specializations of the Master's in Philosophy, a link between internship and thesis presupposes that the research carried out during the internship can be developed into a thesis subject. It is important that the students contact the internship coordinator of the specializations in time to discuss the rules around the internship. The students must carry out literature research, archival research, practice-oriented or theory-oriented research, do fieldwork or carry out scientific research on behalf of third parties. It goes without saying that at this stage of the programme high demands are placed on the nature, approach and results of the work carried out by the student and that, as a rule, there must be a clear relationship with the content and level of the programme. In an internship contract, the concrete agreements (question and objective, research design and planning) must be determined.

1.4 Period, scheduling and study load

At the beginning of the first semester, the meetings of the working group per specialization start. The students must register for this via OSIRIS.

Analytical Philosophy	Dr.ir. L.C. de Bruin	FTR-FIMA12-MSAF
Continental Philosophy	B. van Meurs, MA	FTR-FIMA12-MSFF
Practical Philosophy	Dr. J. Linssen	FTR-FIMA12-MSPF
Great Ideas and Their History	Dr.ir. F.A. Bakker	FTR-FIMA12-MSPS
PPS	Prof. Dr. Marc Davidson	FTR-FIMA12-MSPP

Study load hours (SBU)	*Contact time*	*Self-study time*
20 EC = 560 SBU	4 CU = 16 SBU (8 meetings of 2 hours)	560 - 16 = 544 SBU

2 MASTER'S THESIS

The master's thesis has requirements and criteria that are stated in the faculty Rules & Guidelines.

2.1 Requirements for the Philosophy Thesis

Requirements

1. Pdf format, A4, round margins of at least 3.5 cm.
2. Common 12-point typeface with serifs, such as Times, Palatino or Garamond.
3. Size: 10,000-20,000 words, excluding bibliography.
4. Written in good, clear and grammatically correct Dutch or English and understandable for qualified philosophers in general.
5. Consistent references and a separate bibliography, both prepared according to a common system.
6. Quotes source texts, or recognized translations.
7. Summary of at most 120 words.
8. The title page specifies:
   a. title
   b. student's name
   c. student number
   d. name of the supervisor
   e. number of words (excluding bibliography)
   f. date
   g. the text:
      Thesis to obtain the degree "Master of arts" in philosophy Radboud University Nijmegen
9. Reverse of title page:

I hereby declare and assure, [name of student], that this thesis has been drawn up independently by me, that no sources and tools other than those mentioned by me have been used and that the passages in the work whose verbatim content or meaning from other works – including electronic media – has been taken by citing the source are made known as borrowing. Place:... date:...

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1 NN: enter the name of the programme and the Master's specialisation

If two or more students write a thesis together, in addition to common chapters, separate contributions from each student involved must be included.

Criteria
The thesis:

- is the result of independently conducted research. The thesis should be the creative result of a responsible reflection. Therefore, one should not limit one's mere reproduction of what others have already written or judged.

- must be an independently written text, which testifies to critical insight and its own motivated judgment. It cannot therefore consist of a purely subjective representation of one's own experiences.

- relates the study of an author, theme or practice to the context to be considered relevant (society, historical, religious, literary, etc.).

- has a question-, problem- objective that is clearly defined, demarcated and relevant, given the state of affairs in the field.

- has a consistent, objective and argumentative elaboration of the problem and questioning (i.e. it forms a consistent whole from problem statement to conclusion). In the introduction to the thesis, the chosen method must be described and justified and the structure of the thesis must be explained and justified.

- processes the literature relevant to the research. The choice of literature used for the thesis must be justified and the literature must be clearly and correctly recorded.

- testifies to a language that is correct and consistent; the style is businesslike and readable.

- has references, quotations, appendices, etc. that are functional; they support (the development of) the argument.

2.2 Guidance

The guidance process is started with the mandatory 'workshop master's thesis' in the first semester.
In the future, the individual students are supervised by themselves chosen teachers. For this, students are entitled to five coaching sessions. For the progress of writing the master's thesis, it is important that the students start as soon as possible with first set-up and parts of the thesis. The students receive feedback on this from the accompanying teacher/e.

If the thesis process is delayed due to personal circumstances, for example, the student/e must contact the study advisor as soon as possible.

2.3 Assessment procedure

The following drafting plan describes the procedure for the registration, assessment and defense of the master's thesis. The web forms for registering and submitting the thesis can be found on the faculty intranet.

1. No later than one month before the intended submission date, the thesis supervisor requests the Examination Board to appoint a committee of examiners (CoE). [webform]
2. The Examination Board appoints the CoE: consisting of the 1st examiner (also chairperson), the 2nd examiner and the permanent examiner. Generally, the 1st examiner will be the thesis supervisor.
3. The thesis supervisor checks the thesis for plagiarism. If plagiarism is suspected, this is reported to the Examination Board and the procedure is suspended.
4. If the supervisor considers the thesis ready to be defended, it is submitted by the supervisor. [webform]
5. Within 2 weeks after submission, all examiners complete the assessment form and submit their reports to the permanent examiner.
6. Is the thesis is judged unsatisfactory by one or several of the examiners, the supervisor requests the student to revise the thesis so as to meet the examiners' objections. The procedure is then resumed from step 3.
7. If the thesis is judged satisfactory by all examiners, the 1st examiner informs the student , the student consults with the examiners to determine the date of the defence.
8. The permanent examiner determines the final mark for the thesis by averaging the individual assessments.
9. Once the mark has been determined, the defense takes place before the 1st and at least one other examiner (normally the 2nd examiner).
10. The examiners present at the defence assess the defence.
11. The 1st examiner forwards the final assessment form to the student. The permanent examiner forwards all the forms and the thesis to STIP.

Appendix A: Assessment form 'Master's thesis'

Subject to change. The legally valid version can be found on the FTR intranet

Student name:	
Student number:	
Date:	
Examiner:	

		Comment
Subject and question (20%)How is the subject defined? Is the question sharp and clear? Is the relevance of the question well argued?		
Structure (20%)Is there a clear structure? Do introduction, middle part and conclusion fit together well? Is the thesis adequately divided into paragraphs?		
Style and presentation (20%)Are the sentences clear and well formulated? Does the thesis have a suitable style for the target group? Are quotes well embedded in the text? Is there good use of secondary literature?		
Quality argumentation (40%)Are the ideas and views of discussed authors correctly and adequately represented? Are terms clearly and clearly explained and used consistently? Is every reasoning step convincingly argued? Is there critical distancing from the authors discussed?		
Thesis grade (90% of the final mark)	0,0	
Defense (10% of the final mark)		
Final grade	0,0	
Final grade completed		

Annex B: Fraud scheme

Article 1. Purpose and scope of these regulations

To prevent fraud during examinations and bachelor/master examinations, as referred to in article 7.12b *WHW*, relating to the education and examination in a PTRS programme of Radboud University (hereinafter: RU), the dean of the faculty of Philosophy, Theology and Religious Studies adopts the following regulations.

