

A Publication Taxonomy

An Initial Guide to Academic Publishing Types, Inside and Beyond Academe

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Part 1 - Academic Publication and Document Types

Academic journal

An **academic journal** is a peer-reviewed periodical in which scholarship relating to a particular academic discipline is published. Academic journals serve as forums for the introduction and presentation for scrutiny of new research, and the critique of existing research. Content typically takes the form of articles presenting original research, review articles, and book reviews.

The term *academic journal* applies to scholarly publications in all fields; this article discusses the aspects common to all academic field journals. Scientific journals and journals of the quantitative social sciences vary in form and function from journals of the humanities and qualitative social sciences; their specific aspects are separately discussed.

Scholarly articles

There are two kinds of article or paper submissions in academia: solicited, where an individual has been invited to submit work either through direct contact or through a general submissions call, and unsolicited, where an individual submits a work for potential publication without directly being asked to do so. Upon receipt of a submitted article, editors at the journal determine whether to reject the submission outright or begin the process of peer review. In the latter case, the submission becomes subject to review by outside scholars of the editor's choosing who typically remain anonymous. The number of these peer reviewers (or "referees") varies according to each journal's editorial practice — typically, no fewer than two, though sometimes three or more, experts in the subject matter of the article produce reports upon the content, style, and other factors, which inform the editors' publication decisions. Though these reports are generally confidential, some journals and publishers also practice public peer review. The editors either choose to reject the article, ask for a revision and resubmission, or accept the article for publication. Even accepted articles are often subjected to further (sometimes considerable) editing by journal editorial staff before they appear in print. The peer review can take from several weeks to several months.

Reviewing

Review articles

Review articles, also called "reviews of progress," are checks on the research published in journals. Some journals are devoted entirely to review articles, others contain a few in each issue, but most do not publish review articles. Such reviews often cover the research from the preceding year, some for longer or shorter terms; some are devoted to specific topics, some to general surveys. Some journals are enumerative, listing all significant articles in a given subject, others are selective, including only what they think worthwhile. Yet others are evaluative, judging the state of progress in the subject field. Some journals are published in series, each covering a complete subject field year, or covering specific fields through several years. Unlike original research articles, review articles tend to be solicited submissions, sometimes planned years in advance. They are typically relied upon by students beginning a study in a given field, or for current awareness of those already in the field.

Book reviews

Book reviews of scholarly books are checks upon the research books published by scholars; unlike articles, book reviews tend to be solicited. Journals typically have a separate book review editor determining which new books to review and by whom. If an outside scholar accepts the book review editor's request for a book review, he or she generally receives a free copy of the book from the journal in exchange for a timely review. Publishers send books to book review editors in the hope that their books will be reviewed. The length and depth of research book reviews varies much from journal to journal, as does the extent of textbook and trade book review.

Prestige

An academic journal's prestige is established over time, and can reflect many factors, some but not all of which are expressible quantitatively. In each academic discipline there are dominant journals that receive the largest number of submissions, and therefore can be selective in choosing their content. Yet, not only the largest journals are of excellent quality.

Ranking

In the natural sciences and in the "hard" social sciences, the impact factor is a convenient proxy, measuring the number of later articles citing articles already published in the journal. There are other, possible quantitative factors, such as the overall number of citations, how quickly articles are cited, and the average "half-life" of articles. There also is the question of whether or not any quantitative factor can reflect true prestige; natural science journals are categorized and ranked in the Science Citation Index, social science journals in the Social Sciences Citation Index.

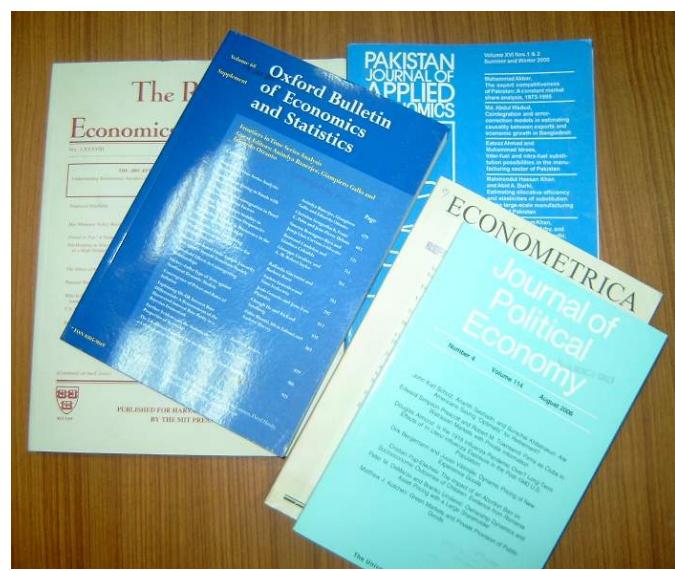
In the Anglo-American humanities, there is no tradition (as there is in the sciences) of giving impact-factors that could be used in establishing a journal's prestige. Recent moves have been made by the European Science Foundation to rectify the situation, resulting in the publication of preliminary lists for the ranking of academic journals in the Humanities.

In some disciplines such as Knowledge management/Intellectual capital the lack of a well-established journal ranking system is perceived as "a major obstacle on the way to tenure, promotion and achievement recognition".

The categorization of journal prestige in some subjects has been attempted, typically using letters to rank their academic world importance.

We can distinguish three categories of techniques to assess journal quality and develop journal rankings:

- stated preference;
- revealed preference; and
- publication power approaches



Different types of peer-reviewed research journals; these specific publications are about economics

Publishing

Many academic journals are subsidized by universities or professional organizations, and do not exist to make a profit; however they often accept advertising, page and image charges from authors to pay for production costs. On the other hand, some journals are produced by commercial publishers who do make a profit by charging subscriptions to individuals and libraries. They may also sell all of their journals in discipline-specific collections or a variety of other packages.

Journal editors tend to have other professional responsibilities, most often as teaching professors. In the case of the largest journals, there are paid staff assisting in the editing. The production of the journals is almost always done by publisher-paid staff. Humanities and social science academic journals are usually subsidized by universities or professional organization.

New developments

The Internet has revolutionized the production of, and access to, academic journals, with their contents available online via services subscribed to by academic libraries. Individual articles are subject-indexed in databases such as Google Scholar. Some of the smallest, most specialized journals are prepared in-house, by an academic department, and published only online—such form of publication has sometimes been in the blog format. Currently, there is a movement in higher education encouraging open access, either via self archiving, whereby the author deposits a paper in a disciplinary or institutional repository where it can be searched for and read, or via publishing it in a free open access journal, which does not charge for subscriptions, being either subsidized or financed by a publication fee. To date, open access has affected science journals more than humanities journals.^[citation needed] Commercial publishers are now experimenting with open access models, but are trying to protect their subscription revenues.

The open access movement has also raised concern that there may be an increase in publication of "junk" journals with lower publishing standards. These journals, often with similar names to well-established publications, solicit articles via e-mail and then charge the author for the ability to publish. A research librarian at the University of Colorado has compiled a list of what he considers to be "predatory" journals; the list numbered over 300 journals as of April 2013, but he estimates that there may be thousands. The OMICS Publishing Group, which publishes a number of the journals on this list, has threatened to sue the list's author.

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Further reading

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External links

- ERIH 'Initial' lists (<http://www.esf.org/research-areas/humanities/research-infrastructures-including-erih/erih-initial-lists.html>), European Science Foundation
- JournalSeek - A Searchable Database of Online Scholarly Journals (<http://journalseek.net/>)
- Master Journal List (<http://science.thomsonreuters.com/cgi-bin/jrnlst/jlresults.cgi?PC=MASTER>) (Thomson Reuters), a list of selected, and notable academic journals in the arts, humanities, sciences, and social sciences.
- Links to electronic journals (<http://www.e-journals.org>)
- JURN directory of Arts & Humanities ejournals (<http://www.jurn.org/directory/>)
- Academic Journals: What are They? (<http://jerz.setonhill.edu/writing/academic/sources/journals/index.html>) and Academic Journals Compared to Magazines (http://jerz.setonhill.edu/writing/academic/sources/journals/vs_magazines.htm). *Academic Writing*. Dennis G. Jerz. Seton Hill University. 2001-08-2001.
- Peer reviewed articles (<http://library.sdsu.edu/reference/research/peer-reviewed-articles>). San Diego State University.

Overlay journal

An **overlay journal** or **overlay ejournal** is a term for a specific type of open access academic journal, almost always an online electronic journal (ejournal). Such a journal does not produce its own content, but selects from texts that are already freely available online. While many overlay journals derive their content from preprint servers, others, such as the Lund Medical Faculty Monthly, contain mainly papers published by commercial publishers but with links to self archived pre- or post prints when possible.

The editors of such a journal locate suitable material from open access repositories and public domain sources, read it, and evaluate its worth. This evaluation may take the form of the judgement of a single editor or editors, or a full peer review process.

Public validation of subsequently approved texts may take several forms. At its most formal, the editor may republish the article with explicit approval. Approval might take the form of an addition to the text or its metadata. Or the editor may simply link to the article, via the table of contents of the overlay journal. An alternative approach is to link to articles already published in various open access ejournals, but adding value by grouping scattered articles together as a single themed issue of the overlay journal. Such themed issues allow the focussed coverage of relatively obscure or newly emerging topics.

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[2] <http://www.dlib.org/dlib/september07/09inbrief.html>

[3] <http://www.lmfm.med.lu.se/>

Anthology

An **anthology** is a collection of literary works chosen by the compiler. It may be a collection of poems, short stories, plays, songs, or excerpts. In genre fiction *anthology* is used to categorize collections of shorter works such as short stories and short novels, usually collected into a single volume for publication.

The complete collections of works are often called Complete Works or *Opera Omnia* (Latin language equivalent).

Etymology

The word entered the English language in the seventeenth century, from the Greek word, ἀνθολογία (*anthologia* "a collection of flowers"), a reference to one of the earliest known anthologies, the *Garland* (Στέφανος), the introduction to which compares each of its anthologized poets to a flower. That *Garland* by Meléagros of Gadara formed the kernel for what has become known as the Greek Anthology.

Florilegium, a Latin derivative for a collection of flowers, was used in medieval Europe for an anthology of Latin proverbs and textual excerpts. Shortly before anthology had entered the language, English had begun using "miscellany" as a word for such a collection.

Media

The term is also applied to radio or TV programs, movies, comic books and other such media featuring a variety of different stories. Examples of radio anthologies are *Suspense* and *Escape*. Examples of TV anthologies are *The X-Files*, *Alfred Hitchcock Presents*, *The Twilight Zone*, *The Outer Limits*, *American Horror Story*, *Tales from the Darkside*, *Producers' Showcase*, the Disney anthology television series, *Hallmark Hall of Fame*, *Ford Star Jubilee*, *The Alcoa Hour*, *Playhouse 90*, and *Tales from the Crypt*, which was not only an HBO series but also a movie anthology, both based on the EC horror-comic anthology. Other examples of anthology films are *Four Rooms*, *Tales of Manhattan*, *Flesh and Fantasy*, and *The Cat o' Nine Tails*. In books, the most recent popular anthologies are *Orson Scott Card's InterGalactic Medicine Show* (2008) and George R.R. Martin's *Dangerous Women* (2013).

Traditional

In East Asian tradition, an anthology was a recognised form of compilation of a given poetic form. It was assumed that there was a cyclic development: any particular form, say the *tanka* in Japan, would be introduced at one point in history, be explored by masters during a subsequent time, and finally be subject to popularisation (and a certain dilution) when it achieved widespread recognition. In this model, which derives from Chinese tradition, the object of compiling an anthology was to preserve the best of a form, and cull the rest.

In Malaysia, an anthology (or *antologi* in Malay) is a collection of *syair*, *sajak* (or modern prose), proses, drama scripts, and pantuns. Notable anthologies that are used in secondary schools include *Sehjau Warna Daun*, *Seuntai*

Kata Untuk Dirasa, Anak Bumi Tercinta, Anak Laut and Kerusi.

Twentieth century

In the twentieth century, anthologies became an important part of poetry publishing for a number of reasons. For English poetry, the Georgian poetry series was trend-setting; it showed the potential success of publishing an identifiable group of younger poets marked out as a 'generation'. It was followed by numerous collections from the 'stable' of some literary editor, or collated from a given publication, or labelled in some fashion as 'poems of the year'. Academic publishing also followed suit, with the success of the Quiller-Couch Oxford Book of English Verse encouraging other collections not limited to modern poetry. In fact the concept of 'modern verse' was fostered by the appearance of the phrase in titles such as the Faber & Faber anthology by Michael Roberts,^[1] and the very different William Butler Yeats Oxford Book of Modern Verse.^[2]

Since publishers generally found anthology publication a more flexible medium than the collection of a single poet's work, and indeed rang innumerable changes on the idea as a way of marketing poetry, publication in an anthology (in the right company) became at times a sought-after form of recognition for poets. The self-definition of movements, dating back at least to Ezra Pound's efforts on behalf of Imagism, could be linked on one front to the production of an anthology of the like-minded. Also, whilst not connected with poetry, publishers have produced collective works of fiction from a number of authors and used the term anthology to describe the collective nature of the text. These have been in a number of subjects, including Erotica as edited by Mitzi Szereto as well as American Gothic Tales edited by Joyce Carol Oates.

More recently, anthologies have appeared on the Internet, making a collection of works easily accessible.

Omnibus

A book comprising previously published, related works is often called an *omnibus edition* of those works, or simply an omnibus. Commonly two or more components have been previously published as books but a collection of shorter works, or shorter works collected with one previous book, may be an omnibus. One important class is works by one author.

- *The Omnibus Jules Verne (4-Books-In-1: Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea, Around the World in Eighty Days, The Blockade Runners, From the Earth to the Moon and a Trip Around It)*. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott & Co.^[3]
- *The Sherlock Holmes illustrated omnibus : a facsimile ed. of all Arthur Conan Doyle's Sherlock Holmes stories*, illustrated by Sidney Paget, as they originally appeared in the Strand magazine. London: John Murray. 1978.^[4]
- *Agatha Christie 1920s Omnibus*, *Agatha Christie 1930s Omnibus*, and so on to the *1960s Omnibus*, are five omnibus editions of those novels by Agatha Christie that were originally published in one decade.^[5]
 - The Marvel Comic Omnibus editions have led to a new and different plural for the word Omnibus. Marvel declared: "the format has become so popular that we've adopted the word "Omniboo" to describe multiple volumes from this line"

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- [2] Fantastic Fiction - Oxford Book of Modern Verse (<http://www.fantasticfiction.co.uk/y/w-b-yeats/oxford-book-of-modern-verse.htm/>)
- [3] *The Omnibus Jules Verne* (Amazon.com listing) (<http://www.amazon.com/Omnibus-Jules-Verne-4-Books-1/dp/B000JCVJZE>). Retrieved 2011-11-02.
- [4] *The Sherlock Holmes illustrated omnibus* (Harvard University online catalog listing) (http://lms01.harvard.edu/F/4THEI9VA76P8B59XYTYRFASYNQLYM9I65VKBXBD641FXAJIBE-02612?func=find-b&fndsmode=1&local_base=pub&find_code=WRD&request=sherlock+holmes+omnibus&pds_handle=GUEST). Retrieved 2011-11-02.
- [5] Agatha Christie: Omnibus Edition (<http://agathachristie.com/shop/books/omnibus/>). *agathachristie.com*. Retrieved 2011-10-02.

Poster session

A **poster session** or **poster presentation** is the presentation of research information by an individual or representatives of research teams at a congress or conference with an academic or professional focus. The work is usually peer reviewed. Poster sessions are particularly prominent at scientific conferences such as medical congresses.^{[1][2]}

Typically a separate room or area of a tradeshow floor is reserved for the poster session where researchers accompany a paper poster, illustrating their research methods and outcomes. Each research project is usually presented on a conference schedule for a period ranging from 10 minutes to several hours. Very large events may feature a few thousand poster presentations over a matter of a few days.^[3]

Presentations usually consist of affixing the research poster to a portable wall with the researcher in attendance answering questions posed by passing colleagues. The poster itself varies in size according to conference guidelines from 2x3 feet to 4x8 feet in dimensions.^[4] Posters are often created using a presentation program such as PowerPoint and may be printed on a large format printer. Posters are often laminated with plastic to improve durability.



A poster session at the EPFL



A poster session at the CNIT

References

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- [2] Department of Biology, George Mason University, *A Guide to Writing in the Biological Sciences*, The Poster Session. (<http://classweb.gmu.edu/biologyresources/writingguide/Poster.htm>)
- [3] See, for example, the 4th Annual International Open Repositories Conference, May 2009, Poster Presentations. (<https://or09.library.gatech.edu/poster.php>)
- [4] American Society of Primatologists, Expanded guidelines for Giving a Poster Presentation. (http://www.asp.org/education/howto_onPosters.html)

External links

- Creating Effective Poster Presentations, North Carolina State University (<http://www.ncsu.edu/project/posters/>)

Proceedings

In academia, **proceedings** are the collection of academic papers published in the context of an academic conference. They are usually distributed as printed volumes or in electronic form either before the conference opens or after it has closed. Proceedings contain the contributions made by researchers at the conference. They are the written record of the work that is presented to fellow researchers. They may be considered as grey literature.

The collection of papers is organized by one or more persons, who form the *editorial team*. The quality of the papers is typically ensured by having external people read the papers before they are accepted in the proceedings. This process is called reviewing. Depending on the level of the conference, this process including making revisions can take up to a year. The editors decide about the composition of the proceedings, the order of the papers, and produce the preface and possibly other pieces of text. Although most changes in papers occur on basis of consensus between editors and authors, editors can also single-handedly make changes in papers.

Since the collection of papers comes from individual researchers, the character of proceedings is distinctly different from a textbook. Each paper typically is quite isolated from the other papers in the proceedings. Mostly there is no general argument leading from one contribution to the next. In some cases, the set of contributions is so coherent and high-quality that the editors of the proceedings may decide to further develop the proceedings into a textbook. This may even be a goal at the outset of the conference.

Proceedings are published in-house by the organizing institution of the conference or via an academic publisher. For example, the *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* by Springer take much of their input from proceedings. Increasingly, proceedings are published in electronic format via the internet or on CD.

In the sciences, the quality of publications in conference proceedings is usually not as high as that of international scientific journals. However, a number of full-fledged academic journals unconnected to particular conferences also use the word "proceedings" as part of their name, for example, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*.

Festschrift

In academia, a **Festschrift** (German pronunciation: ['fɛstʃrif̩t]; plural, *Festschriften*, ['fɛstʃrif̩tən] or *Festschriften*), is a book honoring a respected person, especially an academic, and presented during his or her lifetime. The term, borrowed from German, could be translated as *celebration publication* or *celebratory (piece of) writing*. A comparable book presented posthumously is called a *Gedenkschrift* (*memorial publication*). Sometimes, the Latin term "*liber amicorum*" (literally: "book of friends") is used for a Festschrift. The German word *Festschrift* has been incorporated into the English language, so its plural may be either "Festschriften" or "Festschriffts".

Background

A Festschrift contains original contributions by the honored academic's close colleagues, often including his or her former doctoral students. It is typically published on the occasion of the honoree's retirement, sixtieth or sixty-fifth birthday, or other notable career anniversary. A Festschrift can be anything from a slim volume to a work in several volumes. *Aufstieg und Niedergang der römischen Welt*, for example, began in 1972 as a Festschrift to commemorate the 75th birthday of Joseph Vogt, a German classical historian. Four volumes were planned, but it has since reached 89 volumes (including several which were planned for the next years, but put on hold in 1998). The essays usually relate in some way to, or reflect upon, the honoree's contributions to their scholarly field, but can include important original research by the authors. Many Festschriften also feature a *tabula gratulatoria*, an extended list of academic colleagues and friends who send their best wishes to the honoree.

In the case of very prominent academics, several Festschriften might be prepared by various groups of students and colleagues, particularly if the scholar made significant contributions to several different fields.

In Germany it is an honor to be designated to prepare such a collection, and being selected by a prominent academic to edit a Festschrift can symbolize the proverbial passing of the torch.

Endel Tulving, a Canadian neuroscientist, proposed that "a Festschrift frequently enough also serves as a convenient place in which those who are invited to contribute find a permanent resting place for their otherwise unpublizable or at least difficult-to-publish papers."

