Research Tips
Avoiding Plagiarism
How to Use Source Material in Papers, Presentations, and Online Posts
APA Paper Format Guide
Reference List Guide
In-Text Citations Guide
Example Paper in APA Style
What is this guide?

This is a guide for City University of Seattle students in Europe about doing, using, and citing research in assignments. It is an update of the 2004 Research Paper Guide, which focused on writing research papers.

This guide is all about research and presenting research, no matter the assignment. As a university student, you will use research in academic papers, case studies, reports, marketing and business plans, presentations, and online discussion board postings. This guide should help you use research in any of these assignments.

Chapter 1 is about how to find the sources that you need; it has been updated to include more information about the free resources available online to City University of Seattle students.

The goal of your assignments, however, is not just to do research and present what you have learned. If your instructor and classmates wanted to see your research, they could just read your sources themselves. The goal of your assignments is to present what you think about what you have learned. To do this, you need to use research effectively to support your ideas, which is the focus of Chapter 2. It covers plagiarism as well as quoting, paraphrasing, summarizing, and "sandwiching" (integrating) source material in your work.

Finally, your coursework must be presented in a uniform and accepted style, called APA, which is the subject of the remaining chapters. City University of Seattle has adopted APA style as the standard style for student work. This style was designed by the American Psychological Association (APA) in 1929 to standardize the format and citation methods of all the articles for its journal. The use of too many individual styles was distracting and confusing for readers, so the APA demanded that all papers submitted to its journal follow one style. Since then, APA style has been updated many times to reflect changes in research methods and technology. The latest updates occurred in 2007 and 2009, and those changes are included in this guide.

APA style is accepted and used by professors, researchers, students, and writers in the social sciences. As part of this academic community, you are expected to use it too. APA style, however, was created for scholarly articles for journal publication, so this guide has adapted and simplified it to fit the needs of a City University of Seattle student in Europe. (If you have to publish or present a paper professionally in APA style, I recommend consulting the sixth edition of the Publication manual of the American Psychological Association for complete style details.)

Hopefully, this guide will make doing, using, and citing research a bit easier for you. If you still have questions, talk to your teachers, particularly your writing teachers, or send me an email. Good luck with your assignments.

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awhitaker@cityu.eu
September, 2009
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I. Research Guide

Whether you are writing a paper, analyzing a case, preparing a presentation, or posting your ideas in a discussion board, you will need to do research.

Going to Google, typing in a few words, and opening the first results is not sufficient research for university-level work. Doing good research takes time. You will come to dead-ends and have to start over. You will change your mind and have to look for new evidence. You will come across more questions as you try to answer the ones you have. To save time, plan your research and use the research tools provided by the City University of Seattle online library.

PLANNING RESEARCH

Do not run straight to the Internet; read this section about planning your research first.

Preliminary (General) Research

If you don’t know exactly what you’re looking for, still are not sure of a topic, and/or do not yet have an opinion about your topic, you will need to do some general research to learn all that you can.

Look through general sources (your textbook, encyclopedias, general news articles) to get basic background information, narrow your focus, discover the different opinions about the topic, and direct you to more specific sources.

Remember that very general sources like encyclopedias should not be used as sources in your work – university-level academic work requires more in-depth research.

Using Wikipedia and other user-created Web sites

Wikipedia is an online encyclopedia project, in which articles are written and edited by anyone who creates a Wikipedia account.

First, as an encyclopedia, it should not be used as a source in university-level work.

Secondly, because articles can be written by anyone and changed at any time without editing, you should not cite information found on Wikipedia to support your ideas – this includes in online discussions.

In its general disclaimer, Wikipedia itself writes, “Wikipedia cannot guarantee the validity of the information found here. The content of any given article may recently have been changed, vandalized or altered by someone whose opinion does not correspond with the state of knowledge in the relevant fields” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikipedia:General_disclaimer)

That doesn’t mean Wikipedia is useless, however. It can help you

- Learn about a new subject
- Narrow down your topic
- Identify experts about your topic
- Develop a list of search terms for your topic
- Find good sources by exploring the references at the end of each article

So, you can read it, but do not use it in your final coursework.

Specific Research

If you already know what you’re looking for and feel fairly confident about your opinion on the topic, it’s time for more specific research. Use what you already know as well as what you have learned in your preliminary research to plan this round.

- Make a list of questions to answer
  Make a list of questions that you have about your topic which research can help you
answer. Decide which ones are the most important and start your research there.

- **Make a list of what you’re looking for**
  What do you need to support your ideas? What kind of evidence – facts, examples, statistics, studies, first-hand accounts, expert opinions? What kind of information does the assignment require?

- **Make a list of search words**
  Make a list of keywords related to the questions and needs listed above. Do not limit yourself to one or two words! The more words you try, and the more combinations you use, the more success you’ll have.

- **Determine where to search**
  Which sources of information will give you what you need? Start in the most likely place. Here are some things to consider before you start searching:

  - **City University of Seattle’s Library Resources:** Read the next section in this guide about the resources available on the CU online portal before starting your research. You may be able to do all your research here, by using the Course Resources Guide for your course and the appropriate online databases.

  - **Books:** If your topic is not too current or specialized, the CU libraries in Slovakia or Bulgaria could have good sources for you. Don’t ignore books; they are often easier to use and more trustworthy than many Internet sources. The Slovakia and Bulgaria libraries have online catalogs; you can also use the 3 e-book databases on the City University of Seattle portal.

  - **Organizations:** Are there reputable non-governmental organizations, government agencies and ministries, international organizations, corporations, etc. that relate to your topic? Plan to visit these groups’ web sites.

  - **Periodicals:** Are there any newspapers, magazines, and/or journals that will have articles related to your topic? If so, plan to visit their web sites.

  - **Personal communication:** Do you know someone (or the email address of someone) who is an expert on your topic? Interviewing a primary source is a great way to get the information that you need because you ask the questions.

- **Know what’s required**
  Some instructors will require you to use certain types of sources – this is usually because these sources have the best information. For example, in a finance course, your instructor may direct you to the NetAdvantage database. So start there.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary and Secondary Sources</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary and secondary sources both have advantages, and most papers will benefit from using both.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Primary Source** – someone’s original work: speech, eyewitness account, letter, autobiography, report based on original research, interview, case study, survey/questionnaire findings, statistical data, experiments...
- Primary sources let you interpret information in your own way.
- Primary sources can also make your paper more interesting to the reader.
- Be careful of biases – investigate the author.

**Secondary Source** – writing about a primary source: report of others’ work, analysis/interpretation of an event or others’ research, biography, history book, news article...
- These sources provide analysis and show what others think about your topic.
- Avoid sources that use secondary sources as sources (that’s lazy research). Find those secondary sources and use them yourself.
City University of Seattle’s Library has a variety of resources for doing research on the My.CityU portal.

**Finding CityU of Seattle’s Library at My.CityU.edu**

1. Open [https://my.cityu.edu](https://my.cityu.edu) - you will be redirected to the portal.
2. If you do not have an account, create your account. If you have an account, go to #5.
   - Click on the link "Create Your Account"
   - Type in your date of birth in MMDDYYYY format [03281980 = March 28, 1980]
   - Enter your City University ID number (your student number)
     - Check with your admissions advisor if you are not sure or do not have one.
     - Type in your ID without hyphens or spaces.
   - Select a username that is easy to remember and type it into the username field.
   - Type your password and retype it.
     - The password must have at least 8 characters. It must contain at least 1 character from all of the following three categories:
       - English uppercase characters (A through Z)
       - English lowercase characters (a through z)
       - Base 10 digits (1 through 9)
     - Your password must not contain large portions of your username or full name.
3. If you receive an error message during this process, try again. If you still receive an error message, contact your admissions advisor.
4. Wait 24-48 hours for your information to be processed in the system.
5. Enter the portal with your username and password (if you forgot your password, click on “Change/Forgot Your Password?”).
6. You should see a “Students” tab along the top of the page. On the left side of the screen, there should be a menu which includes “Library” as one of its options. If you do not see the “Students” tab or the “Library” menu option and you have already waited 48 hours, contact your advisor.
7. Click on “Library” in the menu. This will take you to the Library Home Page.

