A Guide to
Writing a Scientific Article

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A GUIDE TO

WRITING A SCIENTIFIC ARTICLE

PREFACE

The guidebook entitled "A Guide to Writing Scientific Article" is intended to improve the students' knowledge and skill writing and producing a scientific article. This guidebook is designed based on the information about the current needs of students in writing a scientific article at English Department.

ITS GOALS
The primary goals of this guidebook are to assist you in making and revising a scientific article and sending it to the editor of a suitable academic journal. The guidebook provides the instruction and structure of writing a scientific article systematically. It will help students develop the habits of productivity that lead to confidence, the kind of confidence it takes to send a scientific article out into the world. By aiding students in taking their paper from classroom or conference quality to journal article quality, the guidebook also helps them overcome any anxiety about academic publishing.

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INTRODUCTION TO SCIENTIFIC ARTICLE

The Definition of Scientific Articles

A scientific article is an academic genre of the essay that contains several standard features. It typically ranges in length from five to forty pages (2,500 to 12,000 words) and includes five to fifty citations. It focuses on the issues of one or two discipline(s), reviews the writing of other scholars, and is peer-reviewed by other scholars. Scientific articles should give information and ideas for solving problems, be written using standard and systematic language, and be based on reliable facts and data. They should also transmit information objectively using the findings of logical and empirical thoughts.

The consensus among scholars is that scientific articles are written works that give systematic summaries of the findings of investigations to a specific scientific community or readership. The objective is to make the findings of the study and the authors' contributions clear to the target audience, which includes students, lecturers, researchers, and scientists, so that they can think about, review, and debate them in both oral and writing form (Adnan, 2005). According to Adnan, scientific articles are a communication tool used by students, lecturers, researchers, and scientists to share the findings of scientific studies or research that has been conducted.

One of the components in a scientific article is the literature review, a brief study of those academic works on the precise subject of the piece. Another characteristic is the argument, which expresses the author's perspective on the research topic or a particular issue, and the third characteristic is the claim of relevance, which explains why readers of the article should be encouraged to read the article. Other elements include the evidence, which serves as supports for the argument and is gathered by the author from written sources or a study; a macrostructure, which organizes the argument and evidence into a readable pattern; an introduction, which includes the article title, abstract, and opening paragraphs that direct the reader toward the significance and value of the article; and a conclusion, which is comprised of the final paragraphs that summarize the main points and articulate its implications.

Types of Scientific Articles

Research papers, non-research articles, book reviews, obituaries, special reports, lectures, and editorials are a few of the several kinds of scientific articles that are published in journals (Putro, 2012). Generally speaking, research papers, non-research articles, review articles, book reviews, and obituaries are the types of publications that are typically found in academic journals. A brief description of each type is presented below.

1. **Research Results Articles**

   Articles that are written as a result of research reports appearing in scholarly journals are referred to as research articles. The goal of the research results article is to start a discussion, create new research opportunities, and determine whether the theory employed in relation to the subject being studied is one that merits more investigation or needs to be reviewed.

2. **Non-Research Articles**

   Articles that were assembles based on a review of the literature or a theoretical investigation are referred to as non-research articles. Reviewing theories, concepts, and principles, creating a model, reporting specific facts or phenomena, rating products, and other types of non-research articles are the typical examples. This type of article mainly focuses on offering historical perspectives on a certain area, outlining current knowledge about a certain topic, suggesting a model or theory to explain facts, or drawing attention to problems in a certain field (Kalijernis, 2010).
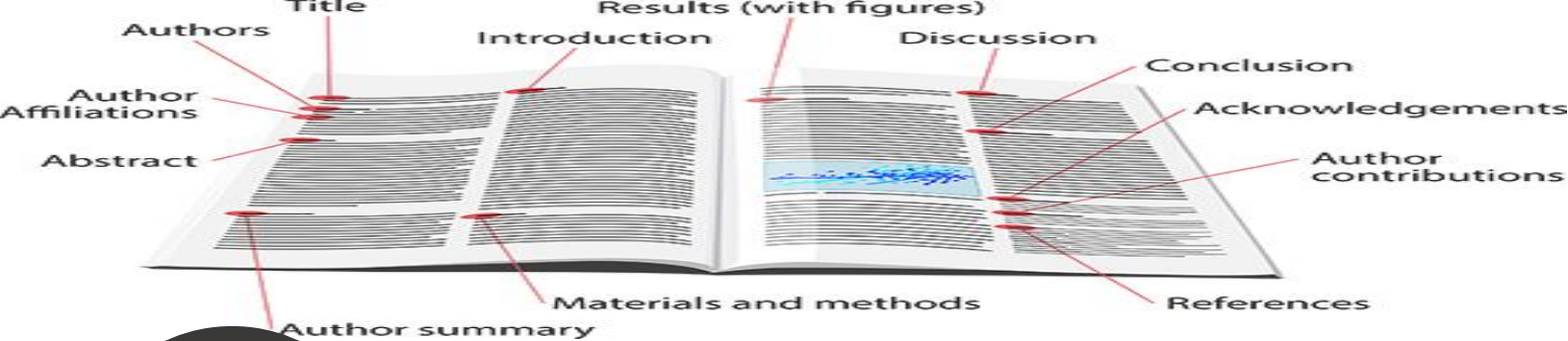
3. **Review Articles**

   The term "review article" refers to a study that has been conducted using research findings presented in the last ten years in patents or articles published in a variety of scientific publications. At least 30 scientific papers and/or patents must be examined in order to produce a review article.

4. **Book Review**

   The strengths and weaknesses of a book are discussed in a book review, which is defined as an analytical and critical review or a book. In a book review, readers will receive a quick summary of a book's contents as a result of the study.

5. **Obituaries**

   Science-related figures are discussed in obituaries. Obituaries are articles that describe the death of a scientific figure and provide a biography of that person. An obituary is written to pay tribute to deceased scientific luminaries.

Title

Authors

Author
Affiliations

Abstract

Author summary

Results (with figures)

Introduction

Discussion

Conclusion

Acknowledgements

Author
contributions

Materials and methods

References

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SYSTEMS IN WRITING SCIENTIFIC ARTICLE

Elements of Research Result Articles

The components of research result articles, such as titles, author names, abstracts and keywords, introductions, methods, findings, discussions, conclusions, and suggestions, as well as a bibliography, should be taken into account by the author when producing a research result article (IKAPI Members, 2017).

1. **Titles**
    A scientific article's title should typically be informative, intriguing, includes the variables being studied, and reflects both the national or international scope of the study. When developing titles for scientific articles, the author should take into account a few strategies. First, the writer ought to use terms that provide solutions right away or at the very least make allusions to issues that have generated debate in the past and continue to do so. Second, newsworthy information should be included in the title (news value). Third, the title should not exceed 12 words in Indonesian and 14 words in English (Adnan, 2005).

2. **Author(s)' Name**
    The author's name is written without any mention of academic credentials or other designations. The order of the authors is determined by the quantity of written contributions; the first author is the one who made the most contributions to the study, and so on. Each author's name is followed by the name and address of the institution. Then, a contact email is required for correspondence.

3. **Abstract and Keywords**
    An abstract is a summary of the content of a scientific article. The research problems, objectives, research methods, and research findings are all included in the abstract. The abstract contains 150 to 250 words, on average. Typically, abstracts are written in English and Indonesian. The keywords are also between three and five words long. The terms that best represent the variables under study are chosen for the keywords.

4. **Introduction**

   In scientific papers, an introduction often includes the research topic, which includes a description of the problems or the backdrop, a logical statement that leads to the major hypothesis or subject, the research objectives, the method used to solve the problems, the anticipated outcomes, as well as an overview of recent and pertinent theoretical works. The introduction often has 20–30% of the total word count.

5. **Methods**

   A method is a concise and complete explanation of all the steps taken by the researchers during their study. The study design, research objectives (population and samples or research subjects), research data, and research data analysis are all included in the research technique. The approach uses words to a range of 10% of the material.

6. **Results**

   The research results are the main part of a research article. Submission of research results can be assisted by the use of tables and graphs, charts, or images that have been processed in advance and are easy to understand. The number of words in this result section is around 25% of the content.

7. **Discussion** *(Certain journals combine the results and discussion section)*

   Based on the findings of relevant and recent literature reviews, the discussion includes a thorough comprehension of the analysis's conclusions and a comparison with prior findings. The discussion provides the answers to the research's open-ended questions and explains how the results were acquired. The debate interprets the results, connects them to existing knowledge frameworks, and develops new hypotheses or revisions of preexisting ones. 35% of the total content is usually taken up by discussion.

8. **Conclusions and Suggestions**

   The conclusion contains a summary and the author's affirmation regarding the research findings. Conclusions are the answers to research questions or the essence of the research results and discussion. Meanwhile, suggestions in research articles are developed based on research findings that refer to practical actions, the development of new theories, and follow-up research. Conclusion contains a maximum of 10% of the entire content.

9. **Bibliography**

   The bibliography includes all citations to pertinent sources that are found in the text. The bibliography must be current, with 80% of the references coming from original sources, particularly journals, that have been published within the last ten years.

Elements of Non-Research Articles

Although there are some similarities between the content of non-research articles and that of articles reporting research findings, there are also significant differences. Non-research articles miss the components of methodology, findings, and discussion but nevertheless include a central discussion in the form of subheadings that are tailored to the author's argumentation subtopic. The contents often consist of explanations, analyses, justifications, and the author's opinion on the subjects under discussion (Putro, 2012). The same components found in scientific research publications, such as title, author's name, author's description, abstract, keywords, introduction, and conclusion, apply here. There are, however, some content differences. Non-research article components include the title, name of authors, abstract, keywords, Introduction (The introduction to non-research articles contains descriptions that lead the reader to the main topic to be discussed, the content, which consists of a number of sub-headings that are adapted to the topic of discussion, closing or conclusions, which contain end notes or the like, and references.

Elements of Review Articles

A review article analyzes the findings of research that has been presented in patents or numerous scientific journals. The scientific journals and/or patents examined in this article include at least 30 journals and/or patents, with publications from the previous ten years making up the majority of the review. The title, authors' names and institutions, sponsors (optional), abstract, keywords, introduction, study findings, study conclusions, and references are the components of review articles. Each component of the review article is described below.

1. **Title**
   The title in the review article is normative, interesting, and specific. The title usually consists of 5 – 12 words.

2. **Authors' Name and Institution**
   The authors' name is written without mentioning the academic degree or other titles along with the authors' institution. The email of an author is also required for correspondence.

3. **Sponsors**
   Sponsorship in scientific articles is noted either at the conclusion of the text before the list of references or on a separate page after it. It should be noticed that certain publications do not demand that authors acknowledge their sponsors in their works.

4. **Abstract and Keywords**
   The topic or research's aims, study methods, and conclusions are all included in the abstract. The average abstract is 100 words long. The abstract is written

with one space in both Indonesian and English. Then, keywords refer to any significant words in a study ranging from 3 to 5 words.