The word has become widely used internationally. Since no English term for such a book had been in use, the German word *Festschrift* has been incorporated into the English language and typically is used without the italics that designate a foreign term, although the capitalization of the first letter is retained from German. Its plural may be either "Festschriften" or "Festschriffts". Festschriften are often titled something like *Essays in Honour of...* or *Essays Presented to...*

A Festschrift compiled and published by electronic means on the internet is called a **Webfestschrift** (pronounced either [vɛp-] or [wɛb-]), a term coined by the editors of the late Boris Marshak's Webfestschrift, *Eran ud Aneran*,^[1] published online in October 2003.

Unusual Festschriften and feats concerning Festschriften

- Jagdish Bhagwati has been honored with six Festschriften, an extraordinary number. Three were presented in the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States, the latter two on Bhagwati's 60th birthday and the former during a scientific conference held at Rotterdam at the time of the award of an honorary degree. On Bhagwati's 70th Birthday, two Festschrift conferences were organized. The sixth and final Festschrift was organized on 5 August 2005.
- James D. McCawley Two Festschriften, the earlier one (1972) subtitled *Defamatory essays presented to James D. McCawley on his 33rd or 34th birthday* and anthologizing pseudonymous articles. Some are by McCawley himself, notably the opening paper. The Festschrift was reprinted two decades later.

- Musicologist Egon Voss's Festschrift would already be worthy of note just for being presented on his fortieth birthday (most being for 65th or later birthdays). What makes it especially stand out is the content: a set of articles by eminent scholars discussing a fictional composer Otto Jägermeier—a joke carried to a high extreme.^[2]

Festschriften for nonacademics

- Though Isaac Asimov was best known for his long and illustrious career as a science fiction author, his writing came second to his academic career early in his life. In 1989, a number of his colleagues assembled an anthology which they called a festschrift to honor the scientific contribution Asimov had made *through* his fiction, such as the many scientific terms he had coined. The anthology, entitled *Foundation's Friends*, included tributes to Thiotimoline, a fictional substance Asimov wrote about during his Ph.D. studies, as well as many tributes to robotics, a term coined by Asimov in the 1941 short story *Liar!*
- Irving Kristol, an American intellectual and founder of *The Public Interest*, was honored on his 75th birthday in 1995 with *The Neoconservative Imagination* (AEI Press), edited by Christopher DeMuth and Kristol's son, William Kristol, editor and publisher of *The Weekly Standard* (ISBN 0844738999)
- Charles Williams – *Essays Presented to Charles Williams* was already planned by its editor (and fellow Inklings member), C. S. Lewis when Williams unexpectedly died in 1945. Long in print, the book contains essays by Lewis himself ("On Stories"), J. R. R. Tolkien ("On Fairy-Stories"), Dorothy Sayers on Dante, and essays by Gervase Mathew, Owen Barfield and Warren Lewis.

Festschriften for academics

- Bernard Bailyn, in the *Transformation of Early American History: Society, Authority, and Ideology*, edited by James A. Henretta, Michael Kammen and Stanley N. Katz. As Bailyn approached his 70th birthday, several former graduate students of his—including Gordon S. Wood, Jack N. Rakove, Kammen, Pauline Maier, and Mary Beth Norton—published this compilation of essays, some of which originally presented at a conference honoring the famous Harvard historian and educator. The book is subtitled: "How the writings and influence of Bernard Bailyn have changed our understanding of the American past."^[3]

References

- Information on how they "coined the term *Webfestschrift*" is found in the Introduction to the Electronic Version (<http://www.transoxiana.org/Eran/introduction.html>).
- Book form:
 - [2] Fallows, David, "Spoof Articles," in the *Grove Dictionary of Music and Musicians*, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.
 - [3] The Transformation of Early American History (New York: Knopf, 1991)

External links

- LNCS Festschrifths (<http://www.springer.com/computer/lncs?SGWID=0-164-12-73275-0>) – a list of festschrifths published in honor of famous computer scientists

Course reader

A **course reader** is a publication type used for teaching in universities and academe. A course reader is made up of a collection of existing texts, course slides and notes etc. Common forms of course readers include; photocopy packs or PDF documents.

Course readers require copyright clearance.^[1]

References

[1] <http://copytech.mit.edu/course-readers-copyright-clearance>

Essay

An **essay** is generally a short piece of writing written from an author's personal point of view, but the definition is vague, overlapping with those of an article, a pamphlet and a short story.

Essays can consist of a number of elements, including: literary criticism, political manifestos, learned arguments, observations of daily life, recollections, and reflections of the author. Almost all modern essays are written in prose, but works in verse have been dubbed essays (e.g. Alexander Pope's *An Essay on Criticism* and *An Essay on Man*). While brevity usually defines an essay, voluminous works like John Locke's *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* and Thomas Malthus's *An Essay on the Principle of Population* are counterexamples. In some countries (e.g., the United States and Canada), essays have become a major part of formal education. Secondary students are taught structured essay formats to improve their writing skills, and admission essays are often used by universities in selecting applicants and, in the humanities and social sciences, as a way of assessing the performance of students during final exams.

The concept of an "essay" has been extended to other mediums beyond writing. A film essay is a movie that often incorporates documentary film making styles and which focuses more on the evolution of a theme or an idea. A photographic essay is an attempt to cover a topic with a linked series of photographs; it may or may not have an accompanying text or captions.



Essays of Michel de Montaigne

Definitions

An essay has been defined in a variety of ways. One definition is a "prose composition with a focused subject of discussion" or a "long, systematic discourse".^[1] It is difficult to define the genre into which essays fall. Aldous Huxley, a leading essayist, gives guidance on the subject.^[2] He notes that "the essay is a literary device for saying almost everything about almost anything", and adds that "by tradition, almost by definition, the essay is a short piece". Furthermore, Huxley argues that "essays belong to a literary species whose extreme variability can be studied most effectively within a three-poled frame of reference". These three poles (or worlds in which the essay may exist) are:

- The personal and the autobiographical: The essayists that feel most comfortable in this pole "write fragments of reflective autobiography and look at the world through the keyhole of anecdote and description".
- The objective, the factual, and the concrete-particular: The essayists that write from this pole "do not speak directly of themselves, but turn their attention outward to some literary or scientific or political theme. Their art consists on setting forth, passing judgement upon, and drawing general conclusions from the relevant data".
- The abstract-universal: In this pole "we find those essayists who do their work in the world of high abstractions", who are never personal and who seldom mention the particular facts of experience.

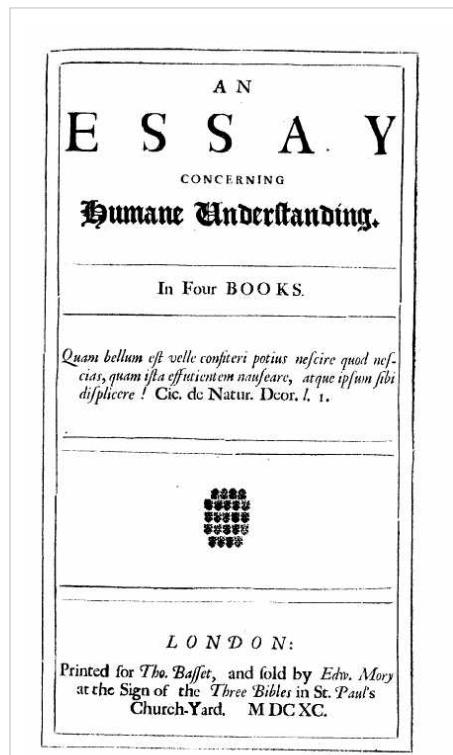
Huxley adds that "the most richly satisfying essays are those which make the best not of one, not of two, but of all the three worlds in which it is possible for the essay to exist".

The word *essay* derives from the French infinitive *essayer*, "to try" or "to attempt". In English *essay* first meant "a trial" or "an attempt", and this is still an alternative meaning. The Frenchman Michel de Montaigne (1533–1592) was the first author to describe his work as essays; he used the term to characterize these as "attempts" to put his thoughts into writing, and his essays grew out of his commonplacings. Inspired in particular by the works of Plutarch, a translation of whose *Oeuvres Morales* (*Moral works*) into French had just been published by Jacques Amyot, Montaigne began to compose his essays in 1572; the first edition, entitled *Essais*, was published in two volumes in 1580. For the rest of his life he continued revising previously published essays and composing new ones. Francis Bacon's essays, published in book form in 1597, 1612, and 1625, were the first works in English that described themselves as *essays*. Ben Jonson first used the word *essayist* in English in 1609, according to the *Oxford English Dictionary*.

History

Europe

English essayists included Robert Burton (1577–1641) and Sir Thomas Browne (1605–1682). In France, Michel de Montaigne's three volume *Essais* in the mid 1500s contain over 100 examples widely regarded as the predecessor of the modern essay. In Italy, Baldassare Castiglione wrote about courtly manners in his essay *Il libro del cortegiano*. In the 17th century, the Jesuit Baltasar Gracián wrote about the theme of wisdom.^[3] During the Age of Enlightenment, essays were a favored tool of polemicists who aimed at convincing readers of their position; they also featured heavily in the rise of periodical literature, as seen in the works of Joseph Addison, Richard Steele and



John Locke's 1690 *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*.

Samuel Johnson. In the 18th and 19th centuries, Edmund Burke and Samuel Taylor Coleridge wrote essays for the general public. The early 19th century in particular saw a proliferation of great essayists in English – William Hazlitt, Charles Lamb, Leigh Hunt and Thomas de Quincey all penned numerous essays on diverse subjects. In the 20th century, a number of essayists tried to explain the new movements in art and culture by using essays (e.g., T.S. Eliot). Whereas some essayists used essays for strident political themes, Robert Louis Stevenson and Willa Cather wrote lighter essays. Virginia Woolf, Edmund Wilson, and Charles du Bos wrote literary criticism essays.

Japan

As with the novel, essays existed in Japan several centuries before they developed in Europe, with a genre of essays known as *zuihitsu* – loosely connected essays and fragmented ideas – having existed since almost the beginnings of Japanese literature. Many of the most noted early works of Japanese literature are in this genre. Notable examples include *The Pillow Book* (c. 1000) by court lady Sei Shōnagon, and *Tsurezuregusa* (1330) by Japanese Buddhist monk Yoshida Kenkō being particularly renowned. Kenkō described his short writings similarly to Montaigne, referring to them as "nonsensical thoughts" written in "idle hours". Another noteworthy difference from Europe is that women have traditionally written in Japan, though the more formal, Chinese-influenced writings of male writers were more prized at the time.

As an educational tool

In countries like the United States, essays have become a major part of a formal education in the form of free response questions. Secondary students in these countries are taught structured essay formats to improve their writing skills, and essays are often used by universities in these countries in selecting applicants (see admissions essay). In both secondary and tertiary education, essays are used to judge the mastery and comprehension of material. Students are asked to explain, comment on, or assess a topic of study in the form of an essay. During some courses, university students will often be required to complete one or more essays that are prepared over several weeks or months. In addition, in fields such as the humanities and social sciences,^[citation needed] mid-term and end of term examinations often require students to write a short essay in two or three hours.

In these countries, so-called academic essays, which may also be called "papers", are usually more formal than literary ones.^[citation needed] They may still allow the presentation of the writer's own views, but this is done in a logical and factual manner, with the use of the first person often discouraged. Longer academic essays (often with a word limit of between 2,000 and 5,000 words)^[citation needed] are often more discursive. They sometimes begin with a short summary analysis of what has previously been written on a topic, which is often called a literature review.^[citation needed]

Longer essays may also contain an introductory page in which words and phrases from the title are tightly defined. Most academic institutions^[citation needed] will require that all substantial facts, quotations, and other porting material used in an essay be referenced in a bibliography or works cited page at the end of the text. This scholarly convention allows others (whether teachers or fellow scholars) to understand the basis of the facts and quotations used to support the essay's argument, and thereby help to evaluate to what extent the argument is supported by evidence, and to evaluate the quality of that evidence. The academic essay tests the student's ability to present their thoughts in an



University students, like these students doing research at a university library, are often assigned essays as a way to get them to analyse what they have read.

organized way and is designed to test their intellectual capabilities.

One essay guide of a US university makes the distinction between research papers and discussion papers. The guide states that a "research paper is intended to uncover a wide variety of sources on a given topic". As such, research papers "tend to be longer and more inclusive in their scope and with the amount of information they deal with." While discussion papers "also include research, ...they tend to be shorter and more selective in their approach...and more analytical and critical". Whereas a research paper would typically quote "a wide variety of sources", a discussion paper aims to integrate the material in a broader fashion.^[4]

One of the challenges facing US universities is that in some cases, students may submit essays which have been purchased from an essay mill (or "paper mill") as their own work. An "essay mill" is a ghostwriting service that sells pre-written essays to university and college students. Since plagiarism is a form of academic dishonesty or academic fraud, universities and colleges may investigate papers suspected to be from an essay mill by using Internet plagiarism detection software, which compares essays against a database of known mill essays and by orally testing students on the contents of their papers.^[citation needed]

Forms and styles

This section describes the different forms and styles of essay writing. These forms and styles are used by a range of authors, including university students and professional essayists.

Cause and effect

The defining features of a "cause and effect" essay are causal chains that connect from a cause to an effect, careful language, and chronological or emphatic order. A writer using this rhetorical method must consider the subject, determine the purpose, consider the audience, think critically about different causes or consequences, consider a thesis statement, arrange the parts, consider the language, and decide on a conclusion.^[5]

Classification and division

Classification is the categorization of objects into a larger whole while division is the breaking of a larger whole into smaller parts.^[6]

Compare and contrast

Compare and contrast essays are characterized by a basis for comparison, points of comparison, and analogies. It is grouped by object (chunking) or by point (sequential). Comparison highlights the similarities between two or more similar objects while contrasting highlights the differences between two or more objects. When writing a compare/contrast essay, writers need to determine their purpose, consider their audience, consider the basis and points of comparison, consider their thesis statement, arrange and develop the comparison, and reach a conclusion. Compare and contrast is arranged emphatically.^[7]

Descriptive

Descriptive writing is characterized by sensory details, which appeal to the physical senses, and details that appeal to a reader's emotional, physical, or intellectual sensibilities. Determining the purpose, considering the audience, creating a dominant impression, using descriptive language, and organizing the description are the rhetorical choices to be considered when using a description. A description is usually arranged spatially but can also be chronological or emphatic. The focus of a description is the scene. Description uses tools such as denotative language, connotative language, figurative language, metaphor, and simile to arrive at a dominant impression.^[8] One university essay guide states that "descriptive writing says what happened or what another author has discussed; it provides an account of the topic".^[9] Lyric essays are an important form of descriptive essays.

Dialectic

In the dialectic form of essay, which is commonly used in Philosophy, the writer makes a thesis and argument, then objects to their own argument (with a counterargument), but then counters the counterargument with a final and novel argument. This form benefits from presenting a broader perspective while countering a possible flaw that some may present.^[10]

Exemplification

An exemplification essay is characterized by a generalization and relevant, representative, and believable examples including anecdotes. Writers need to consider their subject, determine their purpose, consider their audience, decide on specific examples, and arrange all the parts together when writing an exemplification essay.^[11]

Familiar

A familiar essay is one in which the essayist speaks as if to a single reader. He speaks about both himself and a particular subject. Anne Fadiman notes that "the genre's heyday was the early nineteenth century," and that its greatest exponent was Charles Lamb. She also suggests that while critical essays have more brain than heart, and personal essays have more heart than brain, familiar essays have equal measures of both.^[12]

History (thesis)

A history essay, sometimes referred to as a thesis essay, will describe an argument or claim about one or more historical events and will support that claim with evidence, arguments and references. The text makes it clear to the reader why the argument or claim is as such.^[13]

Narrative

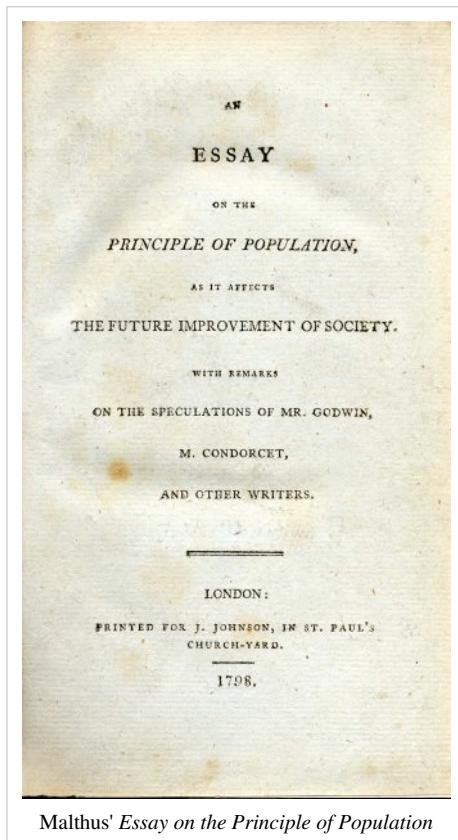
A narrative uses tools such as flashbacks, flash-forwards, and transitions that often build to a climax. The focus of a narrative is the plot. When creating a narrative, authors must determine their purpose, consider their audience, establish their point of view, use dialogue, and organize the narrative. A narrative is usually arranged chronologically.^[14]

Critical

A critical essay is an argumentative piece of writing, aimed at presenting objective analysis of the subject matter, narrowed down to a single topic. The main idea of all the criticism is to provide an opinion either of positive or negative implication. As such, a critical essay requires research and analysis, strong internal logic and sharp structure. Each argument should be supported with sufficient evidence, relevant to the point.

Economics

An economic essay can start with a thesis, or it can start with a theme. It can take a narrative course and a descriptive course. It can even become an argumentative essay if the author feels the need. After the introduction the author has to do his/her best to expose the economic matter at hand, to analyse it, evaluate it, and draw a conclusion. If the essay takes more of a narrative form then the author has to expose each aspect of the economic puzzle in a way that



Malthus' *Essay on the Principle of Population*

makes it clear and understandable for the reader

Other logical structures

The logical progression and organizational structure of an essay can take many forms. Understanding how the movement of thought is managed through an essay has a profound impact on its overall cogency and ability to impress. A number of alternative logical structures for essays have been visualized as diagrams, making them easy to implement or adapt in the construction of an argument.

Magazine or newspaper

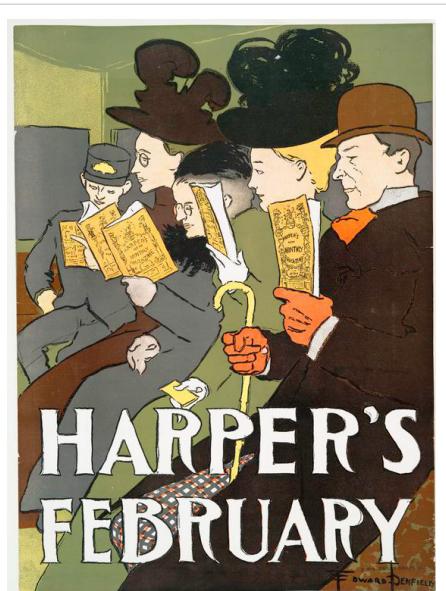
Essays often appear in magazines, especially magazines with an intellectual bent, such as *The Atlantic* and *Harpers*. Magazine and newspaper essays use many of the essay types described in the section on forms and styles (e.g., descriptive essays, narrative essays, etc.). Some newspapers also print essays in the op-ed section.

Employment

Employment essays detailing experience in a certain occupational field are required when applying for some jobs, especially government jobs in the United States. Essays known as Knowledge Skills and Executive Core Qualifications are required when applying to certain US federal government positions.

A KSA, or "Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities," is a series of narrative statements that are required when applying to Federal government job openings in the United States. KSAs are used along with resumes to determine who the best applicants are when several candidates qualify for a job. The knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for the successful performance of a position are contained on each job vacancy announcement. KSAs are brief and focused essays about one's career and educational background that presumably qualify one to perform the duties of the position being applied for.

An Executive Core Qualification, or ECQ, is a narrative statement that is required when applying to Senior Executive Service positions within the US Federal government. Like the KSAs, ECQs are used along with resumes to determine who the best applicants are when several candidates qualify for a job. The Office of Personnel Management has established five executive core qualifications that all applicants seeking to enter the Senior Executive Service must demonstrate.



An 1895 cover of *Harpers*, a US magazine that prints a number of essays per issue.

Non-literary types

Visual Arts

In the visual arts, an essay is a preliminary drawing or sketch upon which a final painting or sculpture is based, made as a test of the work's composition (this meaning of the term, like several of those following, comes from the word *essay*'s meaning of "attempt" or "trial").