**What’s in the Library**

- **Course Resource Guides**
  Each City University of Seattle course should have a Course Resources Guide which can help you get started on your research.

  Find “Resources by Course” in the Library Home Page and click on your course (e.g. BSC 407). Here you will find links to e-books, articles, online databases, periodicals, and/or web sites related to your course.

- **Online Tutorials**
  In The “How Do I...?” section on the Library Home Page, you will find tutorials about doing and using research. Some are slide shows; others are documents.
  - Search an online database [there is a tutorial for almost every database]
  - Evaluate information sources [how to evaluate web sites]
  - Evaluate scholarly sources [how to evaluate database articles]
  - Use Wikipedia [what you can and can’t do with Wikipedia]
  - Use Google Scholar [how to search for scholarly sources on the Internet]
- **Program Resource Guides**
  The Library Home Page has program resource guides for these subjects: Communications, Computer & Information Systems, Education, Management, Psychology, and Technology Management. These contain more general research tools related to the subject.

  For example, in the Management guide, you can find more “How Do I...?” tutorials:

  - Analyze a company in an industry
  - Find case studies
  - Find company information
  - Find competitors or suppliers
  - Find industry information
  - Find info about consumers
  - Find ratios
  - Find SIC/NAICS codes
  - Get help with business plans
  - Research any country

  These guides provide several options and take you step-by-step through the research process.

### USING CITY UNIVERSITY OF SEATTLE’S ONLINE DATABASES

The most important research tools on the My.CityU portal are the online databases. City University of Seattle students have **free** access to about 30 databases containing sources for academic research. The quality of the sources is unquestionable.

Some students mistakenly believe that the databases only contain periodical articles. They don’t! You can also find reports, brochures, statistical data, books, company profiles, industry analyses, business ratios, and more. Use the library’s Course Resources Guide and its online tutorials to direct you to the right database.

#### Which Databases to Use

The most recommended databases are listed below, with the name in the left column and a brief description (provided by the CityU library) in the right column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Topics</th>
<th>Articles, abstracts, and photos from scholarly journals, news magazines and newspapers on topics in the social sciences, humanities, the arts and technology. (EBSCO)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Search Premier</td>
<td>Abstracts and full text articles from scholarly journals, magazines and trade publications on topics in communication, mass media and closely related fields of study. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Newspapers</td>
<td>A collection of more than 3,000 full text electronic books (e-books) in all subject areas. E-books are online versions of print books and can be searched, borrowed, read, and returned through the Internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>netLibrary</td>
<td>Abstracts and full text articles from scholarly and popular journals on general topics such as health, the humanities, social sciences, education, and business. (ProQuest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Library</td>
<td>Citations, abstracts and full text articles from more than 4600 biomedical journals and magazines from 1966 to the present. Covers all areas of medicine including psychiatry, clinical medicine, and allied health. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology Topics</td>
<td>Full text articles from journals published by the American Psychological Association and the Canadian Psychological Association. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsycARTICLES</td>
<td>PsycBOOKS is a database of more than 10,000 chapters and citations from over 600 books published by APA and other distinguished publishers. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology &amp; Behavioral Sciences Collection</td>
<td>Full text journal articles on topics such as emotional and behavioral characteristics, psychiatry and psychology, mental processes, anthropology, and observational and experimental methods. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Topics</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ABI/Inform Trade and Industry</strong></td>
<td>Full text articles from business magazines and newsletters with a trade or industry focus. Includes industry news, product and competitive information, and marketing trends. (ProQuest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accounting and Tax with Standards</strong></td>
<td>For Accounting/Finance topics. Abstracts and full text articles from nearly 300 accounting, tax, and related business publications. Browse full text standards and related documents from leading international and U.S. organizations, including FASB, GASB, AICPA, IASB, and IFRC. (ProQuest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business Source Complete</strong></td>
<td>Abstracts and full text articles from scholarly and popular business, law, and computer systems periodicals. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Market Information</strong></td>
<td>Seven full text databases with marketing information: Country Data, Consumer Lifestyles Analysis, Consumer Lifestyles Data, Consumer Market Data, Forecasts, Companies &amp; Brands, Information Sources, and Major Market Profiles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key Business Ratios</strong></td>
<td>For Accounting/Finance topics. Dun &amp; Bradstreet provides 14 key business ratios and industry averages by SIC/NAICS codes. Covers critical areas of business performance including solvency, efficiency, and profitability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mint Global</strong></td>
<td>Find public and private company financials and profiles, including ratios, competitors, and market research. Build lists of companies based on multiple criteria, such as industry or geography. Worldwide coverage and scanned financials in the language of filing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net Advantage</strong></td>
<td>Standard &amp; Poor’s database of industry surveys, company financial data, investment reviews and analyses (bonds, mutual funds, stocks), and industry ratios and averages.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Technology Topics</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Books 24x7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Computer Source</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**How to Search on an Online Database**

To learn more about searching, use the “How Do I...?” tutorials named above (you can find links to these on the Library Home Page as well as on its list of online databases). The CU libraries in Slovakia and Bulgaria also have handouts about using the databases. Most importantly, take the time to explore the databases on your own.

This guide will not give detailed steps about how to do a database search as it’s different for each database. However, to help you become acquainted with the two most common database companies (EBSCO and ProQuest), here is an introduction to doing a simple search on Academic Search Premier (EBSCO) and Research Library (ProQuest).

1. After you click on “Online Databases” on the Library Home page, you will see the list of available databases. Click on the name of the database you want.
2. You will be asked to enter your username and password again.
3. This will take you to the database’s search page.
4. Have a list of 5-10 search terms that you could use individually or in different combinations. You may find what you need with the first term, or you may need to try all of them.
5. Search...
   - Browse the database’s Topic Guide or Subject Guide to see the list of terms that it uses to categorize sources. These guides can help you narrow your search and allow you to see a list of all articles relevant to a subject

OR
Enter your search terms: this table explains how to choose a search field, narrow your terms, and limit your search.

### Choosing a search field – where should your search words be found?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Search</th>
<th>Academic Search Premier</th>
<th>Research Library</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For general searches</td>
<td>SU: Subject</td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For specific topic searches</td>
<td>AB: Abstract; KW: Author-supplied keywords</td>
<td>Citation and abstract; Abstract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For specific article searches</td>
<td>SO: Journal; TI: Title; AU: Author</td>
<td>Publication Title; Document Title; Author</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Narrowing your search terms - Use Boolean search operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Search</th>
<th>Academic Search Premier</th>
<th>Research Library</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For an exact phrase</td>
<td>Put &quot;quotation marks&quot; around the phrase (&quot;lung cancer&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For 2 related words or topics</td>
<td>Use AND between the words (smoking AND &quot;lung cancer&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For a topic, but not including a related topic</td>
<td>Use NOT between the words (advertising NOT television)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For various forms of a word</td>
<td>Use * at the end (comput*) Use? to replace one letter in the middle (wom?n)</td>
<td>Use W/# between two words. (W/3 finds texts in which words are written within 3 words.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For close words in a text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For synonyms of plurals of your search word</td>
<td>Check “Apply related words”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Limiting your search – Limit your search by date, full-text, and document type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Search</th>
<th>Academic Search Premier</th>
<th>Research Library</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date limit</td>
<td>“Published Date From:” Fill in Month/Year to Month/Year</td>
<td>“Date range:” Select “last 30 days,” “last 3 months,” “last 12 months”…, or “After this date” (enter a date)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-text articles only</td>
<td>Check “Full Text”</td>
<td>Check “Full-text documents only”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarly, peer-reviewed articles only</td>
<td>Check “Scholarly (peer-reviewed) journals”</td>
<td>Check “Scholarly journals, including peer reviews”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certain document types</td>
<td>Select the document type from the drop-down menu</td>
<td>Choose “document type” as a search field, and use the type of document as a search term.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. If you get no results, make your search more general by using fewer search terms and limiters and/or by changing the search field. Don’t use a different search term yet – give it another try.