5. **Introduction**
   The introduction of review articles tells about the purpose of the study, the method of study, and the scope of the study. The number of pages in the introduction is 20% of the total content of the article.

6. **Review Results**
   The results contain exposure to sub-headings according to the scope of the study. The review section contains are the results of the comparison of the reported findings, accompanied by the interpretation of the comparison results. The number of pages of the results of the study is 70% of the total content of the article.

7. **Conclusions**
   The conclusion contains a synthesis of all the findings. The number of conclusions is 10% of the overall content of the study.

8. **Bibliography**
   The bibliography section lists all references used in the study.

Elements of Book Reviews

In general, the elements in writing a book review contain four main sections. They are described as below.

1. **The Introduction Section**
   The introduction section contains the title of the book, the name of the author, the publisher, the print edition and year of publication, as well as a description of the thickness and number of pages.

2. **The Overview Section**
   The overview section contains an introduction to the reader in the form of information about the contents of the book.

3. **The Assessment Section**
   The assessment section contains efforts to evaluate the contents of the book comprehensively by explaining the advantages and disadvantages of the book.

4. **The Closing Section**
   The final section contains conclusions and recommendations about the book.

Elements of Obituaries

The elements of obituary are basically similar to the elements of book reviews. The elements of obituary are mentioned below:

1. A brief biography of the life of a recently deceased person.

2. The academic career which contains a number of works that are prominent in their field, accompanied by excerpts from his works which are considered to have made a major contribution in their field.

3. The academic awards obtained are accompanied by comments from colleagues in their fields.

4. Educational history and a number of awards received.

3 REFERENCE QUOTATION TECHNIQUES

The author of scientific articles frequently cites the work of an individual or group of individuals in order to support the views that are expressed therein. Citations are used to express gratitude for the work of others, thus they must be properly formatted and not go against scientific principles. Making it simple for readers to trace it back is the goal of the citation. Authors are required to cite their sources when they use someone else's words in their writing. The American Mathematical Society (AMS), American Psychological Association (APA), Council of Biology Editors (CBE), and in the 7th edition altered to Council of Science Editors (CSE), Modern Language Association of America, are among the reference sources with different writing styles (MLA), The Chicago Manual of Style, and the Turabian style.

There are two kinds of reference systems, which are known as the Harvard (year name) and Vancouver (number) system. Under the Harvard system (name-year), the complete list of information sources is ordered alphabetically in the Bibliography after the reference sources in the text are identified by the author's name and the year that the material was released. According to the Vancouver (number) system, the provisions given in numerical sequence in the Bibliography are followed by sequential numbers that identify the reference sources used in the text (Bogor Agricultural University (IPB), 2012).

Direct Quotations

A direct quotation is a method of expressing someone else's viewpoint in exactly the same way as the source's original work. Short direct quotations and extended direct quotations are the two types of direct quotations.

1. **Short Direct Quotations**
    Short direct quotation has the following conditions:
    a) The quotation is usually contained within a sentence or a paragraph.
    b) Double quotation marks are used at the beginning and the end of the quote.
    c) It uses double space or following the space in writing the thesis.
    d) The citation reference is written either in the introductory clause or in brackets.

For example: "Lexical competence consists of lexical and grammatical elements. Lexical elements include fixed expressions (sentential formulae, phrasal idioms, fixed frames, other fixed phrases such as compound prepositions, fixed collocations) and single word forms (members of the open word classes and closed lexical sets such as days of the week, etc.)." (Common European Framework of Reference, 2001).

2. **Long Direct Quotations**

   The provisions in long direct quotation include:
   a) The quotations are written in separate paragraphs.
   b) The quotations do not use quotation marks.
   c) They are written in single space.
   d) An introduction is needed before the quotation.

   For example: An additional aspect of planning in writing worth mentioning is that plans may or may not be written down. For the latter case, Hayes (2012a, b) convincingly argues that planning should be viewed as a complete writing process, which once again differentiates planning in speaking from planning in writing:

   > *Creating a writing plan not only involves setting goals, generating ideas, and evaluating them but also necessarily involves translation and transcription to produce a written product: a plan. Thus, creating a written plan involves a complete writing process that produces a text designed to aid the author of the plan in producing another text.*

   > *(Hayes 2012a, p. 376)*

Indirect Quotations

An indirect quotation is a statement made by the author concerning material read from a specific source that does not alter the meaning of the information given in the source but is expressed in the author's own voice. Direct quotations appear in the text itself and are not surrounded by quotation marks. The following rules apply to indirect citations:

1. Sentences containing quotation ideas are written in double space.
2. All quotations must be referenced.
3. Reference sources can be written before or after sentences containing quotations.
4. The references are written at the end of the sentence (Author, Year).

For example: There has been unquestionably substantial research on the use of DDL for several areas of language teaching; mainly lexis and grammar and their reflection in writing and speaking (Boulton, 2009, 2010; Cotos, 2014; Gabrielatos, 2013; Geluso & Yamaguchi, 2014).

Writing a Bibliography

The bibliography is written and then alphabetically ordered based on the last name of the author without adding the academic degree. The entries are also organized by the year of publication. The letters a, b, c, and so forth are written after the year number in the order of publication with one space if one author or a group of authors published two or more works in the same year and all of their works are cited.

1. **Writing references from journals, by including the following elements in order**

   To write references from journals, the guideline is described below.
   a) Author's name, full stop. If the author has a first and middle name, the author's name is written in this order: author's last name, comma, first initial, full stop, and middle initial (if any), full stop. If there is more than one author, the names of other authors are written in the same way and the & symbol (which means and) is inserted before the last author's name.
   b) Year of publication (written in brackets), full stop.
   c) The title of the article (the title and sub-title begin with a capital letter), full stop.
   d) The name of the journal/ magazine (formal abbreviations, italicized, starting with a capital letter), full stop.
   e) The volume dan number of the journal (the journal number is enclosed in brackets, if any), colon.
   f) The page numbers of the sources (start – end page), full stop.

   Each of these elements has a distance of one space after the period, comma, and colon. For example:

   Kaur, J., & Hegelheimer, V. (2005). ESL students' use of concordance in the transfer of academic word knowledge: An exploratory study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 18(4), 287-310.

   Kayaoğlu, M. N. (2013). The use of corpus for close synonyms. *The Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 9(1), 128-144.

2. **Writing a reference from a book**

   Writing references from a book should follow the components below in order.
   a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop.
   b) Year of publication (written in brackets), full stop.
   c) Title of the book (title and subtitle begin with a capital letter and each word is italicized), full stop.
   d) The city (place) of the publisher (choose first mentioned city if there are several publisher cities), colon.
   e) The name of the publisher, full stop.

For example:

Council of Europe. (2001). *The Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analyzing Learner Language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

3. **Writing the reference list from books compiled by editors or proceedings**

The steps for writing references from books compiled by editors or proceedings are provided below.
a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop.
b) Year of publication (written in brackets), full stop.
c) Title of the article (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
d) The word "In", the editor(s)' name (the first name initials, full stop, middle initials (if any), full stop, last name), and commas.
e) Title of the book (italicized) and the page of the article (initial – end page number, written in brackets), full stop.
f) Publishing city, colon.
g) Publisher, full stop.

For example:

Asher, J. (1981). The extinction of second language learning in American schools and intervention model. In H. Winitz, *The comprehension approach to foreign language instruction* (page. 115–130). Rowley: Newbury House.

4. **Writing the reference list for sources from translated books**

The steps for writing references from translated books include:
a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop.
b) Year of the translation publication (written in brackets), full stop.
c) Title of the translated book (each word is italicized), full stop.
d) The word "Translated by", the name of the translator (first initial, middle initial, comma, last name), full stop.
e) City (place) of the translation publisher (choose first mentioned city if there are several publisher cities), colon.
f) Name of the publisher, full stop.

For example:

Jorgensen, M. W., & Phillips, L. J. (2007). *Discourse analysis: Theories & methods.* Translated by I. Suyitno, L. Suyitno, & Suwarna. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar. (Translated book)

5. **Writing the reference sources from books without authors**

Writing references from books without authors follows the following orders:
a) Name of agency or institute (eg: Ministry of Education and Culture, Balai Pustaka, Directorate General of Higher Education, Republic of Indonesia), full stop.
b) Year of the publication (written in brackets), full stop.

c) Title of the book (italicized), full stop.
d) Publishing city, colon.
e) Publisher (can be the same as the name of the agency or institution), full stop.

For example:

DPRD Provinsi Riau. 2014. *Laporan Akhir Dewan Perwakilan Daerah Provinsi Riau Draft Rencana Peraturan Daerah Provinsi Riau tentang Pengelolaan Daerah Aliran Sungai Terpadu.* Pekanbaru: DPRD Provinsi Riau.

6. **Writing the reference sources from theses or dissertations, and research reports that have not been published**
Writing the reference sources from theses or dissertations, and research reports that have not been published is carried out by including:
a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop.
b) Year of writing the theses/ dissertations or research reports (written in brackets), full stop.
c) Title of the theses/ dissertations or research reports (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
d) The word "Undergraduate Thesis", "Graduate Thesis", "Dissertation", "Research Report" (italicized) full stop.
e) City of the institution, colon.
f) Name of the institution issuing the theses/ dissertations or research reports, full stop.

For example:

Lestari Reski (2014). *Peran Pemerintah Daerah Provinsi Riau dalam Pengelolaan DAS (studi kasus daerah hilir DAS siak) Tahun 2014.* Skripsi. Pekanbaru: FISIP UR.

7. **Writing the reference sources from papers presented in scientific seminar that are not published**
The steps are described below.
a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop.
b) Year of writing the paper (written in brackets), full stop.
c) Title of the paper (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
d) The word "Presented in" followed by the name of the seminar, workshop, or conference, comma, date of the seminar, comma, and place of seminar, full stop. The name of the seminar, workshop or conference is italicized.

For example:

Lestrai Reski (2021). *Penulisan Artikel Ilmiah.* 22 September2021. STAIN Bengkalis.

8. **Reference sources from newspapers**
Reference sources from newspapers consist of two types: anonymous and non-anonymous.

a) The reference of an anonymous text is written by including the following elements:
- Name of the newspaper (italicized), full stop.
- Publishing year (written in brackets), full stop.
- Title of the text (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
- Date, page number, and column of the text, full stop.

For example:

> *Tribun pekanbaru*. (2021).Vaksinasi pada masa newnormal Covid 19. 22 Juni, hal. 3, klm 1-3.

b) The reference of a text which is not anonymous is written as follow:
- Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), comma.
- Publishing year (written in brackets), full stop.
- Title of the text (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
- Name of the newspaper (italicized), full stop.
- Date, page number, and column of the text, full stop.

For example:

> Tunggal, N. (2012). Bioetanol generasi kedua. *Kompas*. 27 April, hal. 5, klm. 3–5.