Music

In the realm of music, composer Samuel Barber wrote a set of "Essays for Orchestra," relying on the form and content of the music to guide the listener's ear, rather than any extra-musical plot or story.

Film

A film essay (or "cinematic essay") consists of the evolution of a theme or an idea rather than a plot per se; or the film literally being a cinematic accompaniment to a narrator reading an essay. From another perspective, an essay film could be defined as a documentary film visual basis combined with a form of commentary that contains elements of self-portrait (rather than autobiography), where the signature (rather than the life story) of the filmmaker is apparent. The cinematic essay often blends documentary, fiction, and experimental film making using a tones and editing styles.^[15]

The genre is not well-defined but might include propaganda works of early Soviet parliamentarians like Dziga Vertov, present-day filmmakers including Chris Marker,^[16] Michael Moore (*Roger & Me* (1989), *Bowling for Columbine* (2002) and *Fahrenheit 9/11* (2004)), Errol Morris (*The Thin Blue Line* (1988)), Morgan Spurlock (*Supersize Me: A Film of Epic Proportions*) and Agnès Varda. Jean-Luc Godard describes his recent work as "film-essays".^[17] Two filmmakers whose work was the antecedent to the cinematic essay include Georges Méliès and Bertolt Brecht. Méliès made a short film (*The Coronation of Edward VII* (1902)) about the 1902 coronation of King Edward VII, which mixes actual footage with shots of a recreation of the event. Brecht was a playwright who experimented with film and incorporated film projections into some of his plays. Orson Welles made an essay film in his own pioneering style which was released in 1974 called *F for Fake*, which dealt specifically with art forger Elmyr de Hory and with the themes of deception, "fakery," and authenticity in general.

David Winks Gray's article "The essay film in action" states that the "essay film became an identifiable form of film making in the 1950s and '60s". He states that since that time, essay films have tended to be "on the margins" of the film making world. Essay films have a "peculiar searching, questioning tone" which is "between documentary and fiction" but without "fitting comfortably" into either genre. Gray notes that just like written essays, essay films "tend to marry the personal voice of a guiding narrator (often the director) with a wide swath of other voices".^[18] The University of Wisconsin Cinematheque website echoes some of Gray's comments; it calls a film essay an "intimate and allusive" genre that "catches filmmakers in a pensive mood, ruminating on the margins between fiction and documentary" in a manner that is "refreshingly inventive, playful, and idiosyncratic".^[19]

Photography

A photographic essay is an attempt to cover a topic with a linked series of photographs. Photo essays range from purely photographic works to photographs with captions or small notes to full text essays with a few or many accompanying photographs. Photo essays can be sequential in nature, intended to be viewed in a particular order, or they may consist of non-ordered photographs which may be viewed all at once or in an order chosen by the viewer. All photo essays are collections of photographs, but not all collections of photographs are photo essays. Photo essays often address a certain issue or attempt to capture the character of places and events.



"After School Play Interrupted by the Catch and Release of a Stingray" is a simple time-sequence photo essay.

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External links

- Essay eTexts (<http://www.gutenberg.org/catalog/world/results?title=essay>) at Project Gutenberg
- The Dialectical Essay: A detailed writing guide (http://itw.sewanee.edu/essay/dialectic_writing_guide.htm) – Sewanee University
- In Praise of the Undergraduate Essay (<https://humanexperience.stanford.edu/edelsteinessay>) by Dan Edelstein, Stanford University
- The Age of the Essay (<http://www.paulgraham.com/essay.html>) – Criticism of the modern essay, by Paul Graham
- How to Say Nothing in 500 Words (https://web.archive.org/web/20071027055856/http://www3.baylor.edu/~Jesse_Airaudi/nothingwords.html) at the Wayback Machine (archived October 27, 2007)
- The 10 Most Controversial Essay Topics of 2013 (<http://www.grammarcheck.net/the-10-most-controversial-essay-topics-of-2013/>), Jennifer Frost

Gloss (annotation)

A **gloss** (from Latin: *glossa*, from Greek: γλῶσσα *glóssa* "language") is a brief marginal notation of the meaning of a word or wording in a text. It may be in the language of the text, or in the reader's language if that is different.

A collection of glosses is a *glossary*. A collection of medieval legal glosses, made by so-called *glossators*, is called an *apparatus*. The compilation of glosses into glossaries was the beginning of lexicography, and the glossaries so compiled were in fact the first dictionaries. In modern times a glossary, as opposed to a dictionary, is typically found in a text as an appendix of specialized terms that the typical reader may find unfamiliar. Also, satirical explanations of words and events are called *glosses*. The German Romantic movement used the expression of *gloss* for poems commenting on a given other piece of poetry, often in the Spanish *Décima* style.

Glosses were originally notes made in the margin or between the lines of a text in a Classical language, in which the meaning of a word or passage is explained. As such, glosses vary in thoroughness and complexity, from simple marginal notations of words one reader found difficult or obscure, to interlinear translations of a text with cross references to similar passages.

Etymology

The word 'gloss' was first used in the 1570s to refer to the insertion of a word as an explanation. It began to be used to mean to "explain away" in the 1630s, and originated from the concept of a note being inserted in the margin of a text to explain a difficult word.

In theology

Glosses and other marginal notes were a primary format used in medieval Biblical theology, and were studied and memorized for their own merit. Many Biblical passages came to be associated with a particular gloss, whose truth was taken to be scriptural. Indeed, in one case, it is generally reckoned that an early gloss explicating the doctrine of the Trinity made its way into the Scriptural text itself, in the passage known as the "three heavenly witnesses" or the *Comma Johanneum*, which is present in the Vulgate Latin and the third and later editions of the Greek *Textus Receptus* collated by Erasmus (the first two editions excluded it for lack of manuscript evidence), but is absent from all modern critical reconstructions of the New Testament text, such as Westcott and Hort, Tischendorf, and Nestle-Aland.

In law

In the medieval legal tradition, the glosses on Roman law and Canon law created standards of reference, so-called *sedes materiae* (literally: seat of the matter). In common law countries, the term "judicial gloss" refers to what is considered an authoritative or "official" interpretation of a statute or regulation by a judge.^[1] Judicial glosses are often very important in avoiding contradictions between statutes, and determining the constitutionality of various provisions of law.

In literature

A gloss, or *glosa*, is a verse in traditional Iberian literature and music which follows and comments on a refrain (the "mote"). See also villancico.

In philology

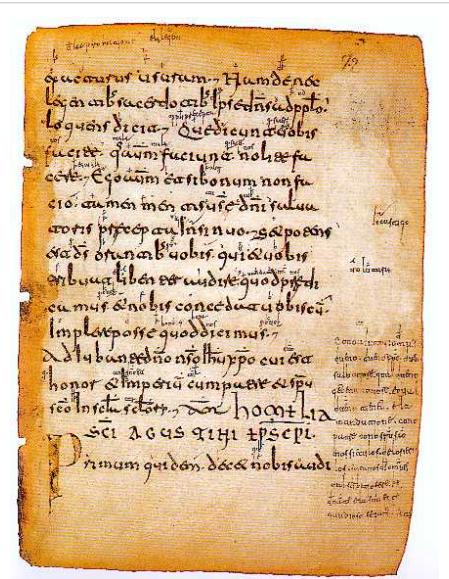
Glosses are of some importance in philology, especially if one language—usually, the language of the author of the gloss—has left few texts of its own. The *Reichenau glosses*, for example, gloss the Latin Vulgate Bible in an early form of one of the Romance languages, and as such give insight into late Vulgar Latin at a time when that language was not often written down. A series of glosses in the Old English language to Latin Bibles give us a running translation of Biblical texts in that language; see *Old English Bible translations*. Glosses of Christian religious texts are also important for our knowledge of Old Irish. Glosses frequently shed valuable light on the vocabulary of otherwise little attested languages; they are less reliable for syntax, because many times the glosses follow the word order of the original text, and translate its idioms literally.

In linguistics

In linguistics, a simple gloss in running text may be marked by single^[2] quotation marks and follow the transcription of a foreign word. For example:

- A Cossack longboat is called a *chaika* 'seagull'.
- The moose gains its name from the Algonquian *mus* or *mooz* ('twig eater').

A longer or more complex transcription requires an *interlinear gloss*. Such a gloss may be placed between a text and its translation when it is important to understand the structure of the language being glossed, and not just the overall meaning of the passage.



The Glosas Emilianenses are glosses added to this Latin codex that are now considered the first phrases written in the Castilian language.

Glossing sign languages

Sign languages are typically transcribed word-for-word by means of an English gloss written in all capitals. Prosody is often glossed as superscript English words, with its scope indicated by brackets.

[I LIKE]^{NEGATIVE} [WHAT?] ^{RHETORICAL}, GARLIC.

"I don't like garlic."

Pure fingerspelling is usually indicated by hyphenation. Fingerspelled words that have been lexicalized (that is, fingerspelling sequences that have entered the sign language as linguistic units and that often have slight modifications) are indicated with a hash. For example, *W-I-K-I* indicates a simple fingerspelled word, but *#JOB* indicates a lexicalized unit, produced like *J-O-B*, but faster, with a barely perceptible *O* and turning the "B" hand palm side in, unlike a regularly fingerspelled "B".

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External links

-  The dictionary definition of gloss (annotation) at Wiktionary

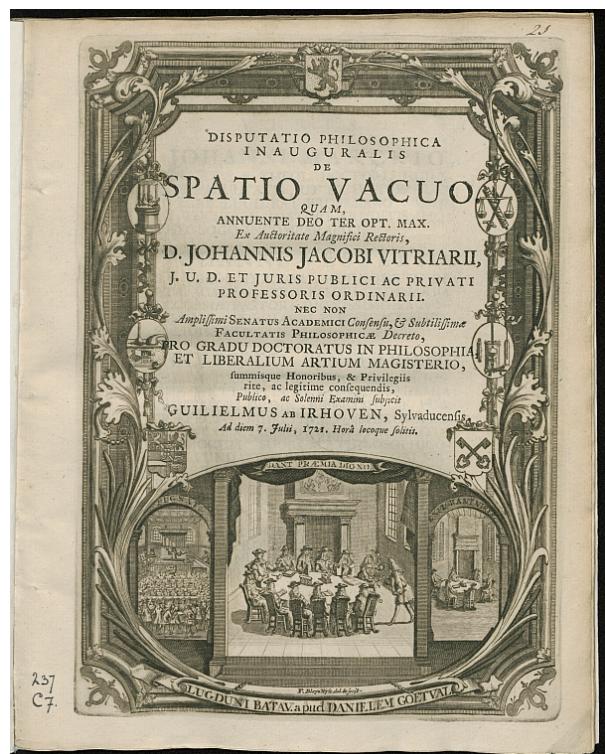
Thesis

A **thesis** or **dissertation**^[1] is a document submitted in support of candidature for an academic degree or professional qualification presenting the author's research and findings.^[2] In some contexts, the word "thesis" or a cognate is used for part of a bachelor's or master's course, while "dissertation" is normally applied to a doctorate, while in others, the reverse is true.^[3] Dissertations and theses may be considered as grey literature.

The word dissertation can at times be used to describe a treatise without relation to obtaining an academic degree. The term thesis is also used to refer to the general claim of an essay or similar work.

Etymology

The term "thesis" comes from the Greek θέσις, meaning "something put forth", and refers to an intellectual proposition. "Dissertation" comes from the Latin *dissertatio*, meaning "path".



Doctoral ceremony at Leiden University, July 7, 1721.

Structure and presentation style

Structure

A thesis (or dissertation) may be arranged as a thesis by publication or a monograph, with or without appended papers respectively. An ordinary monograph has a title page, an abstract, a table of contents, comprising the various chapters (introduction, literature review, findings, etc.), and a bibliography or (more usually) a references section. They differ in their structure in accordance with the many different areas of study (arts, humanities, social sciences, technology, sciences, etc.) and the minimal differences between them. In a thesis by publication, the chapters constitute an introductory and comprehensive gist of the appended published and unpublished article documents.

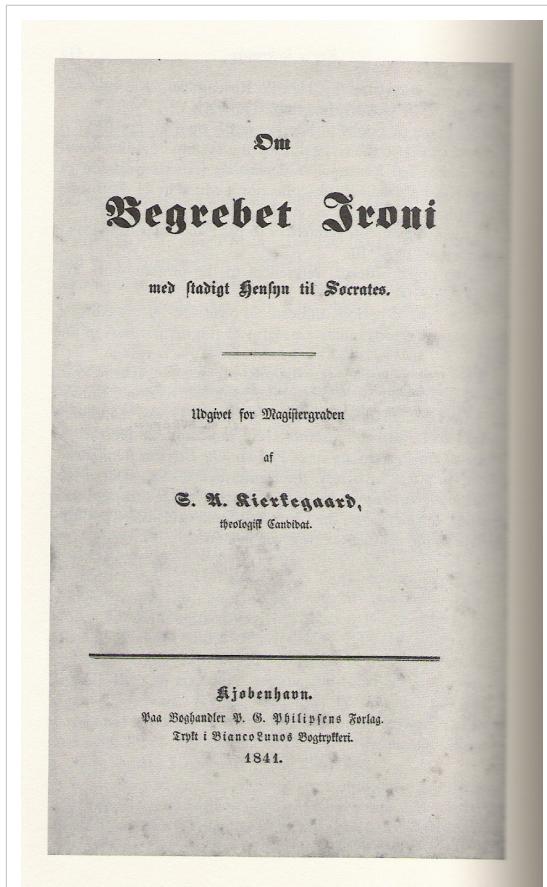
Dissertations normally report on a research project or study, or an extended analysis of a topic. The structure of the thesis or dissertation explains the purpose, the previous research literature which impinges on the topic of the study, the methods used and the findings of the project. Most world universities use a multiple chapter format : a) an introduction, which introduces the research topic, the methodology, as well as its scope and significance; b) a literature review, reviewing relevant literature and showing how this has informed the research issue; c) a methodology chapter, explaining how the research has been designed and why the research methods/population/data collection and analysis being used have been chosen; d) a findings chapter, outlining the findings of the research itself; e) an analysis and discussion chapter, analysing the findings and discussing them in the context of the literature review (this chapter is often divided into two—analysis and discussion); f) a conclusion.^{[4][5]}

Style

Degree-awarding institutions often define their own house style that candidates have to follow when preparing a thesis document. In addition to institution-specific house styles, there exist a number of field-specific, national, and international standards and recommendations for the presentation of theses, for instance ISO 7144. Other applicable international standards include ISO 2145 on section numbers, ISO 690 on bibliographic references, and ISO 31 on quantities or units.

Some older house styles specify that front matter (title page, abstract, table of content, etc.) uses a separate page-number sequence from the main text, using Roman numerals. The relevant international standard and many newer style guides recognize that this book design practice can cause confusion where electronic document viewers number all pages of a document continuously from the first page, independent of any printed page numbers. They therefore avoid the traditional separate number sequence for front matter and require a single sequence of Arabic numerals starting with 1 for the first printed page (the recto of the title page).

Presentation requirements, including pagination, layout, type and color of paper, use of acid-free paper (where a copy of the dissertation will become a permanent part of the library collection), paper size, order of components, and



Cover page to Søren Kierkegaard's university thesis

citation style, will be checked page by page by the accepting officer before the thesis is accepted and a receipt is issued.

However, strict standards are not always required. Most Italian universities, for example, have only general requirements on the character size and the page formatting, and leave much freedom on the actual typographic details.^[citation needed]

Literature review

A literature review examines the existing academic literature to:

- a) place the proposed or current work with the stream of academic development and history, and/or
- b) to discover the strengths and weakness in the literature, uncovering gaps which may justify the significance of the current work.

A thorough review of literature provides the backdrop to, and reasons for, conducting the research. In addition, the discussion sets up the items in the methodology in a 1:1 correspondence. For example, if a researcher wants to query variable A in a particular population, their review of the literature should discuss the importance of, or other research that has studied variable A.

Thesis committee

A thesis or dissertation committee is a committee that supervises a student's dissertation. This committee, at least in the US model, usually consists of a primary supervisor or advisor and two or more committee members, who supervise the progress of the dissertation and may also act as the examining committee, or jury, at the oral examination of the thesis (see below).

At most universities, the committee is chosen by the student in conjunction with his or her primary adviser, usually after completion of the comprehensive examinations or prospectus meeting, and may consist of members of the comps committee. The committee members are doctors in their field (whether a PhD or other designation) and have the task of reading the dissertation, making suggestions for changes and improvements, and sitting in on the defense. Sometimes, at least one member of the committee must be a professor in a department that is different from that of the student.

Regional and degree-specific practices and terminologies

Argentina

In the *Latin American docta*, the academic dissertation can be referred to as different stages inside the academic program that the student is seeking to achieve into a recognized Argentine University, in all the cases the students must develop original contribution in the chosen fields by means of several paper work and essays that comprehend the body of the *thesis*.^[6] Correspondingly to the academic degree, the last phase of an academic thesis is called in Spanish a *defensa de grado*, *defensa magistral* or *defensa doctoral* in cases in which the university candidate is finalizing his or her licentiate, master's, or PhD program. According to a committee resolution, the dissertation can be approved or rejected by an academic committee consisting of the thesis director, the thesis coordinator, and at least one evaluator from another recognized university in which the student is pursuing his or her academic program. All the dissertation referees must already have achieved at least the academic degree that the candidate is trying to reach.^[7]

Canada

At English-speaking Canadian universities, writings presented in fulfillment of undergraduate coursework requirements are normally called *papers*, *term papers* or *essays*. A long paper presented for completion of a 4-year bachelor degree is sometimes called a *major paper*. Research-based papers presented as the final empirical study of a bachelor with honours degree are normally called *bachelor thesis* or *honours thesis*. Major papers presented as the final project for a master's degree are normally called *thesis*; and major papers presenting the student's research towards a doctoral degree are called *theses* or *dissertations*.

At some Canadian universities where French is a primary language of study, students may have a choice between presenting a "*mémoire*", which is a shorter synthetic work (roughly 75 pages) and a *thèse* which is one hundred pages or more.^[citation needed] A synthetic monograph associated with doctoral work is referred to as a "*thèse*". See also compilation thesis. Either work can be awarded a "*mention d'honneur*" (excellence) as a result of the decision by the examination committee, although these are rare.

A typical undergraduate thesis might be forty pages. Master's theses are approximately one hundred pages. PhD theses are usually over two hundred pages. This may vary greatly by discipline, however.

Theses Canada acquires and preserves a comprehensive collection of Canadian theses at Library and Archives Canada' (LAC) through partnership with Canadian universities who participate in the program.

France

In France, the academic dissertation or thesis is called a *thèse* while the word *dissertation* is reserved for shorter (1,000–2,000 words), more generic academic treatises. To complete a master's degree in research, a student is required to write a *mémoire*.

Germany

In Germany, an academic thesis is called an *Abschlussarbeit* (for non-doctorate and non-Habilitation degrees) or the basic name of the degree complemented by *-arbeit* (e.g., *Diplomarbeit*, *Masterarbeit*, *Doktorarbeit*, but *Habilitationsschrift* not *Habilitationsarbeit*). Length is often given in page count and depends upon departments, faculties, and fields of study. A bachelor's thesis is often 40–60 pages long, a diploma thesis and a master thesis usually 60-100. The required submission for the doctorate is called a *Dissertation* or *Doktorarbeit*. The submission for the Habilitation is called *Habilitationsschrift*. PhD by publication is becoming increasingly common in many fields of study. The doctor degree is earned with multiple levels of a latin honors remark for the thesis ranging from *summa cum laude* (best) to *rite* (duly). A thesis can also be rejected with a latin remark (*non rite*, *non sufficit* or worst as *sub omni canone*).

India

In India, as in Great Britain, the thesis defence is called a *viva voce* (Latin for "by live voice") examination (*viva* in short). Involved in the *viva* are two examiners and the candidate. One examiner is an academic from the candidate's own university department (but not one of the candidate's supervisors) and the other is an external examiner from a different university.

In India, PG Qualifications such as M.Sc. Physics accompanies submission of dissertation in Part I and submission of a Project (a working model of an innovation) in Part II. Engineering qualifications such as Diploma, B.Tech or B.E., M.Tech or M.Des also involves submission of dissertation. In all the cases, the dissertation can be extended for summer internship at certain research and development organizations or also as PhD synopsis.

Italy

In Italy there are normally three types of thesis. In order of complexity: one for the Laurea (equivalent to the UK Bachelor's Degree), another one for the Laurea Magistrale (equivalent to the UK Master's Degree) and then a thesis to complete the Dottorato di Ricerca (PhD). Thesis requirements vary greatly between degrees and disciplines, ranging from as low as 3-4 ECTS credits to more than 30. Thesis work is mandatory for the completion of a degree.