7. If you get a lot of results, don’t open every one! You can narrow the results further. Most databases have great tools to help you do this – look in the menus on the top or side of the screen to find these tools.

### Narrowing the search results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Search Premier</th>
<th>Research Library</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use “Narrow results by” in the left column. Narrow your search by subject, publication type, geography, and more. Each time you narrow your search, the left menu will give you more options to narrow further.</td>
<td>Look at the “Suggested Topics” box and click on a topic. The “Narrow your results by” box will then give more options to narrow your search further.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. First use the document titles to judge whether or not to open a source. If a source looks promising, read the abstract next.

9. You can then choose to print the full text of the document, email it to yourself, save it in your folder in the database (you will need to create this), or possibly download it
to your computer. Keep a record of all the information you will need for your reference list: author, date, title, periodical, document type, and database name.

**SEARCHING ON THE WEB**

DO NOT RELY ONLY ON INTERNET SOURCES. But if you need a break from CU’s online library, you can move your search to the Web. Don’t do a general search on Google for your topic! You can get more than a million results. Of those, very few will actually be good for academic research. To save time, know exactly what you’re looking for (see Planning your Research) and use these six methods:

**Go to Specific Organizations’ Web Sites**

Go straight to the web sites of the organizations you listed and do a search there. You may find good primary sources and links to other sites. (If you don’t know their web site addresses, then you can do a Google search for the organization).

**Try Periodical Web Sites**

If you know that a periodical has written about your topic, go to its web site and do a search. Some will require you to pay to read their articles. If so, you may be able to find the same article for free in the CU library’s online databases.

**Use Links from Good Sources**

Once you find a high-quality, relevant web site, use it to connect you to other good sources. Check out the links on the web site. Also look for other sources in the reference lists (you can click on links to cited web pages, and you can search for cited articles in CU’s online databases).

**Use Academic Search Engines/Databases**

There are many free databases and search engines that focus on Internet resources for academic work. While not as complete or reliable as CU’s paid online databases, they are worth trying. A few are listed below, and your instructors may know of others:

- **Google Scholar: [http://scholar.google.com](http://scholar.google.com)**
  With Google Scholar, you can search for academic sources. Use the “Advanced Scholar Search.” Enter search words and dates. You will be given peer-reviewed pages, books, and articles from publishers, associations, universities, and other academic organizations. Remember, however, that not all academic work is on Google Scholar, so only using this tool will limit your results.

- **Intute Search: [http://www.intute.ac.uk/](http://www.intute.ac.uk/)**
  Intute provides links and descriptions of web resources in most subject areas. These links have been chosen by subject experts at several higher education institutes in the U.K. Do a regular search or an advanced search, or browse by subject. You will be given a list of web resources relevant to your topic, including a description of each source. Open the sources that seem useful. You will still need to evaluate the web site for reliability, but the chances are high that the site will be good.

- **BASE – Bielefeld Academic Search Engine: [http://www.base-search.net](http://www.base-search.net)**
  This search engine from the Bielefeld University Library covers most subjects. You can do a basic or advanced search. You will get a list of web resources, with a lot of information about each one, as well as a link to the source. The web resources must meet certain academic standards to appear in the results list, so although you should still evaluate the web site, the chances are high that the site will be good.

- **Free Academic Databases and Archives: [http://www.wholeagain.com/free_academic_databases.html](http://www.wholeagain.com/free_academic_databases.html)**
  This page has a huge list of databases, some general, some very specialized, where you can search for academic sources. Find a database related to your topic, open the link, and do a search on the site. Quality may vary, so evaluate your findings
carefully.

  A database of articles for managers. Articles are practical, focused on business, technology, news, and lifestyle. Most of these are not really academic sources, but they may be good for finding real-life examples and ideas for further research.

**Use an Internet Search Engine (Google, AltaVista, Bing, Yahoo...)**
This should not be where you go first. Seriously. You can get sucked in to a search for hours and days and never find exactly what you want. Plus, each search engine works differently and finds different things, so you need to try more than one. It’s preferable to wait to do this until you want very specific information so that you can do the most specific search possible. Here are some tips for searching with a general search engine:

1. Use the Advanced Search option.
2. Try different combinations of words using the different search options (“all these words,” “this exact wording or phrase,” “one or more of these words,” or “unwanted words”).
3. Specify the domain (“.org domain” or “.gov domain”) if you want something from a certain type of web site.
4. Search for words “in the title of the page.”
5. Ask for pages “updated within a year” or “updated in the past year.”
6. The results are NOT organized by quality, so read more than the first page of results.
7. Evaluate the title, author, address, date, and content in the results list before opening a web page.

**Keep a Record**
You will visit many web pages, so you need a reliable method for keeping track of the good sites so you can return to them. It’s very frustrating to have to spend an hour re-searching for a web page because you need its address or author for your paper. So when you find a good page, immediately write down the address or bookmark the page.

**EVALUATING WEB SOURCES**
You must evaluate every web page very carefully to determine whether it is appropriate to use as a source in your work. Anyone can put anything on the Internet, so it’s hard to find high-quality sources. Use sources that meet the following criteria:

**Coverage**
- The source should focus on your topic, not just have a sentence about it.
- The source should not omit anything important or crucial about the topic (if it does this, it may have a hidden agenda).

**Currency**
- The source should be current and updated recently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Finding the Date</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>The date is often at the top or bottom of the page or the text. It may be after the © copyright symbol or after the words “last updated.” If you cannot find the date on the web page, go back one step (or more) in the address to look at the previous page or home page of the web site.</td>
</tr>
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- Most good sources will have a date. If there is no date, make sure the information is still current by checking it with other sources.
- The links should be working. A page with broken links has not been maintained.
**Authority (Individual Author)**

- The author should have the appropriate education, experience, and/or position to write about your topic.

**Learning about the Author**

Look for the author’s educational background, current and past positions, list of publications, membership in organizations, and contact information. An author with a good reputation will make most of this information available. However, remember that you may not find all this information about journalists for newspapers and magazines. You may have to evaluate a journalist by the quality of his/her employer.

- If the author seems suspicious, check his/her qualifications in another source.
- Avoid completely anonymous sources. If there is no person author, look for an organization author.
- Be careful with self-publishing authors. Besides personal web pages, look out for news or information sites that allow any users to post an article and present themselves as “experts.”
- Don’t use papers written by other students as sources. Find their sources instead.

**Sponsorship (Organization Author, or Sponsor of Web site)**

- Whether it’s a non-profit organization, corporation, government agency, news media group, university department, or other entity, the organization should describe its purpose, its work, its members, and its contact information.

**Learning about the Organization**

Investigate the home page of the web site of the organization, corporation, agency, periodical, or other entity whose web site you used. Look for an “About…” or “Who we are” link. Check the copyright or last updated date of the site. Go outside the site to see what others have said about the organization.

- The domain in the address can help determine the sponsor’s status: .org=non-governmental organization; .gov=government; .edu=educational institution; .com=commercial web site. However, these are not the only domains available.
- Beware of “organizations” that are very biased, or that are really just the work of one person who registered a .org site.
- Use .com sites with care. Find out the purpose of the commercial sponsor. These sites are, of course, fine when you are analyzing the company itself.
- Beware of news/information sites with a .com address. Evaluate the reliability of the news source carefully. Some of these are legitimate, respected periodicals while others have a strong bias or allow anyone to post an article.

**Objectivity**

- Know the purpose of the site – to inform, to influence, or to sell – and the author’s point of view (if he/she has one). You may be able to use a source with any of these purposes, as long as you are aware of and capable of analyzing the biases.