Article 2. Definitions

The terms that are used in these regulations – in so far as these terms are also used in the Higher Education and Research Act (*Wet op het Hoger onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk onderzoek* (hereinafter: the Act)) or the Education and Examination Regulations of the degree programme (hereinafter: the EER) – have the same meaning that is given to these terms in the Act and the EER.

Paragraph 2 Definition fraud, procedure and sanctions

Article 3. Definition of fraud

1. At RU, fraud is understood to mean any act or omission by a student which, in its nature, is intended to have as an effect that proper assessment of the knowledge, understanding and skills of that student, or another student, is made fully or partially impossible.
2. Fraud is in any case understood to mean:
    a) fraud when sitting written examinations, including
        i. having materials available which are not permitted under the House Rules Examinations Rooms RU Regulations (*Regeling Huisregels Tentamenruimten RU*);
        ii. copying or exchanging information;
        iii. passing oneself off as someone else, or being represented by someone else during examinations or bachelor/master examinations;
    b) fraud when producing theses and other papers, including
        i. plagiarism in the sense of using or copying someone else's texts, data or ideas without complete and correct source references, plagiarism in the sense of copying the work of another student and presenting this as one's own work and other specifically academic forms of plagiarism;
        ii. fabricating (making up) and/or falsifying (distorting) research data;
        iii. submitting a thesis or any other paper that was written by someone else.
    c) other fraud in the context of examinations or bachelor/master examinations, including
        i. taking possession of assignments, answer keys and the like, prior to the time the examination or bachelor/master examination is to take place;
        ii. changing answers to assignments in an examination or a bachelor/master examination after it has been handed in for assessment;
        iii. providing incorrect information when applying for an exemption, extension of validity period, and the like, of an examination or a bachelor/master examination.
3. For the purpose of these regulations, an attempt to commit fraud will also be seen as fraud.

Article 4. Procedure establishing fraud

1. When fraud is suspected, the board of examiners or the examiner immediately informs the student of this suspicion. If the suspicion of fraud is established when the examination is administered, the board of examiners or the examiner will allow the student to complete the examination.
2. The board of examiners or the examiner may order the student to make any material related to the suspicion of fraud available to them.
3. For the purposes of the provisions in paragraphs 1 and 2 of the present article, examiner is also understood to mean the invigilator or any other RU member of staff.
4. The board of examiners or the examiner drafts a report of the suspicion of fraud. The report drafted by the examiner will be sent to the board of examiners without delay.
5. The board of examiners makes the report referred to in paragraph 4 available to the student without delay and then starts an investigation into the matter. The board of examiners provides the student with the opportunity to respond to the report in writing. The board of examiners hears both the examiner and the student.
6. Within four weeks following the date the report was made available to the student, the board of examiners decides whether fraud was actually committed. The board of examiners informs both the student and the examiner of their decision in writing. The four-week period may be extended by two weeks.

Article 5. Remedial action

If the board of examiners has established fraud:

a) the board of examiners declares the relevant examination invalid, and
b) the board of examiners includes a statement in the student's student file that it has established fraud and, if applicable, which sanctions have been imposed.

Article 6. Sanctions

1. If the board of examiners has established that fraud has been committed, the board of examiners may:
    a) determine that the student may not sit one or more examinations during a period to be set by the board of examiners, which period amounts to a maximum of one year;
    b) determine that no distinction will be awarded on the degree certificate;
    c) make a recommendation to the Dean of the Honours Academy that the student should not be admitted to the honours programme of the university or the faculty or recommend that the student's participation in the honours programme of the university or the faculty should be ended.

If the board of examiners has established that *serious* fraud has been committed, the board of examiners may also

    d) make a recommendation to the executive board that the student's registration for a degree programme should be terminated with definitive effect.

2. After the board of examiners has established that serious fraud has been committed, the executive board – upon the board of examiners' recommendation – may terminate the student's registration for a programme with definitive effect.

3. The sanctions referred to in this article are imposed as from the day following the date the student is notified of the decision that sanctions are imposed.

Paragraph 3 Transitional provisions
[insert possible transitory regulations]

Paragraph 4 Final provisions

Article 8. Decisions and legal protection

1. Decisions pursuant to these regulations may be sent to the student digitally and/or by email.
2. The student can appeal against any decision made under these regulations, within six weeks following the date on the relevant decision, by lodging a notice of appeal at the Examinations Appeals Board (*College voor Beroep van de Examens* (*CBE*).

Article 9. Adoption and amendment

1. These regulations are adopted by the dean.
2. In so far as the content of these regulations relates to the duties and powers of the degree programme's board of examiners, the content must also be confirmed by that board of examiners.

Article 9. Effect

These regulations take effect on 1-9-2019. These regulations will then replace any previous regulations.

Article 10. Publication

1. The dean ensures the appropriate publication and possible amendments of these regulations.
2. For the purpose of proper and clear provision of information to students and prospect students, the dean includes these regulations as an appendix to the Education and Examination Regulations (*Onderwijs- en Examenreglement* (*OER*)). Accordingly, the board of examiners includes these regulations accordingly as an appendix to the rules and guidelines of the degree programme to be laid down by that board.

The Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences (KNAW) has published an excellent brochure. This publication is explicitly intended for students and young researchers in developing their own scientific sense of norms: KNAW [ed. J. Heilbron et al.] (2005). *Scientific research: dilemmas and temptations*. Second edition. Free to download via http://knaw.nl/nl/actueel/publicaties/wetenschappelijk-onderzoek-dilemmas-en-verleidingen

Students must include and sign the following statement behind the title page:

Declaration of own work

I hereby declare and assure, NN, that the present thesis entitled TITLE has been drawn up independently by me, that no sources and tools other than those mentioned by me have been used and that the passages in the work whose verbatim content or meaning from other works – including electronic media – has been taken by citing the source are made known as borrowing. Place... date...

Hereby I, N.N., declare and assure that I have composed the present thesis with the title (.....), independently, that I did not use any other sources or tools other than indicated and that I marked those parts of the text derived from the literal content or meaning of other Works – digital media included – by making them known as such by indicating their source(s). Place,Date

Appendix C: Attainment targets Master Philosophy

After a successful completion of the study, the students have an academic love which has the following aspects:

§1. Knowledge and insight

a) Graduating students possess thorough and detailed knowledge in one specific domain of philosophy, and they therefore are acquainted with:
   - The key problems and fundamental concepts within the chosen field of specialisation; ;
   - the primary and secondary literature pertaining to the authors and questions that have been investigated.

b) Graduating students possess solid knowledge in a philosophical discipline outside of their chosen specialisation, and therefore are acquainted with:
   - at least one author or philosophical issue outside the student's field of specialisation;
   - the primary and secondary literature pertaining to an author or question outside the student's field of specialisation.

c) Graduating students understand the way in which their chosen specialisation is related to the overall domain of philosophy and to the landscape of academic disciplines and contemporary culture.

d) The graduate will have knowledge of and insight into the professional field of qualified philosophers.