Pakistan

In Pakistan, at undergraduate level the thesis is usually called final year project, as it is completed in the senior year of the degree, the name project usually implies that the work carried out is less extensive than a thesis and bears lesser credit hours too. The undergraduate level project is presented through an elaborate written report and a presentation to the advisor, a board of faculty members and students. At graduate level however, i.e. in MS, some universities allow students to accomplish a project of 6 credits or a thesis of 9 credits, at least one publication Wikipedia:Citation needed is normally considered enough for the awarding of the degree with project and is considered mandatory for the awarding of a degree with thesis. A written report and a public thesis defence is mandatory, in the presence of a board of senior researchers, consisting of members from an outside organization or a university. A PhD candidate is supposed to accomplish extensive research work to fulfill the dissertation requirements with international publications being a mandatory requirement. The defence of the research work is done publicly.

Poland

In Poland, the academic dissertation is called a *dysertacja* and it is reserved for PhD degrees. A bachelor's degree usually requires a *praca licencjacka* (bachelor's work), the master's degree requires a *praca magisterska* (master's work), and a degree in engineering requires a *praca inżynierska* (engineer's work).

Portugal and Brazil

In Portugal and Brazil, a dissertation (*dissertação*) is required for completion of a master's degree. The defense is done in a public presentation in which teachers, students, and the general public can participate. For the PhD a thesis (*tese*) is presented for defense in a public exam. The exam typically extends over 3 hours. The examination board typically involves 5 to 6 Professors or other experts with a PhD degree (generally at least half of them must be external to the university where the candidate defends the thesis, but may depend on the University). Each university / faculty defines the length of these documents, but typical numbers of pages are around 60–80 for MSc and 200–250 for PhD.

Russia, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Ukraine

In Russia, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Ukraine an academic dissertation or thesis is called what can be literally translated as a "master's degree work" (thesis), whereas the word *dissertation* is reserved for doctoral theses (Candidate of Sciences). To complete a master's degree, a student is required to write a thesis of about 110–130 pages and to then defend the work publicly.^[citation needed]

Slovenia

At universities in Slovenia, an academic thesis called *diploma thesis* is a prerequisite for completing undergraduate studies. The thesis used to be 40–60 pages long, but has been reduced to 20–30 pages in new Bologna process programmes. To complete Master's studies, a candidate must write *magistrsko delo* (Master's thesis) that is longer and more detailed than the undergraduate thesis. The required submission for the doctorate is called *doktorska disertacija* (doctoral dissertation). Prospective students can skip the preparation and presentation of a Master's thesis and continue straightforward towards doctorate.

Slovakia

In Slovakia, higher education is completed by defending a thesis, which is called bachelors thesis "bakalárska práca" for bachelors programme, master's thesis or "diplomová práca" for master's degrees and also doctor of medicine or dentistry degrees and dissertation "dizertačná práca" for Philosophiae doctor (PhD.) degree.

Sweden

In Sweden, there are at least five different thesis depending on the level of studies, depending on the field of study, the B thesis, which corresponds to 7.5 HP or five weeks of independent studies, C thesis/Bachelor thesis, which corresponds to 15 HP or 10 weeks of independent studies, D thesis/one year master's thesis, which corresponds to 15 HP or 10 weeks of independent studies and E Thesis/two year master's thesis, which corresponds to 30 HP or 20 weeks of independent studies. After that there are two types of post graduate degrees, Licentiate dissertation, half a PhD and a PhD dissertation, of different sizes depending on the area of studies. Swedish PhD studies typically last for four years of effective studies, which combined with a typical total of one year of teaching and lecturing make it a five year project.

United Kingdom

Outside the academic community, the terms *thesis* and *dissertation* are interchangeable. At universities in the United Kingdom, the term *thesis* is usually associated with PhD/EngD (doctoral) and research master's degrees, while *dissertation* is the more common term for a substantial project submitted as part of a taught master's degree or an undergraduate degree (e.g. BA, BSc, BMus, BEd, BEng etc.).

Thesis word lengths may differ by faculty/department and are set by individual universities.

United States

In some U.S. doctoral programs, the term "dissertation" can refer to the major part of the student's total time spent (along with two or three years of classes), and may take years of full-time work to complete. At most universities, *dissertation* is the term for the required submission for the doctorate, and *thesis* refers only to the master's degree requirement.

Thesis is also used to describe a cumulative project for a bachelor's degree, and is more common at selective colleges and universities, or for those seeking admittance to graduate school or to obtain an honors academic designation. These are called "senior projects" or "senior theses;" they are generally done in the senior year near graduation after having completed other courses, the independent study period, and the internship and/or student teaching period (the completion of most of the requirements before the writing of the paper ensures adequate knowledge and aptitude for the challenge). Unlike a dissertation or master's thesis, they are not as long, they do not require a novel contribution to knowledge, or even a very narrow focus on a set subtopic. Like them, they can be lengthy and require months of work, they require supervision by at least one professor adviser, they must be focused on a certain area of knowledge, and they must use an appreciable amount of scholarly citations. They may or may not be defended before a committee, but usually are not; there is generally no preceding examination before the writing of the paper, except for at a very few colleges. Because of the nature of the graduate thesis or dissertation having to be more narrow and more novel, the result of original research, these usually have a smaller proportion of the work that is cited from other sources, though the fact that they are lengthier may mean they still have more total citations.

Specific undergraduate courses, especially writing-intensive courses and/or courses taken by upperclassmen, may also require one or more extensive written assignments referred to variously as theses, essays, or papers. Increasingly, high schools are requiring students to complete a senior project or senior thesis on a chosen topic during the final year as a prerequisite for graduation.^{[8][9]} The extended essay component of the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme, offered in a growing number of American high schools, is another example of this trend.

Generally speaking, a dissertation is judged as to whether or not it makes an original and unique contribution to scholarship. Lesser projects (a master's thesis, for example) are judged by whether or not they demonstrate mastery of available scholarship in the presentation of an idea.[Wikipedia:Disputed statement](#)

Thesis examinations

One of the requirements for certain advanced degrees is often an oral examination. This examination normally occurs after the dissertation is finished but before it is submitted to the university, and may comprise a presentation by the student and questions posed by an examining committee or jury. In North America, an initial oral examination in the field of specialization may take place just before the student settles down to work on the dissertation. An additional oral exam may take place after the dissertation is completed and is known as a thesis or dissertation "defense," which at some universities may be a mere formality and at others may result in the student being required to make significant revisions. In the UK and certain other English-speaking countries, an oral examination is called a *viva voce*.

Examination results

The result of the examination may be given immediately following deliberation by the examiners (in which case the candidate may immediately be considered to have received his or her degree), or at a later date, in which case the examiners may prepare a defense report that is forwarded to a Board or Committee of Postgraduate Studies, which then officially recommends the candidate for the degree.

Potential decisions (or "verdicts") include:

- Accepted / pass with no corrections.

The thesis is accepted as presented. A grade may be awarded, though in many countries PhDs are not graded at all, and in others only one of the theoretically possible grades (the highest) is ever used in practice. [citation needed]

- The thesis must be revised.

Revisions (for example, correction of numerous grammatical or spelling errors; clarification of concepts or methodology; addition of sections) are required. One or more members of the jury and/or the thesis supervisor will make the decision on the acceptability of revisions and provide written confirmation that they have been satisfactorily completed. If, as is often the case, the needed revisions are relatively modest, the examiners may all sign the thesis with the verbal understanding that the candidate will review the revised thesis with his or her supervisor before submitting the completed version.

- Extensive revision required.

The thesis must be revised extensively and undergo the evaluation and defense process again from the beginning with the same examiners. Problems may include theoretical or methodological issues. A candidate who is not recommended for the degree after the second defense must normally withdraw from the program.

- Unacceptable.

The thesis is unacceptable and the candidate must withdraw from the program.

This verdict is given only when the thesis requires major revisions and when the examination makes it clear that the candidate is incapable of making such revisions.

At most North American institutions the latter two verdicts are extremely rare, for two reasons. First, to obtain the status of doctoral candidates, graduate students typically write a qualifying examination or comprehensive examination, which often includes an oral defense. Students who pass the qualifying examination are deemed capable of completing scholarly work independently and are allowed to proceed with working on a dissertation. Second, since the thesis supervisor (and the other members of the advisory committee) will normally have reviewed

the thesis extensively before recommending the student proceed to the defense, such an outcome would be regarded as a major failure not only on the part of the candidate but also by the candidate's supervisor (who should have recognized the substandard quality of the dissertation long before the defense was allowed to take place). It is also fairly rare for a thesis to be accepted without any revisions; the most common outcome of a defense is for the examiners to specify minor revisions (which the candidate typically completes in a few days or weeks).

On the other hand, at universities on the British pattern it is not uncommon for theses to be failed at the *viva* stage,^[citation needed] in which case either a major rewrite is required, followed by a new *viva*, or the thesis may be awarded the lesser degree of M.Phil (Master of Philosophy) instead, preventing the candidate from resubmitting the thesis.

Australia

In Australia, doctoral theses are usually examined by three examiners although some, like the Australian Catholic University and the University of New South Wales, have shifted to using only two examiners; without a live defense except in extremely rare exceptions. In the case of a Master's Degree by research the thesis is usually examined by only two examiners. Typically one of these examiners will be from within the candidate's own department; the other(s) will usually be from other universities and often from overseas. Following submission of the thesis, copies are sent by mail to examiners and then reports sent back to the institution.

Similar to a Master's Degree by research thesis, a thesis for the research component of a Master's Degree by coursework is also usually examined by two examiners, one from the candidate's department and one from another university. For an Honours year, which is a fourth year in addition to the usual three-year Bachelor degree, the thesis is also examined by two examiners, though both are usually from the candidate's own department. Honours and Master's by coursework theses do not require an oral defence before they are accepted.

Germany

In Germany, a thesis is often examined with an oral defense (*Verteidigung*), also called *Disputation*. This applies to almost all Magister, master's and doctoral degrees as well as to bachelor's degrees. The minimum word count varies but is usually between 15,000 to 17,500 words. Master's Degrees sometimes dictate that 30,000 words must be written.

Portugal

In Portugal, a thesis is examined with an oral defense, which includes an initial presentation by the candidate followed by an extensive questioning/answering period. Typical duration for the total exam is 1 hour 30 minutes for the MSc and 3 hours for the PhD.

North America

In North America, the *thesis defense* or *oral defense* is the final examination for doctoral candidates, and sometimes for master's candidates.

The examining committee normally consists of the thesis committee, usually a given number of professors mainly from the student's university plus his or her primary supervisor, an external examiner (someone not otherwise connected to the university), and a chair person. Each committee member will have been given a completed copy of the dissertation prior to the defense, and will come prepared to ask questions about the thesis itself and the subject matter. In many schools, master's thesis defenses are restricted to the examinee and the examiners, but doctoral defenses are open to the public.

The typical format will see the candidate giving a short (20–40 minute) presentation of his or her research, followed by one to two hours of questions.

At some U.S. institutions, a longer public lecture (known as a "thesis talk" or "thesis seminar") by the candidate will accompany the defense itself, in which case only the candidate, the examiners, and other members of the faculty may attend the actual defense.

Russia and Ukraine

A student in Ukraine or Russia has to complete a thesis and then defend it in front of their department. Sometimes the defense meeting is made up of the learning institute's professionals, and sometimes the students peers are allowed to view and/or join in. After the presentation and defense of the thesis, the final conclusion of the department should be that none of them have reservations on the content and quality of the thesis.

A conclusion on the thesis has to be approved by the rector of the educational institute. This conclusion (final grade so to speak) of the thesis can be defended/argued not only in the thesis council at, but also in any other thesis council of Russia or Ukraine.

Spain

The Diploma en Estudios Avanzados (D.E.A.) can last two years and candidates must complete coursework and demonstrate their ability to research the specific topics they have studied. After completing this part of the PhD, students begin a dissertation on a set topic. The dissertation must reach a minimum length depending on the subject and it is valued more highly if it contains field research. Once candidates have finished their written dissertations, they must present them before a tribunal. Following this presentation, the examiners will ask questions.

United Kingdom, Ireland and Hong Kong

In Hong Kong, Ireland and the United Kingdom, the thesis defense is called a *viva voce* (Latin for "by live voice") examination (*viva* for short). A typical *viva* lasts for approximately 3 hours, though there is no formal time limit. Involved in the *viva* are two examiners and the candidate. Usually, one examiner is an academic from the candidate's own university department (but not one of the candidate's supervisors) and the other is an external examiner from a different university. Increasingly, the examination may involve a third academic, the 'chair'; this person, from the candidate's institution, acts as an impartial observer with oversight of the examination process to ensure that the examination is fair. The 'chair' does not ask academic questions of the candidate.^[10]

In the United Kingdom, there are only two or at most three examiners, and the examination is in many universities strictly in private—however, in the University of Oxford, at least, in theory any member of the University may attend a DPhil *viva* (the University's regulations require that details of the examination and its time and place be published formally in advance) provided he or she attends in full academic dress. Also, in the UK, the candidate's primary supervisor is not permitted to ask questions during the *viva*, and their presence is not necessary.

Submission of the thesis

A submission of the thesis is the last formal requirement for most students after the defense. By the final deadline, the student must submit a complete copy of the thesis to the appropriate body within the accepting institution, along with the appropriate forms, bearing the signatures of the primary supervisor, the examiners, and, in some cases, the head of the student's department. Other required forms may include library authorizations (giving the university library permission to make the thesis available as part of its collection) and copyright permissions (in the event that the student has incorporated copyrighted materials in the thesis). Many large scientific publishing houses (e.g. Taylor & Francis, Elsevier) use copyright agreements that allow the authors to incorporate their published articles into dissertations without separate authorization.

Failure to submit the thesis by the deadline may result in graduation (and granting of the degree) being delayed. At most U.S. institutions, there will also be various fees (for binding, microfilming, copyright registration, and the like),

which must be paid before the degree will be granted.

Once all the paperwork is in order, copies of the thesis may be made available in one or more university libraries. Specialist abstracting services exist to publicize the content of these beyond the institutions in which they are produced. Many institutions now insist on submission of digitized as well as printed copies of theses; the digitized versions of successful theses are often made available online.

Useful Software

There are several software tools helping students to organize academic literature and PDFs, manage their ideas and information, and draft and write their thesis. Mind Mapping Tools such as Freeplane or XMind help students to create and organize their ideas. They are particularly useful in the beginning for planning and outlining a thesis. Academic Search Engines such as Google Scholar help to find relevant literature. PDF Viewers and Editors such as PDF-XChange and Foxit Reader help in reading academic papers in PDF format, and to create notes or highlight text directly in PDF files. Finally, and most importantly, reference managers such as Docear or EndNote help in organizing literature and references.

References

- [1] Originally, the word compounds "dissertation" and "thesis" (plural, "theses") were not interchangeable. When, at ancient universities, the lector had completed his lecture, there would traditionally follow a disputation, during which students could take up certain points and argue them. The position that one took during a disputation was the thesis, while the dissertation was the line of reasoning with which one buttressed it. Olga Weijers: *The medieval disputatio*. In: *Hora est! (On dissertations)* (<http://www.ascleiden.nl/Pdf/horaestklein.pdf>), p.23-27. Leiden University Library, 2005
- [2] International Standard ISO 7144: Documentation—Presentation of theses and similar documents (<http://www.iso.org/iso/en/CatalogueDetailPage.CatalogueDetail?CSNUMBER=13736&ICS1=1&ICS2=140&ICS3=40>), International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, 1986.
- [3] Douwe Breimer, Jos Damen et al.: *Hora est! (On dissertations)* (<http://www.ascleiden.nl/Pdf/horaestklein.pdf>). Leiden University Library, 2005
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- [6] http://www.gfme.org/global_guide/pdf/13-18%20Argentina.pdf
- [7] Comisión Nacional de Evaluación y Acreditación Universitaria (<http://www.coneau.edu.ar/index.php?item=29&apps=16&id=428&act=ver&idioma=en>)
- [8] http://governors.spps.org/sites/4fea35ef-7ee8-4558-a899-5935fb9ffa55/uploads/Joe_Nathan_April_30th_JHS_senior_project_article.doc
- [9] <http://www.principalspartnership.com/seniorproject.pdf>
- [10] Pearce, Lynne (2005) *How to Examine a Thesis*, McGraw-Hill International, pp. 79-85

External links

- Dissertation article at LISWiki, a Library science wiki
- en.wikibooks.org/wiki/ETD_Guide Guide to electronic theses and dissertations (http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/ETD_Guide) on Wikibooks
- Networked Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations (<http://www.ndltd.org>) (NDLTD)
- EThOS Database (<http://ethos.bl.uk/Home.do>) Database of UK Doctoral theses available through the British Library
- How to write a thesis (Bachelor, Master, or PhD) and which software tools to use (<http://gipp.com/2010/03/02/how-to-write-a-phd-thesis/>)

Grey literature

Grey literature is informally published written material (such as reports) that may be difficult to trace via conventional channels such as published journals and monographs because it is not published commercially or is not widely accessible. It may nonetheless be an important source of information for researchers, because it tends to be original and recent. Examples of grey literature include patents, technical reports from government agencies or scientific research groups, working papers from research groups or committees, white papers, and preprints. The term "grey literature" is used in library and information science.

The identification and acquisition of grey literature poses difficulties for librarians and other information professionals for several reasons. Generally, grey literature lacks strict bibliographic control, meaning that basic information such as author, publication date or publishing body may not be easily discerned. Similarly, the nonprofessional layouts and formats, low print runs, and non-conventional channels of distribution of grey literature make the organized collection of such publications challenging compared to journals and books. In 1995, D.B. Simpson observed that "peripheral materials, including grey literature, expand unabated. Libraries having difficulty collecting traditional materials have little hope of acquiring the periphery".

Information and research professionals generally draw a distinction between ephemera and grey literature. However, there are certain overlaps between the two media and they undoubtedly share common frustrations such as bibliographic control issues. Unique written documents such as manuscripts and archives, and personal communications, are not usually considered as falling under the heading of grey literature, although they again share some of the same problems of control and access. Although grey literature is often discussed with reference to scientific research, it is by no means restricted to a single field: outside the hard sciences, it presents significant problems in, for example, archaeology, in which site surveys and excavation reports, containing unique data, have frequently been produced and circulated in informal "grey" formats.

Many of the problems of accessing grey literature have decreased since the late 1990s as government, professional, business and university bodies have increasingly published their reports and other official or review documents free on the World Wide Web. The impact of this trend has been greatly boosted since the early 2000s by the growth of major search engines such as Google, Yahoo! and Bing. Grey reports are thus far more easily found online than they were, and at radically lower cost, at least in the immediate aftermath of their publication. Most users of reports and other grey documents have migrated to using online copies, and efforts by libraries to collect hard-copy versions have generally declined in consequence. However, many problems remain because originators often fail to document online reports or publications adequately (often omitting a publication date, for instance); because documents are rarely assigned permanent URLs or DOI numbers, or stored in electronic repositories, so that broken links can develop; and because the copyright status of many reports is left unclear, inhibiting their downloading and electronic storage. Securing long-run or secure access to grey literature in a predominantly digital age thus remains a considerable problem, as does archiving or overviewing such materials.

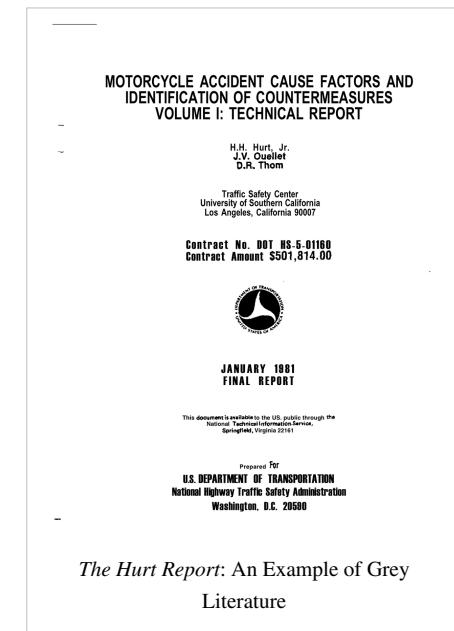
Definitions

The concept of grey literature has emerged since the 1970s. When Charles P. Auger published the first edition of his landmark work on "reports literature" in 1975, he did not use the term "grey literature". Nevertheless, his account of this "vast body of documents", with its "continuing increasing quantity", the "difficulty it presents to the librarian", its ambiguity between temporary character and durability, and its growing impact on scientific research, was entirely compatible with what is now called grey literature. While acknowledging the challenges of reports literature, he also recognized that it held a "number of advantages over other means of dissemination, including greater speed, greater flexibility and the opportunity to go into considerable detail if necessary". For Auger, reports were a "half-published" communication medium with a "complex interrelationship [to] scientific journals". Only in the second edition of his book, published in 1989, did he adopt the term "grey literature".