**Learning about a Source’s Objectivity**

Learn about the site sponsor and author (see above). Also look at the format, graphics, and headings: are these serious or sensational? Carefully read any tiny words at the bottom of the screen that may be hiding something. Evaluate the advertising on the site – is it separate from the information or blended with it? See who is linked to the site.

Skim the text to understand its writing style and opinions. Is there information about both sides of an issue? Is the other side attached or treated fairly? Is the author moderate and balanced or emotional and extreme?
Choose "inform" sources that cover all sides of an issue.

Choose "influence" sources that are reasonable, based on evidence, and fair to the other side. Analyze the arguments for yourself; don’t just believe them.

Be careful of sources with a hidden bias – they pretend to be informative but are actually trying to persuade.

Check for a conflict of interest – how does the source benefit from your reading it?

Avoid sources with a very simplistic writing style not written for academic use.

Avoid sources (like fake news sources) that are written to entertain.

Avoid sources with angry (or other emotional) writing styles (such as a lot of exclamation points).

**Accuracy**

The source should have evidence for its ideas (other sources and/or its own research).

**Checking accuracy**

Skim the source to see if it provides evidence. Look for a reference list, a bibliography, cited sources, and links to other sites. Make sure these sources are reliable too. In a newspaper or magazine article, look for interviews and facts. See if there is some form of quality control (an editor, expert, or organization read and approved the information before it was published).

The source should name the sources of its information completely (“in one study,...” or “research shows...” are not enough).

If the source did its own research, the research methods should be explained and reliable. Beware of statistics based on responses from readers – they do not represent the general public.

Do not use or believe any statistics if the source does not say how/where it got them.

Web sites are usually not edited and reviewed like published books and periodicals, but well-established organizations usually ensure the quality of their documents.

Scholarly journals usually have a peer review system to ensure quality.

Online periodical articles may or may not be checked by an editor; evaluate accuracy by whether the facts in the article match up with what you know and based on the quality of the periodical.

Try to avoid sources that cite secondary sources (or sources that cite secondary sources that cite secondary sources). Errors occur the further away you get from the original source.

Beware of misleading evidence. Think about the data given by the source – does it really support the source’s idea, or is the source making connections that are not really there?

If information does not seem true, it probably isn’t. Find it in two other good sources before believing it.
II. Using Research Effectively

You did all of your research to learn more about your topic, but the goal of your assignment is not just to present that research. Your goal is to present what you think about the topic, based on your research.

So, in your assignments, you will use research to

- Define and clarify your points
- Give evidence (facts, examples, experts’ opinions) for your own ideas
- Present an opinion different from your own to refute

To do this effectively, it is important to know the following skills:

- Citing the source
- Quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing
- Sandwiching the source material

Before discussing these, we’ll cover the misuse of research, also known as plagiarism.

PLAGIARISM BASICS

What a person writes, or says, becomes his or her own property. So if you use a person’s words OR ideas without informing your audience, you are stealing his/her property. Presenting someone’s words and/or ideas as your own is called plagiarism.

In your academic work, whether in a paper, presentation, or discussion forum, you will have to respond to other people’s ideas or use their work to support your ideas, so you need to be aware of plagiarism. It is a very serious issue in academia – students can fail a class or be suspended because of it.

Types of Plagiarism

The first step in avoiding plagiarism is knowing what it is:

- Turning in an assignment that you did not do yourself for a current course
  - Submitting another person’s work as your own work: This includes letting someone else write your paper, part of your paper, homework, discussion posting, or any other assignment.
  - Copying someone else’s work: This includes copying someone else’s homework or other assignment, and copying/pasting from other people’s work without naming the source and using quotation marks.
  - Turning in your own paper from another term or different class: You are expected to do original work in each class. (If you have a good reason for wanting to use some of your previous work in your current class, ask your instructor).

- Not naming the source of your information
  - Using an idea, fact, example, graph, chart, picture, or anything else from a source without naming the source.

- Not using quotation marks to identify someone else’s words
  - Copying a passage from a source word by word without quotation marks: Even if you name the source, this is plagiarism because those words are not yours – you must use quotation marks to give credit to the author.
  - Taking a passage from a source and changing it just a little: Even if you name the source, this is plagiarism because those words are not yours – you must use quotation marks or change the passage completely.
- **Taking a small but unique phrase from a source and writing it without quotation marks.** Again, even if you name the source, this is plagiarism. The combination of words is unique; you must give credit to the author by using quotation marks.

- **Changing the author’s ideas or words**
  - **Using words which aren't the author's exact words in quotation marks:** Adding or deleting words from a quotation (unless it's clear to readers) misrepresents the author.
  - **Changing source information to fit your opinion:** This is stealing the author's name and reputation to suit your paper, which is a violation of scholastic honesty.

### FIND THE PLAGIARISM

Look at these students' sentences using the information from the source below. Which of these sentences are examples of plagiarism?


#### 1. Source: They are home to 70% of all land-living plants and animals and provide food, fuel, shelter, clean water, medicine and livelihood for people worldwide.

**Students' sentences**

A. Forests are home to 70% of all land-living plants and animals and provide food, fuel, shelter, clean water, medicine and livelihood for people worldwide.

B. According to the U.S. Department of State (2004), forests are home to 70% of all land-living plants and animals and provide food, fuel, shelter, clean water, medicine and livelihood for people worldwide.

C. Forests “are home to 70% of all land-living plants and animals and provide food, fuel, shelter, clean water, medicine and livelihood for people worldwide,” reports the Department of State (2004).

D. According to the Department of State (2004), forests are very important in fulfilling humans' basic needs.

E. Forests have 70% of all land-living plants and creatures, and they give food, fuel, roofs, not dirty water, medical products, and livelihood to people around the world, reports the Department of State (2004).

F. The Department of State (2004) reports that all inhabitants of this planet need forests. People get medicine, food, water, wood, and building supplies from forests, and 70% of plants and animals, not including those in the seas, live in forests.

**Source:** *Yet forests in many regions, especially in the tropics, continue to disappear at rapid rates due to population pressures, subsistence agriculture, unsound and illegal logging practices, large scale development projects, and national policies that distort markets and subsidize forest conversion to other land uses.*

#### 2. Students’ sentences:

A. The Department of State (2004) reports that forests are being destroyed by “population pressures, subsistence agriculture, unsound and illegal logging practices, large scale development projects, and national policies that distort markets and subsidize forest conversion to other land uses.”

B. The Department of State (2004) reports that forests in many regions, especially in the tropics, continue disappearing at fast rates due to “population pressures, subsistence agriculture, unsound and illegal logging practices, large scale development projects, and national policies that distort markets and subsidize forest conversion to other land uses.”

C. As the Department of State (2004) reported, various factors contribute to the increasing destruction of forests throughout the world, particularly in tropical areas.

**Plagiarism:** 1A-no quotation marks and no source name; 1B-no quotation mark; 1E-no quotation marks, and not enough changes; 2B first part of sentence is copied without quotation marks.
**Avoiding Plagiarism**

Avoiding plagiarism is not difficult, but it does take time. We’ll return to the topic of avoiding plagiarism after discussing the skills necessary to do so.

**CITING THE SOURCE**

To cite a source means to **name the source** where you found something. When you use something from a source in your paper, you must cite the source by writing an **in-text citation**. Because the information (or idea, graph, data, opinion, words, logic, etc.) is not yours, you must tell the reader who it belongs to and where it came from. The reader may also want to learn more about your topic, so every source you use in your paper will be put on your reference list.

In general, an in-text citation includes the author’s last name and the year of publication. It is placed immediately after information from the source.

This is information from the source (Malley, 2005). This is not.

If you use the author's name in your text, the in-text citation only includes the year and comes after the author's name.

Marketing professor John Malley (2005) gave this information.

