

RECTOR REGULATION
UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA
NO. 7867/UN40/HK/2019
ON
GUIDELINES FOR ACADEMIC WRITING
UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA
YEAR 2019



UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA
2019

FOREWORD

Academic writing is an indispensable part of university students' academic life. Every student needs to be aware of various types of academic writing because it becomes the reflection of his or her understanding.

This *Guidelines of Academic Writing* is designed as a reference for the students of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia in writing different forms of academic writing such as essay, book review, annotated bibliography, scientific article, thesis, and dissertation. With clear guidelines, it is hoped that the students can write academic writing products that comply with academic writing conventions.

This book provides general rules consisting of the main elements related to the students' academic writing during their study at university. The School of Postgraduates, Faculties, Regional Campuses, and Study Programs may develop more detailed and specific academic writing guidelines in accordance with their field provided that they do not contradict to rules regulated in this book.

We would like to extend our gratitude to the authors of the book who have worked hard in composing and completing the guidelines. Hopefully, it is fruitful for the academic civitas of the Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, especially to the students.

Bandung, 2 September 2019

Rector,

Signed

Prof. Dr. H. R. Asep Kadarohman, M.Si.

NIP 196305091987031002

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**RECTOR REGULATION OF UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN
INDONESIA
NUMBER 7867/UN40//HK/2019
ON
THE GUIDELINE OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS WRITING AT
UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA
BY THE GRACE OF GOD ALMIGHTY
THE RECTOR OF UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA,**

Considering : a. that scientific research has a very important role in the development of science, technology, and arts to produce various ideas, concepts, theories, and intellectual works in universities;

b. that it is necessary to develop a guideline for writing scientific papers for the standardization in conducting scientific research and providing positive information to students of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia;

c. that based on the considerations as referred to in letter a and letter b, it is necessary to stipulate a Rector Regulation on the Guideline of Scientific Papers Writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia in 2019;

In view of : 1. Law Number 12 of 2012 on Higher Education (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2012 Number 158, Supplement to the State

Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Number 5336);

2. Government Regulation Number 19 of 2005 on National Education Standards (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2005 Number 41, Supplement to the State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Number 4496) as amended for the second time by Government Regulation Number 13 of 2015 on the Second Amendment to Government Regulation Number 19 of 2005 on National Education Standards (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2015 Number 45, Supplement to the State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Number 5670);
3. Government Regulation Number 4 of 2014 on the Implementation of Higher Education and Management of Higher Education (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2014 Number 16, Supplement to the State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Number 5500);
4. Government Regulation Number 15 of 2014 on the Statute of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2014 Number 41, Supplement to the State Gazette Number 5509);
5. Government Regulation Number 26 of 2015 on Forms and Funding Mechanisms of Legal

Entity State Universities (IState Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia of 2015 Number 110, Supplement to the State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Number 5699);

6. Board of Trustees Regulation Number 03/PER/MWA UPI/2015 on Implementing Regulations of Government Regulation Number 15 of 2014 on the Statute of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia as amended several times, most recently by Board of Trustees Regulation Number 04/PER/MWA UPI/2019 on the Third Amendment on Board of Trustees Regulation Number 03/PER/MWA UPI/2015 on Implementing Regulations of the Government Regulation Number 15 of 2014 on the Statute of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia;
7. Board of Trustees Regulation Number 03/PER/MWA UPI/2017 on Revision of the Strategic Plan of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia for 2016-2020;
8. Board of Trustees Regulation Number 03/PER/MWA UPI/2018 on the 2019 Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia Annual Work Plan and Budget;
9. Decision of the Board of Trustees Number 06/KEP/MWA UPI/2017 on the Appointment of the Rector of Universitas Pendidikan

Indonesia to Substitute the Interim Period of
Service for 2015-2020;

DECIDES:

To stipulate : RECTOR REGULATION ON THE GUIDELINE
OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS WRITING AT
UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA OF
2019

Article 1

With this Rector Regulation, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia stipulates the
Guideline of Scientific Papers Writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia
2019.

Article 2

- (1) The guideline of scientific papers writing, as referred to in Article 1, is
an academic document functioning as a guide and reference in
conducting scientific writing for the academic community within
Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.
- (2) The guideline of scientific papers writing as referred to in clause (1) is
an improvement on the previous guideline of scientific papers writing,
consisting of the following chapters:

Chapter I INTRODUCTION;

Chapter II ASSIGNMENTS WRITING IN LECTURES:
ESSAYS, ANNOTATION, BIBLIOGRAPHY,
BOOK REVIEW/BOOK CHAPTER/ARTICLES,

Chapter III

Chapter IV	AND RESEARCH-BASED SCIENTIFIC PAPERS;
Chapter V	FINAL ASSIGNMENT WRITING: THESIS, DISSERTATION, AND ANTHOLOGY; ORIGINALITY AND PLAGIARISM ISSUES WRITING TECHNIQUES

- (3) The guidelines of scientific papers writing, as referred to in clause (2), is listed in the Appendix which is an integral part of this Rector Regulation.

Article 3

Every scientific paper writing within Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia must follow the Guideline of Scientific Papers Writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia of 2019.

Article 4

The guideline of scientific papers writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia is dynamic and always keeps up with the living development of science and intellect

Article 5

The Guideline of Scientific Papers Writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia of 2019 is valid for 1 (one) academic year.

Article 6

At the time this Rector Regulation comes into effect, all regulations on the guideline of scientific papers writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia are declared still valid as long as they do not conflict with this Rector Regulation.

Article 7

This Rector Regulation comes into effect on the date of stipulation.

Stipulated in Bandung
on September 2, 2019

Rector,

sgn.

Prof. Dr. H. R. Asep Kadarohman, M.Si.

EID 196305091987031002

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Academic Writing at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI)

Academic writing has an important role and is an integral part of a student's academic life. At every university, including UPI, academic writing can be part of tasks assigned by lecturers to their students in the forms of essays, annotated bibliographies, book reviews, and scientific articles, or as a requirement of study completion to obtain undergraduate, Master's, or doctoral degrees in the forms of *skripsi*, theses, and dissertation.

1.2. The Purpose of Designing Guidelines for Academic Writing at UPI

The book is designed to give general guidelines for academic writing of UPI, especially the students in composing academic writing. Through the rules conveyed in this book, it is hoped that there will be a common perception from the students coming from different faculties and study programs at UPI in academic writing, especially in its characteristics and styles.

1.3. Regulated Components in the Guidelines for Academic Writing at UPI

The guidelines contain fundamental elements related to nature, styles, and conventions of academic writing that are adjusted to the UPI's necessity. The guidelines consist of five chapters. Chapter I proposes a broad-spectrum of academic writing at UPI, the purpose of designing the guidelines, and regulated components in it. Chapter II informs different types of academic writing as students' assignments in the forms of essays, annotated

bibliographies, book/chapter/article reviews, and research-based articles. Chapter III contains guidelines for study completion writing, which are *skripsi*, thesis, dissertation, and anthology. Chapter IV presents originality and plagiarism issues. Chapter V elaborates on some specific writing techniques commonly used in academic writing.

To offer an operational overview, you can find in the appendix examples of different academic writing, which the explanation of the definition, purpose, and structure are discussed in Chapter II and Chapter III. Furthermore, UPI uses the sixth American Psychological Association (APA) referencing style in its academic writing adjusted to the Indonesian language.

CHAPTER II: WRITING ASSIGNMENTS: ESSAYS, ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES, BOOK/CHAPTER/ARTICLE REVIEWS, RESEARCH-BASED SCIENTIFIC ARTICLES

2.1. Important Principles in Academic Writing

Writing an assignment during a study period at a university can be a problem and a challenging situation for the students. Before elaborating on types of writing assignments, there are fundamental philosophical claims in writing. Fabb and Durant (2005) explain four claims in writing as follows.

1. **Writing is constructing.** This claim states that to write is not only to produce ideas freely but also a process to compose, in other words, to create or construct something. In this constructing process, an author needs to control his or her arguments, information structure, text structure, language styles, grammar dan writing technique, and delivery.
2. **Writing involves continuous reconstruction process.** The most writing process, regardless of their types, will go through a repeated revision process. Writing a text followed by reading it recurrently is a common way to see whether the text needs further revision, emphasis, meaning strengthening, word choice, language styles, or other aspects in writing.
3. **Writing is a thinking process.** In this view, writing is considered a tool. Just like the form of visual diagrams or tabulations of numbers, thinking practice can be conducted through writing. Writing helps the author to organize ideas into certain orders or styles that cannot be done simultaneously in his or her mind and to help the mind to see and reflect the ideas. Basically, readers can see the author's way of thinking by reading his or her writing.

- 4. Writing is different from speaking.** When we communicate orally, the listeners can interrupt the speaker to clarify the message. In written communication, the readers cannot clarify the message to the authors. It requires the author to provide clear and sharp information to the readers. It is presumably the reason why writing is more formal and regulated.

By reading and understanding the aforementioned claims critically, it is hoped that, when the students write, they become aware that writing is a purposive process that has unique conventions compared to other language skills.

2.2. Essay

2.3.1. Definition

Essay can be defined as free writing, broader than a paragraph, to explore ideas of a topic (Anker, 2010). Essay is one form of the written task commonly assigned to the students. Essay is considered to have a great importance in the education field in many countries to inspire the students' development. The notion is based on premise that, by writing an essay, the students are able to communicate what they have in mind along with the reasons, and to comply with the delivery that not only requires technical ability but also personal quality, willingness, and reasoning quality. Thus, essay is regarded as a way to test or observe the quality of an author's idea (Harvey, 2003).

Essay is often deemed as one form of writings that obliges its author to evaluate the idea of a topic. In writing an essay, the students must read carefully, analyze critically, compare, write in a clear and concise manner, and present the ideas comprehensively. It can be said that, without being able

to write an essay, the students are unable to cumulate their pieces of understanding during the study period to be intact knowledge (Warburton, 2006).

According to McClain and Roth (1999), the students can learn three things during writing essays as assignments, that is (1) how to explore and assess an issue in one field of study, (2) how to string up arguments to support the assessment on the basis of logic and evidence, and (3) how to compose an interesting and coherent essay.

2.3.2. Generic Structure of an Essay

The number of word count in short essays as assignments is between 300-600 words, and for more than 600 words or longer essay, it depends on the type of assignment and field of study (see Anker, 2009). Generally, for a short or longer essay, the structure consists of three elements. After the title, an essay must have (1) **introduction**, (2) **body**, and (3) **summary** (see Anker, 2009; McWhorter, 2012; Savage & Mayer 2005). In its writing process, the introduction, body, and summary are not labeled separately because an essay is a type of writing that is not arranged using a chapter or subchapter.

In the first part, the **introduction**, the author must provide the identification of the discussed topic by writing the background, which is by depicting the current situation and development of it. The background explains the topic from a broad point of view to a more detailed condition. Here, the author must also try to draw the readers' attention by emphasizing why the topic is important to be discussed and also to offer the readers an overview of the topic in a *thesis statement*. Usually, a thesis statement occurs in the last part of the introduction of an essay.

Then, the **body** part consists of the development of the ideas in the thesis statement. In this part, the main discussion takes place. The proposed

ideas are explored and developed in line with the type of the essay. Remember, that at this part, the ideas are developed and constructed by elaborating main ideas strengthened with one or more supporting ideas. The main ideas will relatively depend on the topic, and they are the logical mapping of the discussed topic that becomes the focus of the writing purpose.

The last part of essay is a **summary**. This part is intended for the author to solidify the topic that has been conveyed in thesis statements and discussed previously in the body of the essay. The summary often becomes the closing of the essay. Systematically, the structure of an essay can be seen in the following Figure 2.1.