The so-called "Luxembourg definition", discussed and approved at the Third International Conference on Grey Literature in 1997, defined grey literature as "that which is produced on all levels of government, academics, business and industry in print and electronic formats, but which is not controlled by commercial publishers". In 2004, at the Sixth Conference in New York, a postscript was added for purposes of clarification: grey literature is "...not controlled by commercial publishers, i.e., where publishing is not the primary activity of the producing body". This definition has since been widely accepted, by, among others, the Grey Literature Network Service. It emphasizes the supply side of grey literature, namely its production and publication both in print and electronic formats. It calls attention to the question of dissemination, and the difficulty of identifying and accessing documents described as ephemeral, non-conventional or underground.

The U.S. Interagency Gray Literature Working Group (IGLWG), in its "Gray Information Functional Plan" of 1995, defined grey literature as "foreign or domestic open source material that usually is available through specialized channels and may not enter normal channels or systems of publication, distribution, bibliographic control, or acquisition by booksellers or subscription agents". This definition accords with Mackenzie Owen's 1997 observation that "grey does not imply any qualification [but] is merely a characterization of the distribution mode".

In 2010 D.J. Farace and J. Schöpfel pointed out that existing definitions of grey literature were predominantly economic, and argued that in a changing research environment, and with new channels of scientific communication, grey literature needed a new conceptual framework.



The Hurt Report: An Example of Grey Literature



The British Library in London: a legal-deposit national library, for which the collection of grey literature presents particular problems.

Towards a new definition

The 12th International Conference on Grey Literature at Prague in December 2010 discussed a new approach to grey literature. It concluded that the existing definition of grey literature—the New York definition—remained helpful and should not be replaced, but that it needed to be adapted to the changing environment. The definition was insufficient in the context of Internet publishing, and that further attributes were needed to differentiate grey from other items.

The proposal was to add four attributes to the New York definition:

- The document character of grey literature (concept of the French multidisciplinary network^[1])
- Legal nature of works of the mind, e.g., protection by intellectual property.
- A minimum quality level (peer review, label, validation).
- The link to intermediation, e.g., the interest of grey items for collection (and not for the end user).

The proposal for a new definition ("Prague Definition") of grey literature is as follows:

"Grey literature stands for manifold document types produced on all levels of government, academics, business and industry in print and electronic formats that are protected by intellectual property rights, of sufficient quality to be collected and preserved by library holdings or institutional repositories, but not controlled by commercial publishers i.e., where publishing is not the primary activity of the producing body."

Today, due to the overwhelming success of web publishing and access to documents focus has shifted to quality, intellectual property, and intermediation. Without the revision mentioned above, the current definition risks becoming obsolete due to its inability to differentiate grey literature from other documents.

The proposal for a revised "Prague definition" brings together the former economic approach with new attributes. The next step should be to check this definition against common usage in libraries and different types of grey and other documents. Once done, the value of the definition can be evaluated on the basis of the answers to the following two questions: does this new definition include all kind of documents usually considered by LIS professionals as grey literature, including today's difficult-to-process and hard-to-collect items, and does it lead to further differentiation or better understanding of how grey literature may be distinguished from other forms of literature? Three challenges in particular are said to face professionals in the field at the present moment:

- The development of institutional repositories by publishing organizations as a complementary and sometimes concurrent service to tradition library holdings; and the place and processing of grey literature in theses archives.
- The tendency of disintermediation in the traditional value chain of scientific and technical information. The "risk" of grey literature is not web-based technology but the somehow fading role of libraries and information professionals as intermediaries between authors, publishing bodies, and the end user. And tell the reader why this is important other than job preservation.
- The so-called "Fourth Paradigm", e.g., data-intensive science and the access to datasets that together generate a trend to transform and/or marginalize literature.^[2]

Typology of grey literature

The term traditionally referred to reports, conference proceedings and doctoral theses. In the OpenSIGLE repository, reports are the most numerous among the different types of grey literature. The "reports" category covers a wide variety of very different documents: institutional reports, annual or activity reports, project or study reports, technical reports, reports published by ministries, laboratories or research teams, etc. Some are disseminated by national and international public bodies; others are confidential, protected, or disseminated to a restricted readership, such as technical reports from industrial R&D laboratories. Some are voluminous, with statistical appendices, while others are only a few pages in length.

In the other categories, citation analyses^[3] offer a wide range of grey resources. Besides theses and conference proceedings, they also include unpublished manuscripts, newsletters, recommendations and technical standards, patents, technical notes, product catalogs, data and statistics, presentations, malin-grey literature, personal communications, working papers, house journals, laboratory research books, preprints, academic courseware, lecture notes, and so on. The international network GreyNet maintains an online listing of document types.

Malin-grey literature

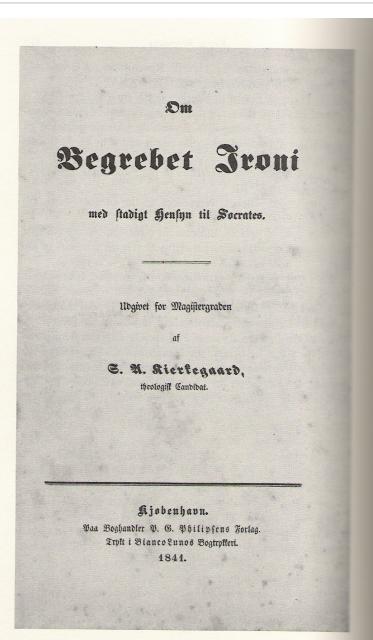
"Malin-grey literature" refers to publications whose construction and self-referencing are actively construed to avoid the attention of information professionals. Typically such professionals employ various parameters in identifying which publications are suited to incorporation within a particular collection. To avoid dissemination and archiving the authors of malin-grey literature employ the absence of bibliographical indicators, deception, disinformation, rapid decomposition (or other self-destructive construction), obscurity or atypical formats. Malin-grey literature differs from samizdat, or underground literature, in that samizdat publications only seek to disguise the identities of the author and distributor, whereas malin-grey literature seeks actively to prevent or obstruct dissemination.^[4]

Some commentators have suggested that the name derives from the French for "deceptive ingenuity"; others, less convincingly, claim that it is a reference to Anne-Marie Malingrey (fl. 1960s–70s), a French historian.^{[5][6]}

Impact

Grey literature has a role of its own as a means of distributing scientific and technical information.^[7] Professionals insist on its importance for two main reasons: research results are often more detailed in reports, doctoral theses and conference proceedings than in journals, and they are distributed in these forms up to 12 or even 18 months before being published elsewhere.^[8] Some results simply are not published anywhere else.

A Franco-Dutch study reviews 64 citation analyses published between 1987 and 2005, citing altogether several thousand references.^[9] The table below shows the proportion of grey literature cited in publications from different scientific disciplines.



The cover page to Søren Kierkegaard's university thesis.

Field	Grey literature citations in %
Soil sciences	14
Biology	5–13
Veterinary medicine	6
Psychiatry (addiction)	1
Psychology	3
Engineering sciences	39–42
Economic sciences	9–17
Sociology	7–9
Education sciences	14–19

The relative importance of grey literature is largely dependent on research disciplines and subjects, on methodological approaches, and on sources used. In some fields, especially the life sciences and medical sciences, there has been a traditional preference for conventional distribution media (journals), while in others, such as agriculture, aeronautics and the engineering sciences in general, grey literature resources tend to predominate.

In particular, public administrations and public and industrial research laboratories produce a great deal of "grey" material, often for internal and in some cases "restricted" dissemination.^[10]

According to another study, grey literature seems also to play a considerable part in the library and information sciences, accounting on average around 20% of all sources used a figure that may be compared with the citation habits in economics and educational sciences. Even so, citations to grey material vary widely between different papers from 0% to 50% and more, depending on subject areas and methodologies.^[11]

Grey Literature International Steering Committee

The Grey Literature International Steering Committee (GLISC) was established in 2006 after the 7th International Conference on Grey Literature (GL7) held in Nancy (France) on 5–6 December 2005.

During this conference, the Istituto Superiore di Sanità (ISS) (Rome, Italy) presented guidelines for the production of scientific and technical reports included in the wider category of grey literature. The Italian initiative for the adoption of uniform requirements for the production of reports was discussed during a Round Table on Quality Assessment by a small group of grey literature producers, librarians and information professionals who agreed to collaborate in the revision of the guidelines proposed by ISS. The group approving these guidelines—informally known as the "Nancy Group"—has been formally defined as the Grey Literature International Steering Committee.

The Guidelines include ethical principles related to the process of evaluating, improving, and making reports available and the relationships between grey literature producers and authors. The latter sections address the more technical aspects of preparing and submitting reports. GLISC believes the entire document is relevant to the concerns of both authors and grey literature producers.

GreyNet resources

Since 1993, GreyNet International, the Grey Literature Network Service, organizes the International Conferences Series on Grey Literature:

- 1993 GL1 Amsterdam, "GL'93, Weinberg Report 2000"
- 1995 GL2 Washington D.C. "GL'95, Grey Exploitations in the 21st Century"
- 1997 GL3 Luxembourg, "GL'97, Perspectives on the Design and Transfer of STI"
- 1999 GL4 Washington D.C., "GL'99, New Frontiers in Grey Literature"
- 2003 GL5 Amsterdam, "Grey Matters in the World of Networked Information"
- 2004 GL6 New York, "Work on Grey in Progress"
- 2005 GL7 Nancy, France "Open Access to Grey Resources"
- 2006 GL8 New Orleans, "Harnessing the Power of Grey"
- 2007 GL9 Antwerp, "Grey Foundations in Information Landscape"
- 2008 GL10 Amsterdam, "Designing the Grey Grid for Information Society"
- 2009 GL11 Washington D.C., "The Grey Mosaic: Piecing It All Together"
- 2010 GL12 Prague (CZ), "Transparency in Grey Literature: Grey Tech Approaches to High Tech Issues"
- 2011 GL13 Washington D.C., "The Grey Circuit : From Social Networking to Wealth Creation", Library of Congress 5–6 December 2011
- 2012 GL14 Rome, "Tracking Innovation through Grey Literature" National Research Council 29–30 November 2012
- 2013 GL15 Bratislava, "The Grey Audit, A Field Assessment of Grey Literature" CVTISR, 2–3 December 2013

GreyNet also organizes GreyWorks, a summer workshop series on grey literature:

- GreyWorks 2009, Amsterdam, "Benchmarks and Forecasts on Grey Literature"
- GreyWorks 2010, Washington D.C., "Transparency Governs the Grey Landscape"
- GreyWorks 2011, Amsterdam, "Ten Strategies for Grey Literature"
- GreyWorks 2012, The Hague, "Strategic Mapping of Grey Literature"

GreyNet likewise publishes an academic journal on grey literature, *The Grey Journal* (print: ISSN 1574-1796^[12], online: ISSN 1574-180X^[13]). The Grey Journal appears three times a year—in spring, summer, and autumn. Each issue in a volume is thematic and deals with one or more related topics in the field of grey literature. *The Grey Journal* appears both in print and electronic formats. The electronic version on article level is available via EBSCO's LISTA-FT Database (EBSCO Publishing). *The Grey Journal* is indexed by Scopus and others.

Perspectives

In the ongoing discussion on new business models of academic publishing, eScience and open access to public research results, non-commercial distribution channels will continue to play a central role as vectors of scientific communication, alongside commercial publishing.

Another question is about impact and usage. In the past, impact metrics were limited to citations and journals. Today, usage metrics offer new opportunities to measure impact of a large scale of digital resources, also on the individual item level. Tomorrow, these metrics will provide additional information on quality and popularity to the end user.

Open archives will offer more appropriate services and functions for at least some segments of grey literature if not for all. But bibliographic control of grey literature will remain problematic despite the trend toward standardization of digital documents. And the libraries, together with their scientific communities, need to find new forms for the fundamental functions of scientific publishing, applied to open repositories, non-commercial items and datasets.

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External links

- About grey literature in medical systematic reviews (<http://ssrc.tums.ac.ir/SystematicReview/Searching.asp>)
- ALA Internet Resources: Gray Literature (<http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/publications/crlnews/2004/mar/graylit.cfm>)
- GreyNet (<http://www.greynet.org/>): The Grey Literature Network Service
- Science.gov (<http://www.science.gov/>) is a gateway to over 50 million pages of authoritative selected science information provided by U.S. government agencies, including research and development results.
- <http://www.scienceaccelerator.gov/Science Accelerator> searches science, including R&D results, project descriptions, accomplishments, and more, via resources made available by the Office of Scientific and Technical Information (OSTI), U.S. Department of Energy
- The GrayLIT network: A science portal of technical reports (<http://www.osti.gov/graylit/>). From the Office of Scientific & Technical Information at the United States Department of Energy.
- Grey Literature Library for UK Archaeology (<http://ads.ahds.ac.uk/catalogue/library/greylit/index.cfm>)
- The *International Journal on Grey Literature* (<http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?issn=1466-6189>) published one volume in 2000. The content may be limited to subscribers.
- (<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>) CiteSeerX indexes some of the gray literature such as technical reports in computer and information science
- (<http://www.opengrey.eu>) OpenGrey Repository, formerly OpenSIGLE

Monograph

A **monograph** is a specialist work of writing on a single subject or an aspect of a subject, usually by a single author. The term 'monographia' is derived from Greek (**mono**, single+*grapho*, to write), meaning 'writing on a single subject'. Unlike a textbook, which surveys the state of knowledge in a field, the main purpose of a monograph is to present primary research and original scholarship. This research is presented at length, distinguishing a monograph from an article. For these reasons, publication of a monograph is commonly regarded as vital for career progression in many academic disciplines. Intended for other researchers and bought primarily by libraries, monographs are generally published as individual volumes in a short print run.^[1] Wikipedia:Link rot

Librarians consider a monograph to be a nonserial publication complete in one volume (book) or a finite number of volumes. Thus it differs from a serial publication such as a magazine, journal, or newspaper.^[2]

Book publishers use the term "artist monograph" to indicate books consisting of reproductions of works of art by a single artist, as opposed to surveys of art from multiple artists.

Usage

Taxonomy (systematic biology)

In biological taxonomy a monograph is a comprehensive treatment of a taxon. Monographs typically revise all known species within a group, add any newly discovered species, and collect and synthesize available information on the ecological associations, geographic distributions, and morphological variations within the group. Example: Lent & Wygodzinsky, 1979, Revision of the Triatominae (Hemiptera, Reduviidae), and their significance as vectors of Chagas' disease. *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History* v. 163, article 3, pp. 125-520.^[3]

The first ever monograph of a plant taxon was Robert Morison's 1672 *Plantarum Umbelliferarum Distributio Nova*, a treatment of the Apiaceae.

United States Food and Drug Administration regulation

In the context of Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulation, monographs represent published standards by which the use of one or more substances is automatically authorized. For example, the following is an excerpt from the Federal Register: "The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) is issuing a final rule in the form of a final monograph establishing conditions under which over-the-counter (OTC) sunscreen drug products are generally recognized as safe and effective and not misbranded as part of FDA's ongoing review of OTC drug products."^[4] Such usage has given rise to the use of the word monograph as a verb, as in "this substance has been monographed by the FDA".

See also: pharmacopoeia.

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External links

- Medicines Compendium (<http://www.usp-mc.org/>)
- United States Pharmacopeia (<http://www.usp.org/>)

Book discussion club

A **book discussion club** is a group of people who meet to discuss a book or books that they have read and express their opinions, likes, dislikes, etc. It is more often called simply a **book club**, a term that is also used to describe a book sales club, which can cause confusion. Other frequently used terms to describe a book discussion club include **reading group**, **book group**, and **book discussion group**. Book discussion clubs may meet in private homes, libraries, bookstores, online forums, pubs, and in cafes or restaurants over meals or drinks.

A practice also associated with book discussion, **common reading program** or **common read**, involves institutions encouraging their members to discuss select books in group settings; common reading programs are largely associated with educational institutions encouraging their students to hold book discussion meetings.

Single-title clubs

A single-title club is one in which people discuss a particular title that every person in the group has read at the same time, often with each member buying a personal copy. Clearly, the club must somehow decide ahead of time what that title will be. Some groups may decide to usually choose new release titles, whilst others may choose older ones, or a mixture of the two. If it is a book discussion club that meets at a library then each member may borrow a copy of the book from the library over a given timeframe in order for a later discussion.

There may be a few problems with these clubs. Some members may regard them as opportunities to meet people for social contact and general conversation, partially veering off onto a wide variety of non-literary topics, while others wish to engage in serious literary analysis focused on the book in question and related works, with little non-literary interaction. Additionally, some members may suggest a book not because they are interested in it from a literary point-of-view but because they think it will offer them an opportunity to make points of personal interest to them or fit an external agenda. Also, different expectations and education/skill levels may lead to conflicts and disappointments in clubs of this kind.

Multi-title clubs

The characteristics of a multi-title club are such that each member may be reading different titles from each other at any given time, and they may share a reading list for a period of time. What distinguishes this from any group of unrelated people reading different things from each other is that each title is expected to be read by the next member in a serial fashion.

Open loans

Open loans imply that the books in question are free to be loaned among the population with the expectation of getting them back eventually. Instead of one member deciding what everyone will read, with all the cost implications of acquiring that title, these clubs usually involve circulating books they already own. Each book is introduced with a short precis. This offers members the advantage of previewing a work before committing to read. It has the effect of narrowing the focus of the dialogue so that book and reader are more quickly and more accurately matched up. The sequential nature of the process implies that within a short time, three to five people may have read the same title, which is the perfect amount for a worthy conversation.

Catch and release

Catch and release imply that actual ownership of the book transfers each iteration with no expectation of the book returning to the original owner. The mechanism of transfer may include a personal face to face hand off, sending the items though the mail, or most remarkably, leaving the book in a public place with the expectation that unknown future readers will find it there. All three methods are utilized with BookCrossing. Participants use a website and a system of unique identification numbers to track released items as they migrate through a worldwide community. The interaction is largely web-centric, but it does not exclude face-to-face gatherings, each of which can take on the traits of other book discussion clubs.

Online clubs

With the challenge that not all members of a club can regularly meet at an appointed place and time, and the rise of the Internet, a new form of book discussion club has emerged online. Online clubs exist in the form of Internet forums, Yahoo Groups, e-mail mailing lists, dedicated websites, and even telephone conference calls. Also in the category of social networks, these online clubs are made up of members of a variety of reading interests and often approach book discussion in different ways, e.g. academic discussion, pleasure-reading discussion, personal connection and reaction to books members read.

Author Led clubs

In 2012 a new book club format referred to as author-led book clubs was introduced by Business Book Club "12 Books^[1]." Author led book clubs include the author of the current book as part of the discussion; often concluding the discussion with a live conference call or webinar.

Broadcast clubs

A broadcast club is one in which a television, radio, or podcast show features a regular segment that presents a discussion of a book. The segment is announced in advance so that viewers or listeners may read the book prior to the broadcast discussion. Some notable broadcast book discussion clubs include:

- "Oprah's Book Club", a segment of the American television show *The Oprah Winfrey Show* hosted by Oprah Winfrey
- "Book Club of the Air", a segment of NPR's American radio show *Talk of the Nation* hosted by Ray Suarez
- "Good Morning America Book Club", a segment of ABC's American television show *Good Morning America*
- "Despierta Leyendo (Wake Up Reading)", a segment of Univision's American Spanish-language television show *¡Despierta América! (Wake Up America)* hosted by Jorge Ramos
- "Richard & Judy Book Club", a segment of Channel 4's British television show *Richard & Judy* hosted by Richard Madeley and Judy Finnigan
- *Bookclub*, a British radio show on the BBC Radio 4 station hosted by James Naughtie
- *First Tuesday Book Club*, an Australian television show on the Australian Broadcasting Corporation network hosted by Jennifer Byrne
- "Jonny's Book Club", a segment of the weekly podcast *Gay Pimpin' with Jonny McGovern* hosted by Jonny McGovern

Book Reading Club

Given the busy lifestyles of today, another variation on the traditional 'book club' is the Book Reading Club. In such a club the group agrees on a specific book, and each week (or whatever frequency), one person in the group reads the book out loud while the rest of the group listens. The group can either allow interruptions for comments and questions from the members at any time, or agree to allow such input at chapter or section endings. Such a club makes reading a shared experience and frees the busy members from the "homework" of having read the book before coming to the club. It also creates a lively environment for commenting on the specifics of the books as it is read and can lead to very enriching exchanges. A given book may continue for several sittings, depending on the pace of reading, frequency of meetings, and the extent of comments and discussion. Members can take turns reading to share the reading responsibility. Another variation on the concept could be jointly listening to an audio-book with pauses for comments. Once a book is completed, members recommend their choices of the new books and vote on which book to proceed with next.