§2. Application of knowledge

a) Graduating students have learned to carry out the consecutive steps of a research project, and in particular have the following knowledge and skills:
   - translating a philosophical problem into a research question and a project designed to answer the research question;
   - locating the relevant primary and secondary literature, assembling it, and evaluating its quality and relevance with respect to the research question to be answered;
   - interpreting the selected texts in a careful and critical manner that is pertinent to the question to be answered;
   - arriving at valid conclusions based on the research that has been conducted, and relating these conclusions to the original research question and the problem that lies at its roots.

b) Graduating students are capable of dealing with philosophical and non-philosophical texts according to accepted academic standards, and notably in the processing of texts in referencing and bibliographies.

c) Graduates can translate the philosophical knowledge they have acquired in various forms to a wider audience, and apply this knowledge to concrete cases from social practice.

§3. Judgement

a) Graduating students are capable of forming an independent judgement with respect to the authors and issues they have treated in the chosen field of specialisation. They are, in particular, capable of:
   - placing a text or question in the relevant context;
   - analysing the argumentative structure of a philosophical text and judging its coherence and correctness;
   - judging philosophical texts and issues critically and according to their contents and domains of application.

b) Graduating students are capable of defending their position vis-à-vis a given question in the domain of specialisation.

§4. Communication skills

a) Communication: The graduate is able to report the results of their own research both verbally and in writing and to communicate these results to both philosophical and non-philosophical trained audiences.

b) Collaboration: The graduate is able to work together with others towards a (final) product and to make an active contribution to this work. The graduate organises the work in consultation with others and takes responsibility for their part in the collaboration.

c) Feedback: The graduate is able to evaluate and improve a product, partly based on feedback from others and is able to provide feedback to others that supports them in evaluating and improving their work.

§5. Learning Skills

a) Graduating students possess the learning skills that enable them to set up and carry out new philosophical research projects.

b) Graduating students possess the skills for applying parts of their research and connecting it to relevant philosophical issues or newly emerging issues or problems.

Appendix D: Writing of the thesis/thesis[1]

Compulsory literature:
Young, J. de (2011). Textbook academic writing. In steps to an essay, paper or thesis. Bussum: Couthinho publishinghouse. FTR also has its own syllabus Academic Skills.

Writing a paper or thesis within a certain time frame requires good preparation. Those who get to work at random lose a lot of time hittingside-roads. This can be instructive, but if you have limited time at your disposal, it is advisable to make a good planning. The first phase starts with thinking about the subject and the practice of a good problem statement.

1. Choosing and exploring a suitable topic

By choosing a topic for a research that results in a thesis or thesis, you are committed to a certain period of time. This decision must therefore be well-considered. In this section we will discuss the question of which considerations play a role. We discuss the following:

2. interest in and importance of the subject
3. types of topics
4. the use of texts
5. recording the preparatory work.

1.1 Importance of the topic

A philosophical work has a threefold importance: one's own interest, the scientific interest and the social interest. In the event that you can choose within the framework of the study (whether or not within certain limits) which subject you will cover, determining your *own interest* is of course the most important thing. As you progress through your studies and certainly after your studies, other considerations are also important.

The *scientific interest* is that the research that you will soon conclude with a paper yields an increase in your knowledge or insight. This interest requires that you consult others who have already (and perhaps better) thought about the same matter before (and perhaps better). But you may also add something to the knowledge that is already there.

The *social* interest is that the clarification or answering of the question is or may also be important in social discussions or even the beginning of sucha discussion.

The choice of the subject is then also a matter of time, of study planning. Pay particular attention to the following:

2. Choose a topic that you think you can work on for a longer period of time. If possible, continue on a topic that you have been working on before and in which you are already somewhat at home.
3. Find out if there is good and accessible literature on the subject. Not all your time should go by looking for suitable literature.

[1] The main source for this manual is: M. Terpstra (eds.), *Research, read, write, speak. Academic Skills Guide,* Nijmegen, KUN, 2003.

4. Write down what you would like to write (or say) about the topic. Do not choose 'blindly' for a topic, but name central issues or aspects.
5. Be careful that the subject is not too difficult, too broad or too high." If the subject has too many aspects, choose one of those aspects. If a concept has multiple meanings, focus on one meaning. If a study of the subject requires a lot of preliminary knowledge, shift your attention in that direction. If the literature is too extensive, deliberately limit the amount of text.

1.2. Types of topics and initial considerations

Within the field of work of philosophy, many types of subjects are conceivable. Among other things, you can focus on:

2. a text by a classical author
3. a specific philosophical problem
4. a historical or current phenomenon
5. a practical problem
6. a social, cultural or political issue.

Initially, your subject is often unclear. It is precisely by taking notes about it and talking about it with a supervisor or others that you sometimes find clues to focus it on. You can undertake a number of activities to get more certainty about the choice of your topic: 1. Write down briefly why you are *interested* in this topic. If you don't know how to think of much at this point, then your interest is probably too vague (or too fraught).

1. Write down briefly what you want to know about your topic. A topic is related to *questions*. You have to ask those questions explicitly, so that you know what you're going to be like-know. Are you looking for an explanation of the subject, or do you want to know more about the history of thinking about it, or are you looking for arguments for or against a certain statement or idea? You can read more about the kind of research questions you can ask when designing a paper in section 2.2.
2. Write down some *keywords* that you think are related to your topic. Write down briefly in which corner you want to search (a certain author, a certain book and so on). This is necessary when you start looking for literature. As far as the keywords are concerned: sometimes you do not get far with the subject as a keyword, but you will find something with the help of other keywords. You can also use additional keywords to reduce the material found (focus of the subject). Make sure that your list of main keywords also contains the corresponding terms in English and German, since you usually cannot limit yourself to Dutch reference books and literature. The name of the author or the title of a book you are interested in naturally also offer in-corridors when searching.
3. Read short and informative texts on the subject (see next paragraph) and make a list of consulted texts. You can read texts before or during or after the above*activities*. *Reading in* is important when you don't yet have a clear idea of what actually appeals to you in a topic. Remember that you are reading to determine your topic, not yet to gather material for your workpiece.

1.3 Reconnaissance with the help of texts

In the preliminary research, you need to be selective when reading texts. We assume that you have a limited time at your disposal for this phase and that you mainly want to use that time

for going through really relevant texts. Texts here only serve to arrive at a good problem statement for your research. You are looking for concise information about

a) different aspects of your subject
b) different views on your subject (including the accompanying authors and movements)
c) different topics that are related or have common ground with your topic - further literature on the subject.

These are suitable texts:

- Dictionary, encyclopedia, manual, introduction. With a keyword you can also search the library of FTR for short articles (also called: *lemmata*) on the subject. This exploration of your topic provides information about authors, currents, definitions of a concept, and so on. Usually there is also a literature list.
- Short, preferably current articles in magazines. Such texts can already offer you an example for your own work, but also provide information about authors, points of view, arguments and so on.
- Texts that search engines in catalogues, especially through the library, provide you with.
- Resources on the Internet. With a search you can broaden your horizons.

Research results are increasingly accessible via the internet. An exploration can give you ideas. However, these texts are very different in quality.