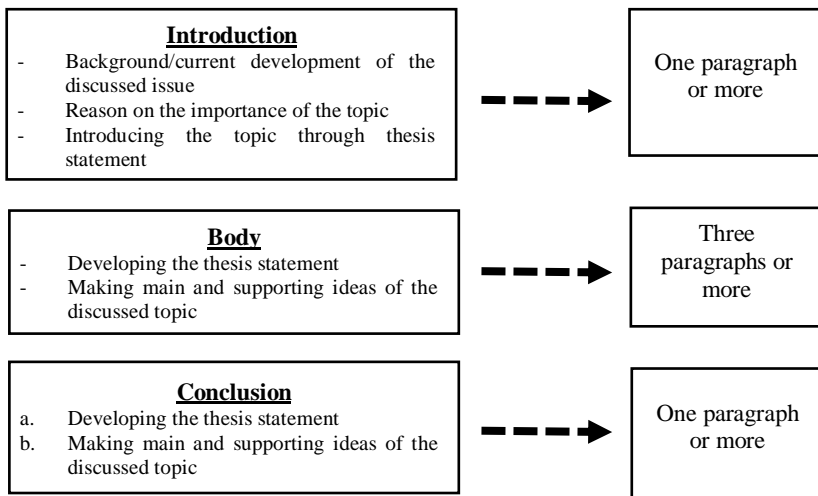


Figure 1. Generic Structure of an Essay

2.3.3. Types of Essays

There are different types of essays that can be written by the students depending on the perspectives and the purposes. Nonetheless, there will be three types of essays that will be discussed in this book because they are the

most frequent types of assigned essays to the students. They are (1) **exposition** that contains arguments and author's point of view, (2) **discussion** that shows how students create elaboration from many, at least two, perspectives on an issue, for example, convergent and divergent, and (3) **explanation essays** that elaborate how an event takes place and what are the consequences of it. Each type of essay will be explained in more detail below.

The purpose of exposition text is to explicitly express the author's opinion on an issue. In this type of essay, the author tries to convince the reader to believe his or her opinion on the topic. The author's arguments must be supported by data, facts, and experts, or the author's experience.

There are two types of exposition text (see Derewianka, 1990; Gerot, 1998, Martin, 1985), namely **analytical exposition** and **hortatory exposition**. In writing an analytical exposition text, the author attempts to convince the reader whether an issue is true or false, important or not. Meanwhile, the author of the **hortatory exposition text** persuades the reader to act as the author has suggested.

The generic structure of exposition is:

- 1) Thesis statement containing author's statements or opinions regarding an issue;
- 2) Author's arguments presented to support the statements or opinions or beliefs stated in the introductory sentence;
- 3) Closing remarks or conclusion, which is a restatement of the thesis

Discussion text is an essay written discussing a topic from various perspectives, at least from two perspectives, especially from the for and against viewpoints, ended with the author's recommendation.

The generic structure of the discussion text is:

- 1) Introduction, which explains the short background of the discussed topic;
- 2) Arguments for and against supported by data, facts, research results, experts' opinions or judgments, or personal experience;
- 3) Conclusion or recommendation by reiterating the main points of the arguments of the discussed issue along with ways to behave towards and cope with the issue.

The third essay type is **explanation** text, which is written to inform the readers of a series of stages of a phenomenon or how something operates (sequence explanation-explaining how), or to reveal reasons and impact of a phenomenon (consequential explanation-explaining why) or the combination of the two.

The explanation text consists of two main structures. They are:

- 1) the identification of the discussed phenomenon; and
- 2) sequential explanation, which elaborating relevant stages of the phenomenon, or consequential explanation, which informing the impacts of the phenomenon.

2.3.4. Examples of Essays

Examples of essays are shown in the appendixes.

2.3. Annotated Bibliography

2.3.1. Definition

As its name suggests, annotated bibliography consists of the word “annotated” and “bibliography.” “Annotated” means “summary or evaluation,” while “bibliography” means “reference list cited in discussing a

topic” (Purdue University, t.t.). In other words, an annotated bibliography is a type of writing that presents a discussion or summary of some books or articles under a similar topic. Besides, the essay must depict the author’s understanding of the books and articles.

2.3.2. Generic Structure of Annotated Bibliography

The format of an annotated bibliography can be descriptive or descriptive-evaluative (University of New England, t.t.). The generic structure of annotated bibliography is as follows:

Table 1. The Generic Structure of Annotated Bibliography

No.	Structure	Type
1.	Details of the source (according to specific referencing style)	1-3 Descriptive
2.	A short statement of the main focus or the objectives of the source	
3.	Summary of theory, findings/results, or arguments of the source	
4.	Evaluation of the strength or weakness of the source in terms of the author’s credibility, offered arguments, etc.	4-5 Evaluative
5.	Evaluative comments on how the source can contribute to the ongoing research	

2.3.3. Example of Annotated Bibliography

The example of annotated bibliography is further elaborated in the appendix.

2.4. Book/Chapter/Article Reviews

In every subject, reading mandatory or referred books is important for every student. The lecturers often assign the students to write book/chapter/article reviews. In this part of the book, you will find how to write reviews.

2.4.1. Definition

Reviewing a book/chapter/article is an effort to carefully read and evaluate the materials. There is a slight difference between writing a book/chapter/article report, which is more descriptive meaning that the students observe what is the authors convey a message and how they deliver them, book/chapter/article review is intended to evaluate and recommend whether the materials are worth to read or not.

2.4.2. Generic Structure of a Book/Chapter/Article Review

The word count in book/chapter/article review is generally between 500-700 words. The extension or reduction of the number of word count depends on necessity.

The structure of the book/chapter/article review, as stated by Crasswell (2005), is as follows.

- 1) The introduction contains an identification of the book/chapter/article (authors, title, year of publication, and other important details).
- 2) The summary consists of a short explanation of the arguments of the book/chapter/article.
- 3) The review part discusses the critical analysis of the book/chapter/article. In this part, the author presents analytical evidence of the book/chapter/article or compares it with other

sources. Here, the author also reveals the strength and weaknesses of the book/chapter/article.

- 4) The conclusion evaluates the content of the book/chapter/article concisely and comprehensively to the development and its contribution of the discussed issue to the development of the study.

2.4.3. Example of a Book/Chapter/Article Review

The example of the annotated bibliography is further elaborated in the appendix.

2.5. Research-Based Scientific Writing

Today, in the education field in the world, academicians are obliged to be able to apply scientific steps in answering questions or to solve problems in their area of expertise. Writing a research article becomes a requirement in academic life, especially in form of a research article, there are problem-solving, report, and dissemination stages. In this part of the book, you will find important concepts in writing a research-based article with its generic structure.

2.5.1 Definition

Research-based scientific article is a type of writings that presents a research result. It is a more concise research report. Basically, the scientific article can be divided into two categories, they are (1) literature review articles and (2) research report articles.

2.5.2 Generic Structure of a Scientific Article

In general, the generic structure of a scientific article uses a similar pattern with the exception of a literature review article. Most research-based

scientific articles employ AIMRaD (Abstract, Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion) pattern, and some minor variations are possible to be determined (Blackwell & Martin, 2011; Cargill & O’Connor, 2009; Hartley, 2008).

Similarly, with the research articles, the structure of the literature review article also begins with the abstract and introduction sections. The difference lies in the method, finding, and discussion sections that are replaced with theoretical and conceptual points from the reading the literature review of a topic. Some subchapters are also can be added to the section, and the subchapters depend on the complexity and length of the discussed topic. A more simplified structure of the literature review can be seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2. Different Generic Structure of the Scientific Articles

Research-Based Articles		Literature Review Articles	
1.	Abstract	1.	Abstract
2.	Introduction	2.	Introduction
3.	Method	3.	Concept A
4.	Findings/Results	4.	Concept B
5.	Discussion	5.	Concept C... and so on.
6.	Conclusion, Recommendation, Implication	6.	Conclusion, Recommendation, Implication

The contents of the scientific articles are essentially similar to research reports with a more limited word count and are comparable to the sections of *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation, see Chapter III for more detailed information.

2.5.3 Example of a Scientific Article

Due to copyright issues, this book cannot provide any example of a scientific article. However, you can find many scientific articles in online journal publications.

2.6. Research-Based Scientific Writing

Related to double degree programs at the School of Postgraduate Studies, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, foreign students must write in English for their assignments. Fundamentally, the academic writing regulation is similar to the regulation elaborated in this book.

CHAPTER III: WRITING STUDY COMPLETION ASSIGNMENTS: SKRIPSI, THESIS, DISSERTATION, AND ANTHOLOGY

3.1. Definition of *Skripsi*, Thesis, and Dissertation

Skripsi (undergraduate/bachelor thesis), thesis, and dissertation are scientific writings made as one of the requirements in completing a study taken by students. *Skripsi* is one of the requirements for completing the undergraduate program (S-1), while the thesis is for the master's program (S-2), and the dissertation is for the doctoral program (S-3). The quality of writing *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation is a reflection of the students' academic abilities in designing, implementing, and reporting research results.

3.2. Characteristics of *Skripsi*, Thesis, and Dissertation

Writing *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation is considered as one of the most difficult final academic assignments that must be fulfilled by students in completing their studies. In contrast to other scientific works that have been described in Chapter II, *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation are made by the author (student) and directed by the supervisor. Since the process of writing *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation tends to be more complex and in-depth than the writing of ordinary coursework, the proper direction must be obtained by every student. Directions related to the substance of the topics studied and their writing techniques are important in guiding the writing of *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation. This direction and guidance are given as much as possible by lecturers who have areas of expertise in the fields studied by the students writing the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation.

The method of writing and the elements contained in *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation are basically the same. What distinguishes the three scientific

works is the depth and complexity of the aspect discussed, especially the theory, research methods, presentation of findings, and data analysis.

In terms of complexity, *skripsi* is relatively simple. Thesis has a deeper and complex nature. While dissertation is considered the most in-depth and complex in terms of exposure to various aspects of research, considering that in the doctoral program, the candidates are expected to demonstrate and conclusively prove their expertise.

3.3 General Organization of *Skripsi*, Thesis, and Dissertation

The writing organization of *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation is adjusted to the disciplines of science and educational programs at UPI. However, the organization generally consists of several sections which are described more specifically in the subsections presented in the following order.

3.3.1 Title Page

In format, the title page basically contains several components, namely (1) the title of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation, (2) a written statement as part of the requirements for obtaining a degree, (3) the official UPI logo, (4) the full name of the author along with the Student Identification Number (*Nomor Induk Mahasiswa/NIM*), and (5) the identity of the study program/department, faculty, university, and the year of the writing. Regarding the title, Blackwell and Martin (2011), Cargill and O'Connor (2009), and Hartley (2008) made two important notes in formulating the titles in research-based scientific writings such as *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation. First, a good title is formulated in an interesting and informative manner, accurately reflects the content of the writing, is packaged briefly and clearly, and meets the rules of using proper language. Regarding the number of

words, the title should be no more than 14 words. Second, the title is arranged according to the nature and content of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation. Basically, the writer can choose whether the title will be written in the form of (1) noun phrase, (2) complete sentence, (3) interrogative sentence, or (4) main title and subtitle. However, writing titles in cross-disciplinary studies still predominantly use noun phrases. The use of the three other title constructions can also be used as long as it is formulated with a good and correct editorial.

3.3.2 Approval Page

The approval page is intended to provide legality that all the contents of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation have been approved and validated by the supervisor and the head of the department/study program.

In terms of format, full names and titles, as well as the position of the supervisory team are mentioned. *Skripsi* and thesis can use the term *Tim Pembimbing* (Supervisory Team) with *Pembimbing I* (Supervisor I) and *Pembimbing II* (Supervisor II). As for dissertation, the terms used are *Promotor* (Promoter), *Kopromotor* (Co-promoter), and *Anggota* (Member).

3.3.3 Declaration of Originality and Plagiarism-Free of Skripsi, Thesis or Dissertation

The statement page regarding the authenticity of *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation contains an affirmation that the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation are the original works of the students concerned. This statement must also state that the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation is free of plagiarism.

The wording of the statement is as follows: *Dengan ini saya menyatakan bahwa skripsi/tesis/disertasi dengan judul "....." ini beserta seluruh isinya adalah benar-benar karya saya sendiri. Saya tidak melakukan*

penjiplakan atau pengutipan dengan cara-cara yang tidak sesuai dengan etika ilmu yang berlaku dalam masyarakat keilmuan. Atas pernyataan ini, saya siap menanggung risiko/sanksi apabila di kemudian hari ditemukan adanya pelanggaran etika keilmuan atau ada klaim dari pihak lain terhadap keaslian karya saya ini.

(I hereby declare that this *skripsi*/thesis/dissertation entitled “.....” and all its contents are truly my own work. I do not plagiarize or quote in ways that violate the scientific ethics that apply in the scientific community. I am ready to bear the risk/sanction if in the future there is a violation of scientific ethics or there is a claim against the authenticity of my work.)