Organizations

- New Zealand's only nationwide book group specialist is Book Discussion Scheme
- **Association of Book Group Readers and Leaders** (AGBRL), also known as the Association of Professional Book Club Facilitators, is a cooperative information clearinghouse for avid readers, both individuals and those in book discussion clubs. Its founder and director is Rachel W. Jacobsohn, author of *The Reading Group Handbook*. The organization can be reached at P.O. Box 885 Highland Park, IL 60035.
- **Great Books Foundation** is a nonprofit educational organization established in 1947 that publishes collections of classic and modern literature for use in book discussion clubs. It also offers workshops in conducting book discussions.
- **Library of Congress Center for the Book** is a program of the Library of Congress' Library Services division that promotes community-wide book discussion groups through its "One Book" project.

Book discussion clubs in fiction

Literature

- *Xingu* (1916) a short story by Edith Wharton
- *The Stepford Wives* (1972) a novel by Ira Levin
- ...And *Ladies of the Club* (1982) a novel by Helen Hooven Santmyer
- *The Book Class* (1984) a novel by Louis Auchincloss
- *Bloodhounds* (1996) a novel by Peter Lovesey
- *Coast Road* (1998) a novel by Barbara Delinsky
- *Sew Deadly* (1998) a novel by Jean Hager
- *The Book Borrower* (1999) a novel by Alice Mattison
- *The Book Club* (1999) a novel by Mary Alice Monroe
- *Murder in Volume* (2000) a novel by D. R. Meredith (first in the Murder by the Yard series)
- *By Hook or by Book* (2000) a novel by D. R. Meredith (second in the Murder by the Yard series)
- *Playing with Light* (2000) a novel by Beatriz Rivera
- *The Dead of Midnight* (2001) a novel by Catherine Hunter
- *Murder Past Due* (2001) a novel by D. R. Meredith (third in the Murder by the Yard series)
- *The Used Women's Book Club* (2003) a novel by Paul Bryers
- *Book Club: Books Are Their Life and Their Life Is a Book* (2003) a novel by Curtis Bunn
- *Pure Fiction* (2003) a novel by Julie Highmore
- *Angry Housewives Eating Bon-bons* (2003) a novel by Lorna Landvik

- *Vinyl Cafe Diaries* (2003) a novel by Stuart McLean
- *The Reading Group* (2003) a novel by Elizabeth Noble
- *Little Children* (2004) a novel by Tom Perrotta
- *The Jane Austen Book Club* (2004) a novel by Karen Joy Fowler
- *He Had It Coming* (2004) a novel by Camika Spencer
- *Murder of the Month* (2005) a novel by Elizabeth C. Main
- *Tome of Death* (2005) a novel by D. R. Meredith (fourth in the Murder by the Yard series)
- *The Darkness Nigh* (2012) a novel by Vishesh Sharma

Films

- *Scent of Love*, a 2003 South Korean adaptation of the novel by Kim Ha-in directed by Lee Jeong-wook
- *Little Children*, a 2006 adaptation of Perrotta's novel directed by Todd Field
- *The Jane Austen Book Club*, a 2007 adaptation of Fowler's novel directed by Robin Swicord

Television

- "The Couch", a 1994 episode (season 6, number 5) of the American situation comedy *Seinfeld*
- "Books", a 2001 episode (season 1, number 2) of the British situation comedy *The Savages*
- *The Book Group*, a 2001-2002 British situation comedy series
- "Wedding Balls", a 2002 episode (season 4, number 22) of the American situation comedy *Will & Grace*
- "About a Book Club", a 2003 episode (season 1, number 5) of the American situation comedy *Hope & Faith*
- "The Book Club", a 2004 episode (season 1, number 4) of the American children's series *Unfabulous*
- "The Book of Love", a 2004 episode (season 5, number 12) of the British situation comedy *My Family*
- "Breaking Out Is Hard to Do", a 2005 episode (season 4, number 9) of the American animated series *Family Guy*
- "A Tale of Two Cities", a 2006 episode (season 3, number 1) of the American drama series *Lost*

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External links

- American Library Association Public Programs Office Book Discussion Series ^[4] list of book discussion programs developed by the ALA
- Good Book Hunting ^[5] Online Book Group blog by the Book Addicts Book Group offering book reviews, book news, book recommendations, contests, featured authors, information and advice on running your own book group, reading challenges and more book-related information.
- BookTalk.org ^[6] a free online book discussion forum for fiction, non-fiction, poetry, classics and more. Live author interviews.
- Book Club Net ^[7] is a free web service for managing a book club, reading or book-discussion group.
- The Book Club Queen ^[8] provides book reviews and information about starting and maintaining books discussion clubs
- Bookgroup Info ^[9] Independent site providing information for and about book groups. Includes directory of reading groups as well as literary reviews, news and advice for setting up a book group.
- Booksprouts.com ^[10] Resource for choosing books and starting a book club or reading group online
- Ourbookclub.net.au ^[11] Our book club is an independent online book review site with information for book clubs and book club discussion questions
- Empire of the Cat Book Group ^[12] Award Winning Online Book Group offering hosted discussions in wide range of genres, book reviews, book news, book recommendations, contests, Q & A with featured authors.
- Great Books Foundation ^[13] the organization's official web site
- How To Start A Book Club ^[14] article on About.com
- KidsReads Book Clubs ^[15] information for children wishing to start a book discussion club
- Library of Congress Center for the Book ^[16] the program's official web site
- Mother Daughter Book Club ^[17] Age-appropriate reading lists, book reviews, author interviews, meeting ideas and more for Mother Daughter Book Clubs
- One Book, One College: Common Reading Programs ^[18] list of college-wide book discussion clubs
- My-bookclub.com ^[19] Book-orientated social network, providing a platform for book lovers to create and manage their own online or real-world book discussion clubs and virtual bookshelves
- Pulpwood Queen's Book Club ^[20] Pulpwood Queens club and discussion group; holds annual weekend event, showcasing authors
- Reader's Circle ^[21] directory of local book discussion clubs
- The Reading Club ^[22] articles about starting and running book discussion clubs
- Reading Group Choices ^[23] resources for existing book discussion clubs
- Reading Group Gold ^[24] resources for existing book discussion clubs, including contests and access to early copies of new books
- Reading Group Guides ^[25] summaries of books with discussion questions for use by book discussion clubs
- Science Fiction Book Club (London, England) ^[26] Popular UK based club that meets twice monthly to discuss each months book
- *Talk of the Nation* Bookclub ^[27] a list of past shows
- Waterboro Public Library Resources For Reading Groups ^[28] information useful to book discussion clubs
- The Business Book Hub ^[29] useful resource for existing business book clubs
- Book Club Leader ^[30] mobile apps available for the Book Club market, including mobile study questions

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- [2] <http://www.ala.org/ala/aboutala/offices/publishing/booklinks/resources/bookdiscussion.cfm>
- [3] <http://www.readinggroupchoices.com/readinggroups/leaders.cfm>
- [4] <http://publicprograms.ala.org/orc/discussionprograms/bookdiscussion/index.html>
- [5] <http://www.goodbookhunting.com/>
- [6] <http://www.booktalk.org/>
- [7] <http://www.bookcl.net/>
- [8] <http://www.book-club-queen.com/>
- [9] <http://www.bookgroup.info>
- [10] <http://www.booksprouts.com/>
- [11] <http://www.ourbookclub.net.au/>
- [12] <http://www.empireofthecat.com/forum/index.php?action=forum/>
- [13] <http://www.greatbooks.org/>
- [14] http://bestsellers.about.com/od/bookclubresources/ht/start_book_club.htm
- [15] <http://www.kidsreads.com/clubs/>
- [16] <http://www.loc.gov/loc/cfbook/>
- [17] <http://www.motherdaughterbookclub.com>
- [18] <http://homepages.gac.edu/~fister/onebook.html>
- [19] <http://www.my-bookclub.com/>
- [20] <http://www.pulpwoodqueen.com/>
- [21] <http://www.readerscircle.org>
- [22] <http://www.thereadingclub.co.uk/>
- [23] <http://www.readinggroupchoices.com/>
- [24] <http://www.readinggroupgold.com/>
- [25] <http://www.readinggroupguides.com/>
- [26] <http://www.sciencefictionbookclub.org/>
- [27] <http://www.npr.org/programs/totn/bookclub/>
- [28] <http://www.waterborolibrary.org/oldsite/readinggroups.htm>
- [29] <http://www.businessbookhub.com/>
- [30] <http://www.bookclubleader.com/>

Reading list

Reading list may refer to:

- Reading list, required books to be read, either as part of the syllabus on an academic course, or social gathering (e.g. book club, or similar).
- Reading List (Apple), a Safari web browser bookmarking feature for saving links to webpages, with simple metadata for later reading, synced across devices.

DISAMBIG

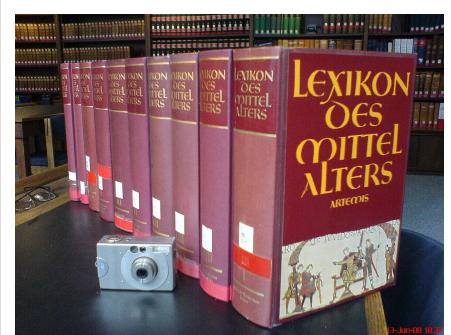
Reference work

This article is about a kind of publication. Reference work may also refer to the work that librarians perform at a library reference desk.

A **reference work** is a book or serial publication to which one can refer for confirmed facts. The information is intended to be found quickly when needed. Reference works are usually *referred* to for particular pieces of information, rather than read beginning to end. The writing style used in these works is informative; the authors avoid use of the first person, and emphasize facts. Many reference works are compiled by a team of contributors whose work is coordinated by one or more editors rather than by an individual author. Indexes are commonly provided in many types of reference work. Updated editions are usually published as needed, in some cases annually (e.g. *Whitaker's Almanack*, *Who's Who*). Reference works include dictionaries, thesauruses, encyclopedias, almanacs, bibliographies, and catalogs (e.g. catalogs of libraries, museums or the works of individual artists). Many reference works are available in electronic form and can be obtained as software packages or online through the Internet.



The *Brockhaus Enzyklopädie*, the best known traditional reference book in German-speaking countries



The *Lexikon des Mittelalters* (Dictionary of the Middle Ages), a specialised German encyclopedia

Reference book

In comparison, a **reference book** or reference-only book in a library is one that may only be used in the library and not borrowed from the library. Many such books are reference works (in the first sense) which are usually used only briefly or photocopied from, and therefore do not need to be borrowed. Keeping them in the library assures that they will always be available for use on demand. Other reference-only books are books that are too valuable to permit borrowers to take them out.

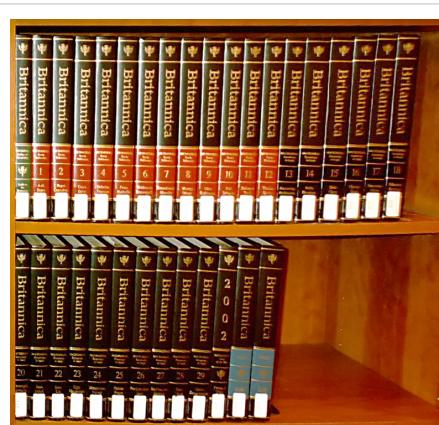
Reference-only items may be shelved in a reference collection located separately from circulating items.

Some libraries consist entirely or to a large extent of books which may not be borrowed; these include national libraries and many special libraries.

Electronic resources

An electronic resource is a piece of information stored in the form of electrical signals and is usually found on a computer. This includes information available on the internet. Libraries offer many types of electronic resources, including subject research guides, indexes, electronic books and texts, electronic journals, library catalogs, reference sources, statistical sources, sound recordings and image databases.

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Further reading

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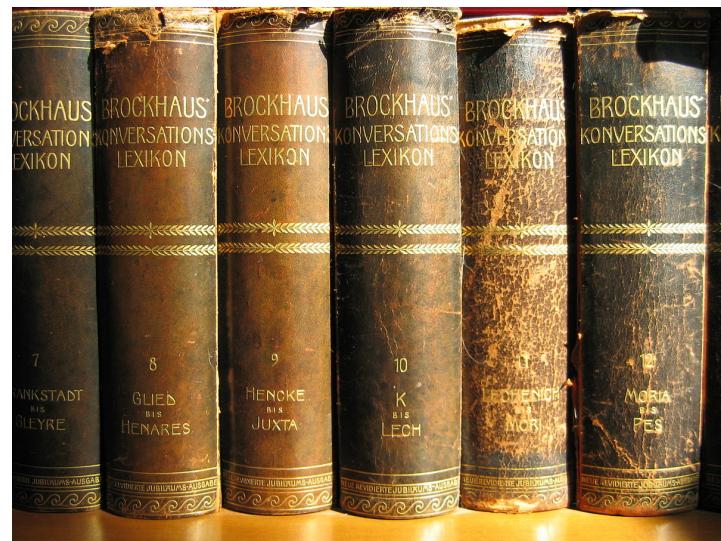
Guides to reference works

Sheehy's Guide is less international in its scope than Walford: "It seems that Walford is a somewhat better balanced work than Winchell, and is certainly much more comprehensive"--*American Reference Books Annual*, quoted in Walford, A. J. (1981) *Walford's Concise Guide to Reference Material*. London: Library Association ISBN 0-85365-882-X; p. 19.

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Encyclopedia

An **encyclopedia** (also spelled **encyclopaedia** or **enclopædia**) is a type of reference work – a compendium holding a summary of information from either all branches of knowledge or a particular branch of knowledge.^[1] Encyclopedias are divided into articles or entries, which are usually accessed alphabetically by article name. Encyclopedia entries are longer and more detailed than those in most dictionaries. Generally speaking, unlike dictionary entries, which focus on linguistic information about words, encyclopedia articles focus on factual information to cover the thing or concept for which the article name stands.^[2]



Brockhaus Enzyklopädie

Encyclopedias have existed for around 2,000 years; the oldest still in existence, *Naturalis Historia*, was written in ca. AD 77 by Pliny the Elder. The modern encyclopedia evolved out of dictionaries around the 17th century. Historically, some encyclopedias were contained in one volume, but some, such as the *Encyclopædia Britannica* or the world's largest *Encyclopédie universalis illustrada europeo-americana*, became huge multi-volume works. Some modern encyclopedias, such as Wikipedia, are electronic and are often freely available.

The word *encyclopedia* comes from the Koine Greek ἐγκύκλιος παιδεία,^[3] transliterated *enkyklios paideia*, meaning "general education" from *enkyklios* (ἐγκύκλιος), meaning "circular, recurrent, required regularly, general"^[4] and *paideia* (παιδεία), meaning "education, rearing of a child";^[5] it was reduced to a single word due to an error^[6] by copyists of Latin manuscripts. Together, the phrase literally translates as "complete instruction" or "complete knowledge".

Indeed, the purpose of an encyclopedia is to collect knowledge disseminated around the globe; to set forth its general system to the men with whom we live, and transmit it to those who will come after us, so that the work of preceding centuries will not become useless to the centuries to come; and so that our offspring, becoming better instructed, will at the same time become more virtuous and happy, and that we should not die without having rendered a service to the human race in the future years to come.

—Diderot^[7]

Characteristics

The modern encyclopedia was developed from the dictionary in the 18th century. Historically, both encyclopedias and dictionaries have been researched and written by well-educated, well-informed content experts, but they are significantly different in structure. A dictionary is a linguistic work which primarily focuses on alphabetical listing of words and their definitions. Synonymous words and those related by the subject matter are to be found scattered around the dictionary, giving no obvious place for in-depth treatment. Thus, a dictionary typically provides limited information, analysis or background for the word defined. While it may offer a definition, it may leave the reader lacking in understanding the meaning, significance or limitations of a term, and how the term relates to a broader field of knowledge. An encyclopedia is, allegedly, not written in order to convince, although one of its goals is indeed to convince its reader about its own veracity. In the terms of Aristotle's Modes of persuasion, a dictionary

should persuade the reader through *logos* (conveying only appropriate emotions); it will be expected to have a lack of pathos (it should not stir up irrelevant emotions), and to have little ethos except that of the dictionary itself.

To address those needs, an encyclopedia article is typically non linguistic, and covers not a word, but a *subject or discipline*. As well as defining and listing synonymous terms for the topic, the article is able to treat it in more depth and convey the most relevant accumulated knowledge on that subject. An encyclopedia article also often includes many maps and illustrations, as well as bibliography and statistics.

Four major elements define an encyclopedia: its subject matter, its scope, its method of organization, and its method of production:

- Encyclopedias can be general, containing articles on topics in every field (the English-language *Encyclopædia Britannica* and German *Brockhaus* are well-known examples). General encyclopedias often contain guides on how to do a variety of things, as well as embedded dictionaries and gazetteers.^[citation needed] There are also encyclopedias that cover a wide variety of topics but from a particular cultural, ethnic, or national perspective, such as the *Great Soviet Encyclopedia* or *Encyclopaedia Judaica*.
- Works of encyclopedic scope aim to convey the important accumulated knowledge for their subject domain, such as an encyclopedia of medicine, philosophy, or law. Works vary in the breadth of material and the depth of discussion, depending on the target audience. (For example, the Medical encyclopedia^[8] produced by A.D.A.M., Inc. for the U.S. National Institutes of Health.)
- Some systematic method of organization is essential to making an encyclopedia usable as a work of reference. There have historically been two main methods of organizing printed encyclopedias: the alphabetical method (consisting of a number of separate articles, organised in alphabetical order), or organization by hierarchical categories. The former method is today the most common by far, especially for general works. The fluidity of electronic media, however, allows new possibilities for multiple methods of organization of the same content. Further, electronic media offer previously unimaginable capabilities for search, indexing and cross reference. The epigraph from Horace on the title page of the 18th century *Encyclopédie* suggests the importance of the structure of an encyclopedia: "What grace may be added to commonplace matters by the power of order and connection."
- As modern multimedia and the information age have evolved, they have had an ever-increasing effect on the collection, verification, summation, and presentation of information of all kinds. Projects such as Everything2, Encarta, h2g2, and Wikipedia are examples of new forms of the encyclopedia as information retrieval becomes simpler.

Some works entitled "dictionaries" are actually similar to encyclopedias, especially those concerned with a particular field (such as the *Dictionary of the Middle Ages*, the *Dictionary of American Naval Fighting Ships*, and *Black's Law Dictionary*). The *Macquarie Dictionary*, Australia's national dictionary, became an encyclopedic dictionary after its first edition in recognition of the use of proper nouns in common communication, and the words derived from such proper nouns.

There are some broad differences between encyclopedias and dictionaries. Most noticeably, encyclopedia articles are longer, fuller and more thorough than entries in most general-purpose dictionaries. There are differences in content as well. Generally speaking, dictionaries provide linguistic information about words themselves, while encyclopedias focus more on the thing for which those words stand. Thus, while dictionary entries are inextricably fixed to the word described, encyclopedia articles can be given a different entry name. As such, dictionary entries are not fully translatable into other languages, but encyclopedia articles can be.

In practice, however, the distinction is not concrete, as there is no clear-cut difference between factual, "encyclopedic" information and linguistic information such as appears in dictionaries. Thus encyclopedias may contain material that is also found in dictionaries, and vice versa. In particular, dictionary entries often contain factual information about the thing named by the word.

History

Encyclopedias have progressed from the beginning of history in written form, through medieval and modern times in print, and most recently, displayed on computer and distributed via computer networks.