There are, however, a lot of other possibilities depending on the author and type of source, so you will need to use the reference list guide (p. 30) and in-text citation guide (p. 58) to learn how to cite correctly.

**What Not to Cite**

There are two things that you do not need to cite, even if you did find them in a source.

- **Your own thoughts and opinions**
  If you already had an opinion and found a source that re-states it, you do not need to cite the source, as the opinion originated from your own mind. (However, if you use the evidence, reasoning, or logic that the author uses to support the opinion, then you will need to cite the source.)

- **“Common knowledge”**
  This is something an educated person should know OR could easily find out. Something that is found in many of your sources is common knowledge in your field and does not need to be cited. (However, if you are unsure whether something could be considered “common knowledge,” be safe and cite it!).

**TO CITE OR NOT TO CITE?**

I. For which of these statements do you need to cite a source?

A. Vienna is the capital of Austria. [you read this in a book]
B. Capital punishment is wrong. [you think this and you saw it on a web page]
C. 45% of brown dogs have fleas. [you learned this from the TV news]
D. Abraham Lincoln was the 16th president of the United States [you remember this]
E. Lincoln had two pairs of eyeglasses, a pocketknife, and a wallet in his pockets when he was killed. [you read this in a biography]
F. CU tuition will go up by 7% next year. [you learned this in an interview with the dean]
G. CU is expensive compared to Slovak state universities. [you think this]
H. When elephants see blue, their heart rate increases [you read this somewhere last year]

*Cite C, E, F, H – you found this information somewhere AND it’s not commonly known. Don't cite A, D – common knowledge: even if you didn’t know it, you could easily find it in many sources. Don't cite B, G – your opinion.*

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CITATION OR NO CITATION?

For which of these statements about Golden Retrievers do you need an in-text citation?

A. Golden Retrievers are dogs.
B. Dr. Scooby found that Retrievers hear better than other dogs.
C. “Retrievers are ideal candidates for seeing-eye purposes,” said Spot.
D. Golden Retrievers are able to perform a variety of tasks.
E. Golden Retrievers have worked one-on-one with prisoners at Folsom Prison in a rehabilitation program to make prisoners more responsible and caring.
F. Golden Retrievers finished first in an intelligence test comparing 5 different breeds.

In-text citation (remember, you need author AND date) for B, C, E, and F. All of these contain specific information that you found somewhere. No in-text citation for A – common knowledge. No in-text citation for D – general statement.

NAMING THE AUTHOR/SPEAKER

When you use material from a source, you should name the author of the source, or the person who said the quotation (if it’s not the author). This is an absolute must in your presentations, or the audience will not know that the information/ideas came from a source. In writing, the audience knows about the source because of the in-text citation; however, most readers skip over parentheses.

Introducing the Author/Speaker

Introducing the author/speaker adds more credibility to the source material. “Abrams said…” is not enough. Tell the audience who Abrams is - not his whole biography, but just a short phrase that lets the audience know why Abrams is a good source.

Abrams, the CEO of a multinational paper company, said,…
Dr. Abrams from Stanford Business School said,…
Susan Abrams, a financial analyst with 20 years of experience, said, …
Accounting professor Susan Abrams said, …

Verbs and Phrases

Don’t bore your audience by using the same pattern again and again when you use source material. Here are some verbs and phrases to try. All of these verbs have a bit different meanings; you can’t use them as synonyms of each other. If you don’t know what a verb means, look it up in a dictionary before you use it.

- **Author + Verb + That + Sentence. or As + Author + Verb, Sentence.**
  Animal psychologist Johnson demonstrated that dogs cry from grief.
  As Johnson demonstrated, dogs cry from grief.
  - admit
  - conclude
  - explain
  - prove
  - agree
  - demonstrate
  - find
  - report
  - argue
  - deny
  - indicate
  - say
  - assert
  - determine
  - maintain
  - show
  - assume
  - discover
  - note
  - state
  - believe
  - doubt
  - observe
  - suggest
  - claim
  - emphasize
  - point out
  - think

- **Author + Verb + Somebody/Something + As + Noun/Adjective**
  In his *Science Journal* article, Johnson described dogs as human-like creatures.
  He presented dogs’ brains as having well-developed emotional centers.
  - characterize
  - define
  - describe
  - evaluate
  - identify
  - present
  - view

- **Author + Verb + Noun**
  Johnson, a Dog Brain Center researcher, discussed dogs’ love for their owners.
  After 5 years of research, Johnson identified five types of canine love.
  - describe
  - discuss
  - explore
  - find
  - identify
  - include
  - name
Prepositional Phrases

In the words of Dan Johnson from the Dog Brain Center, “Dogs can be sad.”
- in Author’s view
- in the opinion of Author,
- in Author’s words,
- in the words of Author,
- according to Author,

WHEN TO QUOTE, PARAPHRASE, OR SUMMARIZE

When using your research in your writing and speaking, you will choose one of these methods:

**Quote**: use the exact words of the source. Do this when the author's words are strong, perfect, memorable, and unique. There is no way you could write or say it better to fit your work. This happens rarely!

**Paraphrase**: restate the source material in your own, completely different, way. Do this when you want to use specific ideas or details, but you can write or say them better or just as well in your own way.

**Summarize**: restate only the main ideas in your own words. Do this when you only want to include the main idea of a passage or source, not the details.

Of the three, you will paraphrase and summarize the most. Using your own words saves space and allows you to connect your thoughts to the source material more easily.

QUOTING

To use the exact words from a source, you must use “quotation marks” to show that they are not your own words.

If you are giving a presentation, you cannot write quotation marks, which is why it is essential to name the source as you speak and make it clear that the words are a quotation.

Because the goal of your assignments is to discuss what you think about what you learned, your audience is not interested in a lot of quotations. If we wanted to know the source’s exact words, we would just go read the source. A paper or presentation with too many quotations, especially long quotations, creates the following problems: your argument loses its impact as it is hard to sustain among all the quotations, your credibility is weakened because it seems that you have nothing to say, and your writing or speaking style is disrupted by other people’s words. Therefore, **YOU SHOULD HAVE FEW QUOTATIONS IN YOUR WORK!**

**Only Use a Quotation If**

- The source says something so perfectly that you could never write or say it in a better way to fit your needs OR
- You want the audience to know exactly what the source said so that you can directly respond to the words or tone of the author.

**Never Use a Quotation If**

- The quotation is just a regular sentence, with no special, strong words.
- You can write the author’s words just as well in your own way.
- The quotation just repeats what you have already said. It should add something new.
- You’re just being lazy.
- You need to fill a page.
- You’re writing a thesis statement, topic sentence, or concluding sentence (because these should be your own idea, not someone else’s).
SHOULD YOU QUOTE THESE WORDS from the *Slovak Spectator*® in your paper?

1. As of October 1, the minimum monthly wage in Slovakia is set at Sk 6,080 and the price of one-hour labor cannot sink under Sk 35.
2. “This nonsense is born in minds affected by the excessive consumption of wine,” Toth said.
3. With the arrival of the first Mikuláš Dzurinda cabinet, Slovakia gradually began to regain the trust and respect of its western partners, and the cabinet’s efforts were rewarded recently with the country’s invitations to join both NATO and the EU.
4. Satinsky will always be remembered as a clown, a storyteller, a friend to children, Slovakia’s uncrowned king of humor and a noble-minded man.
5. Just 10 years after the fall of the oppressive regime, as many as 69 percent of Slovaks said that life was worse than under communism, according to a study done by the US government in late 1999. Their view of communism had clearly gotten better over time, as in 1992 only 50 percent voiced that opinion.

1. NO. You could easily write it in your own way. 2. YES. The quotation has sarcasm and is unique. 3. NO. What's special about it? 4. YES. (It uses words which you couldn't rewrite to keep the author's tone). 5. NO. What's special about it? Just facts that could be written in another way. *reprinted with permission*

How to Write Quotations

- **USE SHORT QUOTATIONS!**
  Use 1-3 sentences or even just a part of a sentence.