9. **Writing the reference sources which is downloaded from the internet (the official website of an institution)**

Writing references which is downloaded from the internet (the official website of an institution) is following the rules below:

a) Author's name (written as for an article in a journal), full stop If the author's name does not exist, write the name of the institution.
b) Year of writing the paper (if any) (written in brackets), full stop.
c) Title of the text (written as for the title of an article in a journal), full stop.
d) Full URL address (underlined), full stop.
e) Access date, full stop.

For example:

> Tamtanus, A. S. (2016). Tiga peran science technopark. http://ristekdikti.go.id/tiga-peran- science-technopark/. Accessed on 11 April, 2016.

4 A GUIDE TO WRITING A SCIENTIFIC ARTICLE

Designing Plans for Writing

To produce a scientific article, designing plans to write the article would be a better starting point to do. It aims to guide the author in writing the article. This can be done by creating a timetable for the writing schedule. The table is provided below.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Read as many sources as possible related to the topic of the article and lists the questions (if any) and try to find the answer.	75
Day 2	Design a daily and a weekly writing schedule and anticipate obstacles and interruptions.	180
Day 3	Select a previously drafted paper (or outline) to develop for publication.	60
Day 4	Reread the chosen paper, discuss it, and then make a list of revision tasks.	150
Day 5	Finalize your preparation by taking care of any author-order difficulties, managing citations, backing up, and your writing site. Read a journal article.	60
Total estimated time		8+ hours

Through this guidebook, authors are given specific instructions that will help them achieve the objective of submitting the academic piece to a journal. The activities for planning the strategy are listed in the table above, broken down into five days of work and totaling around eight hours of working time every week (including reading the workbook, completing its tasks, and writing).

Hence, to feel better about the writing, attempt to remember the situation where you felt good. Whenever you have a positive writing memory, ask yourself what made it so. What constituted the shared factors? What are the takeaways that can be drawn from those encounters? Successful academic writers have comparable mindsets and work habits. The secrets to successful academic writing are referred to as this.

KEYS TO POSITIVE WRITING EXPERIENCES

This guidebook is intended to assist students in mastering the five abilities necessary for successful academic writing. Students can create their own programs by understanding these concepts.

1. Successful Academic Writers Write

    According to Morison (1953), the advice offered by the author of several academic masterpieces is to "start writing first and foremost." This suggests that writing is one of the keys to having a good writing experience. Academic writers typically have positive and unpleasant writing experiences, with the majority of the former being centered around actually writing (as opposed to procrastinating). In other words, academic writers enjoy presenting their ideas and feel a sense of satisfaction when they do so. Writing is similar to exercise in this regard. Even while it could be difficult at first, the more you do it, the easier and more enjoyable it becomes.

    No matter how hectic life is, set aside time to write. Academic authors who are successful don't hold out for inspiration. They don't hold off until the very last second. They don't hold out for lengthy periods of time. They set aside five days a week for writing and make an effort to keep to it (Boice, 1997). This workbook will spend a lot of time assisting studets in making writing a habit. The only thing that can improve writing, according to a wise online commenter, is writing.

2. Successful Academic Writers Read

    Reading journal articles is the most effective way to learn how to write them. Sadly, a lot of students don't. Cloutier (2015) comments that when someone reads a lot, an unexpected phenomenon happens: the unconscious brain picks up patterns that the conscious brain misses, leading to the internalization of the terminology and conventions of the field. As a result, because reading is the foundation of writing, the writing gets better both in terms of form and content.

3. Successful Academic Writers Make Writing Social

    No writing is produced by the work of a single person, and the best writing is produced in groups with a keen awareness of its readers. In one research of successful academic writers, it was discovered that these individuals had an extraordinary awareness of this reality and believed that "their ideas, both in terms of what they wrote and how they wrote it, were mostly formed through their talks with others" (Cloutier 2015, 72). They communicated with professors and students through conversations and emails, presented at conferences or exchanged drafts, and interacted with editors and peer reviewers when submitting their work. Many of them saw that unless they discussed their ideas with someone else, their ideas did not come together.

Therefore, make an effort to make your writing more social and less solitary, more public and less private. Engage in writing tasks that call for a presence in person. Organize a writing club. Pick a writing partner. Attend a writing class. Join a student or coworker for an hour of writing in a café or library. convince a different professor to collaborate with you on a piece. Join a group that reads journal articles. The writing process will be more enjoyable if it is made socially engaging, either in real life or online. This is partially due to the ideas and words provided by others.

4. Successful Academic Writers Persist despite Rejection

    Rejection is an inevitable part of the writing experience. One of the rare experiences that both great and bad writers share is being shunned by publishers. Rejections in academics frequently appear to be given without rhyme or reason. Because peer review is so arbitrary, work that is rejected by one journal is frequently accepted by another. To put it another way, if you write, you will be ignored. Your articles may be rejected if you submit them to journals. The most crucial thing is to not let that deter you (Pannell, 2002).

5. Successful Academic Writers Pursue Their Passions

    Academics frequently cite their true interest in a subject as a real incentive when listing positive writing experiences. Academic writers that are successful concentrate on the topics that interest them. They can produce journal articles more quickly as a result, and they can also take rejection better. Because of how quickly things change, an author is more likely to succeed as a writer if he pursues his true passions than than trendy obsessions. Writing is motivated by the desire to contribute in some way to a worthwhile cause in the world (Belcher, 2019).

Developing the Arguments

The next process after creating a plan and schedule for writing a scientific article students should follow is selecting the best time to write and keeping track of the amount of time they spend doing so. By completing these tasks, the students will be able to plan out the next stages realistically and feels motivated as a result of their success.

UNDERSTANDING AND MAKING ARGUMENTS

In an essence, an argument is discourse that aims to persuade, meaning that to persuade a particular person by engaging his doubts and to provide evidence to solve the doubts. An article for a journal is a piece of writing that tries to convince the reader of anything (or to believe something more strongly). A journal article, then, is a logical progression of ideas in which the author guides the reader from a set of premises to a predetermined outcome.

Some academics are concerned about the subjective nature of arguments in the sciences, which seem to imply that research is about beliefs rather than facts. They favor discussing the testing of a study hypothesis or query. However, an argument is merely a question that has been answered or a hypothesis that has been supported. On the other hand, some academics in the humanities are concerned about the character of argumentation, which seems to imply that predetermined conclusions are more significant than unrestricted inquiry. They claim that taking into account all facets of an issue is more crucial than providing an answer because latter usually limits alternatives. They prefer to reflect on a major concept that gradually gains resonance.

Lynn Bloom in Belcher (2019) argues that an article is focused on a single significant idea supported with evidence carefully chosen and arranged. He defines argument as (1) the focus of the journal article, (2) presented in one or two concise phrases early on, (3) around which the piece is structured, (4) derived from or related to some scholarly conversation, and (5) backed by evidence to persuade the reader of its authenticity.

Authors can try some argument templates to create a strong argument. There are two kinds of templates proposed in this book, the first is Posusta's and Simpson's Argument Templates and the second is Belcher's Argument Templates.

1. **Posusta's and Simpson's Argument Templates**
   The samples of argument templates according to this expert are:
   #1. Although (general statement, opposite opinion)
   #2. nevertheless (thesis, your idea)
   #3. because (examples, evidence, #1, #2, #3, etc.)

2. **Belcher's Argument Templates**
   This version of template is believed to be fit more for journal articles. They are:
   #1. Other scholars debate/argue/assume/ignore [a problem].
   #2. In relationship to that debate, argument, assumption, or gap, I argue/demonstrate/suggest/agree that [y is the case],
   #3. Based on my qualitative study/ quantitative study/experiment/archival research/ fieldwork/textual analysis of [my evidence]

How to Make Strong Arguments?

Building in a consideration of competing viewpoints is one method for creating a powerful argument. To improve and refine your argument, use counter arguments. Cite the academics who have written articles making contrary claims rather than ignoring them. Strong arguments can consist of demonstrating the opposing side's error, but most of the time they demonstrate your own correctness. Prepare for and weaken potential responses to your point. Another strategy is to make use of the limitations of your argument rather than merely

acknowledging them. The best academic writers display this quality.

Related to arguments, below is an example of the table for this step.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Test the statement in the article draft (outline) to see whether it actually is an argument, and modify the argument as you go along	120
Day 2	Test out the arguments on other people because successful arguments must persuade people. Then, revise the arguments based on reviewers' response.	30
Day 3	Review the article for arguments. It can be adding new arguments or altering the arguments based on the feedback obtained from the previous day.	90
Day 4 – 5	Revise the article around the arguments by using the notes from Day 3 activities. Because we go through our evidence, rewriting for argument frequently causes subtle argument adjustments. It's alright. This is not the final draft of the argument; it will continue to take shape over the coming weeks. If necessary, you can practice your arguments a little each week.	120 each day
Total estimated time		8 hours

Writing an Abstract

Writing an abstract, or a brief summary of the paper's topic and argument, is one of the greatest early jobs for enhancing a journal article. Writing an abstract becomes essential because it clarifies the topic of the article. Since an abstract is a condensed version of the piece, it offers the chance to narrow down concepts and determine which are most crucial Linder, et, al., 2014). Additionally, it is a diagnostic tool. Finally, it aids authors in confronting the issues raised by the essay itself.

Most editors only attach the article's title and abstract to the email they send to peer reviewers asking them to indicate whether or not they are willing to review a particular article. Therefore, creating a captivating abstract is crucial to persuading busy academics to spend time examining the article. A poor abstract, on the other hand, encourages busy academics to avoid peer review and rationalize saving their writing time for their own projects. Peer reviews by faculty members must be encouraged because they are neither compensated nor required to do it by their institutions.

Other reasons make an abstract a crucial part of a scientific article is to be easy to get found, read, and cited by other scholars. To entice busy academics to read the article, an abstract is crucial. It conveys the significance of the article and shows

how reading it will advance the scholars' understanding. It assists potential readers in determining whether your methodology is enough, or your approach is novel enough to be worth their time in reading your article as opposed to the dozens or hundreds of others that have been written on the subject (Huckin, 2001; Swales and Feak, 2012). Furthermore, citing an article is possible based solely on reading the abstract.

An abstract should:
• Summarize the article, not introduce it.
• Tell a story. State the puzzle or problem that the article is addressing, rather than giving a barrage of data without an argument or a conclusion.
• State the argument and a claim for the significance of that argument.
• Reveal the most valuable findings.
• State methods briefly, in no more than a sentence.
• Use strong verbs, not vague ones. Instead of "exploring" or "examining" a subject, your abstract "argues" or "demonstrates." Instead of "attempts to" or "tries to," your abstract "shows
• Include all the most relevant keywords, since many search engines search by abstract and title alone.
• Be a self-contained whole. Don't include anything in the abstract that is not self-explanatory; it should make sense to people in your field without their reading the whole article.
• Report what you did do (the past), not what you hope to do (the future).