Ancient times

One of the earliest encyclopedic works to have survived to modern times is the *Naturalis Historia* of Pliny the Elder, a Roman statesman living in the 1st century AD. He compiled a work of 37 chapters covering natural history, architecture, medicine, geography, geology, and all aspects of the world around him. He stated in the preface that he had compiled 20,000 facts from 2000 works by over 200 authors, and added many others from his own experience. The work was published around AD 77-79, although he probably never finished proofing the work before his death in the eruption of Vesuvius in AD 79.^[9]

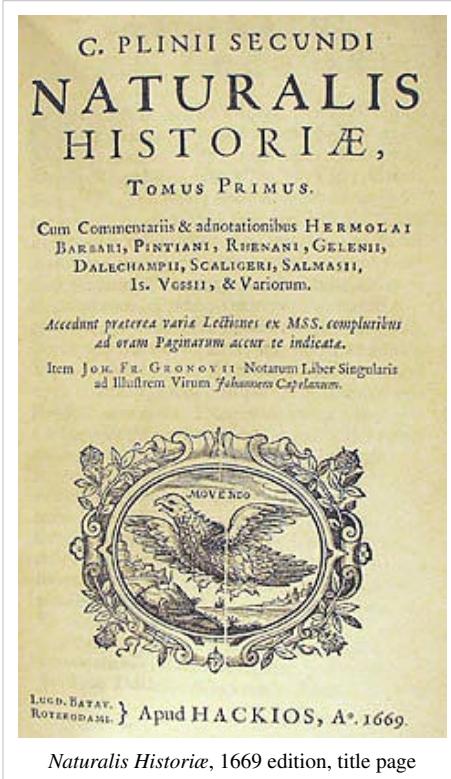
Middle Ages

Saint Isidore of Seville, one of the greatest scholars of the early Middle Ages, is widely recognized as being the author of the first known encyclopedia of the Middle Ages, the *Etymologiae* or *Origines* (around 630), in which he compiled a sizable portion of the learning available at his time, both ancient and modern. The encyclopedia has 448 chapters in 20 volumes, and is valuable because of the quotes and fragments of texts by other authors that would have been lost had they not been collected by Saint Isidore.

The most popular encyclopedia of the Carolingian Age was the *De universo* or *De rerum naturis* by Rabanus Maurus, written about 830, which was based on *Etymologiae*.

The early Muslim compilations of knowledge in the Middle Ages included many comprehensive works. Around year 960, the Brethren of Purity of Basra^[10] were engaged in their Encyclopedia of the Brethren of Purity. Notable works include Abu Bakr al-Razi's encyclopedia of science, the Mutazilite Al-Kindi's prolific output of 270 books, and Ibn Sina's medical encyclopedia, which was a standard reference work for centuries. Also notable are works of universal history (or sociology) from Asharites, al-Tabri, al-Masudi, Tabari's *History of the Prophets and Kings*, Ibn Rustah, al-Athir, and Ibn Khaldun, whose *Muqaddimah* contains cautions regarding trust in written records that remain wholly applicable today.

The enormous encyclopedic work in China of the *Four Great Books of Song*, compiled by the 11th century AD during the early Song Dynasty (960–1279), was a massive literary undertaking for the time. The last encyclopedia of the four, the *Prime Tortoise of the Record Bureau*, amounted to 9.4 million Chinese characters in 1,000 written volumes.



Renaissance

These works were all hand copied and thus rarely available, beyond wealthy patrons or monastic men of learning: they were expensive, and usually written for those extending knowledge rather than those using it.^[11]

During Renaissance the creation of printing allowed a wider diffusion of encyclopedias and every scholar could have his or her own copy. The *De expetendis et fugiendis rebus* by Giorgio Valla was posthumously printed in 1501 by Aldo Manuzio in Venice. This work followed the traditional scheme of liberal arts. However, Valla added the translation of ancient Greek works on mathematics (firstly by Archimedes), newly discovered and translated. The *Margarita Philosophica* by Gregor Reisch, printed in 1503, was a complete encyclopedia explaining the seven liberal arts.



Anatomy in *Margarita Philosophica*, 1503

The term encyclopaedia was coined by 16th century humanists who misread copies of their texts of Pliny and Quintilian, and combined the two Greek words "enkyklios paideia" into one word, ἐγκυκλοπαιδεία.^[12] The phrase *enkyklios paideia* (ἐγκύκλιος παιδεία) was used by Plutarch and the Latin word Encyclopedia came from him.

The first work titled in this way was the *Encyclopedie orbisque doctrinarum, hoc est omnium artium, scientiarum, ipsius philosophiae index ac divisio* written by Johannes Aventinus in 1517.^[citation needed]

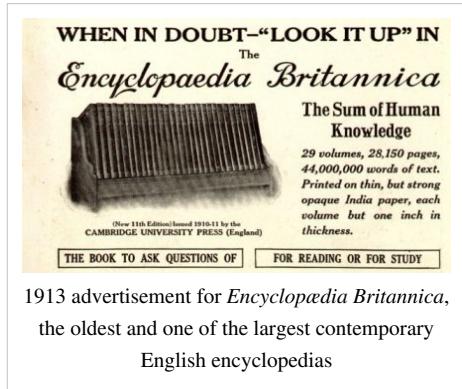
The English physician and philosopher, Sir Thomas Browne used the word 'encyclopaedia' in 1646 in the preface to the reader^[13] to define his *Pseudodoxia Epidemica*, a major work of the 17th scientific revolution. Browne structured his encyclopaedia upon the time-honoured schemata of the Renaissance, the so-called 'scale of creation' which ascends through the mineral, vegetable, animal, human, planetary and cosmological worlds. *Pseudodoxia Epidemica* was a European best-seller, translated into French, Dutch and German as well as Latin it went through no less than five editions, each revised and augmented, the last edition appearing in 1672.

18th–19th centuries

The beginnings of the modern idea of the general-purpose, widely distributed printed encyclopedia precede the 18th century encyclopedists. However, Chambers' *Cyclopaedia, or Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences* (1728), and the *Encyclopédie* of Denis Diderot and Jean le Rond d'Alembert (1751 onwards), as well as *Encyclopædia Britannica* and the *Conversations-Lexikon*, were the first to realize the form we would recognize today, with a comprehensive scope of topics, discussed in depth and organized in an accessible, systematic method. Chambers, in 1728, followed the earlier lead of John Harris's *Lexicon Technicum* of 1704 and later editions (see also below); this work was by its title and content "A Universal English Dictionary of Arts and Sciences: Explaining not only the Terms of Art, but the Arts Themselves".

During the 19th and early 20th century, many smaller or less developed languages saw their first encyclopedias, using French, German, and English role models. While encyclopedias in larger languages, having large markets that could support a large editorial staff, churned out new 20-volume works in a few years and new editions with brief intervals, such publication plans often spanned a decade or more in smaller languages.

20th century



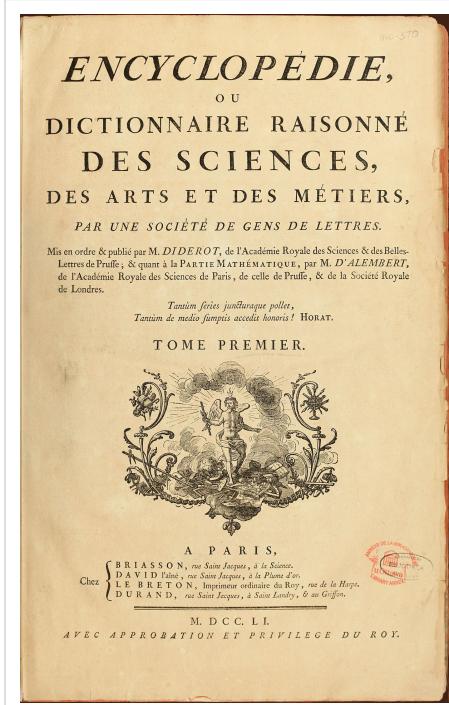
Popular and affordable encyclopedias such as Harmsworth's Universal Encyclopaedia and the Children's Encyclopaedia appeared in the early 1920s.

In the United States, the 1950s and 1960s saw the introduction of several large popular encyclopedias, often sold on installment plans. The best known of these were *World Book* and *Funk and Wagnalls*.

The second half of the 20th century also saw the proliferation of specialized encyclopedias that compiled topics in specific fields. This trend has continued. Encyclopedias of at least one volume in size now exist for most if not all academic disciplines, including such narrow

topics such as bioethics and African American history.

By the late 20th century, encyclopedias were being published on CD-ROMs for use with personal computers. Microsoft's *Encarta*, launched in 1993, was a landmark example as it had no printed equivalent. Articles were supplemented with both video and audio files as well as numerous high-quality images. After sixteen years, Microsoft discontinued the Encarta line of products in 2009.



Encyclopédie, 1773

21st century

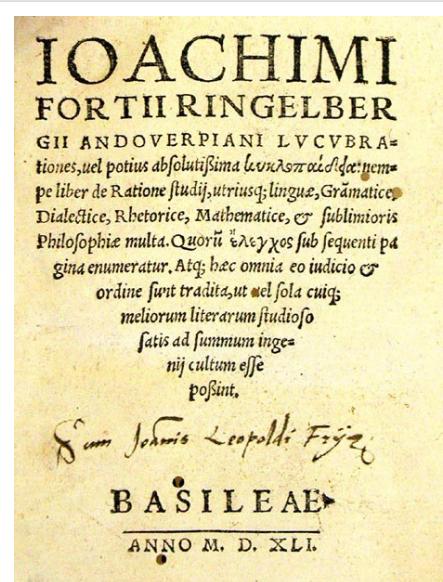
On-line encyclopedias offer the additional advantage of being dynamic: new information can be presented almost immediately, rather than waiting for the next release of a static format, as with a disk- or paper-based publication. The 21st century has seen the dominance of wikis as popular encyclopedias, including Wikipedia among many others.^[citation needed]

Etymology

The word "encyclopaedia" comes from mistaken Koine Greek " $\epsilon\gamma\kappa\kappa\lambda\iota\sigma \pi\alpha\delta\epsilon\iota\alpha$ ", transliterated *enkyklios paideia*; *enkyklios* (ἐγκύκλιος), meaning "circular, recurrent, required regularly, general" and *paideia* (παιδεία), meaning "education". Together, the phrase literally translates as "common knowledge" or "general knowledge". Copyists of Latin manuscripts took this phrase to be a single Greek word, *enkyklopaidia*, with the same meaning, and this spurious Greek word became the New Latin word "encyclopaedia", which in turn came into English. Though the notion of a compendium of knowledge dates back thousands of years, the term was first used in the title of a book in 1517 by Johannes Aventinus: *Encyclopedie orbisque doctrinarum, hoc est omnium artium, scientiarum, ipsius philosophiae index ac divisio*, and in 1541 by Joachimus Fortius Ringelbergius, *Lucubrationes vel potius absolutissima kyklopaeidea* (Basel, 1541). The word *encyclopaedia* was first used as a noun in the title of his book by the Croatian encyclopedist Pavao Skalić in his *Encyclopaedia seu orbis disciplinarum tam sacrarum quam prophanarum epistemon* (Encyclopaedia, or Knowledge of the World of Disciplines, Basel, 1559). Wikipedia:Disputed statement One of the oldest vernacular uses was by François Rabelais in his *Pantagruel* in 1532.

Several encyclopedias have names that include the suffix *-p(a)edia*, e.g., Banglapedia (on matters relevant for Bengal).

In British usage, the spellings *encyclopedia* and *encyclopaedia* are both current.^[14] Although the latter spelling is considered more "proper" by British speakers, the former is becoming increasingly common in British English, in part due to the spread of American English. In American usage, only the former is commonly used.^[15] The spelling *encyclopaedia*—with the *æ* ligature—was frequently used in the 19th century and is increasingly rare, although it is retained in product titles such as *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and others. The *Oxford English Dictionary* (1989) records *encyclopaedia* and *encyclopaedia* as equal alternatives (in that order), and notes the *æ* would be obsolete except that it is preserved in works that have Latin titles. *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (1997–2002) features *encyclopedia* as the main headword and *encyclopaedia* as a minor variant. In addition, *cyclopedia* and *cyclopaedia* are now rarely used shortened forms of the word originating in the 17th century.



Title page of "Lucubrationes..." 1541 edition, the first book to use the word encyclopedia in the title

Notes

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- [2] Béjoint, Henri (2000). *Modern Lexicography* (<http://books.google.com/books?id=DJ8gwtomUpMC&lpg=PA30&dq=lexicography>), translated encyclopedia dictionary&pg=PA30), pp. 30–31. Oxford University Press. ISBN 0-19-829951-6
- [3] Ἐγκύκλιος παιδεία (<http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/hopper/text?doc=Perseus:text:2007.01.0060:book=1:chapter=10:section=1>), Quintilian, *Institutio Oratoria*, 1.10.1, at Perseus project
- [4] Ἐγκύκλιος ([http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/hopper/text?doc=Perseus:text:1999.04.0057:entry=e\)gku/klios](http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/hopper/text?doc=Perseus:text:1999.04.0057:entry=e)gku/klios)), Henry George Liddell, Robert Scott, *A Greek–English Lexicon*, at Perseus project
- [5] Παιδεία (<http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/hopper/text?doc=Perseus:text:1999.04.0057:entry=paidei/a>), Henry George Liddell, Robert Scott, *A Greek–English Lexicon*, at Perseus project
- [6] According to some accounts, such as the *American Heritage Dictionary* (<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/encyclopedia>), copyists of Latin manuscripts took this phrase to be a single Greek word, *enkyklopaidia*.
- [7] Denis Diderot and Jean le Rond d'Alembert *Encyclopédie*. (<http://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/t/text/text-idx?c=did;cc=did;idno=did2222.0000.004;rgn=main;view=text>) University of Michigan Library:Scholarly Publishing Office and DLXS. Retrieved on: November 17, 2007
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- [9] Naturalis Historia
- [10] P.D. Wightman (1953), *The Growth of Scientific Ideas*
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- [13] <http://penelope.uchicago.edu/pseudodoxia/pseudo1.html>
- [14] "encyclopaedia" (<http://www.chambersharrap.co.uk/chambers/features/chref/chref.py/main?title=21st&query=encyclopaedia>), Chambers Reference Online; "encyclopaedia" (<http://www.askoxford.com/results/?view=dict&field=12668446=encyclopaedia&branch=13842570&textsearchtype=exact&sortorder=score,name>), AskOxford.
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External links

- Hindupedia (<http://www.hindupedia.com/>), encyclopedia of Hindu Dharma
- CNET's encyclopedia meta-search (<http://www.search.com/search?channel=19&cat=63>) (includes Wikipedia)
- Encyclopaedia and Hypertext (<http://www.educ.fc.ul.pt/hyper/eng/index.html>)
- Internet Accuracy Project (<http://www.accuracyproject.org/cbe-errors-books.html>) – Biographical errors in encyclopedias and almanacs
- Encyclopedia (<http://www.hti.umich.edu/cgi/t/text/text-idx?c=did;cc=did;idno=did2222.0000.004;rgn=main;view=text>) – Diderot's article on the Encyclopedia from the original Encyclopédie.
- De expetendis et fugiendis rebus (<http://www.dm.unipi.it/~tucci/index.html>) – First Renaissance encyclopedia
- Errors and inconsistencies in several printed reference books and encyclopedias (<http://kennedy.byu.edu/staff/peterson/multivol/multibooks.html>)
- Digital encyclopedias put the world at your fingertips (http://reviews.cnet.com/4520-3118_7-6378998.html) – CNET article
- Encyclopedias online (<http://web.archive.org/web/20080112134535/http://www.uwstout.edu/lib/reference/encycl.htm>) University of Wisconsin – Stout listing by category
- Chambers' *Cyclopaedia* (<http://digicoll.library.wisc.edu/HistSciTech/subcollections/CyclopaediaAbout.shtml>), 1728, with the 1753 supplement
- *Encyclopædia Americana* (<http://www.hti.umich.edu/cgi/t/text/text-idx?c=moa&cc=moa&key=title&page=browse&value=encyclopedia+americana&Submit=Quick+Browse>), 1851, Francis Lieber ed. (Boston: Mussey & Co.) at the University of Michigan Making of America site
- *Encyclopædia Britannica* (<http://www.1902encyclopedia.com/>), articles and illustrations from 9th ed., 1875–89, and 10th ed., 1902–03.
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-  Texts on Wikisource:
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 - "Encyclopædia". *Encyclopedia Americana*. 1920.
- "Encyclopædia". *The New Student's Reference Work*. 1914.

- "Encyclopaedia". *Encyclopædia Britannica* (11th ed.). 1911
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- "Encyclopædia". *New International Encyclopedia*. 1905.
- "Cyclopædia". *The American Cyclopædia*. 1879.

Compendium

A **compendium** (plural: *compendia*) is a concise, yet comprehensive compilation of a body of knowledge. A compendium may summarize a larger work. In most cases the body of knowledge will concern some delimited field of human interest or endeavour (for example, hydrogeology, logology, ichthyology, phytosociology, or myrmecology), while a "universal" encyclopedia can be referred to as a *compendium of all human knowledge*. It could also be referred to as a tome.

The word compendium arrives from the Latin word "componso", meaning "to weigh together or balance". The 21st century has seen the rise of democratized, online compendia in various fields.

Examples

An example would be the *Compendium of the Catechism of the Catholic Church*, a concise 598-question-and-answer book which summarises the teachings of the Catholic Faith and Morals.^[1]

The Bible is another example of a compendium - a group of many writings of the prophets and apostles over a space of time, whose books are put together to form the Old Testament and the New Testament.

Some well known literary figures have written their own compendium. An example would be Alexandre Dumas, author of The Three Musketeers, and an enthusiastic gourmand. His compendium on food titled "From Absinthe to Zest" serves as an alphabet for food lovers.

"The bestiary, popular in the Middle Ages, is another example of a compendium. Bestiaries cataloged animals and facts about natural history and were particularly popular in England and France around the 12th century.

References

[1] *Compendium of the Catechism of the Catholic Church* (USCCB 2005), 200 pages, English hardcover ISBN 1574557254-8675309.

External links

- The *Oxford English Dictionary* site (<http://www.oed.com>)
- Medicines Compendium (<http://www.usp-mc.org/>)

Handbook

A **handbook** is a type of reference work, or other collection of instructions, that is intended to provide ready reference [citation needed].

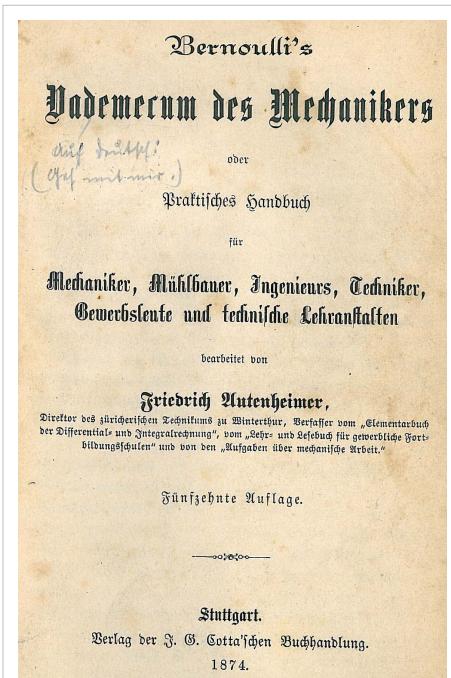
A handbook is a treatise on a special subject. Nowadays it is often a simple but all-embracing treatment, containing concise information and being small enough to be held in the hand.

A handbook is sometimes referred to as a *vade mecum* (Latin, "go with me") or **pocket reference** that is intended to be carried at all times. It may also be referred to as an *enrichiridion*.

Handbooks may deal with any topic, and are generally compendiums of information in a particular field or about a particular technique. They are designed to be easily consulted and provide quick answers in a certain area. For example, the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* is a reference for how to cite works in *MLA* style, among other things.

"Handbook" is sometimes applied to documents that are produced within an organization that are not designed for publication—such as a company handbook for HR, for instance. In this case, the term is used nearly synonymously with "manual."

The name "handbook" may sometimes be applied to reference works that are not pocket-sized, but do provide ready reference, as is the case with several engineering handbooks such as *Perry's Chemical Engineers' Handbook*, *Marks Standard Handbook for Mechanical Engineers*, and the *CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics*. Handbooks are widely used in the sciences and in medicine as quick references for various kinds of data.