- **Put “quotation marks” around ALL of the source’s EXACT words.**

- **Integrate the quotation into your own sentence.**
  Start a sentence with your own words and then finish with the quotation, or start with a quotation and finish with your own words. Don’t let a quotation stand all alone as its own sentence.

  “Though seemingly peaceful and polite creatures, elephants can actually stomp a human to death in a short 4 seconds” (Seeno, 2007).

  Jane Seeno (2007), a wildlife park ranger, points out that “though seemingly peaceful and polite creatures, elephants can actually stomp a human to death in 4 seconds” (p. 4).

- **Name the speaker to give the quotation more credibility:**
  o If you’re quoting the author, use the author’s name:
    According to Richards (2002), “Elephant tamers are following a long painful twisting road of doom” (p. 17).

  o If the person who said the quotation is different than the author, name the speaker. Put the source’s author in the in-text citation, preceded by “as cited in”:
    As zoologist Dr. Smith said, “An elephant tamer looks 20 years older than he actually is” (as cited in Richards, 2002, p. 21).

- **If you skip words in the middle of a quotation, use ellipses (. . .).**
  Ellipses show that you skipped some words. Do not put ellipses at the beginning or end of a quotation. Be careful not to change the author’s meaning.

  Richards (2002) said, “Elephant tamers are following a long . . . road of doom” (p. 17).

  Richards (2002) said that these trainers face “a long painful twisting road of doom” (p. 17).

- **Use [brackets] if you change or add to a quotation.**
  If you must change a word or grammar to make a quotation fit your grammar or be more understandable, use [brackets] to show what you have added or changed. Be careful not to change the author's meaning.

• **Use correct punctuation and capitalization**
  The first word of the quotation is usually capitalized, but not after “that.” The period usually goes inside the final quotation mark, but not if there is an in-text citation after it.

  Stewart (2008) said, “The paper was wonderful.”
  According to Stewart (2008), “The paper was wonderful.”
  As stated by Stewart (2008), “The paper was wonderful.”
  Stewart (2008) said “the paper was wonderful.”
  Jones agreed that “the paper was amazing” (as cited in Stewart, 2008).

• **Separate long quotations (over 40 words)**
  In the rare case when you use a long quotation, it should be a block of text on its own. Start on a new line and indent the block ½ inch (0.5” or 1.27 cm) from the left margin. Do not use quotation marks.

  Stewart (2008) said, “The paper was wonderful.”
  According to Stewart (2008), “The paper was wonderful.”
  As stated by Stewart (2008), “The paper was wonderful.”
  Stewart (2008) said “the paper was wonderful.”
  Jones agreed that “the paper was amazing” (as cited in Stewart, 2008).

  Consultants are constantly rethinking their ideas. If they latch on to one idea, they lose a world of opportunities for creative thinking. They become so focused on proving the rightness of that one solution that they cannot see that there is still a new world of ideas left to explore.

  A flexible and changing mind is actually the key to making the right final decision. (para. 5).

  Continue the paragraph here.

**PARAPHRASING**
Paraphrasing is re-stating the ideas or information from an author’s work in your own way. If you do this, you must

• Change the vocabulary of the author’s sentence
• Change the word order of the author’s sentence
• Change the grammar of the author’s sentence
• Not change any of the author’s ideas

At first, it will be difficult, but paraphrasing strengthens your papers and presentations more than quoting because

• You can say what the author said in a way which will fit your argument better
• You can say what the author said in a way which will fit your speaking or writing style
• You can make the author’s idea easier to understand
• You can say the author’s idea in a more interesting way

**What stays the same:**
Even though paraphrasing is changing the author’s words, you’ll find that there are some words that you cannot change.

• **Names** (Afghanistan, Europe, Balkans, Tony Blair...)
• **Numbers** (seven; 80%; 224,000; 50% (but you could say "half"))
• **Specialized words with no synonyms** (heroin, sugar, bus, tongue, keyboard)

In the example paraphrases below, the words that did not change are underlined.

Sugar was the traditional mainstay of the Saint Kitts economy until the 1970s. Although the crop still dominates the agricultural sector, activities such as tourism, export-oriented manufacturing, and offshore banking have assumed larger roles in the economy. As tourism revenues are now the chief source of the islands' foreign exchange, a decline in stopover tourist arrivals following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks has eroded government finances.

**Paraphrase:**

As reported by the CIA (2004), before the 1970s, St. Kitts' economy was based on sugar. Now the economy also depends on offshore banking, manufactured exports, and tourism, but sugar is still the main agricultural product. After the events of September 11, 2001, the state's financial situation has been hurt because tourism, the biggest contributor to the island's budget, has decreased.


Most Southwest Asian heroin flows overland through Iran and Turkey to Europe via the Balkans. Although regional conflicts have forced traffickers to modify delivery routes, the Balkans remain the primary passageway for Southwest Asian heroin bound for Western Europe. Heroin and opium shipments are smuggled from Turkey in bonded trucks, buses, or personal vehicles to Western Europe for distribution.

**Paraphrase:**

According to the CIA (n.d.), the majority of heroin from Southwest Asia ends up in Europe. Smugglers first carry it across Iran and Turkey. From there, cars, buses and trucks transport the heroin and opium through the Balkans. This area remains traffickers' main route to Western Europe despite its political instability.

**How to paraphrase**

1. Understand everything in the passage. Look up words in a dictionary if you are unsure about them – this is important. Read the sentences before and after it as well.

2. Read the sentence(s) a few times.

3. Cover the sentence(s) and write the idea in your own words.

4. Make sure to introduce the author/speaker and cite the source.

5. Check that you didn't use the same vocabulary, word order, or grammatical structures. Check all three of these things. Be very careful.

6. Check that you kept the same meaning and didn't put your opinion in the paraphrase.

**OR**

1. Understand everything in the passage. Look up words in a dictionary if you are unsure about them – this is important. Read the sentences before and after it as well.

2. Rewrite the original by looking at it. Begin differently – change the word order of the sentence. Change all the words that can be changed. If the original sentence is long, divide it. If the original sentences are short, combine them.

3. Make sure to introduce the author/speaker and cite the source.

4. Check that you haven't used the same vocabulary, word order, or grammatical structures. Very carefully check all three of these things.

5. Check that you kept the same meaning and didn't put your opinion in the paraphrase.
**PARAPHRASE OR PLAGIARISM?**

*Read Student A, B, and C's attempts to paraphrase the following passages and decide if they paraphrased correctly or plagiarized.*


1. **Source:** Not until 1840 was it established that Antarctica was indeed a continent and not just a group of islands. Several exploration "firsts" were achieved in the early 20th century. Following World War II, there was an upsurge in scientific research on the continent.

**Student A:**
In 1840, the world finally realized that Antarctica constituted a continent, not just islands. The beginning of the last century brought new discoveries on the continent, and the growth of scientific research came after the Second World War.

**Student B:**
The CIA (2004) reports that in 1840, the world finally realized that Antarctica constituted a continent, not just islands. The beginning of the last century brought new discoveries on the continent, and the growth of scientific research came after the Second World War.

**Student C:**
Until 1840, people thought Antarctica was just a group of islands and not a continent, according to the CIA (2004). At the beginning of the 20th century, new discoveries were made on the continent, and after World War II, an upsurge in scientific research occurred on the continent.

2. **Source:** A number of countries have set up year-round research stations on Antarctica. Seven have made territorial claims, but not all countries recognize these claims. In order to form a legal framework for the activities of nations on the continent, an Antarctic Treaty was negotiated that neither denies nor gives recognition to existing territorial claims; signed in 1959, it entered into force in 1961.

**Student A:**
The CIA (2004) reports that many countries have set up all-year-round research stations on Antarctica. Seven have made claims for territory, but not every country recognizes these claims. To form a law for the activities of countries on the continent, countries negotiated the Antarctic Treaty which does not deny nor recognize these territorial claims. It was signed in 1959 and came into force in 1961.