1.4 Recording the preparatory work and own approach

The first thing to do when you start an investigation is to create a *dos*-ornamental. Keep everything together and take notes on all the steps in the research. Every research starts with a first idea, which you record in a working title. The *working title* indicates the subject or the direction in which you want to investigate something. A working title is always provisional. You may come up with a better title in the course of your preparation or when writing. An example: "Thomas Aquinas views on justifiable war in light of the current state of the world". With this working title you have indicated which author you are treating, which concept you are investigating in particular and which you want to make a connection between Thomas' views and the current situation.

For the method of documenting (notes, file) and the next steps, we can at most give general instructions. Everyone has their own learning style with their own approach to research and writing. One is resourceful in collecting interesting material, but has difficulty describing it succinctly or coming to a coherent vision. The other likes to analyze texts thoroughly, but does not come to bring together material. A third wants to work neatly according to prescribed rules or an example. A fourth writes quickly and intuitively and comes to a coherence by deleting a lot. Try to realize your own strengths and weaknesses and consult quickly with your supervisor if you are stuck.

2. Determining problem questions *and* research questions

The exploration of your subject quickly leads to you in danger of getting lost or drowning in the abundance of information. It's time to make a choice and decide which way you actually want to go. Which aspect of the subject deserves the most attention now? Do you need to include all visions, points of view and views in your research? Or should you take the step to a related topic or an interface that concerns the core of your question? Once you've made that

choice, you can start working out your decision. You are now not searching for one keyword that represented your initial interest, but for multiple and more specific keywords or key terms. These limit the amount of information you will find when searching. In addition, you can now determine the method(s) to be used based on the level of your research questions.

We now turn to the following matters:

a) finding the problem statement
b) types of research questions

2.1 Problem statement and research questions

The idea you start with should be focused on a problem statement and then developed into manageable research questions. A *problem statement* is the concise and accurate indication of the issue you want to clarify, the question you want to answer. Try to formulate these in one sentence. It's about more than just asking a question. The problem statement must be a suitable starting point with which you get clear which research questions you will study and in what way you will work.

An example (following the working title mentioned above): "What contribution can Thomas Aquinas make to the justified war to an analysis of current world politics?" Such a problem must be solvable, so sufficiently defined, but it must also be a real problem. During the course of the investigation, it can sometimes turn out that the problem statement needs to be further focused, but a well-considered problem statement can usually be maintained until the end. However, this demarcation of the subject is not sufficient in the preparation of the research. You also have to have a guideline when studying the material that you are going to collect in the future. You carry out the actual research on the basis of the problem statement and on the basis of one or more specific research *questions*. These are questions that indicate what exactly you want to know when reading those texts. Research questions make it possible to deal *selectively* with the information you are given.

You can draw up such research questions on the basis of your first notes, in which certain *key concepts* regularly appear. But the key concepts are also in the problem statement, as in the example:

a) current world politics
b) Thomas' vision of the justified earloig

For a piece of work, it is sometimes sufficient to limit yourself to a problem statement. In a thesis, a few research questions usually provide useful focuss. But every research question that you definitively include in your paper must be answered, preferably also explicitly in the conclusion. Subsequently, the list of research questions also provides a first structure for the workpiece: three or four paragraphs.

2.2 Kinds of research questions and objective

The number of questions one can ask is endless. Every question raises new questions. The trick is to formulate, on the basis of the problem statement, precisely those manageable concrete questions whose successive answers result in the interpretation of your argument.

In order to draw up manageable research questions, it is useful to take a moment to consider different types of research questions in philosophy:

a) questions about clarifying anunderstanding, theme or point of view of a great classical or modern author, especially on the basis of the accompanying argumentation - answering a focused philosophical problem

b) ask about the *analysis of a* historical or current philosophical *phenomenon* - devising *solutions to a practical situation.*

c) *to determine a position in the discussion* on a social, cultural or political issue.

Each type of research question has not only its own type of questioning, but also its own approach or method of answering, as we will see. In addition, you can tackle the different problems more in width or more in depth, so on various levels. A text or issue about which little is known or published will have to be explored first, while a topic on which piles of books have already been written can be dealt with in more depth or in more detail. You can distinguish some levels of treatment (of texts, of opinions, of phenomena):

d) exploration
e) stocktaking
f) description
g) analysis
h) interpretation
i) statement
j) comparison
k) discussion
l) synthesis or reconstruction - theory formation - recommendation.

If you determine at what level you want to address your research questions, you have the *objective* and therefore the knowledge-theoretic level of your research in mind. These do not have to be explicitly mentioned in your workpiece, but it is good to formulate them with a view to the choice of method and further approach.

3. Working hypothesis

Drawing up and testing a *working hypothesis* can be a good way to structure your research. In the working hypothesis, the outcome of your research is formulated before you have carried out the research yourself. So it's a presumption that you have on the basis of prior knowledge. During the investigation, you will then focus on finding clues to confirm or refute your suspicion. A working hypothesis turns out to be correct or not. Usually she's a little bit accurate, but you'll find a lot of data that will require you to adjust your initial view of the case. Starting from a working hypothesis has a great advantage when setting up a study and presenting the research results. After all, the structure of the argument has already been given. And on top of that, while studying the literature, you can start reading in a very focused way. You select the relevant parts of the text on the basis of three criteria:

a) What do I need to explain to the reader or listener what the topic is?
b) What do I need to test the working hypothesis?
c) Where do I find variants that can have (affirming, denying, nuanced) influence on the hypothesis?

Anyone who has to complete an investigation under time pressure will benefit from such a selective approach. The structure working hypothesis-research-outcome can also shape your final workpiece. You can also include this form in your work plan. You tell in the introduction what you initially thought and why you thought this. Then you give a report of your research: what did you find? And finally, in the conclusion you indicate to what extent what is found corresponds to the working hypothesis or deviates from it. So you tell us what you've learned through your research.
A danger of this research design is that you do not handle your material 'honestly'. You will then only take over what confirms your working hypothesis and leave out everything that contradicts your suspicions. So you have to be careful that you mention and take into account all the important points of view or out-of-the-world.

Do not hesitate to submit your (provisional) working hypothesis to your fellow students in the thesis workshop. That can lead to invigorating learned conversations and sometimes helpful suggestions. But above all, this 'thinking out loud' often creates more clarity because you formulate the issue in your own words. As soon as the problem statement and research questions have been determined, it is wise to have this result checked by the supervisor.

4. Collecting literature and drawing up a work plan

When the foregoing is finished, you can begin a new phase, namely that of collecting literature and drawing up a work plan. These two steps can be considered as the first elaboration of your research questions.

4.1 Elaboration of problem statement and research questions, collecting literature
Elaboration of the problem statement is done with the help of keywords with which you try to find literature in the search systems. Don't start studying all these texts right away. In this phase of the preparation you use the texts present in the library to further orientate yourself. You consult the available texts for possible usability for later and especially on information about the best useful sources. You have to write them down. Or you can find references to other articles on the same topic.