(Belcher, 2019)

Due to the importance of abstract, below are the strategies students can apply for writing an abstract.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Talk about the way to clarity about the article by describing and summarizing the article.	120
Day 2	To help revise the abstract, read other's abstract and draft your own.	60
Day 3	Read strong articles in related field as the model in writing an article.	90
Day 4	Read the most related articles to cite in your article.	90
Day 5	Get feedback on and revise the abstract.	60
Total estimated time		7 hours

Selecting a Journal

Because they don't choose the appropriate journals, many authors continue to write yet never get their work published. They don't have backup journals to send the manuscript to, they don't have much knowledge of journals, or they only intend to submit the work to a journal because someone told them to. As a result, choosing the right journal is an essential part of writing a scientific essay.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PICKING THE RIGHT JOURNAL

According to Meyer et al. (2018) and Volmer and Stokes (2016), one of the most frequent reasons why an article is rejected by a journal is that it does not adhere to the journal's requirements. To avoid submitting your hard work to unappreciative editors or reviewers, it is crucial that you examine authentic peer-reviewed journals. The costs of selecting the incorrect journal are rather substantial; a perfect work submitted to an inappropriate journal won't be accepted for publication.

TYPES OF ACADEMIC JOURNALS

Academic journals refer to records of scholarly conversations and current concerns. To submit an article to an academic journal means to begin a correspondence. The gold standard of academic publishing entails several characteristics: journals must be peer-reviewed, produced by an academic press (university or commercial), written for academics, and contain writers who are acknowledged authorities in their field. Authors must also credit their sources and provide sufficient information about their methods so that others may duplicate or verify the findings.

Strategies for finding suitable academic journals for the article are presented in the table below.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Search for and examine any possible journals to submit the article. Think about the aims of publishing the article. You can ask your advisor about this.	60
Day 2 – 3	Evaluate the academic journals you found the previous day and evaluate whether your article match the journal.	90
Day 4	Read the relevant journals and write the query letters. After that, make the final journal selection.	90
Total estimated time		4 hours

Refining the Works Cited

This step is crucial since citing others' work or theories into an argument becomes one of the most important elements in a scientific article. It was stated previously that one reason why journals reject articles is because they lack an argument. Thus, reading related articles as many as possible is necessary to produce a well written cited argument and to write a strong argument. All published journal articles cite other texts. And the number of these texts cited in any article is not small. A survey found that US faculty in medicine reported reading 34 texts for

their last substantive work, those in the sciences 104, those in the humanities 130, and those in the social sciences 211 (Tenopir, et al. 2015).

The classification of the texts by category is a crucial step in developing a plan for how to complete this reading. It can be helpful to plan reading and employ the appropriate body of texts for the goal by being aware of the distinct categories into which they fall. Authorship is a different criterion for categorizing literature. Good scholars make sure that their bias hasn't caused them to overlook solid research by a variety of writers.

STRATEGIES FOR CITING READING SOURCES

One of the most difficult aspects of producing an essay is making sure to cite reading sources precisely, completely, and equitably. It's really difficult to reference correctly, yet quite simple to get it wrong. That's because this method involves making sure that every detail of address texts is accurate rather than merely, say, entering in the proper year of release. To make sure you use these sources correctly, consider the following guidelines.

1. **Common Mistakes in Citing Texts**
   - Be careful not to misattribute major concepts because doing so could lead to the work being rejected by peers as being unscholarly.
   - Peer reviewers may reject your article if you mention works as related material that only partially address the discussion you are having. Avoid misattributing minor concepts.
   - Don't cite the derivative, such as citing websites or newspapers as the source of your information about important scholarly arguments and debates.
   - Don't cite irrelevant literature.
   - Don't cite one secondary text too much.
   - Don't overcite definitions.
   - Don't quote too much and too little.
   - Don't omit citations.
   - Don't fail to cite the journal.
   - Always update.

2. **Establishing the Citation Values**
   It takes more than just being a decent person to establish citation values. It has to do with avoiding unpleasant or even humiliating mistakes.

3. **Avoiding Improper Borrowing**
   Be careful in borrowing someone's ideas to be put on our article since improper borrowing will lead to a plagiarism. Plagiarism is defined as taking another scholar's entire article, word for word, and publishing it as their own original work.

4. **Good Citation Habits**

   The best way to ensure that you cite sources accurately, completely, and fairly is to maintain good research and writing habits. This can be done by applying the following strategies.

   - Always revise.
   - Review others' work briefly rather than at length.
   - Focus on being persuasive rather than brilliant.
   - Don't worry about your English.
   - Develop systematic notes.
   - Paraphrase without looking at the source.
   - Check the co-authors' and translators' work.
   - Check that you correctly copied your quotations.
   - Don't self-plagiarize.

STRATEGIES FOR WRITING RELATED-LITERATURE REVIEW

Any publishable essay must include a review of the pertinent literature, or the previously published studies on the subject. This section begins by defining the broad connection to the related literature, known as the "entry point," and then continues by assessing the literature in that context. There are three broader entry points into the related literature:

1. **Addressing a Gap in Previous Research**

   One of the most typical entrance points in journal articles is identifying a gap (or holes) in the pertinent scholarly literature and attempting to fill it. A significant argument for significance is when gaps are filled. Having a solid understanding of the study is necessary for this claim to be successful, though.

2. **Supporting Previous Research**

   Scholars frequently use theorists to support or expand earlier research, arguing that a particular theorist's work, idea(s), or definition is particularly helpful in comprehending the topic at hand (or that a group of theorists or a school of theory is helpful). Data are frequently used to support or further earlier study, with scholars claiming to have discovered supporting evidence or data for another scholar's assertion.

3. **Correcting Previous Research**

   The most frequent way to introduce past research is to claim that previous scholarly theories on the topic are false and that the next article will disprove them. These corrections of the relevant literature can take a variety of forms, such as weighing in on a discussion (by picking a side or declaring both sides to be incorrect), challenging a rule, practice, or interpretation, pointing out inconsistencies, or proposing a solution.

What Is a Related-Literature Review?

A related-literature review evaluates the body of knowledge on a certain subject, not just summarizes it. An analysis of related literature is a review of prior arguments. Such a review outlines the connections, constraints, questionable interpretations, poor methodologies, and other aspects of earlier research. In it, the author establishes the importance and source of his contention, justifies his method or approach, and demonstrates how the research relates to earlier work. The following are some guidelines for writing a review of related literature:

1. Be selective.
   Don't include every book and article that has been written about the subject. Select only the sources that are the most accurate, representative, and instructive. Then, make sure you only include the data that is necessary to support the argument rather than listing all the data.

2. Organize sources as a debate.
   Imagine telling a coworker about a discussion as one of the greatest methods to approach producing a related literature review. Report who took part in the discussion (and occasionally who didn't), who supported what position, and who convinced you the most and the least. After that, take note of any points the author either neglected to state or could have presented with stronger support from further evidence.

3. Group literature according to sides taken in the debate.
   Focus on evaluating the existing literature with the argument firmly in mind. This means selecting and grouping the related research into sides of a debate, its camps, and then reviewing each side rather than working each piece.

4. Consider multiple related-literature reviews.

Below is the sample schedule for citing the related literature.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Evaluate the current work cited list.	60
Day 2	Identify and reading any additional works	120
Day 3	Identify the entry point into the related secondary literature	60
Day 4	Write or revise your related-literature review	120
Total estimated time		6 hours

Analyzing and Presenting the Evidence

The most frequent justifications cited by journals for rejecting a manuscript are weak analysis and inadequate interpretation, followed by inadequate theory and

methodological issues. A study of the evidence is therefore essential when writing a scientific essay.

There are four types of evidence:

1. Textual Evidence
   In the humanities, the most common form of evidence is textual evidence. A text is any object that humans create to communicate meaning. Therefore, a text might be written, but it might also be a figure.

2. Qualitative Evidence
   Qualitative evidence is typically that collected either during lengthy open-ended or structured interviews with a few individuals or during observations of real-life situations.

3. Quantitative Evidence
   Quantitative evidence refers to any numerical data utilized in an article. It is useful for speculating about the characteristics of large groups of human beings or social processes.

4. Experimental Evidence
   An example of experimental evidence is data from laboratory. To be an experiment, the study must manipulate something (e.g., the subjects or the setting).

Usually, the evidence is presented and interpreted in close proximity to one another. A difficulty arises if the entire section is read without any interpretation. Although presentations of evidence may be included in contextual background sections, their primary purpose should generally be to provide context.

Journal editors frequently reject submitted articles not for a deficiency in the evidence, but for the way the writers presented their arguments. According to a study by Gosden (2003), two-thirds of peer reviewers' criticisms focused on issues with how well the writer interacted with the reader. The majority of editors are searching for articles that are written clearly and are readable across disciplines.

The discipline and field of research will determine how to present the evidence. Studies in the social, health, behavioral, or natural sciences, whether experimental, quantitative, or qualitative, have conventional forms with sections that are distinct from one another and a formulaic approach to presenting the results. The presentation of the evidence, the choice of parts, and the style of presentation all have more latitude in the humanities.

The brief summary of strategies to analyze and present the evidence is provided below.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Search for and discuss what constitutes worthy evidence in your field.	60
Day 2	Highlight and analyze your evidence.	90
Day 3	Analyze the quality, relevance, and placement of the evidence, then interpret it.	90
Day 4	Analyze the interpretation of the evidence, including its coherence, connection, grounding, theory, and so on.	120
Day 5	Gathering any additional evidence if necessary.	120
Day 6	Revise the evidence you have in your article draft.	
Total estimated time		8 hours

Opening and Concluding the Article

THE IMPORTANCE OF OPENINGS

An opening is critical since the first impressions are vital. First, an article's title is the equivalent of a highway billboard; it is the only section of it that the majority of academics will ever read, and even then, just skim as they speed by on their route to other locations. In fact, a title with a subtitle will be read more often than an article by a factor of at least 1,000 to 1, and probably 10,000 to 1, as it has a separate existence on websites for the department and curriculum vitae, as well as in electronic databases, other people's bibliographies, and tables of contents.

As a result, the title of a scientific essay ought to be the section that has been carefully written. It must act as an announcement that entices readers to the piece and extends an invitation to participate in a specific discussion. It must succinctly summarize your article and convey its theme. By choosing popular terms, it should make it easier for academics to find the article while using online search engines.

Strategies to write a good title:
• Avoid broad titles that would better serve entire books or series.
• Avoid sequences of ambiguous perceptions.
• Name the subjects.
• Embed the title with searchable keywords.
• Put keywords in relation.
• Include a verb if possible.
• Don't start the title with non-English words.
• Avoid using the title to prove how witty or well-read you are.
• Have an argumentative title.