**Student B:**
According to the CIA (2004), Antarctica hosts permanent research stations for several states. Even though 7 countries have even declared part of Antarctica as their own, their demands have not been accepted by other countries. The Antarctic Treaty, set up to govern the use of Antarctica by the countries operating there, was agreed on in 1959 and began working in 1961. The seven states' claims are not legitimized nor rejected by the Treaty.

**Student C:**
As the CIA (2004) states, many states have research stations on Antarctica, and seven states have even made territorial claims for part of the continent. However, these claims are not recognized by other countries. To form a legal framework for the activities of states on Antarctica, an Antarctic Treaty was agreed to that neither denies nor gives recognition to these declarations. Countries signed the treaty in 1959 and it entered into force in 1961.

1A. Plagiarism – good paraphrase, but no in-text citation. 1B. OK. 1C. Plagiarism – last sentence is copied without quotation marks. In-text citation should be at the end of all information from the source. 2A. Plagiarism – too similar to the original. Not enough has changed. 2B. OK. 2C. Plagiarism. The student just changed words; it is still too similar to the original. Sorry.

**SUMMARIZING**

In a summary, you re-state the major opinions or findings of an author in your own way. You should not include any details. It is also very important not to put your own opinion in a summary.
How to summarize a paragraph/passage

1. Understand what you are reading. If you don't understand it, you can't summarize it correctly. Look up words that you do not understand.

2. Write down the main ideas of the passage on a separate piece of paper. Use your own words in these notes. If you use any of the author's words, use “quotation marks.”

3. Look at your list of ideas, not the author's words, and write your summary of the main ideas. Do not write any of the supporting details. Remember to introduce the author.

4. Look at the original to make sure you changed the grammar, vocabulary, and word order.

5. Make sure that you have not changed the author's meaning and that you have not added your own opinion/ideas to the summary.

How to summarize an article

You will often be asked to summarize articles in your university work. To do this, you re-state the article’s main ideas so that the reader understands the important points of the article without having to read it. In an article summary, you may summarize, paraphrase, and quote. You will

- Summarize the main idea of the article
- Paraphrase the important supporting ideas
- Quote any very significant, strong, amazing words, phrases, or sentences

Obviously, a summary should be much shorter than the article, but the length of your summary will depend on your instructor's assignment.

1. Read the article to find the main ideas. Look for the thesis statement, topic sentences, and headings. This is not always easy; the thesis statement is not always at the end of the first paragraph, and the topic sentence is not always the first sentence in a paragraph. There may be many very short paragraphs which are just details and not main ideas. Look at the introduction and conclusion as well – the main idea of the article will probably be in one of these too.

2. Take notes on another piece of paper – write down all the main ideas of the article in order. If you write three or more of the author’s words in a row, put “quotation marks” around the words.

3. Read the article more carefully now. Understand it (get help from a dictionary).

4. Look back at your list of main ideas and fix them if your understanding of the article changed.

5. Look at your notes (not the article) and write a summary of the article in your own words. Your summary, no matter how long it is, should have a beginning, middle, and end.
   - Beginning – Start with a sentence that includes the author’s full name, title of article, and a summary of the central idea of the article.
     
     In the article “The Great War,” John Smith (2005) writes that World War II led to the mass use of airplanes by civilians. OR
     
     “The Great War,” an article by John Smith (2005), states that World War II had a huge impact on the role of airplanes for civilian use. OR
     
     In the view of John Smith (2005), author of “The Great War,” World War II transformed the use of airplanes by civilians.
   - Middle – Write all the main ideas of the article, in the order presented in the article, in your own words. Paraphrase the author's main ideas or if really
necessary, quote exciting phrases. Use transitions between main points, and use the author's name to show his ideas. Don't include details.

First of all, Smith points out that airplanes began to be used to transport troops more than in the past, which aided the future creation of large passenger planes for civilians. Long-flight technology was also developed during the war as airplanes served as long-range bombers. Finally, according to Smith, the first mass production of airplanes occurred during World War II, and this cheaper production then continued in civilian companies after the war.

○ End – Conclude your summary with the same idea the article ended with.

Thus, Smith argues that the military use and development of airplanes during the war made the civilian use of airplanes possible.

6. Check your summary for plagiarism. Did you use an in-text citation (once at the beginning is enough)? Did you use your own words or quotation marks? Did you present the author's main ideas accurately, fairly, and completely? Did you present the author's opinion only, and not your own?

SANDWICHING SOURCE MATERIAL

Quotes, paraphrases, and summaries will not be effective if they are just lazily tossed into your papers and presentations. It is important to both introduce your research to your audience and explain what it means and how it supports your ideas.

In the English academic style, the student does all the work. It is your job to explain "why" and "how" to your audience; the audience should not have to think hard to understand the connection between your thoughts and the source material.

To use quotes, paraphrases, and summaries effectively, you will need to

- **Understand the source completely**
  Too many students ruin great arguments with sources that they don’t understand.

- **Take only necessary things from sources**
  Only use information you really need. Do not include irrelevant ideas.

- **Make a sandwich**
  Almost every time you use material from a source, you should put it in a sandwich. This makes it easier for the reader to digest. A sandwich clarifies where the source material begins and ends and what it means.

  **The Sandwich**

  Think of the source material as the middle of a sandwich. It is meat that needs to be held in your paper or presentation with bread on both sides. A really good sandwich has:

  - **Your own point which the source will support (top bread)**
    Write this idea in your own words.

  - **Introduction to the source material (vegetables)**
    Name the author/speaker. If naming a person, say who he/she is.

  - **Source material: Quotation, paraphrase, or summary (meat)**

  - **In-text citation (cheese)**
    Your in-text citation may come near the top of the sandwich if you use the author’s name, or it will come after the source material. It should be clear where the source material begins and ends.

  - **Explanation of the source material (bottom bread)**
    Explain why/how the source material supports your point or overall thesis. Be specific; don't generalize. Focus on explaining how the source material has shown that your idea is valid. Remember, the reader won't understand or see the connection unless you explain it well.
Connection between all the sentences/ideas in the sandwich (sauce)
This last ingredient could go anywhere in the sandwich – wherever a connecting word (mustard, mayonnaise) is necessary to keep the flow of your writing. Each sentence should relate to the one before and after it so that the source material is integrated into your writing, not separate from it.

Frequently Asked Questions about Sandwiching

Q: How long should a sandwich be?
A: As long as necessary. Sometimes it may take a few sentences to introduce or explain the source material. Sometimes the source information will be so clear that it will require almost no explanation. Each case is different and must be dealt with individually.

Q: Is each part of the sandwich one sentence?
A: No, definitely not! See the answer above.

Q: Is a sandwich a paragraph?
A: No. It is usually a supporting point of a paragraph. One paragraph may have many sandwiches in it. (They will, of course, all be logically connected to each other and work together to prove the topic sentence).

Q: What’s the hardest part of sandwiching?
A: Definitely the bottom bread. Sometimes students forget about it completely, and the sandwich falls apart. Other times, students find it difficult to explain the source material – they expect the audience to be able to see its significance clearly without help. But remember, the audience has not spent weeks with the topic, so they need some help.

Q: Should I sandwich source material in my presentations too?
A: Yes. When you are speaking, it is especially important that the audience knows what comes from a source and what from your own head. Using sandwiches in your speaking will also provide the explanation that good presentations require. Your slides, however, don’t need a sandwich. The information on the slide could be the source material (properly cited, of course), which you will introduce and explain with your speaking.

Q: Should I sandwich source material in discussion board postings too?
A: Of course. Without including your own idea or explanations, you haven’t contributed much to the discussion. Other participants are interested in your thoughts, not in reading source material (if that was all that was important, you could just post a link).