For *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation written in a language other than Indonesian (e.g. local or foreign language), the statement above can be translated into the language used in the writing.

Considering that plagiarism is a form of theft of ideas and dishonesty, and has a negative impact on the authority of education, the image of individuals and institutions, the statement regarding authenticity and plagiarism-free must be signed by the student who is the author of the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation on stamp duty of Rp. 6,000. This statement is made in at least three original sheets of three copies of the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation before being submitted for the defense.

More specific matters regarding plagiarism are described in detail in Chapter IV.

3.3.4 Acknowledgments Page

This section is written to express gratitude and appreciation to those who have helped in completing the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation.

Acknowledgments should be addressed to the people who gave significant contributions in completing the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation and should be delivered briefly. Since *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation are formal academic writing, the authors are expected not to include excessive acknowledgments, make irrelevant statements, and mention irrelevant parties.

3.3.5 Abstract

When readers or examiners see a *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation, the first part they read is actually the title and abstract. The abstract is an important part to see at the beginning of reading because this is where important information related to the writing can be found. The abstract should be written after all stages of the research are completed because the abstract becomes a summary of the entire research content.

Structurally, according to Paltridge and Starfield (2007), abstracts generally consist of the following parts:

- 1) general information about the conducted research,
- 2) research objectives,
- 3) reasons for conducting the research,
- 4) research methods used, and
- 5) research findings.

Regarding the writing format, abstracts for *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation at UPI are made in one paragraph with 200-250 words, typed in single line space, with Times New Roman font size 11. The left and right margins are indented inward.

The language used for writing abstracts in the UPI environment refers to the following provisions.

- 1) *Skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation written in Indonesian must be accompanied by an abstract in two languages, namely Indonesian and English.
- 2) *Skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation written in local languages, in this case, Sundanese must be accompanied by abstracts in three languages, namely Sundanese, Indonesian, and English.
- 3) *Skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation written in English must be accompanied by an abstract in two languages, namely English and Indonesian.
- 4) *Skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation written in a foreign language other than English (eg Arabic, German, Japanese, and French) must be accompanied by an abstract in three languages, namely the foreign language used in writing, Indonesian, and English.
- 5) For students in foreign language departments/study programs who write the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation using Indonesian, the abstracts included are written in three languages, namely Indonesian, the foreign language according to the department/study program, and English.

3.3.6 Table of Contents

The table of contents is a presentation of the content outline in chapters, sub-chapters, and topics sequentially based on the page number. The table of contents serves to ease readers in finding titles or subtitles and the sections they want to read. Therefore, the titles and subtitles written in the table of contents must directly indicate the page number.

Due to the technical nature of *skripsi*, thesis and dissertation, the authors are expected to be able to utilize the features contained in Microsoft Office Word, for example, to make a table of contents for their *skripsi*, thesis,

or dissertation. Making a table of contents using the feature requires knowledge of using Microsoft Office Word with special techniques, but it will greatly help the accuracy and automation of the document being created.

3.3.7 List of Tables

The list of tables presents information about the tables used in the contents of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation along with the table titles and page numbers in sequence. The table number in the list of tables is written with two Arabic numerals, listed sequentially, each of which states the number of the chapter and the number of the table in the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation.

Example:

Table 1.5 means the table in Chapter I number 5.

Similar to the table of contents, creating a table of contents is also very technical. The authors of the *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation are expected to master the skills of using the features in Microsoft Office Word in a qualified manner to make it easier for them to format documents.

3.3.8 List of Figures

The list of figures is the same as the other lists, which is to present figures sequentially, starting from the first to the last figure included in *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation. Figure numbers in the list of figures are written with two Arabic numerals, listed sequentially, each of which states the number of the chapter and the number of the figure.

Example:

Figure 2.3 means the figure in Chapter II number 3.

3.3.9 List of Appendices

The list of appendices presents the appendices sequentially starting from the first appendix to the last. In contrast to the list of tables and the list of figures, the number of attachments is based on their appearance in the thesis, thesis, or dissertation. The attachments that are first mentioned are numbered as Appendix 1, and so on.

Example:

Appendix 1 means appendix number 1 and appears the earliest in a *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation.

3.3.10 Chapter I: Introduction

The introduction in a *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation is basically an introductory chapter. In the section below, the structure of the introduction chapter adapted from Evans, Gruba, and Zobel (2014) as well as Paltridge and Starfield (2007) is presented.

- 1) Research background. This section describes the context of the research conducted. The author must be able to provide background on the topic or issue raised in the research in an interesting manner in accordance with the development of the current situation and conditions. In this section, the author must be able to place the topic in a study in the context of broader research and be able to state any gaps that need to be filled by deepening the topic in the study. This section should also briefly present the results of a literature search related to the theory and findings of previous researchers on the topic to be studied further.
- 2) Formulation of research problems. This section contains specific identification of the problems to be studied. The formulation of

research problems is usually written in the form of research questions. The number of research questions made is adjusted to the nature and complexity of the research, but still takes into account the order and logical position of the questions. In the research questions, the authors generally identify the topics or variables that are the focus of the research. In research that uses a quantitative approach, the research questions usually indicate the pattern to be sought, namely whether it is limited to knowing how variables are spread in a population, to find out the relationships between one variable and another, or to find out whether there is a causal relationship between one variable and another variable.

- 3) Research objectives. The actual research objectives will be reflected in the formulation of the problems presented earlier. However, the authors are expected to clearly identify the general and specific objectives of the research so that the scope of the research can be clearly seen. For example, frequently, the core purpose of research lies not in the first research question but in the last research question. This is possible because the initial questions are the initial steps that direct the research to achieve the real goal. In research that uses a quantitative approach, the author can also convey the research hypothesis because the research hypothesis is essentially what the researcher wants to test. In other words, the purpose of research is directed at testing certain hypotheses. In terms of writing position, research hypotheses in the sense of conveying the researcher's position can be written in this section or made in a different subsection after this section. In more detail, the writing of research hypotheses is presented in chapter III which discusses research methods.

- 4) Benefit/significance of research. This section provides an overview of the added value or contribution that can be provided by the results of the research conducted. The benefits/significance of the research can be seen from one or several aspects which include: (1) benefits/significance in terms of theory (saying what has not been or has not been researched in the literature review which is a research contribution), (2) benefits/significance in terms of policy (discussing the development of formal policies in the field studied and presenting data showing how often the problem under study arises and how critical the problem or its impact is), (3) benefits/significance from a practical point of view (provides an illustration that the research results can provide an alternative point of view or solutions to solve certain problems), and (4) benefits/significance in terms of social issues and actions (research may be regarded as a tool to enlighten life experiences by providing an overview and supporting action) (see Marshall & Rossman, 2006).
- 5) The organizational structure of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation. This section contains the writing organization of *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation by providing an overview of the content of each chapter, the order in which they are written, and the relationship between one chapter and another in forming a complete framework for the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation.

3.3.11 Chapter II: Literature Review

The literature review section in a *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation provides a clear context for the topic or problem raised in the research. This section has a very important role. The literature review shows the latest developments in the scientific world or often referred to as the recent theory

being studied and the position of the research problem in the field of science under study.

In general, the literature review contains the following:

- 1) The main concepts, theories, propositions, laws, models, and formulas and their derivatives in the field;
- 2) Previous research that is relevant to the field under study, including procedures, subjects, and findings;
- 3) The theoretical position of the researcher with regard to the problem under study.

In this section, the researcher compares, contrasts, and positions every research reviewed by relating it to the problem being studied. Based on this review, the researcher explains their position/position and the logical reasons for it. This section is intended to show the “why and how” the author applied the theories and results of previous research in the author’s current research, for example in formulating research assumptions.

There are several basic differences that need to be underlined regarding how theories are reviewed in *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertations. Paltridge and Starfield (2007) suggested several characteristics that distinguish the level and nature of literature review for *skripsi*, thesis and dissertation, which are presented below.

- 1) The literature review in *skripsi* is more descriptive, focuses on the topic, and prioritizes the latest reference sources.
- 2) The literature review in thesis is more analytical and summative, covering methodological issues, research techniques, and related topics.
- 3) The literature review in dissertation prioritizes analytical theory synthesis, which includes all known theories on a

particular topic, including theories studied in different languages. In the dissertation, efforts must be made to link/connect concepts both within and across theories. The critical evaluation also needs to be carried out on studies conducted by previous researchers. In this case, the depth and breadth of the discussion of the philosophical tradition and its relevance to the topics raised in the research are needed.

Other matters related to writing literature reviews, especially for thesis and dissertation is that writers should pay attention to the following requirements as stated by Bryant (2004).

- 1) The author knows the theory that comes from the latest thinking and the theory that represents the mainstream related to the topic under study.
- 2) The author is able to review previous research related to the field he is researching responsibly.
- 3) The author knows the references or research cited repeatedly by experts or other academics related to the field under study.
- 4) The author knows the names of experts who put forward theories related to the research topics studied.

3.3.12 Chapter III: Research Methods

This section is a procedural section that directs the reader to find out how the researcher designs the research flow from the research approach applied, the instruments used, the stages of data collection, to the data analysis steps.

In general, the explanation of the research method of *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation tends to have two patterns, namely quantitative and qualitative research.

The following describes the tendency of the pattern in explaining the research method for *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation using a quantitative approach (especially for surveys and experiments) which was adapted from Creswell (2009).

- 1) Research design. In this section, the author/researcher explicitly states whether the research conducted is in the survey category (descriptive and correlational) or the experimental category. Further, this section mentions and explains in more detail the specific type of design used (e.g. for experimental methods: true experimental or quasi experimental).
- 2) Participants. The researcher in this section describes the participants involved in the study. The number of participants involved, the specific characteristics of the participants, and the rationale for their selection are presented to give the reader a clear picture.
- 3) Population and sample. The selection of participants is basically reached by determining a sample from the population. In this case the researcher must provide a clear explanation of how the sample is determined. Because not all research involves humans; for certain fields of science, sampling techniques can also be used for certain animals, inanimate objects, or substances.
- 4) Research instruments. This section describes in detail the instruments/data collection tools used in the research. The research instrument can be in the form of a questionnaire, observation notes, or test items. A detailed description of the type of instrument, the source of the instrument (whether to make one or use an existing one),

examination of the validity and reliability, and the technical use is presented in this section.

- 5) Research procedures. This section chronologically describes the steps of the research, especially how the research design is actually executed. Especially for the experimental research, the scheme or flow of research that can be accompanied by notation and its elements are conveyed in detail. The identification of the types of variables along with the formulation of statistical research hypotheses (with notation) is written explicitly to strengthen the reader's understanding of the direction of the research objectives.
- 6) Data analysis. This section specifically presents the types of statistical analysis along with the specific types of software used (e.g. SPSS). Descriptive and inferential statistics that may be discussed and produced will be presented along with the steps for interpreting the findings.

Meanwhile, for research that uses a qualitative approach, the pattern of the research method explanation for *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation, as adapted from Creswell (2011), is relatively more fluid and simpler, containing the following elements.

- 1) Research design. This section describes the research designs used by mentioning, where possible, specific labels in the category of qualitative research designs, such as ethnography, or case study.
- 2) Participants and research site. This section is mainly included in the type of research involving human subjects as the source of data. Considerations for selecting participants and the research sites involved need to be clearly explained.

- 3) Data collection. This section describes in detail the type of data required, instruments used, and the technical stages of data collection. It is possible that data collection is carried out using more than one instrument to triangulate and improve the quality and reliability of the data.
- 4) Data analysis. In this section, the author is expected to explain in detail and clearly the steps taken after the data have been collected. If there is a special analytical framework based on a certain theoretical basis, the author must be able to explain how the framework is applied in analyzing the data obtained to produce findings that answer the research questions posed. In general, in the flow of qualitative data analysis, the researcher elaborates the steps of identification, categorization, codification, reduction, pattern mapping, and synthesis of the results of the implementation of the series of stages.
- 5) Ethical issues. This section is optional. Especially for research involving humans as research subjects, consideration of the potential negative physical and psychological impacts needs special attention. The author must be able to explain well that the research carried out does not cause negative impacts both physically and non-physically and explain the procedures for handling these issues.

The explanation of the elements that generally appear in the research method chapter, both using the quantitative and qualitative approaches, may have variations and adjustments according to the specificity of the field of study. What has been conveyed is a guide that contains important elements that can be used as a guideline for writing *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation within UPI.