Useful here are also summaries of articles*(summaries)*that you will find in the search files of the library's catalog, among other things. In this phase, it is still useful to consult encyclopedias, bibliographies and textbooks.

Please note! If you are already stuck in this phase of your preparation because you do not find suitable texts, then you may not have used the right keywords. But perhaps it is also wise to think about another related topic on which there is sufficient suitable and accessible literature.
In summary, this elaboration of the problem statement means:

- Use the research questions to create a list of keywords.
- Using the keywords, search in different search systems (catalogues, encyclopedias, manuals and so on).
- Please refer to certain texts for further information on useful material.
- Make a (preliminary) selection of the texts that you will read for your work.

Search systems for collecting literature are available at different levels. We will not elaborate on this, because attention has been paid to it at other times in the training. In short, there are

search systems for literature in encyclopedias and textbooks, then by subject area in bibliographic journals, and finally there are general and subject-specific electronic files in the library. The latter are accessible via the library's website under 'disciplines' – for us this mainly concerns the fields of 'Philosophy' and 'Social Sciences'. Furthermore, the library's catalogue has its own word system and, moreover, such accesses to other libraries around the world. If you can't cope with this, staff at the library's information desk will help you on request. Another general electronic search engine for science is scholar.google.com

4.2 Reviewing literature

To assess the literature, you do not read the found texts yourself, but try to get an idea of the content of the texts and the extent to which these texts could provide an answer to your research question on the basis of the instructions to be mentioned below. You should pay particular attention to the status and quality of the texts. On the basis of a summary (at the end), introduction, the headlines or the bibliography, you can often get a good impression of the scope and level of a text, or of the position of the author.

To assess the strengths and weaknesses of independent publications (handbooks and monographs), you would do well to look for reviews in authoritative times. Such journals have registers per volume, but sometimes also cumulative (over several vintages). One tool is the *Internationale Bibliographie der Rezensionen*, which since1985 contains almost a million reviews in many scientific fields and is accessible via the Internet: http://gso.gbv.de/

When collecting literature, it is useful to make a distinction between *primary and secondary texts*. With a more historical and text-oriented approach, a critical *edition* should be used as primary literature, for example by a classical author, and preferably in the original language. Commentaries in books or articles act as secondary literature. In a systematic approach to a problem statement, the trick is to find one or a few strong, central texts (for example, a monograph on the subject in question); texts that are not directly about the problem in question or contain rather different points of view can provide secondary material. When you have identified a field of expertise during a problem statement, the use of authoritative *journals* from this field is obvious. Here you will find the most recent state of affairs.

4.3 Selecting literature

The texts have still not been read thoroughly. You can't keep searching for too long. It is not easy to indicate the moment when you should stop collecting and determine the selection. You must have enough texts to answer your problem statement and your research questions.

If you decide to end the collection, you can quickly come to a selection. Based on the problem statement, research questions and method, you determine what your central or primary texts are (which you must first and thoroughly read) and which are secondary. You've probably also collected texts that you should om omuit from the selection; they go to the reserve bank and may not appear again. Try to immediately determine on the basis of your first impression of the content in which order you will study your texts.

If in doubt about the right time for the selection or about a wise selection, it is best to consult with the supervisor. It is not convenient to keep searching for a long time.
Turn texts that you definitely think you need, for example an article from a philosophical encyclopedia, into a photocopy. On the photocopy, carefully write down the title of the

encyclopedia, the number of the binding and the year of publication (both of the entire encyclopedia and of the binding). However, keep in mind that photocopying is not the same as studying. And studying it thoroughly is not the same as editing a photocopy at first reading with the text marker. Try to keep the text clean on first reading, as you cannot yet know what is really relevant in the scope of the entire text.

Finally, you have to take into account the possibility that during the processing of the literature or while writing, urgent questions still arise that require study of a little extra literature, or that an excellent text still appears that you (instead of a previously selected one) will include. But the essentials are fixed.

4.4 Drawing up a work plan

When determining the order of study of your literature, you are already more or less drawing up a work plan. It is now best to make a plan for the entire finish of the scrip- tion, because you should have your material together. The following components should be included in the work plan.

1. *The problem statement and research questions,*so the question of whether questions you want to beanswered exactly. This question (questions) must be constantly in mind when working. 2. *List of keywords,*which indicate what you should pay attention to when reading the selectedtexts.
   - *Texts,* the list of the material you are going to edit or the texts you are going to study.

   Please also indicate the order and status correctly. Which text do you read first, which later?

   Which texts do you read at all, which only partially?
   - *Method and approach*. Try to get clear how you are going to study the texts and what you want to hold on from your lecture. Do you first read everything quickly once and then do you read important parts more accurately? Do you make a summary, a structure scheme or individual notes for each text read?
   - *Table of Contents*. Create a preliminary table of contents of your workpiece. This way you know during the work where the material can be used. When drawing up the research questions, we were already able to draw up a preliminary structure on the basis of the keywords or key concepts that emerged from this.
   - *A timetable*. Create a schedule in which you record the different steps of your research and their completion and make an estimate of the amount of time that each step will take plus a total overview. Some rough indications: of the total time available, a quarter has gone to the preparation (first two stages, so far), then half is needed for processing the material or texts, and the last quarter serves for writing the workpiece. For the thorough study of primary literature you can reserve 3-5 pages per hour, for going through secondary literature 8-10 pages, for writing and finishing one text page three hours. Build in some spare time at the end.

After drawing up the work plan, the right time has come to coordinate with the thesis supervisor. You can now offer a good overview of the probable design of your thesis and of the time schedule that you set out for the coming steps. The supervisor can check the work that has been done and possibly propose changes.

4.5 Execution of the research and processing of the literature

We cannot go into the next phase of the work, the execution of the research. In general, it is about studying and processing the selected literature. In this you must have gained so much experience during your studies, that no special instructions are needed for the different ways of reading and documenting. We will confine ourselves to two comments.

With a view to the processing of references or quotations in the thesis, it is useful to accurately write down remarkable statements or pregnant formulations from the literature, or possibly to reserve a place for them.

Use the timetable (see previous paragraph) as encouragement during work. If you notice that you are going to run out considerably, it is best to consult with the supervisor about this.

5. Writing

For the writing process, we limit ourselves to general instructions. Here too, just as with documenting, students can have a rather different working method. One taps quickly, preferably twice too much text, to delete half of the produced text in the second instance, based on the work plan. Based on a detailed overview or structure scheme, the other builds sentence after sentence, paragraph after paragraph, and arrives at a good result almost in one writing round. Keep in regular contact with your supervisor. Have the important parts of finished text (per chapter or so) corrected each time. The general instructions relate to the following main points about work or thesis:

- overview of solids
- the introduction
- the main body
- the decision
- the text care, source references, literature assignment and final editing.

5.1 Components of a workpiece or thesis

5.1.1 The ordinary and special components

A thesis or workpiece consists of at least six parts: title page, table of contents, introduction, main part, conclusion and literature list. The thesis also requires a summary.