In addition, several strategies that should be considered by an author in writing an introduction of a scientific article include:

1. **Start with a gripping first sentence.**

   Starting with a telling anecdote, a compelling portrayal of your subject, an aggressive presentation of the literature, a serious societal issue, an engaging thought experiment, or a firm assertion about the importance of your topic might boost an introduction. For example:

   > *Historians have been much more concerned with explaining questions surrounding how Africans produced, transported, and sold captives than with exploring African strategies against the slave trade.*

2. **Give basic information about your subject.**

   It's not necessary to provide basic information in complete phrases or lengthy paragraphs. It can frequently be given in a few short clauses. Indeed, it's important to avoid providing too much information when introducing case studies that have hundreds of pages of detail. For example:

   > *Among Europe's experimental films from the 1920s and 30s, perhaps none offers a more fascinating conjunction of psychoanalysis and representations of race than Borderline, the expressionist, interracial melodrama produced by the POOL group and directed by Kenneth Macpherson (Walton 1997).*

3. **State your entry point.**

   An important part of an introduction is announcing how the argument relates to previous arguments about your topic. In some introductions, a full review of the related literature also appears. For example:

   > *People with more friends and more social ties in their community tend to live longer. Many researchers interpret this association as evidence that greater social support and social network integration lead to better health outcomes. For example, social integration is thought to improve health by motivating engagement in healthy behaviors, improving immunity, and reducing inflammation. However, nearly all of this work has been conducted in the context of real-world, face-to-face social interactions. As more and more people use online social media to maintain friendships (as of June 2016, about 1.1 billion people use Facebook daily), an open question is whether or not this new context can be used to measure real world social activity and, distinctly, whether online social interactions are similarly associated with better health and increased human longevity (Hobbs et al. 2016).*

4. **State your argument and, if possible, your findings.**

   An article introduction is not an introduction until it clearly states your single significant idea. For example:

   > *Driven by technological progress, human life expectancy has increased greatly since the nineteenth century. Demographic evidence has revealed an ongoing reduction in old-age mortality and a rise of the maximum age at death, which may gradually extend human longevity. Together with observations that lifespan in various animal species is flexible and can be increased by genetic or pharmaceutical intervention, these results have led to suggestions that longevity may not be subject to strict, species-specific genetic constraints. Here, by analyzing global demographic data, we show*

that improvements in survival with age tend to decline after age 100, and that the age at death of the world's oldest person has not increased since the 1990s. Our results strongly suggest that the maximum lifespan of humans is fixed and subject to natural constraints.

5. **Articulate the significance of your subject.**
   Make sure that readers know the importance of the person, text, group, question, or problem chosen as the subject. Don't assume that they know why the subject is important or how important it is. For example:

   The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, on New York City (NYC) were the largest human-made intentional disaster in U.S. history. The sheer scope of the attacks, the level of property destruction, the financial repercussions, and the continuing level of anxiety suggested that these attacks might have mental health consequences both for direct victims of the attacks and for the population at large.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions aren't anywhere near as important as introductions, but authors who elegantly wrap up their articles with a rephrasing of their argument and a gesture toward their argument's implications go a long way toward making their articles memorable and cited. Research demonstrates that article conclusions share some common features (Henry and Roseberry 1997; Paltridge 2002; Ruiying and Allison 2003; Bunton 2005). Two moves were generally present: (1) the authors made a claim about the strength of the argument and its supporting evidence and then (2) linked that argument to the wider context.

Thus, a good conclusion is one that summarizes the auhtor's argument and its significance in a powerful way. It also should restate the article's relevance to the scholarly literature and debate. Although the conclusion does not introduce new arguments, it does point beyond the article to the larger context or the more general case. It doesn't merely repeat the introduction but takes a step outward to the larger picture by stating why the argument matters in the larger scheme of things, what its implications are.

Here are several steps to finalize the opening and conclusion.

Task Day	Daily Writing Tasks	Estimated Task Time in Minutes
Day 1	Review the explanation and revise the title.	30
Day 2 – 3	Adjust and revise the introduction.	90 each
Day 4	Revisit the abstract and author order.	60
Day 5	Constructing the conclusion.	120
Total estimated time		6+ hours

5 JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS

A Brief Description of Journals

A journal is a publication that features four to twenty research articles per issue and publishes original research in one to fifty-two issues annually. Additionally, each issue could include notes, book reviews, review essays, and responses. The magazine publishes numerous studies in a variety of disciplines (areas of study covered by university departments, such as sociology or English literature) or topics (a subcategory of disciplines, e.g., eighteenth-century British literature or cultural sociology).

Peer review is one of the required procedures, which almost all academic journals should perform to maintain the quality of the journals. It entails the evaluation of each article by one to four academics who are faculty specialists in the author's subject. Peer reviewers, also known as referees or readers, who help the editor determine the worth of the work by pointing out shortcomings, errors, and misinterpretations and giving suggestions for improvement to the author.

The members of an academic journal are (a) the editor, a faculty person who is responsible for the journal's policy and academic processes; (b) the managing editor, who is responsible for the journal's publication logistics; (c) the editorial board members, faculty members who agree to peer-review articles submitted to the journal each year; and (d) the advisory board, faculty members who consent to have their prominent names linked with the journal but who do not provide any substantive advice. The time between your submission of an article and the journal's decision on whether to accept or reject it is sometimes referred to as the review time. Good editors work to ensure that the journal has a short turnaround time and a low backlog (also known as publication lag because it depends on how many articles the journal has already accepted for publication and are in the queue ahead of yours).

BE CAREFUL WITH PREDATORY JOURNALS

Predatory journals aren't scholarly; instead, they're set up to make money by charging authors who are desperate to get published article processing fees. The publications submitted to the predatory journals are not subjected to peer review, editing, or even reading. They occasionally choose not to post the submissions.

The primary warning sign is a submission invitation email that is full of grammatical mistakes and guarantees quick publication without having to go through any procedures. Reputable journals don't encourage submissions from authors through mass emails, much less make the submission procedure seem simple. Other indicators that a journal is predatory include failing to state where it is published, using an email address from a free email service, and not disclosing article processing fees to authors until after submission.

Lastly, predatory journals occasionally imitate legitimate journals in emails to writers, proposing to publish the article for a fee while pretending as those journals. It's a spoof scam if a journal asks for a fee out of the blue when there is no mention of costs on its official website.

Journal Publications

Scientific publications are often performed in seminars (conferences) and published in journals. By sharing information about the advantages of the research findings, others can learn about the findings of the study that has been undertaken through scientific publications. Scientific articles in journals can take the form of obituaries, book reviews, non-research scientific articles, scientific research papers, and non-research scientific articles. In the majority of cases, prominent national and international publications publish scientific articles online (indexed by DOAJ, SINTA, SCOPUS, WEB OF SCIENCE, etc.). According to The Regulation of the Minister of Research, Technology, and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia Number 6 of 2018 concerning Accreditation of Scientific Journals, national journals are considered accredited if the accreditation process for scientific journals is conducted electronically through information and communication technology networks. All journals that are published must be accessible online or have an E-ISSN (online ISSN) in order to increase reading comprehension, track down papers, and conduct transparent peer reviews, especially in regard to plagiarism.

The purpose of scientific publications in journals is to record the findings of conceptual thinking and research done by one or more groups of people (I Putu Ayup Darmawan, 2018). A scientific journal must at the very least include the following details:

a. Name of journal
b. ISSN (International Standard Serial Number)
c. Period of publication (volume, number, and year of publication)
d. List of journal editors, publishers, and addresses
e. List of contents
f. Journal articles (minimum 5 articles)
g. Subject index page, author, peer reviewer

Stages in Publishing Scientific Articles

The procedure for publishing a journal article might differ greatly depending on the journal's mission, the editor's personality and vision, the editorial board, the peer-review process, the knowledge and availability of the support staff, the journal's budget, and whether the article is intended for a special issue. However, a journal article often undergoes the following stages (Belcher, 2019):

1. **Submission**
   The manuscript must be submitted to one (and only one) scientific journal that is peer-reviewed. The submission of the same article to numerous journals at once is prohibited. Then, before submitting it to a different journal, the author(s) must wait for each journal to determine whether to publish it (single submission rule, except for law journals).

2. **Editorial Review**
   Every article submitted to the journal is briefly reviewed by the editor, who determines whether it meets the journal's basic requirements (such as fitting the topic, citing any relevant theories, being at least somewhat grammatically sound, and having content that isn't overly similar to an article the journal recently published) and doesn't have any significant problems (such as having a problematic methodology or no argument). A desk rejection occurs when a journal rejects a manuscript after the editor points out fundamental mistakes. Journal editors are using their judgment to reject articles more frequently instead of submitting them for peer review.

3. **Peer Reviewer**
   The editor chooses peer reviewers for the article if he determines that there are no significant issues with it. This is challenging. To find academics eager to write reviews, editors must put forth a lot of effort. According to a survey, journal editors sent 28% more requests for reviews in 2016 than they did in 2013 (Didham, Leather, and Basset 2017). They frequently request one editorial board member or academics who have recently published in the journal to peer-review the article. Some editors choose one or two academics who are mentioned in the article by the author or who conduct similar research. Some journals request the author's suggestions for suitable reviewers, and then they choose one of those people.

   Peer reviewers read the article and rate it based on its contribution, originality, clarity, relevance, sound academics, trustworthy findings, reliable methodologies, compelling argument, and fascinating analysis. Peer reviewers may get particular review instructions from some journals, such as questions to be answered, forms to complete, or grades to assign. After that, the reviewers submit the reports to the editor with comments on the article's strengths and weaknesses as well as recommendations for the author. Additionally, they make recommendations regarding whether the piece should be accepted or rejected by the editor.

4. **Editorial Decision**

    The number of accepted manuscripts and the reviewers' recommendations are used by the editor to determine whether to accept the article for publication. If every peer reviewer rates the article as either strong or weak, the choice is obvious. The difficulty arises when one reviewer suggests publication while another suggests rejection. To resolve the conflict, the editor will then send the article to a third reviewer. Given how few manuscripts a journal can accept each year, the editor at certain publications will support one of the reviewers, frequently the one who gave a bad evaluation. The editor then notifies the author of their choice in writing. A revise and resubmit notice or a rejection is usually sent instead of an editor's advice for revision.

5. **Author Responses**

    In response to the editor's choice, the author has a number of options. When an article is rejected, the author frequently submits it again, either with or without changes, to a different journal. When an article is given a "revise and resubmit" notice, experienced writers usually make the requested revisions in accordance with the editorial guidelines and reader feedback before resubmitting the article to the editor along with a concise letter outlining the revisions they made. Even though an article's possibilities of being accepted increase by double upon resubmission, novice authors frequently give in to intimidation and fail to revise and resubmit their work.

6. **Second Round Editorial/Peer-review**

    In this second phase of submission, the editor may independently assess the article without consulting the original peer reviewers if the suggested adjustments were small. If the suggested changes are significant, the article will be sent back to the original reviewers for approval or even to brand-new reviewers. Many manuscripts undergo several rounds of review, with authors making revisions and resubmitting them to peers two, three, or even four times.