3.3.13 Chapter IV: Findings and Discussion

This chapter conveys two main points, namely (1) research findings based on the results of data processing and analysis with various possible forms following the order of formulation of research problems, and (2) discussion of research findings to answer the research questions that have been formulated previously.

In presenting the research findings and their discussion, Sternberg (1988) stated that there are two general patterns that can be followed, namely non-thematic and thematic patterns. The non-thematic method is a separate way of presenting findings and discussions, while the thematic method is a combined way of presenting findings and discussions. In this case, he preferred the thematic pattern, where each finding is then discussed directly before moving on to the next finding.

Table 3. Non-thematic and Thematic Explanation Pattern

	<i>Non-thematic</i>	<i>Thematic</i>
<i>Finding</i>	Finding A	Finding A
	Finding B	Discussion
	Finding C	Finding B
<i>Discussion</i>	Discussion A	Discussion
	Discussion B	Finding C
	Discussion C	Discussion

(adapted from Sternberg, 1988)

With these two acceptable patterns, whatever pattern is used as a reference, the writer/researcher must remember the formulation of the problem proposed at the beginning of the research in describing each finding

and discussion. This is to ensure that the findings and discussions presented truly answer the research questions posed.

In the section below, the general pattern of presentation of findings and discussion for research with quantitative and qualitative approaches are presented separately.

The presentation of data in the presentation of findings and discussions, especially for quantitative research, according to the American Psychological Association (2010), basically has several purposes, including:

- 1) exploration, namely the presentation of data is intended to understand what is in the data;
- 2) communication, in the sense that the data has been interpreted and will be conveyed to the readers;
- 3) calculation, in the sense that the data can be used to estimate several statistical values for further interpretation;
- 4) storage, in the sense that the data is used for further discussion and analysis purposes; and
- 5) decoration, in the sense that the presentation of the data is intended to attract the attention of the reader and make it visually attractive.

The presentation of quantitative research findings as described by the American Psychological Association (2010) is usually preceded by the submission of the results of data processing which can be in the form of tables or graphs containing statistical figures both descriptive and inferential regarding the variables that are the focus of the research. It is important to remember the principles related to how data is presented to make it easier for the readers to understand the results of the research.

After the researcher presents the findings in a suitable manner with the purpose, in the form of graphs or tables, what needs to be done is to

accompany the display with a summary explanation so that the findings become more meaningful. The explanation is given according to the condition of the data as it is, not reducing and not exaggerating. The elaboration can be in the form of a reading of the displayed visual forms and patterns, or certain statistical values according to the distribution pattern that can be seen. In this stage, the researcher must be able to show patterns that are interesting, unexpected, and considered strange or ambiguous.

In the discussion section, the things that need to be done are (1) reviewing the formulated research questions and research hypotheses, (2) linking the findings with relevant literature reviews that have been previously written, and (3) evaluating potential research weaknesses (such as bias, other threats to the internal validity, and other limitations of the research).

The researcher generally states whether to reject or accept the proposed hypothesis to answer the research question. The researcher then moves on to discuss the similarities or differences of the research findings with the findings of other previous research so that confirmation and clarification of the results of the findings can be provided. All forms of research limitations need to be stated as a form of the overall evaluation.

The following shows some examples of the phrasing of quantitative research findings in answering research questions.

- 1) There is a strong negative relationship between TV viewing time and the GPA obtained by students, $r(35) = -.87$. $p < .05$. (to express correlation)
- 2) There is a significant difference between the class that uses the group project-based assessment method ($x = 87.5$) and the class that uses the individual report assessment ($x = 60.3$), $t(42) = 34.7$, $p < .05$. (to state experimental results)

Meanwhile, in presenting the findings and discussion of qualitative research, the researcher presents the results of data analysis and evaluates whether the main findings resulting from the data analysis answer the research questions posed (Burton, 2002). The findings and discussion section should begin with a summary of the research findings, reiterating the research objectives.

Qualitative research usually uses descriptive methods to describe behavior rather than using data that can be analyzed statistically (Burton, 2002).

In understanding qualitative data, as stated by Lincoln and Guba (quoted by Rudestam & Newton, 1992), a researcher must conduct inductive analysis, and there are two activities in the analysis. The first is unitizing, namely the activity of providing a code that identifies a separate unit of information from the text. The second is categorizing, namely compiling and organizing data based on similarity of meaning.

This process requires continuous revision, modification, and change until new units can be placed in the correct category, and the inclusion of additional units into a category and does not provide new information.

In presenting the data, according to Rudestam and Newton (1992), a qualitative researcher needs to describe the context in which an event occurs. In addition, as suggested by Silverman (2005), qualitative research needs to show an effort to discuss each piece of collected data.

The author of *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation, both with quantitative and qualitative approaches, should keep in mind that data are not equally important. Thus, the data should also be presented based on the level of significance in the research. The author, as suggested by Crasswell (2005), needs to ask questions about some of the things presented below.

- 1) What is considered most important about research findings in general and why?
- 2) Which findings seem more important and less important and why?
- 3) Are there any findings that I should pay special attention to and why?
- 4) Is there anything odd or unusual in the research findings that need to be mentioned and why?
- 5) Have the methodology used or other factors influenced my interpretation of the research findings and do they need to be discussed? For example, biases can arise in research design (see Cresswell's advice, 2005).

It should be noted that in presenting the findings, the authors should present them proportionally, and discuss them analytically. By paying attention to the five questions above, writers of *skipsi*, thesis, and dissertation can avoid overexposure of research findings.

In discussing data, both quantitative and qualitative data, there are several stages that must be carried out:

- 1) Explaining how the data can answer the research question;
- 2) Making a concluding statement; and
- 3) Discussing the data by relating it to theory and implications of research results (if possible) (see Sternberg, 1988).

In terms of organization, the structure or elements that are usually present in the discussion of data can be in the form of:

- 1) Research background (information on research background);
- 2) Statement of research results (statement of results);
- 3) Expected and unexpected outcomes;
- 4) References to previous research;

- 5) Explanation of unexpected research results, namely explanations made to state the reasons for the emergence of unexpected or unexpected results or data (if this is true) or data that is different from previous research findings;
- 6) Giving examples, namely examples to support the explanation given in step no. 5 above;
- 7) Deduction or statement, namely making more general statements that arise from research results, for example drawing conclusions and stating hypotheses;
- 8) Support from previous research, namely citing previous research to support the statement made;
- 9) Recommendations, namely making recommendations for future research; and
- 10) Justification for future research, namely providing arguments why future research is recommended (quoted from Paltridge & Starfield, 2007).

It should be noted that a common mistake found in writing the discussion chapter is that the author fails to relate to the literature review that has been written in Chapter II in integrating the research results with other empirical research that examines the same topic or phenomenon (see Emilia, 2008; Rudestam & Newton, 1992). A good discussion links each research finding to the theoretical context presented in the literature review. Thus, in the discussion section, the author needs to return to the literature review to better understand the research findings and look for evidence that confirms or contradicts the existing data or research results. In the data discussion section, statements such as the one below should appear frequently.

“(Not) like the research conducted by ..., which used ..., this research found that ...”.

In discussing data, the author of *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation should ask in what ways or to what extent the research findings agree with, or support, or oppose the findings of other studies. If they agree, exactly in what way, and if not, why and what aspects might be further investigated to improve existing knowledge.

3.3.14. Chapter V: Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

This chapter contains conclusions, implications, and recommendations, which present the researcher’s interpretation and meaning of the analysis results of the research findings as well as propose important things that can be utilized from the results of the research. There are two alternative ways of writing conclusions, namely by using pointers or a summary.

For scientific writings such as *skripsi*, especially for thesis and dissertation, writing the conclusion in a summary is better than pointers. The conclusion must answer the research question or problem formulation. In addition, the conclusion does not include any statistical figures from the statistical test results.

The implications and recommendations written after the conclusion can be addressed to policy makers, to the users of the research results, to future researchers who are interested in conducting further research, and to people who are solving problems in the field or following up on the research results.

In offering the recommendations for further research, they should be centered on the two or three most important things found in the research. It

would be better if the authors suggest research that goes one step better than the research that has been done.

In some cases, the last chapter of the *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation puts forward the limitations of the research, especially the weaknesses related to research methods, data collection techniques, and the sample involved.

3.4 *Skripsi*, Thesis, and Dissertation Format

Skripsi, thesis, and dissertation at UPI refer to the writing format described below.

- 1) The type of paper used is size A4 80 grams.
- 2) The font used is Times New Roman size 12.
- 3) The lines are spaced 1.5 points.
- 4) There is no additional space before and after the figure or table and between paragraphs/paragraphs if the paragraphs/paragraphs are written in indented format.
- 5) The left margin is 4 cm; the right margin is 3 cm; the top margin is 3 cm; the bottom margin is 3 cm.
- 6) Page numbers are written at the top right, except at the beginning of the chapter.

Regarding the provisions on the number of words in writing *skripsi*, thesis, and dissertation, the guidelines used by UPI can be seen in the following table.

Table 4. Word Count Range in Writing Skripsi, Thesis, and Dissertation at UPI

Type of Writing	Field	Word Count Range
<i>Skripsi</i>	Social Humanities	15,000–20,000
	Mathematics, Science, and Engineering	12,000–18,000
<i>Thesis</i>	Social Humanities	30,000–35,000
	Mathematics, Science, and Engineering	25,000–30,000
<i>Dissertation by coursework</i>	Social Humanities	50,000–60,000
	Mathematics, Science, and Engineering	45,000–55,000
<i>Dissertation by research</i>	Social Humanities	70,000–90,000
	Mathematics, Science, and Engineering	65,000–80,000

3.5 Writing Anthology

In accordance with the policy of managing scientific works of the UPI academic community, as one of the graduation requirements, students who write *skripsi* are required to also write articles in the form of a *skripsi* summary with the following conditions.

- 1) The article is a summary or short form of the *skripsi* with the following number of words: a) 2,500-5,000 words for Mathematics and Natural Sciences and Vocational Technology, b) 3,000-6,000 words for humanities.

- 2) The article is written in a single space, using Times New Roman 12, the left and top margins are 3 cm each, and the top and bottom margins are 2.5 cm each.
- 3) The title is written in capitals using Berlin Sans FB 16, followed by the name of the author without a degree in using Gill Sans MT 14, then followed by author's affiliation, namely Study Program/Department ..., Faculty ..., Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, and email (email) of the author using Gill Sans MT 12 in italics.
- 4) Place the supervisor(s) as the second, third, (and so on) author(s). Put a footnote behind the supervisor's name "Responsible Author".
- 5) Under the affiliation, write the abstract in Times New Roman 11, with a left and right indent of 1 cm.
- 6) The abstract must contain a description of the importance of the topics discussed, the gaps found between theory and reality or between expectations and reality, the research discussed, methods, results and discussion, and conclusions in Indonesian and English.
- 7) The title and abstract are written in Indonesian and English.
- 8) On each odd page, provide a header containing the journal's name, volume, edition number, month, and year of publication as well as the page of the article that is placed left-aligned.
- 9) On every even page, provide a header namely containing the author's name and the title of the article aligned right. If there is not enough space, then the title does not need to be written in full.
- 10) Under the abstract, write down the keywords of no more than five words.

- 11) After the keywords, immediately describe the background as well as the theory used in the research without starting with a subtitle with a length of no more than 20% of the entire article.
- 12) After the theory description, give the subtitle **METHOD** with Times New Roman 12 capital letters followed by a description of the research design, respondents involved, instruments used, and data analysis procedures with a length of no more than 15% of the entire article.
- 13) Follow the description of the method with **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION** which contains a description of the findings and discussion of the research results with a length of no more than 60% of the entire article.
- 14) Follow the discussion with **CONCLUSION** which contains summaries and comments on research findings with a length of no more than 5% of the entire article.
- 15) After the conclusion, write **REFERENCES** using the American Psychological Association (APA) Style left-aligned.
- 16) Block quotations are indented 0.75 cm, the column width is 7.43 and the distance between columns is 0.6 cm.
- 17) Use horizontal lines for tables (see APA Model table). Give the number and title of the table above it.
- 18) Every source cited in the manuscript must be listed in the References and the references listed in the References must appear in the text.