2. *Title page*: here you mention the title of the workpiece, your name (and student number if you submit it to a teacher for assessment), your study programme and the date.
3. *Table of Contents*: here you list all the parts that make up your workpiece (including paragraphs).
4. *Introduction*: here you indicate what the workpiece is about.
5. *Main part*: here you give the actual report of your research.
6. *Conclusion*:here you indicate where your research has led or can lead, and possibly you also evaluate the research.
7. *Bibliography*: here you list the texts that you have used in your research.
8. *Summary*: this is part of the formal requirements of the thesis and preferably covers no more than one page.

It is quite common for a thesis to contain a *preface,* but this is not necessary. In the preface, personal comments are given a place: something about the reason or context of the thesis, a word of thanks, or an assignment. You write such a preface at the end, when everything is finished. It gets a place between table of contents and introduction.

Finally it is possible that evidence (short source texts, records, computations, illustrations) is attached. This material is too specialized or too extensive for the actual text, but it makes sense that the reader has it quickly available. Several attachments shall be numbered, and listed in that order in the table of contents.

5.1.2 The usefulness of a preliminary table of contents

You have already given a first sketch of the content of your thesis or workpiece in your work plan. Before you start the actual writing, you need to adapt the original design to the material you have collected in the meantime. If all goes well, you now have excerpts, notes, diagrams that you need to incorporate into your piece of work. You need to answer two questions:

- Is the original layout of the workpiece still usable? If not, what needs to be changed?
- What material should be in which part?

As far as the latter is concerned, it is advisable to organize your material yourself in accordance with the (new or adapted) layout of the workpiece. If you have everything on paper, you may be able to cut and organize the clippings. (Make copies first, so that you keep the original notes at your disposal!) Working with system cards – a somewhat older approach – is also useful, but you have to work with that from the start.

If you work on the computer, it's completely simple. (But always keep previous versions under a different name in a separate folder). Of course, you regularly provide backups of your texts. If the full text of your thesis plus all the notes are lost due to a computer crash, then the suffering is hard to see.
In the final table of contents, the titles of chapters, paragraphs and other important parts (bibliography, summary, appendices) should be clearly listed, with the pages on which they begin.

5.1.3 Creating a first draft

On the basis of the adapted table of contents, you will now work on a first interpretation of the content of the workpiece. You divide the material in such a way that you know what belongs in which part of the workpiece.

The first classification you use is the well-known tripartite division: introduction, main part and decision. The second layout determines where you put what in the three main parts. In a moment we will see what you have to pay attention to. On the basis of this allocation of the material to the different parts of the workpiece, you make a short overview (possibly in telegram style) of the entire workpiece. Read this once and assess whether the structure shows a coherent argument.

You will then work out this short overview step by step. You use your excerpts and notes to work out the text. It is not necessary to work from start to finish. You can start with the main part and start there with the passages in which you are best trained or that you can write out the easiest. Always briefly indicate what should precede it and what should follow. Feel free to leave a piece that you can't get out of right away.

5.2 Introduction

The introduction should briefly make it clear to the reader what the text is about. In addition, an introduction may contain additional, preparatory information necessary for an understanding of what follows. An introduction contains roughly the following parts:

1. The *intro*: the opening text.
2. The problem statement and research questions.
3. The objective: the level and possibly the intention of the discussion.
4. The sources used.
5. Overview of the structure of the sequel (main part and conclusion).

It is enough to initially suffice with a rough outline of the introduction. You only know exactly what needs to be said in the introduction when the workpiece is almost finished. In the introduction you can then include what the reader needs as prior knowledge to properly understand what you are going to explain in the main text. Of course you can start writing down a first draft of the introduction earlier.

5.2.1 The intro (opening text)

The opening sentences should convince the reader that he or she should continue reading the text. Pack- knew and clear sentences are therefore important. The most simple and dry opening sentence is the statement: "This piece of work is about ...". The opening sentence should make it clear what the text is about. If you want to make the opening text a bit more

exciting, you start with an anecdote about the subject or with the reason for writing this piece of work. You can also start with the context of the problem to be discussed.

5.2.2 Problem statement and research questions
Sometimes a longer opening text is needed and the problem statement takes a while. But don't put this moment off too long.
Make a distinction between the problem statement and the research questions. The problem you discuss in the text can be indicated in one or two sentences. Research questions can be several, depending on the problem statement. You can differentiate the questions as far as you want. There is only one rule: only ask questions that you will also answer in the text. You save other questions for the decision, because these are questions that have been left behind and that you may deal with in a subsequent piece of work.

5.2.3 Objective
Now it's time to tell a little more about the reasons for writing about this topic. Why is this an interesting problem? And why is it important to find answers to the question or questions. The word 'interest' sounds more ponderous than it is intended. What matters is to fit the problem statement into a network of other possible problem statements, so that a reader gets an idea of what the subject is related to. You can point out four points:

- Your personal interest.
- The history of your subject*(status quaestionis).*
- The possible interest for the reader.
- The objective, or embedding in a broader context.

It is often enlightening to indicate what the most important current positions are regarding your problem statement (2, the status quaestionis). This immediately presents the authors that the reader can expect in your main text. You can also identify the problems, gaps or discussion points that are currently there.

5.2.4 Used sources
If certain texts play an important role in your work, you already mention this in the introduction.
That gives the reader guidance. Of course, it is not the intention to list your entire literature list. This list is at the end of the workpiece. The introduction should above all be a justification. So you only mention texts when they have been an important source for your work, for the problem statement, or for your interest in it.

5.2.5 Overview of the structure of the text
The end of the introduction is the appropriate place to tell the reader in a few sentences what is discussed in the workpiece and in what order. This serves not only to give the reader guidance and a little more insight into the structure of the text than the intermediate titles may do, but sometimes also to announce the most important substantive statements step by step towards the conclusions.

5.3 Main portion
Between the introduction and the decision is the actual argument of your paper: the answer to the research question or questions. We call that 'main part' here. One also speaks of

'corpus'. In this main section, you write down everything the reader needs to know in order to understand and accept the conclusion. This principle can be handled more or less strictly. A strict explanation may make the text a bit dry. An overly broad explanation can lead to the reader dropping out, because he or she no longer knows "what it is about".

It doesn't hurt to inform the reader of transitions or connections, of digressions and outings. This also gives you an example of the fact that you have mastered the material and can distinguish it between main and secondary issues.

The structure of the main part depends very much on the topic you are dealing with and on the way you deal with this topic. We can hardly give general rules for this. We saw that the material to be processed can vary from step-by-step text analyses to representation of sociological research, from in-depth reflections to elaborate proposals for practical situations. Two common models for a structure are: - the *hourglass model,* in which you switch from a general problem to a specific case of it (analysis, test), and then answer the general problem; - the *orange model,*in which you discuss several visions around one core problem in order to draw a conclusion from it through a final discussion.

5.3.1 Layout of the main part

The main part of your workpiece is the longest piece of text. It is therefore advisable to divide this text further into paragraphs and possibly subsections. You can also provide individual pieces of text with headings. All these parts can be found in the table of contents at the beginning of the workpiece.