7. **Copyediting, Proofreading, and Publishing**

    A resubmitted article typically undergoes copyediting after the editor accepts it, during which a copy editor corrects the article's grammatical, punctuation, documentation, style, and factual errors. The revised article is provided to the author for approval in a Microsoft Word document that has the Track Changes feature enabled so that it is clear what has been changed. The copy editor often gives the author three to ten days to respond to any queries, accept or reject suggestions, and make sure no new errors have been added. The author then sends the manuscript back to the journal together with any photos, the copyright agreement, and rights for the publication of those images (in which the author gives some of the article's rights for publication). Following electronic composition and formatting for the journal, proofs—the article's nearly final version—are generated. A last review of the piece by the author to ensure there are no errors is sometimes followed by a round of

proofreading. Normally, the author has 48 hours to comment on proofs.

Here is an example of a scientific article published in a journal.

Analysing Students' Needs in Creative Writing Course: An Exploratory Case Study in an Indonesian Higher Education

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Keywords: creative Writing; students' expectations; students' needs.	This study aims at investigating what students expect when taking a Creative Writing course. To obtain the required data, an exploratory case study was utilized by distributing a questionnaire to the students and conducting interviews with the writing lecturer and the head of the study program. 60

Procedures of Submitting a Scientific Article to a Journal

As was previously stated, after the article has been completed and prepared in accordance with the standards for writing scientific articles, the following step is to look for journals with the same focus as the author's research. Download the template after locating the suitable journal, then modify your writing in accordance with the journal template. There are various steps involved in publishing a journal, and they are described as follows:

1. Open the Journal website page.
2. Click the Register menu (Register).
3. Fill in the required form, especially the one marked with an asterisk (required).
4. Don't forget to select Register as Author in the last field (if requested) and click the Register button.
5. The author will be directed to enter the system as an author.

Figure 1

Figure 2

6. Fill in the author's First Name (required).
7. Fill in the author's Middle Name (optional).
8. Fill in the author's Last Name (required).
9. Write down the author's affiliation in the space provided (can be filled with place of work or study).
10. Entry the country (filled with country name according to nationality).
11. Write down the author's email address (required).
12. Create a username (used to Log In in the future).
13. Create a password (filled with a unique and easy-to-remember password at least 6 characters).
14. Repeat the password (similar password).

15. Tick all the requested boxes
16. Click the "Register" button.
17. After the registration, you will guide to the Author dashboard page as shown below.
18. Then, click "Make a New Submission".
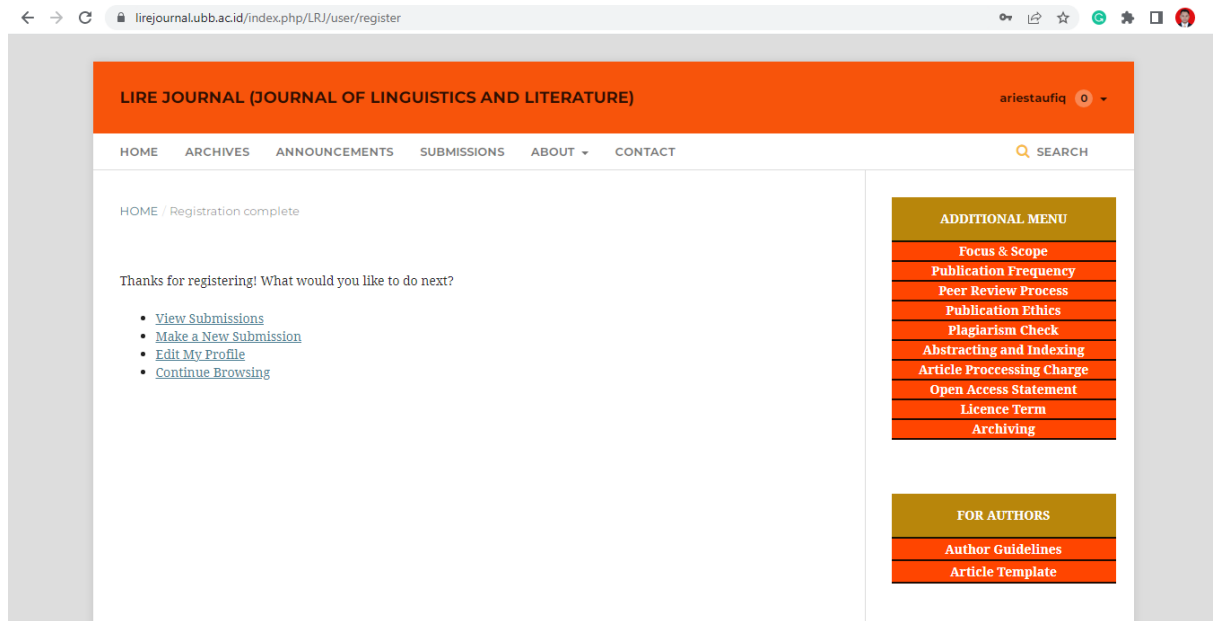
Figure 3

There are five steps that should be followed to submit an article in a journal.

1. In the first step, "Start", make sure the articles to be uploaded meet the requirements of the Submission Checklist that has been determined by the manager of each journal.
2. Click all the boxes and click "Save and Continue" as shown below.
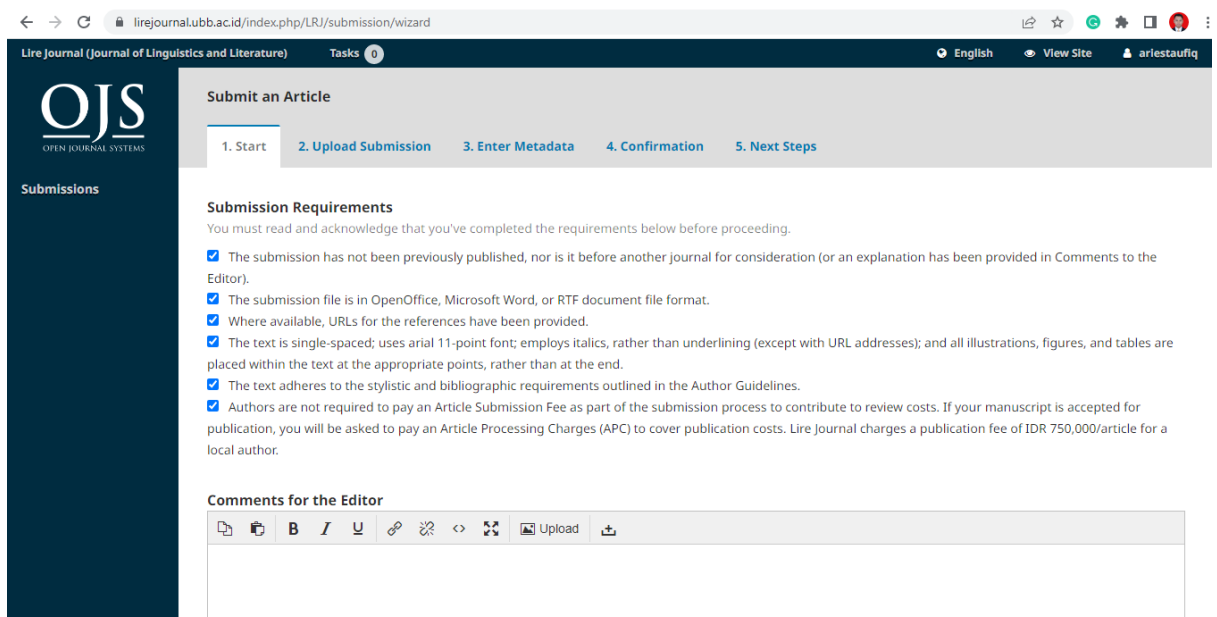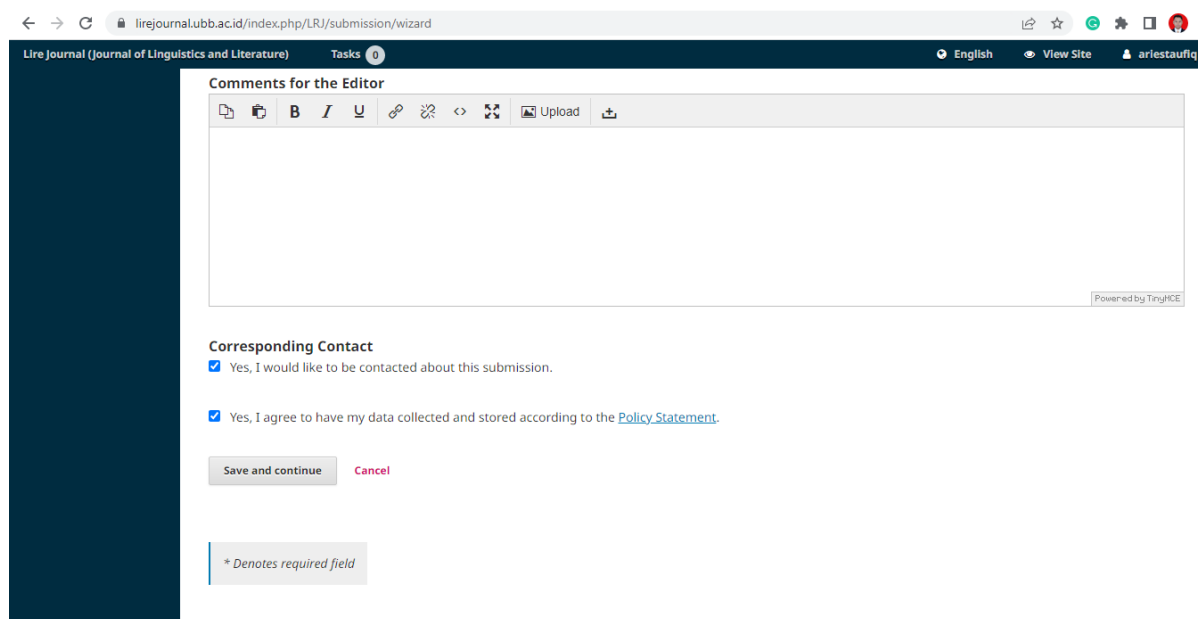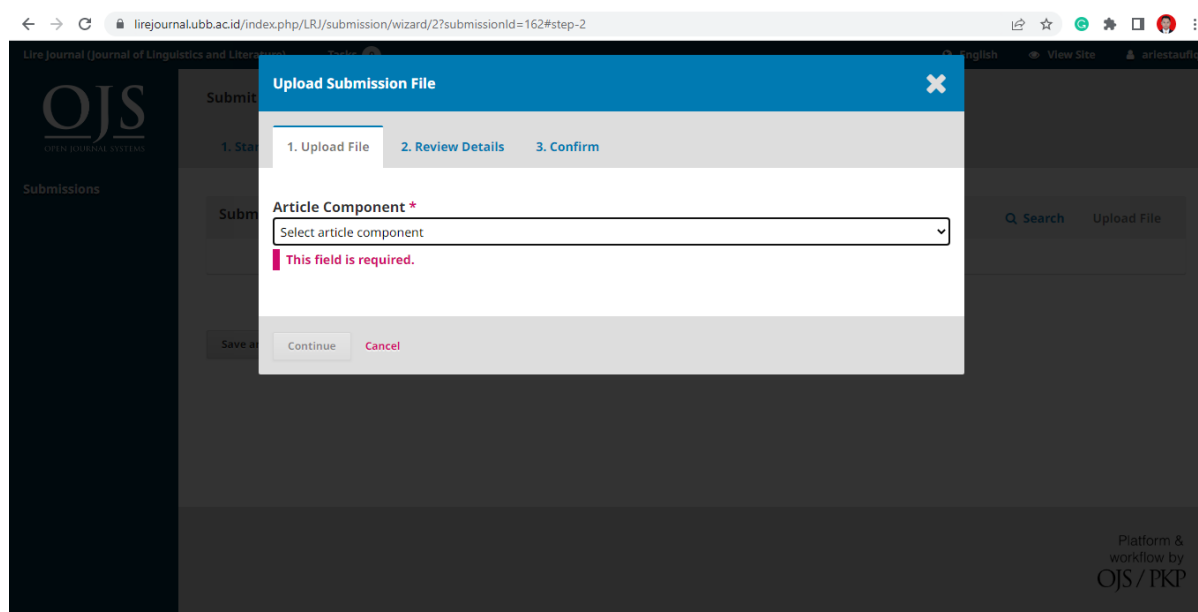
Figure 4

Figure 5

3. Then you will be directed to the "Upload Submission".
   In this section there will be 3 sub-sections, the first is "Upload File". On the "Select article component" button select "Article Text".
4. Then upload the article file that we want to submit by clicking "Choose File"
5. After finishing uploading then click "Continue".