3.6 Writing Study Completion Assignments for Double Degree Students

As is the case for writing assignments in courses, the writing of study completion assignments for double degree and joint degree students in both master's and doctoral programs, namely the writing of thesis and

dissertation, is in English. Technical matters regarding the writing and mentoring of thesis and dissertation for double degree and joint degree students will be further regulated in special provisions at the School of Postgraduate Studies.

CHAPTER IV: ORIGINALITY AND PLAGIARISM ISSUES

4.1. The Importance of Originality in Writing

The term originality in writing has been brought up since 1500 in England. At that time, it referred to a piece of text that had never been written previously by anyone. The originality issue rose the awareness to legally protect one's original thought or writing in the late 1790s.

Originality is the main criteria and the key of academic products, especially in doctoral degrees (Murray, 2002). Scientific works, like *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation, must possess high originality. A *skripsi*, thesis, or dissertation can be called original if it fulfills the criteria proposed by Murray (2002; Phillips & Pugh, 1994). They are:

- 1) The author states something that has never been saying;
- 2) The author conducts empirical research that has never been conducted;
- 3) The author synthesizes something that has never been synthesized;
- 4) The author provides novel interpretation from other authors' notions or works;
- 5) The author conducts research that has not been investigated in a country;
- 6) The author employs a technique that has never been used in particular fields;
- 7) The author carries out research in various fields with different methodologies;
- 8) The author examines a topic in a field that has not to be researched by others;
- 9) The author tests knowledge in an original fashion;

- 10) The author adds to the body of knowledge in a way that never been done;
- 11) The author writes new information for the very first time;
- 12) The author writes an exposition of others' ideas; and,
- 13) The author continues original research that has been completed.

4.2. Definition

The word plagiarism is derived from the Latin *plagiarius*, which means someone who kidnaps or abducts a child or slave. Then, in the 1600s, the term is used to depict someone who “steals literature works” (Weber-Wulff, 2014).

The Indonesian government through a Ministry of National Education Regulation No 17 Year 2010 defines plagiarism as

Deliberate or unintentional act of acquiring or trying to achieve credit or score for academic work, by partly or completely quoting others' works, then admitting that it is his/her own work, without properly cite or refer the original source (page 2).

All universities condemn this unethical conduct, and it receives serious concern. Plagiarism is academic cheating and is associated with lies, stealing, dishonesty, and fraud (Sutherland-Smith, 2008).

In the past, plagiarism is not considered a serious offense. Taking someone else's idea dan wrote it down in one's text was perceived as the realization of mimesis. The viewpoint at that time was that knowledge or a notion of the human's condition must be shared with everyone, not owned by one particular person (Williams, 2008). In today's academic context, however, it needs to be avoided because can cause a serious impact on the author.

4.3. Forms of Plagiarism

In creating an academic work, plagiarism can be in various forms. Weber-Wulff (2014) categorize the following actions as plagiarism:

- 1) *Copy and Paste*. This is the most common and popular action. Plagiarists take some of the text, usually an online text, and press the *double keystrokes* (CTRL+C and CTRL+V) into their own text. The lecturers or writing instructors usually can see the differences in the flow of ideas and writing style between the students' work and the plagiarized sources. Some parts of the texts are good, and other parts still have fundamental mistakes.
- 2) *Translation*. Translating others' work without providing the sources correctly is also frequently done. Plagiarist usually selects parts of the texts from different sources and translate them manually or using a software. Using software might yield ungrammatical or unnatural sentences and confusing meanings.
- 3) *Disguised plagiarism*. This type of plagiarism is by copying someone else's text and replacing words or phrases in it and deleting some other parts without altering the construction of the text.
- 4) *Shake and Paste Collections*. This act is done by collecting many texts and copying some ideas or sentences from those texts to be rearranged into a new text. The results of such combining ideas from different text sources are illogical and unintelligible texts.
- 5) *Clause quilts*. It is performed by "quilting" together words from different sources. The parts of the text are often unfinished sentences that are completed by other parts from different sources. Experts also label this as mosaic plagiarism.

- 6) Structural plagiarism. This type of plagiarism is done by copying others' writing patterns, not only their rhetorical structure, but also the references, methods, and the purposes of the study.
- 7) Pawn sacrifice. Even the sources are written, this form of plagiarism blurs parts of the cited text. So, the author makes it unclear how many parts are actually being cited.
- 8) Cut and Slide. Basically, this is similar to the pawn sacrifice with little difference. In this case, the plagiarist copies the text and refers to the original sources properly, but there are other parts of the original text included in his or her own text without properly cited.
- 9) Self-plagiarism. In this form of plagiarism, the author uses his or her own earlier published works without properly citing them. Even though the author feels that the ideas are theirs and can freely use them, such conduct is unacceptable to standard academic practice.
- 10) Other dimensions. Plagiarism can be done in many ways. The plagiarist can copy use one form of plagiarism or combine those forms. Plagiarism can change forms by modifying the dimension of the offense.

4.4. Consequences of plagiarism

If someone plagiarizes evidently and clearly, the university will penalize the plagiarist by referring to the Ministry of National Education Regulation No. 17 Year 2010 on Prevention and Countermeasure of Plagiarism on Higher Education. In the regulation, in Article 12 Verses 1 and 2, it is stated explicitly the sanctions of conducting plagiarism for students, lecturers, researchers, and administration staff.

According to the above regulation, it is stated that a student who is guilty of plagiarism will receive consequences and academic sanctions as follows:

- 1) reprimand;
- 2) written reprimand;
- 3) postponement of student's right grant;
- 4) course(s) failure;
- 5) honorable dismissal order;
- 6) academic dismissal;
- 7) revocation of the degree should the student has graduated.

Meanwhile, for a lecturer/researcher/academic staff who is guilty of plagiarism, the consequences and sanctions are:

- 1) reprimand;
- 2) written reprimand;
- 3) postponement of granting rights;
- 4) demotion of academic/functional position;
- 5) revocation of the right to be proposed as professor/professor/primary research expert for those who meet the requirements;
- 6) honorable discharge from the status as lecturer/researcher/educational staff;
- 7) dishonorable dismissal from the status as a lecturer/researcher/educational staff;
- 8) cancellation of his or her diploma obtained from the university.

Article 12 Paragraph 3 of the same regulation also states that:

If the lecturer/researcher/educational staff as referred to in paragraph (2) letter f, letter g, and letter h bear the designation of

professor/professor/principal research expert, then the lecturer/researcher/educational staff shall be subject to additional sanctions in the form of dismissal from the position of teacher. major/professor/principal research expert by the Minister or authorized official upon the proposal of a university organized by the Government or upon the proposal of a university organized by the community through the Coordinator of Private Higher Education.

CHAPTER V: WRITING TECHNIQUES

5.1. Lettering

The lettering discussed in this guideline is mainly related to the use of (1) capital letters, (2) italic letters, and (3) bold letters.

5.1.1. Capital Letters

Capitalized letters are used in the following writing conditions:

- 1) first letter at the beginning of a sentence (e.g. *This* research is conducted in the course of five months);
- 2) first letter of a direct quotation (e.g. Father asks, “*Why* do you look sad?”);
- 3) first letter of words and phrases related to religion, holy scripture, and God, including pronouns for God (e.g. *Islam*, *Christianity*, *Quran*, *Bible*, etc.);
- 4) first letter of honorary, ancestry, and religious titles followed by the name of the person (e.g. Sultan Hasanudin, *Haji* Agus Salim)
- 5) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of honorary, ancestry, and religious titles that are not followed by the names of people (e.g. He has just become a *haji*);
- 6) first letter of the name of a position followed by the name of a person, the name of an institution, or the name of a place used as a substitute for the name of a certain person (e.g. *Governor* of West Java, *General* Sudirman);
- 7) first letter of the name of a position or an agency that refers to its complete form (e.g. (1) The meeting is chaired by the *Minister* of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia, (2) The meeting is chaired by the *Minister*);
- 8) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of the names of positions and ranks that do not refer to the name of a person, agency, or a

- particular place (e.g. Several *ministers* were present at the cabinet meeting yesterday afternoon);
- 9) first letter of people's names (e.g. Chairil Anwar, Imam Bonjol);
 - 10) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of *de*, *van*, and *der* (Dutch names), *von* (German names), or *da* (Portuguese names) (e.g. Robin van Persie);
 - 11) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of the word *bin* or *binti* (e.g. Abdullah bin Abdul Mustafa, Fatimah binti Muhammad Husen);
 - 12) first letter of the abbreviation of a person's name used as a unit of measure (e.g. joules per Kelvin, Newton);
 - 13) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of the name of a person used as a unit of measure (e.g. 15 watts, diesel engine);
 - 14) first letter of the names of nations, ethnic groups, and languages (e.g. Batak, Sundanese, African);
 - 15) capital letters are *not used* as the first letters of the names of nations, ethnic groups, and languages used as the basic forms of derived words (e.g. indonesianization of foreign words, english-like);
 - 16) first letter of the names of the year, month, day, and holiday (e.g. the month of *May*, the day of *Eid*);
 - 17) first letter of the names of historical events (e.g. Gulf War, Round Table Conference);
 - 18) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of historical events that are not used as names (e.g. Heroes fought for Indonesian independence);
 - 19) capital letters are used as the first letter of proper geographical names (e.g. West Java, Bandung);
 - 20) first letter of geography elements following proper geographical names (eg Citarum River, Galunggung Mountain);

- 21) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of geography elements not followed by a proper geographical name (e.g. My sister likes to swim in the river);
- 22) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of proper geographical names used as a description (e.g. kunci *inggris* (wrench), *ambon banana*);
- 23) first letters of the official names of the state, official institutions, state administrative institutions, agencies, and names of official documents, except for articles such as *such as, and, by, or, and for* (e.g. Republic of Indonesia, Maternity and Child Welfare Agency);
- 24) capital letters are *not used* as the first letters of words that are not the official names of the state, official institutions, state administrative institutions, agencies, and names of official documents (e.g. cooperation between the government and the people);
- 25) first letters of each element of the perfect repetition in the names of the official institutions, state administrative institutions, agencies, official documents, and titles of articles (e.g. Perserikatan Bangsa-Bangsa, Dasar-Dasar Ilmu Hukum);
- 26) first letters of all words (including all elements of perfect repetition) in the titles of books, magazines, newspapers, and papers, except for articles such as *in, to, from, and, which, and for* which are not at the beginning of a sentence (e.g. He likes to read *Dari Ave Maria ke Jalan Lain ke Roma*);
- 27) first letter of the abbreviated elements of titles, ranks, and addresses used along with proper names (e.g. Dr. for doctorate, S.E. for bachelor of economics);
- 28) first letter of words indicating kinship, such as *bapak, ibu, saudara, kakak, adik, and paman*, which are used for referring or addressing

(e.g. (1) Surat Saudara sudah saya terima, (2) “Kapan Bapak berangkat?” tanya Andi);

- 29) capital letters are *not used* as the first letter of words indicating kinship that are not used for referring or addressing (e.g. We are going to visit *uncle* and *aunt's* house in Jakarta); and
- 30) first letter of the word *Anda* used in addressing (e.g. Berapa lama Anda tinggal di Bandung? (How long have you stayed in Bandung?)).

5.1.2. Italic Letters

Italic letters are used in the following writing conditions:

- 1) for writing down the names of books, magazines, and newspapers that are quoted in an article (e.g. The gossip originated from the news in the *Pos Kota* newspaper);
- 2) for emphasizing or specifying a letter, part of a word, word, or group of words (e.g. (1) The first letter of the word *century* is *c*, (2) Compose a sentence using the word *moratorium*);
- 3) for writing words or phrases that are not Indonesian (e.g. the scientific name of the mangosteen fruit is *Carcinia mangostana*); and
- 4) for writing foreign phrases that have been absorbed into the Indonesian language and the writing is treated as an Indonesian word (e.g. the *Korps diplomatik* gets special treatment).

5.1.3. Bold Letters

Bold letters are used in the following writing conditions:

- 1) for writing the titles of books, chapters, subchapters, table of contents, list of tables, list of symbols, references, indexes, and appendices;
- 2) not for emphasizing and specifying a letter, a part of word, word, group of words; italics are used for this purpose; and

- 3) bold letters in dictionaries are used to write entries and sub-entries as well as writing symbols that represent polysemy.