The division into (sub)paragraphs is intended to give the reader instructions about the structure of your argument. You can mark every important step in your argument by giving it a separate and visible place in the text. Then make sure that the most important steps are clearly distinguishable as such (paragraphs) and that the intermediate steps are similarly observable sub-paragraphs). Give the (sub)paragraphs clear titles. The broad outline of the argument must be readable, as it were, in the succession of the titles.

For the numbering of chapters, paragraphs and subsections you can either use a decimal format (as has been done in this manual), or an alphanumeric one, with, for example, the chapters Roman numbered, the paragraphs Arabic, and the subsections indicated with lowercase letters (a, b, etc.).

5.3.2 Intended readers, style and opinions

To use a writing style and determine the level of explanations and reasoning, it is useful to have an idea of the intended readers. A paper or thesis is not only intended for the teacher or the members of the Board of Examiners, with their specialist professional knowledge. In such a piece of work, you can also address yourself to interested, reasonably imported readers into the profession, for example fellow students from the programme. Then you can assume that basic knowledge from the field is known.

The level of a piece of work should be academic, but within that many styles are useful. The desire to achieve high academic level leads some students to construct complicated sentences. That's not the question. Academic level is more about a clear, clear and accurate argument. Subjective expressions (exclamations, antipathy) do not fit in well with this. If you have a

strong point of view or an opinion that is important for the argument, make sure you argue them well. Furthermore, it is wise to use abbreviations sparingly. When reading scientific writings (for works by your fellow students), pay attention not only to the content, but also to composition and style.
Also try to form your own opinion about the style in foreign-language publications. A personal style is a precious commodity.

In general, in workpieces and theses, a business style is preferable. If in doubt about stylistic matters, consult, for example, the *Style Book* of *De Volkskrant* (The Hague, 1992 and later).

5.3.3 Indications for the reader

The structure of the main part of your workpiece should not only be apparent from the division into paragraphs and subsections or in the corresponding subheadings. You make the argument on a walk with the help of all kinds of sentence constructions that give the reader clues about the train of thought.
It is, as it were, about the signage in the text (or more modern: a navigation system).
In the literature studied, you have already seen examples of tools that writers use to keep the reader on their toes. On the basis of the many clues in those texts, you as a reader can reconstruct the structure of the text and the structure of the train of thought. Now you are the writer and you have to use these tools for your reader yourself. Here we limit ourselves to a general indication.

The sentence constructions we are talking about here give the reader clues as to where he or she is in the argument. Then it can be general instructions about the structure, place provisions (you are now here) and references to earlier or later text.

-General indications about the structure of the argument are explicit announcements about the *order* in which you will present the building blocks of your argument. For example, "Kant uses the term 'evil' in three different meanings. I will discuss those meanings separately, taking into account the different texts in which they appear. After this presentation, I will go into more detail about the connection between these meanings."

With these comments, the reader knows what to expect. You can extend this clue by briefly giving the three meanings as well. That then belongs to the introduction of the main part (see earlier).

-If you have given general instructions, you must come back to them in your speech. For example: "We now move on to the second meaning of the term 'evil'. This meaning is mainly found in the *Metaphysik der Sitten*. I'll start with part I of that, because that's where it's most obvious."

Positioning in the text also uses the well-known signal words: "first of all ..., secondly ...", "on the one hand ..., on the other hand ...", on the other hand ...", "but ..." and so on.

-The reader has already somewhat understood from the introduction what the work is about and therefore also knows in which direction the writer moves. However, it doesn't hurt to make this a bit more explicit from time to time. Especially with longer digressions or when taking a side path, it is important to make it clear to the reader that this will come in handy later. For example, "It might be nice to tell that..."; " I'll come back to this in a moment, but first I have to say something about ...".

-Each *summary* afterwards reminds the reader of what he has just read. After a part (for example, the discussion of some arguments), it is important to interrupt the argument, to look back and to indicate how you are going to proceed. For example: "We have seen the

three meanings that Kant gives to the concept of 'evil'. Firstly... Secondly... Thirdly... What is the connection between these three meanings? Is there a connection? I will discuss these questions in the next paragraph".
-Both for the reader and for yourself, it is enlightening to end each chapter with a summary or a preliminary connection with the problem statement.
-If you include a person, such as a writer, in your text, you mention her first name or initial plus her last name the first time. In the case of a later mention, the surname is sufficient.

5.3.4 Decision or conclusion

The conclusion of your speech does not have to be a long text. After all, you've already said 'everything'. The following applies to us: strictly speaking, the decision of your piece of work does not contain any new information. The decision is intended to convince the reader definitively and to take him or her to a possible sequel. A good conclusion contains the following four parts.

- The decision begins with a brief summary of your argument:
"We have seen that the three meanings that Kant gives to the concept of 'evil' can ultimately be reduced to one meaning. Evil may have taken on different guedings at different levels, but in essence it is one and the same phenomenon. What does that mean for Kant's current interpretations?"

- The core of the decision is, of course, the conclusion you draw from the argument. You will compare this with your working hypothesis. What did the research lead to? Has your working hypothesis been confirmed or refuted or something in between? Have the problem statement and research questions presented in the introduction been answered or clarified? This is usually partly the case, and this must then be precisely defined.
- You can extend the summary of your argument to an evaluation of it from a 'metapoint'. You must have already expressed that point of view in your speech. This concerns comments on your own argument, such as comments about your (in)certainty with regard to certain arguments, interpretations or facts. Especially if you're not always sure about something you've written, you'd better say it out loud. This is reflected in the decision as a nuance or amendment of your conclusion.
- Following the conclusion, you can complete your paper with a general evaluation of your research and your reporting thereof. What did you learn? What should the reader have learned from your text? What (new) questions have surfaced? A possible beautiful bouncer - 'the moral of the story' - offers a dignified ending.

5.3.5 Finishing of the text

5.3.5.1 Word care and word processing

A good structure of your workpiece, about which enough has now been said in this part of the manual, is not enough. The sentences must also be correct and in the correct order. The reader must be able to keep his attention to the content of your argument and not be distracted by spelling mistakes, language errors, an annoying page mirror, misleading subheadings and so on. It's not just about what you say or write, but also how you say or write it. Finally, the most important thing: in an academic environment, a written presentation should indicate that you have proceeded with care. That requires a good finish, among other things that you handle the source citation well. What should you pay attention to?

-Start a paper with a title page with the mention of the title, your name, the date or other relevant information (such as the student number, the name of the programme and the course, the teacher for whom you are writing the text).
-Make sure that the table of contents after the title page is at the front of the text and matches the actual headings and page numbers of the text.
-Write your text in careful Dutch (or in another language, after permission). Language errors and spelling mistakes are avoidable. Also pay attention to the use of punctuation marks (periods and commas).
-Use paragraphs, paragraphs, chapters, headings, and the like to make the structure of your text visible to the reader.

-Write gender neutral. A simpler means than a constant 'he/she' or 'he or she' is the use of the plural form.