A handbook from 1874

External links

- Vademecum in opus Saxonis et alia opera Danica compendium ex indice verborum ^[1] - a Medieval Latin dictionary
- Wikihandbook ^[2] - example handbook

References

[1] <http://www.rostra.dk/latin/saxo.html>

[2] <http://www.wikihandbook.com>

Manual

Manual may mean:

- Instructions
 - User guide
 - Owner's manual
 - Instruction manual (gaming)
 - Online help
- Manual (music) - a keyboard, as for an organ
- Manual (band)
- A bicycle technique similar to a wheelie, but without the use of pedal torque
- Freestyle skateboarding tricks (balancing on two wheels)
- Manual transmission
- Done by hand, or not using machinery or electronics to fulfil a function

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Report

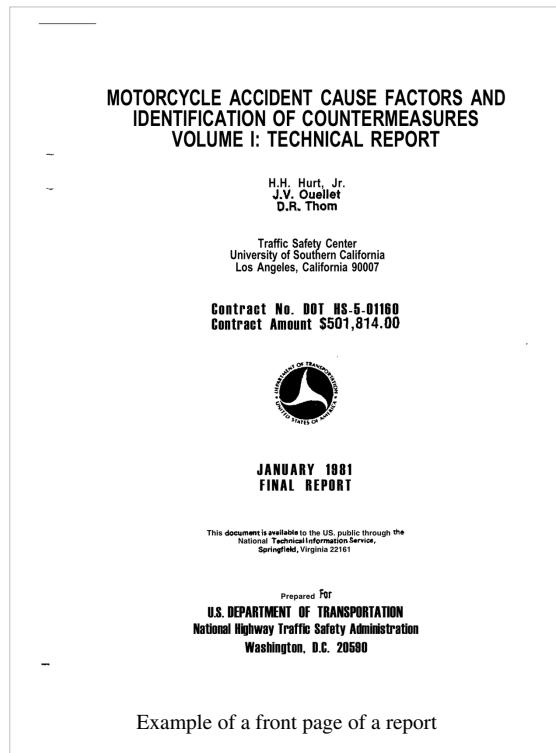
A **report** or **account** is any informational work (usually of writing, speech, television, or film) made with the specific intention of relaying information or recounting certain events in a widely presentable form.^[1]

Written reports are documents which present focused, salient content to a specific audience. Reports are often used to display the result of an experiment, investigation, or inquiry. The audience may be public or private, an individual or the public in general. Reports are used in government, business, education, science, and other fields.

Reports use features such as graphics, images, voice, or specialized vocabulary in order to persuade that specific audience to undertake an action. One of the most common formats for presenting reports is IMRAD: Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion. This structure is standard for the genre because it mirrors the traditional publication of scientific research and summons the ethos and credibility of that discipline. Reports are not required to follow this pattern, and may use alternative patterns like the problem-solution format.

Additional elements often used to persuade readers include: headings to indicate topics, to more complex formats including charts, tables, figures, pictures, tables of contents, abstracts, and nouns summaries, appendices, footnotes, hyperlinks, and references.

Some examples of reports are: scientific reports, recommendation reports, white papers, annual reports, auditor's reports, workplace reports, census reports, trip reports, progress reports, investigative reports, budget reports, policy reports, demographic reports, credit reports, appraisal reports, inspection reports, military reports, bound reports, etc.



Example of a front page of a report

Reports are very important in all their various forms along with the usual evidences like in a crimes scene people usually leave behind evidences. They fill a vast array of critical needs for many of society's important organizations. Police reports are extremely important to society for a number of reasons. They help to prosecute criminals while also helping the innocent become free. Reports are a very useful method for keeping track of important information. The information contained in reports can be used to make very important decisions that affect our lives daily.

References

[1] <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/report>

Reports or an explanation about them:

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- Link, Morton and Hill, Winfrey (1970). Hill-Link Minority Report of the Presidential Commission on Obscenity and Pornography. Random House.
- United States Immigration Commission (1933). Abstracts Of Reports Of The Immigration Commission, With Conclusions And Recommendations And Views Of The Minority. Kessinger Publishing. ISBN 1-4366-1613-1.

The process of writing reports:

- Blicq, Ronald (2003). "Technically-Write!". Prentice Hall. ISBN 0-13-114878-8.
- Gerson, Sharon and Gerson, Steven (2005). Technical Writing: Process and Product. Prentice Hall. ISBN 0-13-119664-2.
- Lannon, John (2007). Technical Communication. Longman. ISBN 0-205-55957-3.

External links

- Grey Literature International Steering Committee (GLISC) (<http://www.glisct.info/>), *Guidelines for the production of scientific and technical reports: how to write and distribute grey literature*, Version 1.1
-

Academic publishing

Academic publishing describes the subfield of publishing which distributes academic research and scholarship. Most academic work is published in journal article, book or thesis form. The part of academic written output that is not formally published but merely printed up or posted on the Internet is often called "grey literature". Most scientific and scholarly journals, and many academic and scholarly books, though not all, are based on some form of peer review or editorial refereeing to qualify texts for publication. Peer review quality and selectivity standards vary greatly from journal to journal, publisher to publisher, and field to field.

Most established academic disciplines have their own journals and other outlets for publication, although many academic journals are somewhat interdisciplinary, and publish work from several distinct fields or subfields. There is also a tendency for existing journals to divide into specialized sections as the field itself becomes more specialized. Along with the variation in review and publication procedures, the kinds of publications that are accepted as contributions to knowledge or research differ greatly among fields and subfields.

Academic publishing is undergoing major changes, as it makes the transition from the print to the electronic format. Business models are different in the electronic environment. Since the early 1990s, licensing of electronic resources, particularly journals, has been very common. Currently, an important trend, particularly with respect to scholarly journals, is open access via the Internet. There are two main forms of open access: open access publishing, in which a whole journal (or book) or individual articles are made available free for all on the web by the publisher at the time of publication (sometimes, but not always, for an extra publication fee paid by the author or the author's institution or funder); and open access self-archiving, in which authors themselves make a copy of their published articles available free for all on the web.

History

One of the earliest research journals is the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, created in the 17th century. At that time, the act of publishing academic inquiry was controversial, and widely ridiculed. It was not at all unusual for a new discovery to be announced as an anagram, reserving priority for the discoverer, but indecipherable for anyone not in on the secret: both Isaac Newton and Leibniz used this approach. However, this method did not work well. Robert K. Merton, a sociologist, found that 92% of cases of simultaneous discovery in the 17th century ended in dispute. The number of disputes dropped to 72% in the 18th century, 59% by the latter half of the 19th century, and 33% by the first half of the 20th century. The decline in contested claims for priority in research discoveries can be credited to the increasing acceptance of the publication of papers in modern academic journals, with estimates suggesting that around 50 million journal articles have been published since the first appearance of the *Philosophical Transactions*.

The Royal Society was steadfast in its not yet popular belief that science could only move forward through a transparent and open exchange of ideas backed by experimental evidence.

The *Journal des savans* (later renamed *Journal des savants*), established by Denis de Sallo, was the earliest academic journal published in Europe. Its content included obituaries of famous men, church history, and legal reports. The first issue appeared as a twelve-page quarto pamphlet on Monday, 5 January 1665. This was shortly before the first appearance of the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, on 6 March 1665.

Publishers and business aspects

In the 1960s and 1970s, commercial publishers began to selectively acquire "top-quality" journals which were previously published by nonprofit academic societies. Due to the inelastic demand for these journals, the commercial publishers lost little of the market when they raised the prices significantly. Although there are over 2,000 publishers, three for-profit companies (Reed Elsevier, Springer Science+Business Media, and John Wiley & Sons) account for 42% of articles published. Available data indicate that these companies have high profit margins, especially compared to the smaller publishers which likely operate with low margins. These factors have contributed to the "serials crisis" - from 1986–2005, the number of serials purchased has increased an average of 1.9% per year while total expenditures on serials has increased 7.6% per year.

Unlike most industries, in academic publishing the two most important inputs are provided "virtually free of charge". These are the articles and the peer review process. Publishers argue that they add value to the publishing process through support to the peer review group, including stipends, as well as through typesetting, printing, and web publishing. Investment analysts, however, have been skeptical of the value added by for-profit publishers, as exemplified by a 2005 Deutsche Bank analysis which stated that "we believe the publisher adds relatively little value to the publishing process... We are simply observing that if the process really were as complex, costly and value-added as the publishers protest that it is, 40% margins wouldn't be available."

Crisis

A crisis in academic publishing is "widely perceived"; the apparent crisis has to do with the combined pressure of budget cuts at universities and increased costs for journals (the serials crisis). The university budget cuts have reduced library budgets and reduced subsidies to university-affiliated publishers. The humanities have been particularly affected by the pressure on university publishers, which are less able to publish monographs when libraries can't afford to purchase them. For example, the ARL found that in "1986, libraries spent 44% of their budgets on books compared with 56% on journals; twelve years later, the ratio had skewed to 28% and 72%." Meanwhile, monographs are increasingly expected for tenure in the humanities. The Modern Language Association has expressed hope that electronic publishing will solve the issue.

In 2009 and 2010, surveys and reports found that libraries faced continuing budget cuts, with one survey in 2009 finding that one-third of libraries had their budgets cut by 5% or more.

Academic journal publishing reform

Several models are being investigated such as open publication models or adding community-oriented features. It is also considered that "Online scientific interaction outside the traditional journal space is becoming more and more important to academic communication". In addition, experts have suggested measures to make the publication process more efficient in disseminating new and important findings by evaluating the worthiness of publication on the basis of the significance and novelty of the research finding.

Scholarly paper

In academic publishing, a paper is an academic work that is usually published in an academic journal. It contains original research results or reviews existing results. Such a paper, also called an article, will only be considered valid if it undergoes a process of peer review by one or more *referees* (who are academics in the same field) who check that the content of the paper is suitable for publication in the journal. A paper may undergo a series of reviews, revisions and re-submissions before finally being accepted or rejected for publication. This process typically takes several months. Next there is often a delay of many months (or in some subjects, over a year) before an accepted manuscript appears. This is particularly true for the most popular journals where the number of accepted articles often outnumbers the space for printing. Due to this, many academics self-archive a 'pre-print' copy of their paper for

free download from their personal or institutional website.

Some journals, particularly newer ones, are now published in electronic form only. Paper journals are now generally made available in electronic form as well, both to individual subscribers, and to libraries. Almost always these electronic versions are available to subscribers immediately upon publication of the paper version, or even before; sometimes they are also made available to non-subscribers, either immediately (by open access journals) or after an embargo of anywhere from two to twenty-four months or more, in order to protect against loss of subscriptions. Journals having this delayed availability are sometimes called delayed open access journals. Ellison has reported that in economics the dramatic increase in opportunities to publish results online has led to a decline in the use of peer reviewed articles.

Peer review

Peer review is a central concept for most academic publishing; other scholars in a field must find a work sufficiently high in quality for it to merit publication. The process also guards against plagiarism.

Failures in peer review are sometimes scandalous. The Bogdanov Affair in theoretical physics is one example. The Sokal Affair is another, though this controversy also involved many other issues.

Rena Steinzor wrote:

Perhaps the most widely recognized failing of peer review is its inability to ensure the identification of high-quality work. The list of important scientific papers that were initially rejected by peer-reviewed journals goes back at least as far as the editor of *Philosophical Transaction's* 1796 rejection of Edward Jenner's report of the first vaccination against smallpox.

Publishing process

The process of academic publishing, which begins when authors submit a manuscript to a publisher, is divided into two distinct phases: peer review and production.

The process of peer review is organized by the journal editor and is complete when the content of the article, together with any associated images or figures, are accepted for publication. The peer review process is increasingly managed online, through the use of proprietary systems, commercial software packages, or open source and free software. A manuscript undergoes one or more rounds of review; after each round, the author(s) of the article modify their submission in line with the reviewers' comments; this process is repeated until the editor is satisfied and the work is accepted.

The production process, controlled by a production editor or publisher, then takes an article through copy editing, typesetting, inclusion in a specific issue of a journal, and then printing and online publication. Academic copy editing seeks to ensure that an article conforms to the journal's house style, that all of the referencing and labelling is correct, and that the text is consistent and legible; often this work involves substantive editing and negotiating with the authors. Because the work of academic copy editors can overlap with that of authors' editors, editors employed by journal publishers often refer to themselves as "manuscript editors". Typesetting deals with the appearance of the article — layouts, fonts, headings etc., both for print and online publication. Historically, these activities were all carried out in-house in a publisher, but increasingly are subject to outsourcing. The majority of typesetting is probably now done in India and China, and copy editing is frequently done by local freelancers, or by staff at the typesetters in India or China. Even printing and distribution are now tending to move overseas to lower-cost areas of the world, such as Singapore.^[citation needed]

In much of the 20th century, such articles were photographed for printing into proceedings and journals, and this stage were known as *camera-ready* copy. With modern digital submission in formats such as PDF, this photographing step is no longer necessary, though the term is still sometimes used.

The author will review and correct proofs at one or more stages in the production process. The proof correction cycle has historically been labour-intensive as handwritten comments by authors and editors are manually transcribed by a proof reader onto a clean version of the proof. In recent years, this process has been streamlined by the introduction of e-annotations in Microsoft Word, Adobe Acrobat, and other programs, but it still remains a time-consuming and error-prone process.

Citations

Academic authors cite sources they have used, in order to support their assertions and arguments and to help readers find more information on the subject. It also gives credit to authors whose work they use and helps avoid plagiarism.

Each scholarly journal uses a specific format for citations (also known as references). Among the most common formats used in research papers are the APA, CMS, and MLA styles.

The American Psychological Association (APA) style is often used in the social sciences. The Chicago Manual of Style (CMS) is used in business, communications, economics, and social sciences. The CMS style uses footnotes at the bottom of page to help readers locate the sources. The Modern Language Association (MLA) style is widely used in the humanities.

Publishing by discipline

Natural sciences

Scientific, technical, and medical (STM) literature is a large industry which generated \$19 billion in revenue; 60% of that revenue came from North America. Most scientific research is initially published in scientific journals and considered to be a primary source. Technical reports, for minor research results and engineering and design work (including computer software) round out the primary literature. Secondary sources in the sciences include articles in review journals (which provide a synthesis of research articles on a topic to highlight advances and new lines of research), and books for large projects, broad arguments, or compilations of articles. Tertiary sources might include encyclopedias and similar works intended for broad public consumption or academic libraries.

A partial exception to scientific publication practices is in many fields of applied science, particularly that of U.S. computer science research. An equally prestigious site of publication within U.S. computer science are some academic conferences. Reasons for this departure include a large number of such conferences, the quick pace of research progress, and computer science professional society support for the distribution and archiving of conference proceedings.

Social sciences

Publishing in the social sciences is very different in different fields. Some fields, like economics, may have very "hard" or highly quantitative standards for publication, much like the natural sciences. Others, like anthropology or sociology, emphasize field work and reporting on first-hand observation as well as quantitative work. Some social science fields, such as public health or demography, have significant shared interests with professions like law and medicine, and scholars in these fields often also publish in professional magazines.

Humanities

Publishing in the humanities is in principle similar to publishing elsewhere in the academy; a range of journals, from general to extremely specialized, are available, and university presses print many new humanities books every year.

Scholarly publishing requirements in the humanities (as well as some social sciences) are currently a subject of significant controversy within the academy. The following describes the situation in the United States. In many fields, such as literature and history, several published articles are typically required for a first tenure-track job, and a published or forthcoming *book* is now often required before tenure. Some critics complain that this *de facto* system has emerged without thought to its consequences; they claim that the predictable result is the publication of much shoddy work, as well as unreasonable demands on the already limited research time of young scholars. To make matters worse, the circulation of many humanities journals in the 1990s declined to almost untenable levels, as many libraries cancelled subscriptions, leaving fewer and fewer peer-reviewed outlets for publication; and many humanities professors' first books sell only a few hundred copies, which often does not pay for the cost of their printing. Some scholars have called for a publication subvention of a few thousand dollars to be associated with each graduate student fellowship or new tenure-track hire, in order to alleviate the financial pressure on journals.

Categories of papers

An academic paper typically belongs to some particular category such as:^[1]

- Research paper
- Case report or Case series
- Concept paper These are done to gain funding for carrying out research or employment or admission to an academic program.
- Position paper, Vision paper
- Review article or Survey paper
- Species paper
- System paper
- Technical paper
- Technical note
- Theory research paper

Note: Law review is the generic term for a journal of legal scholarship in the United States, often operating by rules radically different from those for most other academic publishing

Open access journals

An alternative to the subscription model of journal publishing is the open access journal model, which sometimes involves a publication charge being paid by the author, their university, or the agency which provides their research grant. The online distribution of individual articles and academic journals then takes place without charge to readers and libraries. Most open access journals remove all the financial, technical, and legal barriers^[2] that limit access to academic materials to paying customers. The Public Library of Science and BioMed Central are prominent examples of this model.

Open access has been criticized on quality grounds, as the desire to obtain publishing fees could cause the journal to relax the standard of peer review. It may be criticized on financial grounds as well, because the necessary publication fees have proven to be higher than originally expected. Open access advocates generally reply that because open access is as much based on peer reviewing as traditional publishing, the quality should be the same (recognizing that both traditional and open access journals have a range of quality). It has been argued that good science done by academic institutions who cannot afford to pay for open access might not get published at all, but most open access journals permit the waiver of the fee for financial hardship or authors in underdeveloped countries. Moreover, all

authors have the option of self-archiving their articles in their institutional repositories in order to make them open access whether or not they publish in an open access journal.

If they publish in a Hybrid open access journal, authors pay a subscription journal a publication fee to make their individual article open access. Other articles in such hybrid journals are either made available after a delay, or remain available only by subscription. Many of the traditional publishers (including Wiley-Blackwell, Wiley-VCH, Oxford University Press, Springer Science+Business Media and Wharton School Publishing) have already introduced such a hybrid option, and more are following. Proponents of open access suggest that such moves by corporate publishers illustrate that open access, or a mix of open access and traditional publishing, can be financially viable, and evidence to that effect is emerging. It remains unclear whether this is practical in fields outside the sciences, where there is much less availability of outside funding. In 2006, several funding agencies, including the Wellcome Trust and several divisions of the Research Councils in the UK announced the availability of extra funding to their grantees for such open access journal publication fees.

Academic publishing growth

In recent decades there has been a growth in academic publishing in developing countries as they become more advanced in science and technology. Although the large majority of scientific output and academic documents are produced in developed countries, the rate of growth in these countries has stabilized and is much smaller than the growth rate in some of the developing countries. The fastest scientific output growth rate over the last two decades has been in the Middle East and Asia with Iran leading with an 11-fold increase followed by the Republic of Korea, Turkey, Cyprus, China, and Oman. In comparison the only G8 countries in top 20 ranking with fastest performance improvement are, Italy which stands at tenth and Canada at 13th globally.

By 2004, it was noted that the output of scientific papers originating from the European Union had a larger share of the world's total from 36.6 to 39.3 percent and from 32.8 to 37.5 per cent of the "top one per cent of highly cited scientific papers". However, the United States' output dropped 52.3 to 49.4 per cent of the world's total, and its portion of the top one percent dropped from 65.6 to 62.8 per cent.

Iran, China, India, Brazil, and South Africa were the only developing countries among the 31 nations that produced 97.5% of the most cited scientific articles in a study published in 2004. The remaining 162 countries contributed less than 2.5%. The Royal Society in a 2011 report stated that in share of English scientific research papers the United States was first followed by China, the UK, Germany, Japan, France, and Canada. The report predicted that China would overtake the United States some time before 2020, possibly as early as 2013. China's scientific impact, as measured by other scientists citing the published papers the next year, is smaller although also increasing.

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External links

- Comparison of costs of publishing an article - publication charge, processing fee, BioMed Central (<http://www.biomedcentral.com/info/authors/apcccomparison/>)
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Working paper

A **working paper** or **work paper** or **workpaper** may refer to:

- A preliminary scientific or technical paper. Often, authors will release working papers to share ideas about a topic or to elicit feedback before submitting to a peer reviewed conference or academic journal. Working papers are often the basis for related works, and may in themselves be cited by peer-review papers. They may be considered as grey literature.
- Sometimes the term working paper is used synonymously as technical report. Working papers are typically hosted on websites, belonging either to the author or the author's affiliated institution. The United Nations uses the term "working paper" in approximately this sense for the draft of a resolution.
- Documents required for a minor to get a job in certain states within the United States. Such papers usually require the employer, parent/guardian, school, and a physician to agree to the terms of work laid out by the employer.
- Documents required on an audit of a company's financial statements. The working papers are the property of the accounting firm conducting the audit. These papers are formally referred to as Audit Documentation or sometimes as the audit file. The documents serve as proof of audit procedures performed, evidence obtained and the conclusion or opinion the auditor reached (AU 339.05). For more information, see AS 3 and AU 339 or www.aicpa.org.

Part 2 - Unconventional Publications (Academic and Non-Academic), Hybrid and Experimental (Blue Sky)

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