5.2. Writing Numerals and Numbers

According to *Pedoman Umum Ejaan Bahasa Indonesia* (General Guidelines for Indonesian Spelling), a few things must be taken into account in regards to writing numerals and numbers. Numbers in writing can be presented in numerals or words. In this case, numerals act as symbols using the most commonly used type, namely Arabic or Roman numerals, as seen in the following example:

Arabic numerals	:	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
Roman numerals	:	I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, L (50), C (100), D (500), M (1000), V (5000)

The followings are a few provisions in writing numerals and numbers:

- 1) numbers in a text can be presented by one or two words using letters unless the numbers are used in succession to provide details and exposure (e.g. (1) I watch that movie *five* times, (2) Out of 50 participants, there are *12* children, *18* teenagers, and *10* adults);
- 2) numbers at the beginning of a sentence are written in letters, but the numbers cannot be written in letters if there are more than two words, the sentence must be restructured in a way that the numbers are not at the beginning of the sentence (e.g. *Thirty* students of the 9th grade passed the National Final Exam);
- 3) large whole numerals can be spelled to make it easier to read (e.g. The company lost *250 billion* rupiahs);

- 4) numerals are used to state (a) units of length, weight, width, and volume; (b) units of time; (c) currency; and (d) sum (e.g. 10 litres, Rp10.000,00, year 1981)
- 5) numerals are used to represent street, house, apartment, or room numbers (e.g. Mahmud V street No. 15);
- 6) numerals are used to number chapters and holy scripture verses (e.g. Chapter IX, Clause 3, page 150);
- 7) ordinal numbers can be written using capital Roman numerals or Arabic letters and numerals (e.g. XX century, 20th century, twentieth century);
- 8) numbers ending with *-an* are separated using hyphens (e.g. *tahun 1980-an* (1980s), *pecahan 5000-an* (fractions of 5000)); and
- 9) numbers need not be written using both numerals and letters at the same time (except for official documents, such as birth certificates and checks).

5.3. Using Punctuation

5.4.1. Using Periods

Periods are used in the following conditions:

- 1) at the end of a sentence that is not a question or exclamation (e.g. My mother is a teacher.);
- 2) periods *are not used* at the end of a sentence in which an element of the sentence already ends with a period (e.g. The writer's name is Ibnu Jamil, M.A.);
- 3) after a numeral or letter in charts, overviews, or lists;
- 4) to separate numerals of hours, minutes, and seconds that show the times (e.g. 8.00 AM);

- 5) periods are used to separate numerals of hours, minutes, and seconds that that shows time periods (e.g. 1.25.45 hours to show 1 hour, 25 minutes, 45 seconds); and
- 6) to separate numbers in the thousands or its multiples that shows sum (e.g. The number of impoverished people in this province is 5.300 people).

5.4.2. Using Commas

Commas are used in the following conditions:

- 1) between the elements of a breakdown or enumeration (e.g. He is tasked to buy books, pencils, ink, and rulers.);
- 2) to separate one equivalent sentence from the next equivalent sentence preceded by words such as *but*, *however*, *whereas*, and *unless* (e.g. I want to go, but I have a lot of work to do first.);
- 3) to separate the subordinate clause from the main clause if it precedes the main clause (e.g. Because I was tired, I didn't go to his house.);
- 4) after conjunctions at the beginning of a sentence that connects to the previous sentence, such as *therefore*, *so*, *thus*, *ergo*, and *even though*;
- 5) to separate interjections, such as *o*, *yes*, *wah*, *ouch*, and *pity*, or words used as greetings, such as *Ma'am* or *Sir* from other words in the sentence;
- 6) to separate direct quotations from other parts of the sentence (e.g. Said Adik, "I want to go to Bandung".);
- 7) commas *are not used* to separate a direct quotation from the other parts of a sentence if the direct quotation ends in a question or exclamation mark (e.g. "Where did you go to school?" asked Pak Agus.);

- 8) between (a) names and addresses, (b) parts of an address, (c) places and dates, and (d) names of places and regions or countries written in sequence (e.g. Mr. Egan, Mahmud V St., Bandung);
- 9) between a person's name and the following academic title to distinguish it from the abbreviation of proper, family, or clan name (e.g. Mira Rahmani, S.Pd.);
- 10) in front of a decimal number or between rupiah and cent expressed by a number (e.g. 10,5 m, Rp5000,50); and
- 11) to flank non-restrictive additional information (e.g. Our lecturer, Pak Eri, is very strict.).

5.4.3. Using Semicolons

Semicolons are used in the following conditions:

- 1) as substitutes for conjunctions to separate equivalent sentences in compound sentences (e.g. Andi is cleaning his room; Putri is tidying up books in the reading room);
- 2) to end statements of details in a sentence in the form of a phrase or group of words (Before the last detail, it is necessary to use the word *and*); and
- 3) to separate two or more equivalent sentences if the elements of each part are separated by punctuation and hyphens (e.g. This meeting will discuss the election of chairman, secretary, and treasurer; drafting the basic, household, and work budget plans).

5.4. Other Writing Techniques

5.4.1. Writing Titles and Subheadings

Chapter titles are written in capital and bold letters using the *centering* (center/middle) format as in the following example:

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Subheadings are written in capital and bold letters, but only on the initials or the first letter of each word (except conjunctions, prepositions, and particles), in left-aligned format according to the left margin limit as in the following example:

1.1 Background

The next level of subheadings is written in the same format as subtitles as in the following example:

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Definition of Communication

The next level is also written in the same format as in the following example:

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Definition of Communication

1.1.1.1 Verbal Communication

5.4.2. Numbering

Multilevel numbering for titles/subheadings use the following format.

2.1 Definition of Communication

2.1.1 Verbal Communication

2.1.1.1 Types of Speech

The above numbering and writing format only apply to writing a table of contents.

5.4.3. Writing Names of Tables and Figures

Based on the 6th Edition of APA Guidelines, there are differences in writing the names of tables and figures, as in the following example.

Table 1.1
Attendance Rate of Training Participants

No	Name	Date	Note
----	------	------	------

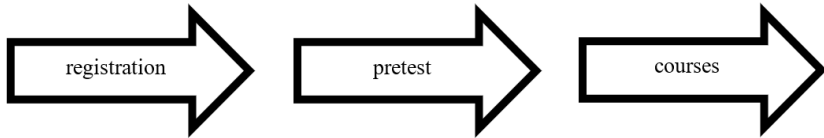


Figure 1.1 Outline of Training Registration

5.5. Writing Quotations and Citation Sources

In accordance with what was stated in the introduction, the recommended writing system for writing scientific papers at UPI is the American Psychological Association (APA) system.

The following examples of writing quotations will refer to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, which has been adapted for use in Indonesian.

5.5.1. Writing Direct Quotations

Quotations are written using "two quotation marks" if it is a direct quotation or cited from the author and is less than 40 words. If the quotation is taken from a quotation then it is written using 'one quotation mark'.

Example:

In the perspective of cultural-based counseling guidance, it is necessary to understand multicultural counseling that pays attention to the diversity of cultural characteristics as "...a sensitivity of the possible ways in which different cultures function and interact..." (McLeod, 2004, p. 245).

In this case, if the quotation is taken from a language other than the language in which it was written, it is italicized, and a translation is provided without italics.

In quotations of 40 words or more, the quotations are written without quotation marks and typed with one space apart. The first line is indented the same as the first sentence at the beginning of the paragraph. The second line of the quote is indented the same as the first line.

Example:

Tannen (2007) states that discourse analysis requires the ability to combine various theoretical understandings into one study. He said that discourse analysis is uniquely heterogeneous among the many subdisciplines of linguistics. In comparison to other subdisciplines of the field, it may seem almost dismayingly diverse. Thus, the term “variation theory” refers to a particular combination of theory and method employed in studying a particular kind of data. (p. 33)

Regarding direct quotation, the proportion of the quotation in one page is a maximum of ¼ page.

If there is an omission in a direct quotation, the writing of that part is replaced with three dots (see examples of quotations in less than 3 lines).

5.5.2. Writing Citation Sources

If the source precedes the direct quotation, then the writing method is the author's name followed by the year of publication and the cited page number. The year and page are enclosed in brackets.

Example:

Gaffar (2012, p. 34) stated that “the essence of the policies of national education is the decision that education is a national priority in building the nation towards a new Indonesian society.”

If the source is written after what is cited, then the author's name, year of publication, and page number are all enclosed in brackets.

Example:

"Standard expectations and targets for quantitative measures that are out of context can encourage the simplification of the educational process and the development of instant behavior" (Kartadinata, 2010, p. 51).

5.5.3. Citation Sources Refer to Other Sources

If the citation source refers to another source for the cited part, the source is the one used by the citation, but by citing who expressed the opinion.

Example:

Hawes (dalam Samani dan Hariyanto, 2011, hlm. 6) mengemukakan bahwa "*...when character is gone, all gone, and one of the richest jewels of life is lost forever*" [... ketika karakter sirna, semuanya sirna dan salah satu perhiasan termahal hidup pun hilang selamanya].

5.5.4. Citation from Two and More Authors

If there are two authors, the surnames of the two authors must be mentioned, for example: Sharp and Green (1996). If there are more than two authors, for the first writing, the surnames of all authors are written in full. If there are three to five authors, the surname of each author must be written at

the first mention in the text, and only the surname of the first author accompanied by et al. for the next mentions.

Example:

Kurniawan, Hermawan, Darmawan, and Gunawan (2019) states...
(first mention in text)

... in an international journal article (Kurniawan, Hermawan,
Darmawan, & Gunawan, 2019) (first mention in text)

Kurniawan et al. (2019) also emphasize that... (next mentions)

... in Sinta and Scopus indexed journal (Kurniawan, et al., 2019)
(next mentions)

If there are more than five authors, then the first mention also only uses the surname of the first author.

Example:

Kurniawan et al. (2019) believe that...

... in an international journal article (Kurniawan et al., 2019).

Note the use of a period after et al.

5.5.5. Citation from Different Authors and Different Sources

If the issue is discussed by several people in different sources, writing the source of the citation is as follows. Note that the mention of the author's name is sorted in alphabetical order, not by year of publication.

Example:

Several studies on critical thinking prove that reading and writing are the most powerful ways to develop critical thinking skills (Chaffee, et al. 2002; Emilia, 2005; Moore & Parker, 1995).

5.5.6. Citation from One Author with Several Works

If the source of the citation is several works by the same author in the same year, the method of writing is to add the letters a, b, and so on after the year of publication.

Example: (Suharyanto, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c).

5.5.7. Citation from One Author with Different Sources

If the citation is from the same theorist, who makes the same statement, but is found in different sources, the way it is written is as follows.

Example:

According to Halliday, there are two contexts that influence the use of language, namely (1) the context of the situation, which consists of the field, mode or channel of communication (e.g. spoken or written language), and tenor (who is the author/speaker to whom); and (2) the cultural context realized in the type of text (1985a, b, c).

5.5.8. Citation from Anonymous Works

If the source of the citation is anonymous, the writing is as follows.

Example: (No name, 2013, p. 18).

5.5.9. Citation of Main Ideas

If what is expressed is the main idea of an author, there is no need for a direct quotation, it is enough to mention the source.

Example:

Halliday (1985b) reveals that every language has three metafunctions, namely ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions.

Note that the citation model does not recognize footnotes for sources with various terms such as *ibid.*, *op.cit.*, *loc.cit.* *vide*, and so on. Footnotes are allowed to provide additional explanations of terms that cannot be written in the text because it will interfere with the flow of the description. The author's name in citations is the last name or surname and is written the same way as in the references.

5.6. Writing References

In this guideline, references are used to emphasize that the sources cited in the body (contents) of the text are ensured to be written in the references, and vice versa. This is done solely to discourage and minimize the potential for plagiarism in scientific writing.

Some general notes that need to be considered in writing references using the APA system include the following.

- 1) Write all authors' surnames and initials up to seven authors. If there are more than seven, what is written is up to the sixth author, then it is marked with three periods and the last author's name before the year of publication is written.
- 2) If there are surnames with similar author initials, the full name initials are written in brackets before the year of writing.
- 3) For authors in the form of groups or institutions, the name of the institution is written clearly.
- 4) For a reference to an edited book, enter the name of the editor in the position of the author, and provide the caption (Editor).
- 5) The year of publication is written in brackets, preceded, and followed by a period. For magazines or newsletters, write down the exact year and the completion date of publication, separated by commas and followed by numbers in parentheses.