-Number the pages and use a pleasant page mirror (not too small margins, possibly one and a half line spacing). Use the same font over and over again. Use font size variances only when functional in the text.
-Clearly indicate when you are quoting (quotation marks) and indicate the location of the quotation. Also, when you paraphrase or summarize a text, you give the reference in notes.
-Always make it clear in the text who is speaking: you yourself or the writer of a text. Example: "Kant says the following: '....' (KRV, 237). I understand this way: '...'." 9. Use one style for displaying titles and abbreviations.

1. Close a paper or thesis with a bibliography.
2. Conclude a thesis after the literature list with a summary and possibly with attachments. For these tasks and considerations, *computer word processing programs* sometimes provide rewarding tools. For example, they include fixed settings for creating layouts, creating footnotes or endnotes, or for a spell checker. If you are not familiar with these tools, you can consult more experienced fellow students or familiarize yourself with the computer's 'Help program'.

5.3.5.2 Source references and bibliography
First of all, these concern the question of when to refer to a source; secondly, the question of how to refer to a source. It's not always easy to determine which data to annotate and which you shouldn't. You don't have to annotate any knowledge that you can assume with colleagues (teachers, but also fellow students).

You do refer to a text when your own text is in one way or another dependent on the text of another. Failure to mention the source counts (in the extreme case) as *plagiarism,*a form of theft. The purpose of the referral is not only to indicate that you have used the text of another person, but also to give the reader the opportunity to read your source himself. The scientific obligation to provide adequate source reference also applies to information that you derive from websites. Plagiarism of websites is also quite easy to determine. Which rules should you observe in some cases?

3. *You are literally quoting a piece of text from another.* You put the text in question in double quotation marks ("...."). When you omulge a piece of text and then quote further, you place three dots between the two passages (so: "So ist es z.B. klar, dass der gegenständliche Hinter grund **...** wirklich erlebnissmässig ein gegenständlicher

Hintergrund ist."). Then you refer to the source in a note and indicate the page(s) where the text can be found.

4. *You summarize a piece of text (or display a piece of text in your own words: paraphrase).* This is not a literal quote, but you should not pretend that you have invented the written text yourself. The reader must be able to read the original text. Here a reference to the source and to the pages where the summarized or paraphrased text can be found is sufficient. If you summarize a longer piece of text, you give multiple references (depending on the steps you take and the size of the text used).
5. *You use a concept, a distinction, a classification or whatever from another writer.*

The following three types of source reference are common:

- *Footnote.* In the text there is a number that refers to a text at the bottom of the page. In the footnote text you mention the source and the page. For the presentation of literature data, see section 4.5.3. In case of a paraphrase, it is also conceivable that you include the original text in a note. This also applies to a translated quotation in the text: if this is your own translation, it may be advisable to include the original text in a note.
- *Endnote.* The text contains a number that refers to a text at the end of the entire text (or chapter). For the rest, the same applies to an endnote as to a footnote.
- *Text note.* In the text itself, after a quotation, paraphrase or concept in parentheses, the author, the year of the source and the page can be found. This view refers to the reading list. For example: (Terpstra 2004, 64). In the literature list you can find: Terpstra, M.J. (ed.) (2004), *Research, reading, writing, speaking*, Nijmegen(Faculty of Philosophy).

In footnotes and endnotes you can also include texts other than source references or quotations. Comments, references to other parts of the text, additions, alternative interpretations, etc. that would interrupt the running text too much can be included in a note. Quite a few publicists use notes for all kinds of information for the benefit of the reader that they cannot or do not want to include in the main text. This is partly a matter of taste. Be careful with extra information in the notes. Sometimes such information simply fits into the main text, or else it is simply superfluous on closer inspection.

There is no standard in academia to indicate literature references in scientific texts. There are various systems in circulation. In the display of literature data, the same things are not always mentioned (sometimes more, sometimes less). Each scientific discipline prefers its own system or even multiple systems. In any case, the following applies: always use a certain referral style consistently and completely. We refer to the *Chicago Manual of Style: Quick Guide.* Here are the most common styles of citations and literature lists with examples to be found: http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide.html

5.3.5.3 Final editing and summary

When main part and conclusion are approved, you can start the final editing. You are now giving the introduction its final form. You can draw up the literature list, make the summary and finally possibly write the preface. The final editing includes checking the total structure of your text:

- Are all the necessary and announced steps and intermediate steps present and recognizable?
- Are there no jumps in your argument?
- Are there no unnecessary passages in it?

Sometimes it now appears that some additional text is needed, or that there is a need to delete. In general, deletion in early versions can make a significant contribution to the coherence and readability of a text. Other contributions to readability are: a lively and varied use of language (for example by avoiding passive sentences) and the use of (nice) examples in suitable places.

In the final editing, you must in any case check your language (style, spelling, sentence structure). Usually it makes sense to put the text aside for a day or a little longer. Then you look at your own text fresher and often more critically. Print the entire text occasionally, which reads more pleasantly than on the monitor. Preferably have someone else read the text. You can then simultaneously ask for text corrections and for a substantive opinion from this reader. After all, it's not just about what you like. It's about presenting your work to others, the readers.

The *summary* may cover half to a whole page. It should be a business representation of your problem statement, of the working method, and of your most important results or conclusions. So you have to summarize longer pieces from your main text in one sentence each time.

5.3.5.4 Frequently used
abbreviations - *a.a.O*: am
angeführten Orte;t.a.p.

1. a.w./*a.W.* : cited work(angeführtes Werk); the book mentioned in footnotes or text (by the author in reference)*cf*: conf.
2. *conf*: (Latin) confer.compare
3. *ebd*: ebenda
4. *ebenda*: in the same text (see a.W.) or: in the same place (see t.a.p.)
5. *Ed(s)*: editor(s): editor(s) of a book
6. e.v.: and following
7. *Hg. (hg), Hrsg.*: Herausgeber/herausgegeben: see at ED(s)
8. *Ib.* : ibid.
9. *ibid* (Latin) ibidem: see at "ebenda"
10. *infra*: below: see later in the text
11. *l.c.* :loc. cit.
12. *LOC. Cit.* : (Latin) loco citata, attn.
13. *o.c.* :on. cit.
14. *on. cit.* : opere citato:a.w.
15. *passim*: in different places: when referring to the text, no page needs to be mentioned,because it appears everywhere in that text.

16. *pro manuscripto*: this text should be regarded as a manuscript, and not as a final, published, or simply publishable version.
17. *s*: siehe: see
18. *supra*: above: see above, see earlier in the text
19. *s.v.*: (Latin) *sub verbo*: under the(stitch) word: especially when referring to encyclopedias and dictionaries, it is not the page but the key word (lemma) that is mentioned.

20. *t.a.p.*: at the place cited: in the same place as mentioned earlier (in footnote or text): sometimes exactly the same place, sometimes the same book/article; in that case a page indication follows - *t.II*: (French) tôme II: band II
21. *v.* voir/voyez: see...
22. cf.: compare