Figure 6

Figure 7

6. Next you will be directed to the "Review Details" sub-section.
7. Then press "Complete".
8. Then it will be directed to the third sub-section "Confirm".
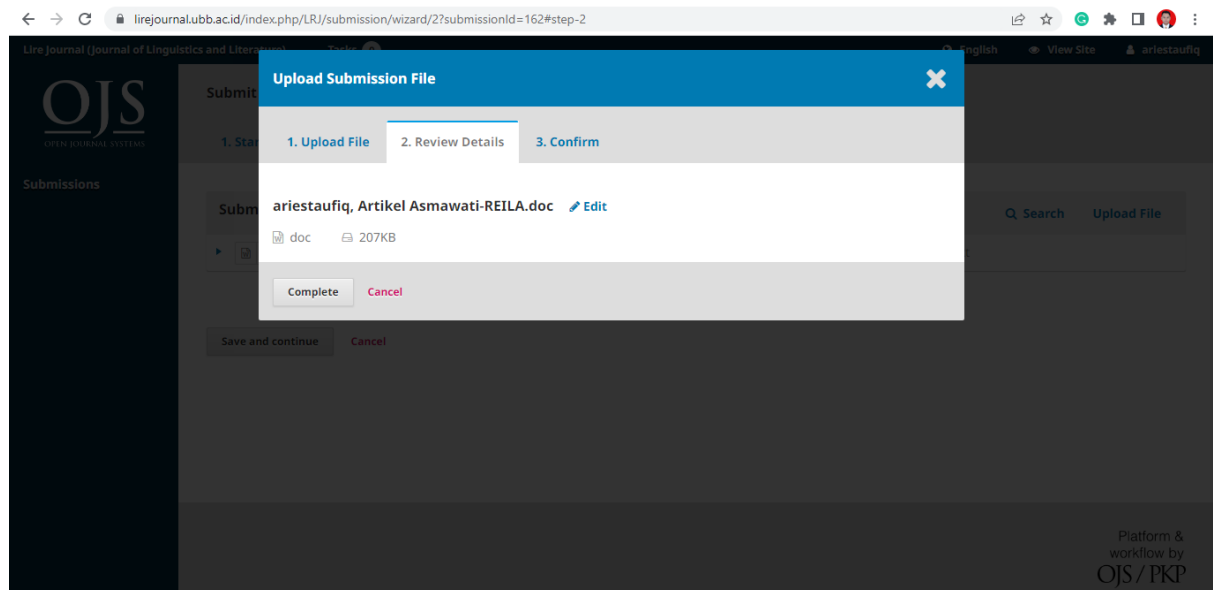
Figure 8

9. In this case, the author can add files such as research instruments, research data or other attachments if needed.
10. Then click "Complete".
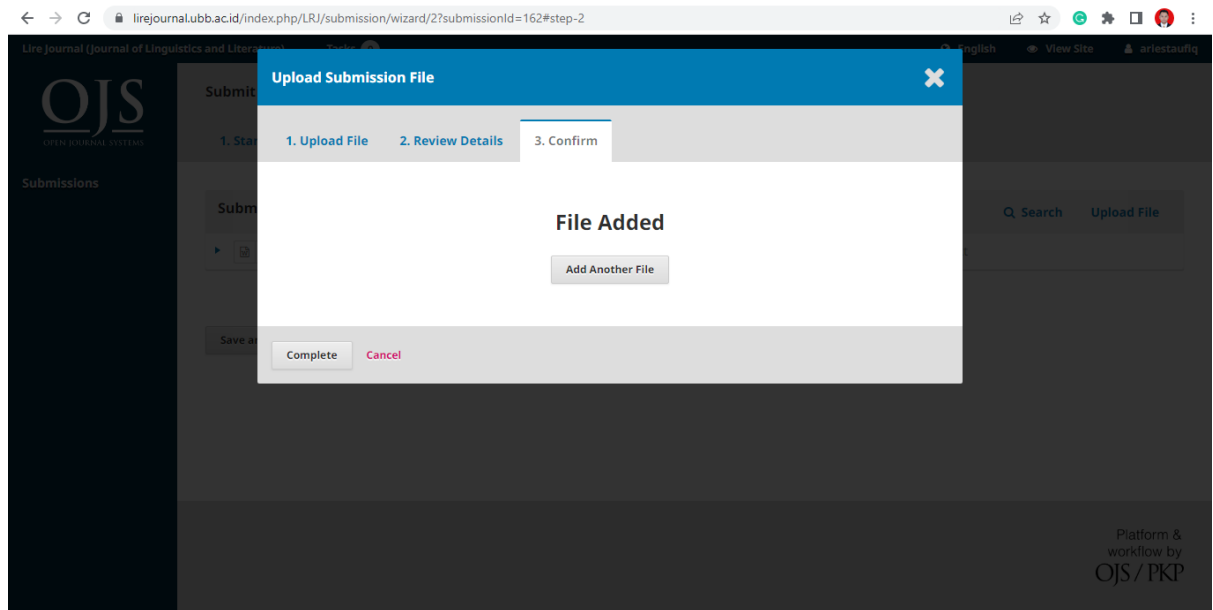
Figure 9

11. Then you will be directed to the "Upload Submission" section then press "Save and Continue".
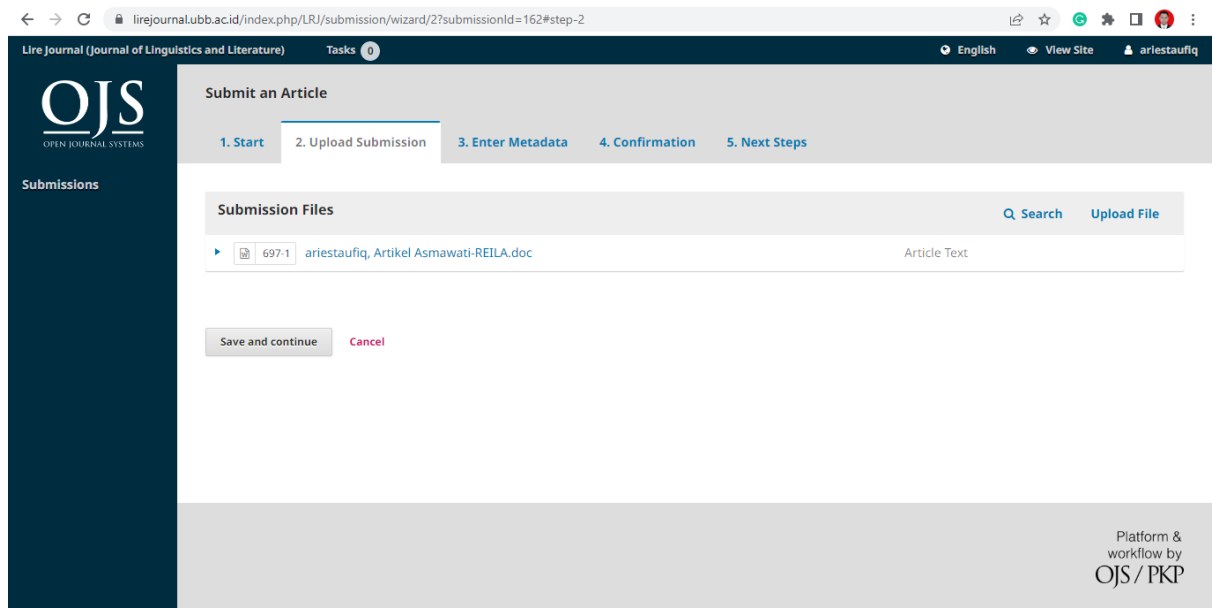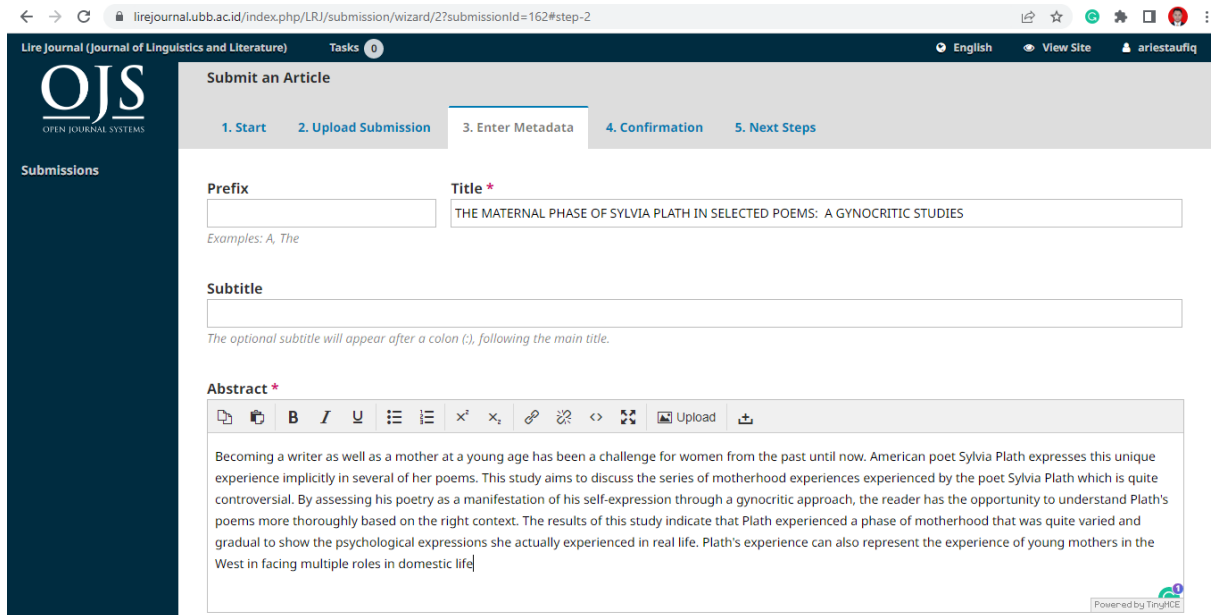
Figure 10

12. Next, you will be directed to the third section, namely "Enter Metadata".
13. In this section, fill in all the required fields, especially those marked in red, such as: title, abstract, list of contributors and keywords.
14. Then press "Save and Continue".