- 6) If there is no information on the time of writing, write t.t. in brackets.
- 7) Regarding titles of books, articles, or chapters, capital letters are only used for the first word in the title and subtitle, if any, as well as words that are categorized as proper nouns.
- 8) The titles for journal, newsletter, and magazine are written in a combination of uppercase and lowercase letters. Meanwhile, the source name is italicized.
- 9) The city of publication is written clearly and followed by the name of the publisher.

Some technical examples of writing references with the APA system adapted to the General Guidelines for Indonesian Spelling can be seen in the following section.

5.6.1. Books

Writing references of books in the APA system follows the following order:

- 1) author's last or surname;
- 2) author's first name (only initials);
- 3) year of publication (in brackets, preceded and followed by a period);
- 4) book titles are italicized (the first letter of each word is capitalized, except for prepositions, conjunctions, and articles), followed by a period; and
- 5) edition (if any), city of publication, followed by a colon and publisher.

Specific examples of writing book references with several variations can be seen in the following.

- 1) Books by one author:

- Poole, M.E. (1976). *Social Class and Language Utilization at the Tertiary Level*. Brisbane: University of Queensland.
- 2) Books by two or three authors:
- Burden, P.R. & Byrd, D.M. (2010). *Methods for Effective Teaching*. Boston: Pearson.
- Joyce, B., Weil, M., & Calhoun, E. (2011). *Models of Teaching*. Boston: Pearson.
- 3) Books by more than three authors:
- Emerson, L. et al. (2007). *Writing Guidelines for Education Students* (Edisi Kedua). Melbourne: Thomson.
- 4) Sources by one author in different books:
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985a). *Spoken and Written Language*. Geelong: Deakin University Press.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985b). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985c). *Part A. Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social Semiotic Perspective*. Melbourne: Deakin University Press.
- 5) Authors as editors:
- Philip, H.W.S. & Simpson, G.L. (Eds.). (1976). *Australia in the World of Education Today and Tomorrow*. Canberra: Australian National Commission.
- 6) Sources are book chapters:
- Coffin, C. (1997). Constructing and Giving Value to the Past: An Investigation into Secondary School History. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genre and Institutions: Social Processes in the Workplace and School* (pp. 196 -231). New York: Continuum.

5.6.2. Journal Articles

Writing journal article references follows the following order:

- 1) author's last or surname;
- 2) author's first name (only initials);
- 3) year of publication (in brackets, preceded and followed by a period);
- 4) article titles (not italicized and the first letter of each word is capitalized, except for prepositions, conjunctions, and articles);
- 5) journal titles (italicized and the first letter of each word is capitalized, except for prepositions, conjunctions, and articles) followed by a comma;
- 6) the journal volume number in Arabic numeral and italicized;
- 7) publication issue number in Arabic numeral and in brackets;
- 8) page numbers starting from the first page to the last; and
- 9) include the article's unique identity numbers or better known as the digital object identifier (DOI), if any, after the page numbers.

Example:

Setiawati, L. (2012). A Descriptive Study on the Teacher Talk at an EYL Classroom. *Conaplin Journal: Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 176–178. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v1i2.83>

5.6.3. Other than Books and Journal Articles

Some examples of writing references with sources other than books and journal articles are presented as follows.

- 1) Thesis, or dissertation:
Rakhman, A. (2008). *Teacher and Students' Code Switching in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Classroom*. (Thesis). Sekolah Pascasarjana, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung.

- 2) Department or government agency publication:
 Departement of Education and Culture. (1998). *Petunjuk Pelaksanaan Beasiswa dan Dana Bantuan Operasional*. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
- 3) Documents of reports:
 Teacher Education Development Project Committee. (1983). *Laporan Penilaian Proyek Pengembangan Pendidikan Guru*. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
- 4) Papers in conference or seminar proceedings:
 Sudaryat, Y. (2013). "Menguak Nilai Filsafat Pendidikan Sunda dalam Ungkapan Tradisional sebagai Upaya Pemertahanan Bahasa Daerah". In M. Fasya & M. Zifana (Eds.), *Prosiding Seminar Tahunan Linguistik Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia* (pp. 432-435). Bandung: UPI Press.
- 5) Newspaper articles:
 Sujatmiko, I. G. (2013, 23 Agustus). "Reformasi, Kekuasaan, dan Korupsi". *Kompas*, p. 6.
- 6) Internet sources:
 - a. Individual work:
 Thomson, A. (1998). *The Adult and the Curriculum*. [Online]. Retrieved from <http://www.ed.uiuc.edu/EPS/PES-Yearbook/1998/thompson.htm>
 - b. Messages in online forums or discussion groups:
 Pradipa, E. A. (2010, 8 June). "Memaknai Hasil Gambar Anak Usia Dini" [Online froum]. Retrieved from <http://www.paud.int/gambar/komentar/Weblog/806>
 - c. Emails in the mailing list:
 Riesky (2013, 25 May). "Penelitian Kualitatif dalam Pengajaran Bahasa" [Mailing list email]. Retrieved from

<http://bsing.groups.yahoo.com/group/ResearchMethods/message/581>

A few important things to note in writing references are as follows.

- 1) The above examples are references patterns from several types of documents that are often used in scientific works. Not all are exemplified in this guideline. For other types of specific reference sources, please refer to the sixth edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (2010).
- 2) Some of the above examples are not real and accessible sources. The writing of these sources is for the purpose of providing examples only.
- 3) For writing scientific papers using English, please follow the APA system according to the original in English.

APPENDICES

This section provides some examples of essays, bibliographic annotations, book reviews, and several other writing formats that are commonly part of course and study completion assignments. The essays, bibliographic annotations, and book reviews presented were deliberately made by two undergraduate students of the English Language and Literature Study Program (Fathimah Salma Zahirah and Permas Adinda Chintawidy) for the purpose of exemplifying the structure of the text. Matters related to the quality of information, ideas, and scientific substance in the content are not the focus of the examples.

Appendix 1. Sample Analytical Exposition Essay

The Urgency of the Disabled's Political Rights

The right to vote for people with disabilities in the 2014 election is still marginalized by the General Elections Commission (*Komisi Pemilihan Umum/KPU*). As a result, people with disabilities feel unappreciated by the government. It can be said that discrimination against minorities in Indonesia is still an actual problem (Danandjaja, 2003).

The first point of the marginalization of the disabled in the 2014 election can be seen in the lack of aids (braille templates) during the legislative elections on April 9, 2014. The West Java KPU only provided templates for the DPRD level, while the templates for the DPR RI, Provincial DPRD, Regency DPRD, and city DPRD were not provided. Not surprisingly, the blind filed a suit against the KPU, in February 2014, so as to provide braille templates for the 2014 election.

Second, with the lack of braille templates, elections which are essentially based on fairness (direct, public, free, confidential, honest, and fair) become biased because blind people must be accompanied by other people when choosing candidates for DPR RI, DPRD at the provincial, regency, and city levels. The Coordinator of the *Forum Tunanetra Menggugat* (Blind People Suit Forum), Suhendar, said that the aids were needed for the blind's independence in voting.

Third, the government is considered to have not implemented Regional Regulation no. 10 of 2006 which contains the protection and welfare of people with disabilities in West Java. So far, only the Social Affairs Office and the Education Office have conducted many programs for people with disabilities. Even though there are still many aspects that must be considered besides the social and educational fields.

The last point regarding the urgency of the disabled's political rights, which is also important, is the inaccurate data collection on the final voter list (*Daftar Pemilih Tetap/DPT*). The KPU still uses the DPT which has not been updated, while the blind have provided the latest data. This further strengthens the discrimination against blind people.

Based on the facts described above, it is clear that people with disabilities in West Java are still underestimated. Seeing the many political aspects of blind people who are not given much attention by the government, it is undeniable that they decided to become abstain in the 2014 elections.

Reference:

Danandjaja, J. (2003). *Diskriminasi terhadap Minoritas Masih Merupakan Masalah Aktual di Indonesia sehingga Perlu Ditanggulangi Segera*. Accessed from <http://www.lfip.org/english/pdf/bali-seminar/Diskriminasi%2520terhadap%2520minoritas%2520->

%2520james%2520danandjaja.pdf&cd=3&ved=0CCwQFjAC&usg=
AFQjCNHtVQS1Hks5cOLAsbINpt9Bul0xNA

Appendix 2. Example of Hortatory Exposition Essay

Trademark Copyrights Need to be Protected

The registration of a company's trademark copyright is still considered as having low importance by Indonesian citizens. In fact, if there is plagiarism of a company logo, entrepreneurs will be frantic when handling it because they do not have legal support. Therefore, copyright protection for trademarks is very much needed to avoid economic losses.

Basically, copyright is one of the human rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN International Covenants and is also a very important legal right that protects works (Ajie, 2008). It can be concluded that any work made by anyone should have a copyright.

Examples of trademark copyright infringement can be seen in the rampant cases of plagiarism that befell the Starbucks Coffee logo (in the form of a green circle with an image of a woman in the middle, surrounded by white writing) which is imitated by similar cafes around the world. Apparently, most people just want to create a logo instantly without considering the aesthetic aspect. In this case, graphic designers are required to be more creative in making work and not imitate an idea without reasoning.

If the trademark is legal, then companies that already have big names do not have to worry about having their work plagiarized. What needs to be considered is whether entrepreneurs value copyright ownership or not, especially trademarks that are already well-known certainly have high economic value.

For entrepreneurs who want to create a trademark, it is advisable to consult with a graphic designer who works as a brand consultant. This action can be taken to avoid plagiarism of logos from other companies. Seeing how important trademarks are for companies, entrepreneurs really need to register

their trademark copyrights related to the economic value of the business. In addition to registering the copyright, trademark creation must also be handled by professionals so that the resulting logo does not look merely ordinary and also as an effort to avoid graphic design plagiarism.

Reference:

Ajie, M. D. (2008). *Hak Cipta (Copyright): Konsep Dasar dan Fenomena yang Melatarbelakanginya*. Accessed from http://www.upi.edu/Direktori/FIP/PRODI._PERPUSTAKAAN_DAN_INFORMASI/MIYARSO_DWI_AJIE/Makalah_a.n_Miyarso_Dwiajie/Makalah-Intelectual_Property_Right_2008.pdf&cd=3&ved=0CC4QFjAC&usg=AFQjCNE5LZ-Kko5-A8MmD1z0b3vVr8PgEw

Appendix 3. Example of Discussion Essay

Two Sides of the National Examination

The implementation of the National Examination (*Ujian Nasional/UN*) is still a long debate in Indonesia. The examination, which is used as a benchmark for assessing education on a national scale, is often a nightmare for students. In addition, the implementation of the National Examination as a requirement for elementary and secondary school graduation often makes students mentally depressed.

Based on the Law on National Education System No. 20 of 2003, article 58, paragraph 1, it is stated that the students' learning outcomes need to be evaluated by educators with the main aim of monitoring the process, progress, and improvement of student learning outcomes on an ongoing basis. Other references regarding the National Examination are also presented in Article 35 paragraphs 1 and 3, as well as Article 58 paragraph 2 which explains that evaluations are carried out on students, educational units/institutions, and educational programs to monitor and/or assess the achievement of national education standards (content, process, competence of graduates, education staff, facilities and infrastructure, management, financing, and evaluation of education).

On the other hand, the implementation of the National Examination is often accompanied by negative news from the media, such as question leaks, cheating, and the increased stress level of students during the examination. The depiction of the National Examination is so gripping that the students are afraid to face the school graduation examination. Most students take extra lessons to pass the examination. Some students choose to do everything, such as cheating, to get a satisfactory score. This condition is upsetting the sustainability of the Indonesian education system.

According to Kusmana (2012), the format and system of the National Examination is indeed a good and ideal concept; however, in reality, the results of the students' National Examination are largely determined by how the teacher is able to thoroughly deliver the learning materials so that they are truly mastered and understood by the students. It can be concluded that the National Examination cannot be used as a benchmark for student graduation because apart from the exam, there are many other aspects that need to be assessed, such as affective and psychomotor aspects. In addition, it should be noted that although the National Examination is indeed important to measure the quality of education, it is more important to run the National Examination honestly.

Reference:

Kusmana, U. (2012). *Apa Pentingnya Ujian Nasional?* Accessed from <http://m.kompasiana.com/post/read/454276/2/apapentingnya-ujian-nasional.html>

Appendix 4. Example of an Explanatory Essay

The Impact of Industrial Waste on the Environment

The current development of the Indonesian industry brings light to the economy, but it also has a negative impact on the environment. Industrial development resulted in a lot of intensive resource exploitation and in the disposal of waste. If this is not handled quickly, the environment around the industrial area can be polluted.

Essentially, a good factory construction is accompanied by a building permit (*Izin Mendirikan Bangunan/IMB*) and an environmental impact analysis document (*Analisis Mengenai Dampak Lingkungan/Amdal*). If a building does not meet these two requirements, then the building is not feasible to build. But in practice, there are many violations committed by companies, such as the textile factory PT. Kahatex in East Bandung expanded land without having Amdal.

The construction of a textile factory that does not comply with regulations can have a negative impact on the surrounding environment. The impact can be in the form of floods, droughts, air pollution, and disease. The existence of industrial factories can also cause noise that can disturb the surrounding residents' lives. This situation is certainly worrisome for the people.

Although the textile industry is a reliable export commodity, it can cause serious problems for the environment, especially the problem of liquid waste which contains high organic matter, sometimes also heavy metals (Setiadi *et al*, 1999). Therefore, wastewater must be treated before leaving the factory.

As stated in the 1945 Constitution Article 28 H concerning the right to a clean and healthy environment, the people should be free from the dangers of waste caused by the construction of illegal factories.

In addition, the construction of factories must be accompanied by socialization with the residents. The socialization must certainly be accompanied by IMB and Amdal that have been approved by the government.

Based on the explanation, conclusions can be drawn about the dangers of waste generated by factories, especially textile factories. In addition to waste, the construction of a textile factory can also have an impact on the lives of local residents.

Reference:

Setiadi, dkk. (1999). *Pengolahan Limbah Cair Industri Tekstil yang Mengandung Zat Warna Azo Reaktif dengan Proses Gabungan Anaerob dan Aerob*. Accessed from <http://ppprodtk.fti.itb.ac.id/tjandra/wpcontent/uploads/2010/04/Publikasi-No20.pdf&cd=3&ved=0CDEQFjACusg=AFQjCNG4bkgEWaFDIpiBGVgGdeytdEDxDg>

Appendix 5. Bibliographic Annotations

Example 1

Sivadas, E. & Johnson, M. S. (2005). Knowledge Flows in Marketing: An Analysis of Journal Article References and Citations. *Marketing Theory Articles*, 5(4), 339-361. DOI: 10.1177/1470593105058817.

Departing from the concerns of experts on the quality of scientific work in the field of marketing, Sivadas and Johnson made a 23-page article that presents research results on the current movement of marketing science in eight journals related to marketing and consumers, including the *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Marketing Science*, *Journal of Advertising*, *Journal of Advertising Research*, *Journal of Retailing*, and *Industrial Marketing Management*. The movement of the marketing sciences can be seen by analyzing the pattern, number, and types of citations and references in these articles. Specifically, this article examines the issue of “cumulativeness” and knowledge transfer in marketing and non-marketing sciences. The results showed that citations and references, both from marketing and non-marketing sciences, had a significant influence on the movement of science in these journals.

This article was well and systematically written by both authors. Moreover, the theories that support the importance of making articles regarding the flow of marketing science in scientific work are presented in sufficient detail. Several hypotheses are also developed by the two authors so that the direction of their quantitative research is clear and focused. The results of statistical calculations are presented in a table which is also accompanied by adequate explanations.

Example 2

Culler, J. (1997). *Literary Theory: A Very Short Introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.

This book presents an explanation of important points related to literary theory in a concise and comprehensive manner. Culler begins this book by explaining the meaning of theory and its application in literature. Then, the nature, function, and scope of literature are described in the following chapters. It describes, for example, the relationship between literature and culture, rhetoric, narrative, performative language, and identity in literature. Many important figures in the field of literature are introduced in this book, along with the works and contributions made by these figures. Therefore, this book is not only filled with theory alone, but also history that is important to know.

As the title suggests, this book manages to provide a brief introduction to literary theories without omitting the main things that the readers must know. The writing technique in this book is very communicative because Culler uses words that are not too formal and considers the reader as a “friend”. The discussion is also presented in stages so that it is easy to understand, starting from the emergence of theory, the origins of literary theory, to various important ideas in literature. Another interesting fact is the inclusion of several cartoon illustrations and humorous captions in each chapter.

Appendix 6. Example of Book Review

Danesi, M. (2002). *Understanding Media Semiotics* (First Edition). London: Arnold.

In today's global era, the media has a very important role in human life. This can be seen from human lifestyle and behavior which is heavily influenced by the media, both consciously and unconsciously. *Understanding Media Semiotics* reviews this phenomenon from a semiotics point of view, where all the media discussed are classified as signifiers. Therefore, this book is appropriate to be used as a reference for media studies based on linguistics.

In the introduction chapter, Danesi explains that his book aims to show that semiotics can be applied in media studies. This book, which consists of nine chapters, begins with a brief explanation of the media and an explanation of the history of media development from time to time (Chapter 1). Chapter 2 presents a discussion of semiotic theories, including the background of the emergence of semiotics and an explanation of the object of analysis in media semiotics. Then Chapters 3-8 contain an explanation of each type of media along with a complete history of its development, namely print media, audio media, film, television, computers, and the internet, and advertisement. At the end of his book, Danesi also shares his views on the significant social impact of the media on human life (Chapter 9).

In addition to explaining the application of semiotics in media studies, through this book Danesi wants to refute the statement of a French semiotician, Roland Barthes, in 1950 regarding "pop culture" or popular culture which is the impact of the media. According to Barthes, "pop culture" is a major disturbance (usually from western culture) that aims to eliminate the traditional way of forming meaning (pp. 23 and 206). In the early 1960s,

Jean Baudrillard, who was also a French semiotician, added that the big disturbance brought by “pop culture” would make people “unaware” so they would get used to accepting the objects offered by the media (p. 33).

Danesi argues that Barthes and Baudrillard’s thoughts have given a bad image of semiotics. They have indirectly politicized the science of semiotics by looking at “pop culture” only from the negative side, without looking at the positive side which also has a good influence on people’s lives (p. 206). Danesi emphasizes that semiotics only focuses on studying human behavior based on signs brought by the media, not criticizing social or political systems (p. 34).

The book *Understanding Media Semiotics* by Marcel Danesi is really enjoyable to read because the explanation is clear and simple. The language used is light and easy to understand, because it uses familiar English words. Generally, Danesi gives examples of semiotic analysis from various well-known media such as films, TV shows, advertisements, and others. This makes it easier for readers to understand the explanation presented by Danesi because the examples of analysis are media that they already know. At the beginning of each chapter, there are inspirational quotes from various figures that are relevant to the discussion in that chapter, making this book even more interesting to read. This book is also completed with a glossary, bibliography, and index at the end of the book.

Although it is seemingly flawless, this book still lacks in terms of writing technique and content. The unfortunate thing from a technical point of view of writing this book is that not all sub-chapters are included in the table of contents, so it can be difficult for readers to find the desired subchapter page. In terms of content, Danesi only takes media examples along with semiotic analysis from western cultures such as America and Europe. He mentions countries other than the two continents only when describing the

history of the development of each media. In addition, Danesi only provides explanations in the form of narratives on media examples and their analysis, yet he does not include illustrations or pictures to clarify his analysis, such as in the example of Airoldi watch advertisement analysis (p. 25).

Compared to another book with a similar theme, *Bourdieu, Language, and the Media* (2010) by John F. Myles is considered to have more complete content because the types and impacts of media are explained in more detail and in-depth. Myles not only provides explanations in his book, he also conducts case studies that focus on media, communication, and culture using the sociological approach used by Bourdieu. This makes the discussion in his book more up-to-date because the content is more relevant to the role of the media which is correlated with communication and culture to the current condition of society. He also includes some pictures (e.g. snippets of pictures or writings from newspapers) from the results of his research, so that his research can be more reliable. However, both *Understanding Media Semiotics* and *Bourdieu, Language, and the Media* have the same goal, namely to investigate the impact of media on society.

Understanding Media Semiotics offers a complete and in-depth guide for readers in understanding and analyzing media using semiotic theory. It also contains several examples of media semiotics analysis which makes it easier for readers to understand the semiotic theory, especially in studying media. This is important to know because at this time the media occupies an important role in the order of human life so that humans are required to become more intelligent and critical in responding to messages distributed by the media. Therefore, this book is able to equip the readers to be better prepared to face the increasing and uncontrollable flow of media.

Reference:

Chandler, D. (2002). *Semiotics: The Basics*. London: Routledge.

Myles, J. F. (2010). *Bourdieu, Language, and the Media*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Appendix 7. Example of Article Review

Sagi, I. & Yechiam, E. (2008). Amusing Titles in Scientific Journals and Article Citation. *Journal of Information Science*, 34(5) 2008, 680-687. DOI: 10.1177/0165551507086261.

This article describes how the use of humor in scientific article titles is associated with the use of articles as sources or quotes. The study was based on the level of pleasure and enjoyment when reading the titles of articles published in the 1985-1994 period in the psychological journals *Psychological Bulletin* and *Psychological Review*. The author examines the relationship between the level of enjoyment of the article title and the number of citations that are sourced from certain scientific articles. The results showed that articles with pleasant titles were cited less.

In the introduction, the author describes the effect of humor in the context of academic writing which has been investigated in several experimental studies. For example, Bryant and his colleagues examined the effects of humorous illustrations in textbooks. The results of the study showed that illustrations that have an element of humor make the text more enjoyable to read. Other related research focuses on the amount of humor that appears in textbooks. From this study, it is concluded that the level of pleasure is positively associated with the amount of humor, but has a negative relationship with the credibility of the author. The researcher tries to study it further by examining the impact of a pleasant title in scientific work in the field of psychology in relation to article citations.

The author appointed eight psychology graduates (four women and four men) at Technion and Haifa University to evaluate the titles of scientific papers. Meanwhile, the materials used in this study consisted of 1,009 titles of scientific papers taken from the *Psychological Bulletin* and *Psychological*

Review (published in 1985-1994). The correspondents were asked to rate their level of pleasure on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 means “not at all pleasant” and 7 means “very pleasant”. Then the author analyzes the results of the assessment by relating it to the number of citations received by each scientific work.

Overall, this scientific article is well organized. However, the author does not explain the method used. The author only describes how the research was conducted without describing the method comprehensively. This can confuse the reader so that the reader guesses what method the researcher uses in his study. In addition, the absence of an explanation of the method makes this research less applicable for reduplication.

Appendix 8. Example of Title Page of *Skripsi*/Thesis/Dissertation

**MODEL PEMBELAJARAN BERBASIS MASALAH
BERBANTUAN *WEBSITE* PADA KONSEP FLUIDA STATIS
UNTUK MENINGKATKAN PENGUASAAN KONSEP DAN
KETERAMPILAN PROSES SAINS SISWA KELAS XI**

TESIS

diajukan untuk memenuhi sebagian syarat untuk memperoleh
gelar Magister Pendidikan IPA Konsentrasi Pendidikan Fisika
Sekolah Lanjutan



oleh

**Dede Trie Kurniawan
NIM 1004702**

**PROGRAM STUDI
PENDIDIKAN ILMU PENGETAHUAN ALAM
SEKOLAH PASCASARJANA
UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA
2012**

Appendix 9. Example of Approval Page of *Skripsi*

NURHOLIS KAMALUDIN

**STUDI KOMPARASI HASIL BELAJAR PESERTA DIDIK
PADA STANDAR KOMPETENSI MENGGAMBAR SKETSA
MELALUI PENERAPAN METODE PEMBELAJARAN
TUTOR SEBAYA DAN METODE KLASIKAL DI SALAH
SATU SMK NEGERI DI BANDUNG**

disetujui dan disahkan oleh pembimbing:

Pembimbing I

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Pembimbing II

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Mengetahui
Ketua Departemen

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Appendix 10. Example of Approval Page of Thesis

NAMA MAHASISWA
JUDUL TESIS

disetujui dan disahkan oleh pembimbing:

Pembimbing I

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Pembimbing II

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Mengetahui,
Ketua Departemen/Ketua Program Studi

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Appendix 11. Example of Approval Page of Dissertation

NAMA MAHASISWA
JUDUL DISERTASI

disetujui dan disahkan oleh panitia disertasi:

Promotor

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Kopromotor

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Anggota

ttd.
Nama
NIP

Mengetahui,
Ketua Departemen/Ketua Program Studi

ttd.
Nama
NIP