Figure 11

Figure 12

15. Next, you will be directed to the fourth section, namely "Confirmation".
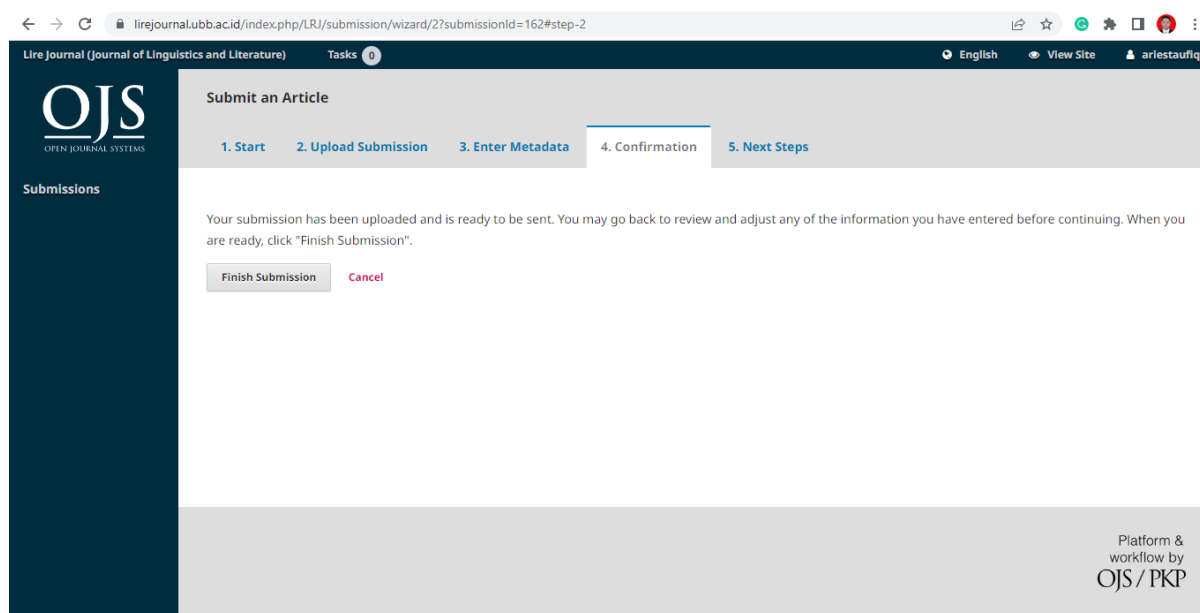16. If you are sure, then press "Finish Submission".

Figure 13

17. You will be directed to the final section, namely "Next Steps".
18. This section shows that submitting the article has been completed.
19. The author can also see the status of the article that has been submitted by pressing "Review this submission".
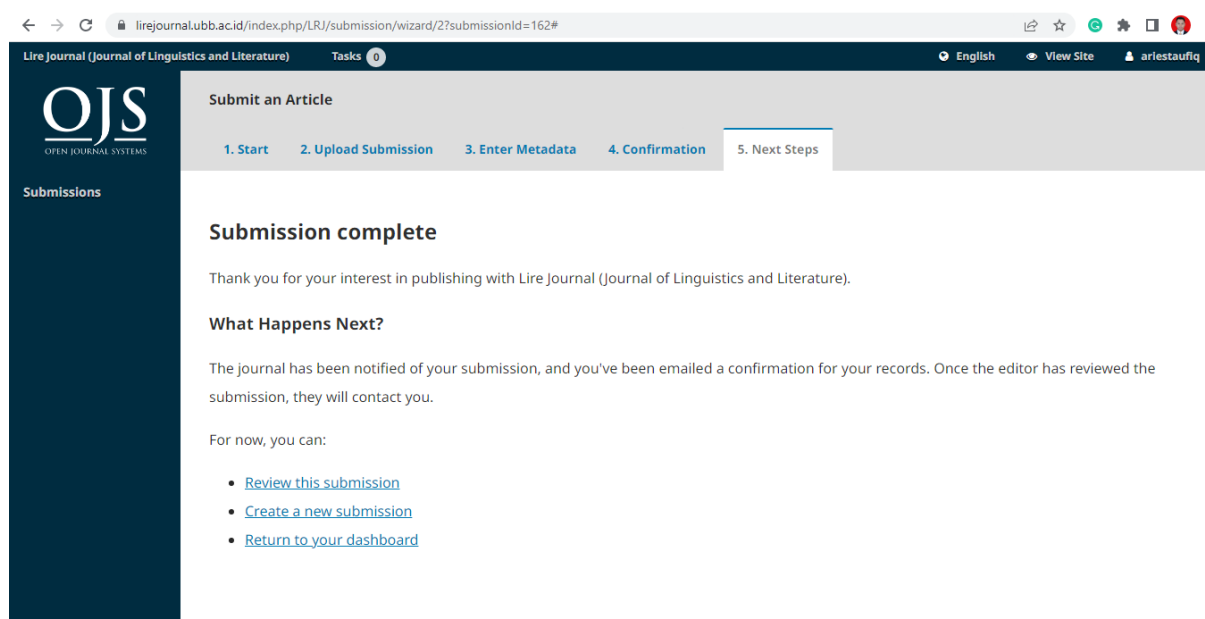

Figure 14

20. In this section the author can see the progress of the article submission process.
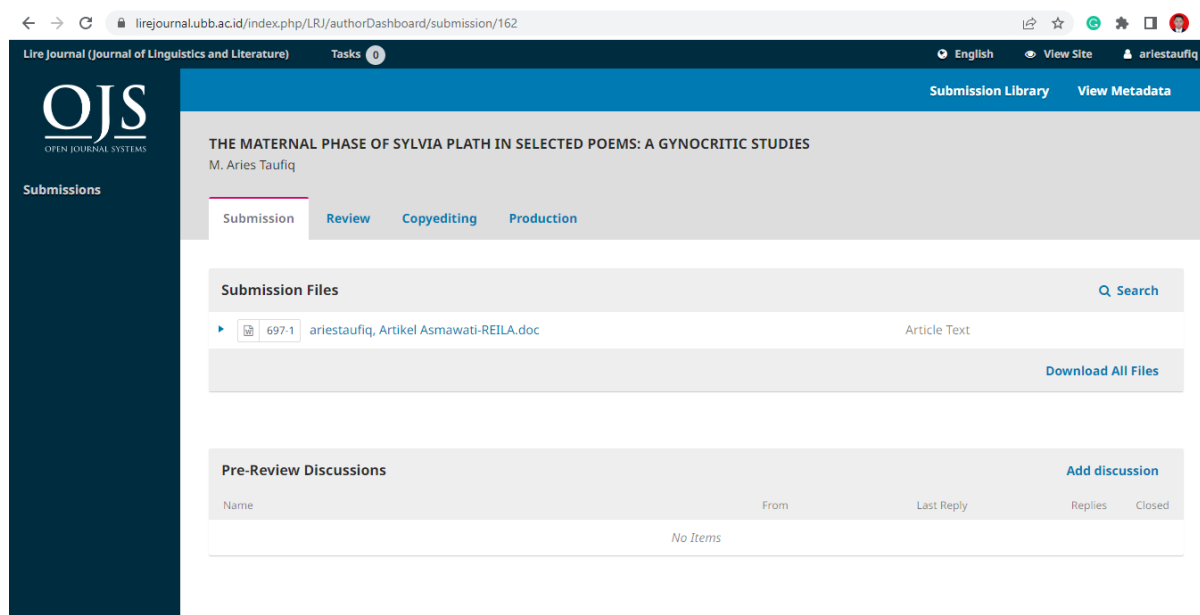
Figure 15

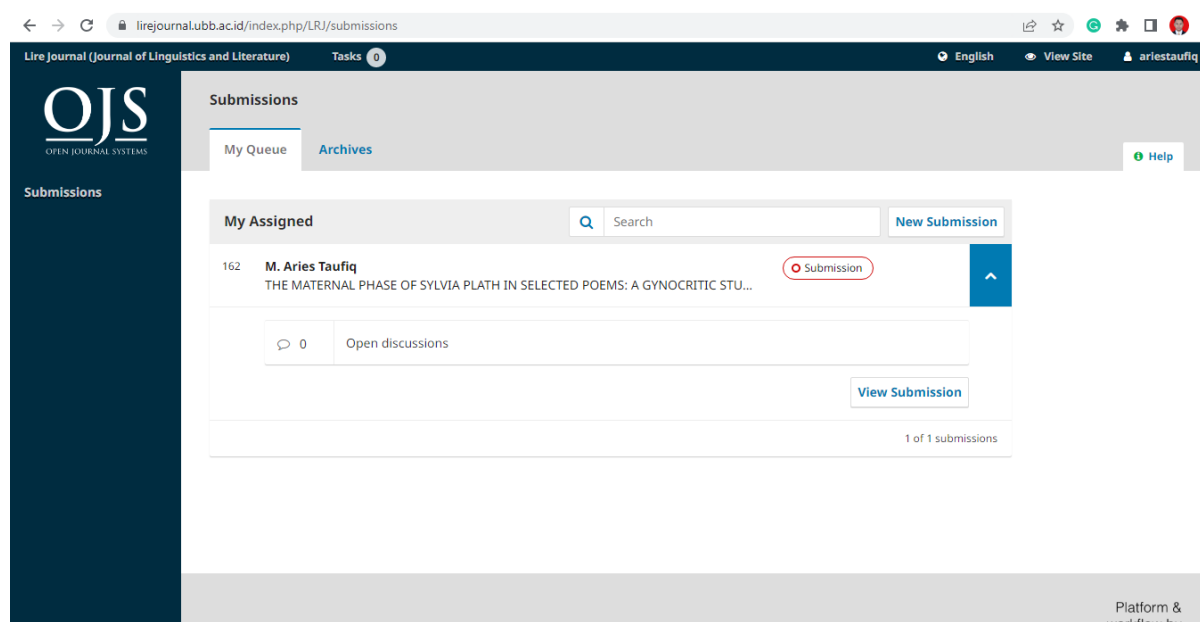21. Next, the author is asked to frequently check the status of the article.

Figure 16

22. Then, the author is obliged to revise if the reviewer asks to revise until the article fulfills the requirements asked by the reviewer and editor (the article may be rejected by the editor with various considerations).
23. If everything is ready, all you have to do is to do the payment if it is paid (some journals are free), then, wait for the article to be published.

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