EXAMPLE SANDWICH

NOT A SANDWICH (source material is in bold)
Although birds can be endangered by human construction, the effects of wind turbines on bird habitats are minimal. “Birds often collide with high voltage overhead lines, masts, poles, and windows of buildings. They are also killed by cars in the traffic. Birds are seldom bothered by wind turbines, however” (Danish Wind Energy Association, 2003). People also do not need to worry about the noise that wind turbines make.

SANDWICH (source material is in bold)
Although birds can be endangered by human construction, the effects of wind turbines on bird habitats are minimal. According to the Danish Wind Energy Association (2003), “Birds often collide with high voltage overhead lines, masts, poles, and windows of buildings,” but it points out that “birds are seldom bothered by wind turbines.” Birds seem to know how to avoid turbines, unlike other man-made structures, which is another environmental factor in favor of wind energy.

In the first, the quotation is unconnected and unexplained and the source is not introduced. The reader can only ask, “Why are you using this? What does it mean to your topic?” Instead of explaining, the writer has moved on to the next concern about wind turbines. The second passage sandwiches the quotation by introducing an idea, connecting it to the quotation, introducing the speaker, and then explaining what the quotation just said.

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EXAMPLE BODY PARAGRAPH WITH SANDWICHES (source material is in bold)

Another strike against Australia’s kangaroo management program is the terrible methods used to kill kangaroos. The government claims that kangaroos are killed humanely because they are shot in their heads while sleeping (as cited in Animal Liberation, n.d.). This is in accordance with the guidelines from the Code of Practice for the Humane Shooting of Kangaroos. However, this is not how all kangaroos are actually killed. Even the code admits that “no matter how carefully the shooter aims, some kangaroos will not be killed outright.” If a kangaroo is shot but not killed, then the code suggests the hunter shoot the kangaroo again in the head or the heart, or pound it on the head to kill it (Department of the Environment, 2003). So not all kangaroos die painlessly as claimed. In fact, the non-profit organization Save The Kangaroo has found kangaroos shot in the neck, throat, or jaw. It reports that hunters leave dying kangaroos on the ground for several hours. Hunters also kill some kangaroos while they are eating, not sleeping, because they are more visible then (Cox, 2007). So, it seems that some hunters disobey the government’s code. In addition, the code allows hunters to kill females with joeys in their pouches. According to the guidelines, hunters must search the dead females’ pouches and cut off the joeys’ heads (as cited in Madden, 2008). Even though the kangaroo industry does not sell joeys’ meat and fur, the joeys are killed since they cannot live without their mothers. Overall, these methods provide some evidence of the kangaroo management program’s cruelty.  

Note how all source material is surrounded by the writer’s own ideas. She explains what the source material means and how it proves the main idea of the paragraph.

EXAMPLE DISCUSSION POST WITH SANDWICHES (source material is in bold)

Hi all,

I agree with you, of course, that we shouldn’t use Wikipedia as a final source in our papers. But most of you say that it’s OK to go there to learn basic information about a topic. I wonder if that’s always true. I don’t think we should trust Wikipedia at all. Some people use the site to spread their own thinking or ideology, or just to play jokes, and so you could go the page just after someone has been there and made radical changes or played a joke. For example, a student from Ireland posted a fake quotation from a man who just died on Wikipedia, and several newspapers put that quotation in the man’s obituary (Cohen, 2009). Obviously, the journalists did not check the facts with other sources, and this just shows that we will have to check everything we find on Wikipedia in another source to confirm that it’s true. So is it worth it?

However, the New York Times article I read did say that Wikipedia is now going to limit who can make changes in articles about living people. Anyone can still make changes, but the changes won’t appear in the article until after one of Wikipedia’s thousands of approved volunteer editors has approved the change (Cohen, 2009). So I guess this will help make the articles about living people more trustworthy, although it depends on the quality and care of the volunteer editor. For me, it’s probably still not enough to make me go to Wikipedia first if I know I can easily find a trustworthy source somewhere else.

AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Now that you have covered how to use source material, we can get back to the topic of avoiding plagiarism. Most students don’t intend to plagiarize, but mistakes in using source material can happen. Here are some tips to help:

- **Do not wait until the last minute (or day or week)!**
  This is it – the BIG RULE. *Intentional* plagiarism occurs because students do not have enough time to do their assignments.

- **Base your work on your own ideas.**
  The second BIG RULE. If you focus on your own thoughts, not your sources’, you are more likely to use your own words. Make a basic outline of your ideas before you begin heavy research and note-taking. Don’t write a paper, give a presentation, or make a post that just says what your sources think. Include what you think too.

- **Use primary sources when possible.**
  Then you can do your own analysis and not be tempted to copy the analysis and opinions of secondary sources.

- **In your notes and in your drafts, immediately highlight where you have quoted and/or paraphrased and write the source’s name.**
  Students often put whole paragraphs of copied material in their paper, without quotation marks or a citation, planning to come back and fix it later…and then they forget.

- **Name the source whose words or ideas you use.**
  Whether you are writing or speaking, use the author’s name so it’s clear to the readers that the words and/or ideas are not your own.

- **Quote, paraphrase, or summarize correctly.**
  Use quotation marks around any unique words you take from an author.

- **Correctly cite the source.**
  This includes on PowerPoint slides and discussion board posts. Make sure that ALL information from the source is covered by a citation, and that your own words and ideas are clear – remember that one citation at the end of a long post indicates that the entire post is from a source.

- **Keep drafts of your paper.**
  Do not save your paper in the same file over and over again; use “Save as” to save the draft each time you work on it and assign the latest draft a new number. So you could have infoessay001.doc, infoessay002.doc, infoessay003.doc, etc. This may help prove that the work is yours. Also keep copies of your drafts in different places (you never know when your laptop will die).

- **When your work is finished, proofread your use of source material.**
  Compare your quotations, paraphrases and summaries with the original source, making sure that quotations contain the exact words and that paraphrases and summaries have been changed enough. And of course, all source material must have an in-text citation.

- **Make sure every source cited in your paper is on your reference list, and every source on your reference list is in your paper.**
III. APA Paper Format Guide

The parts of a paper in APA style are the title page, abstract, text, reference list, and appendices. For all of your written work, you will need a title page and text. If you use research, you will need a reference list. An abstract and appendices are less common.

To format your paper, you will need to use a variety of tools in Microsoft Word or another word processing program. Because students use different programs and there are several ways to format the same thing, this guide will not give detailed steps. You can learn about these formatting features from the Help tool in your program, in a computer class, at work, or through experimentation. Becoming familiar with these tools will be useful not only for your academic papers, but also for creating documents in your professional life.

However, you can also download the pre-formatted “APA Format_Example Paper” Word document that comes with this guide and use it as a basis for your paper.

Basic Format for All Papers:
- Use A4-size paper. Check that your word processing program and computer are set up for A4 paper, not Letter-size (8½ x 11-inch) paper.
- Everything should be double-spaced.
- Use Times New Roman 12-point font for everything.
- All pages should have one-inch (1") margins on all sides. That’s 2.54 centimeters.
- Every page should have a header with the title and page number.

The paper at the end of this guide is an example of APA style. All your papers should look like this one unless your instructor gives you different guidelines.

TITLE

Every paper needs a good title on its first page (the title page) to hook the reader. When writing a title, you should
- Identify your specific topic
- Show the paper’s purpose (your thesis or recommendation or other main idea should be clear from the title)
- Catch the readers' interest (use vivid, specific language)
- Use no more than 12 words (APA recommendation)
- Avoid abbreviations and useless words
- Use phrases – the title should not be a sentence, and usually not a question
- Capitalize the first words of the title and subtitle, and all other important words

Here are the most common patterns for titles, with examples from students. For each title, try to identify the specific topic and the student’s view of it.

General Subject: Specific Focus of Paper
- Animal Cloning: A Chance to Save Giant Pandas
- Plagiarism: The Easy Answer for Confused Students
- Microsoft in Trouble: More Flexibility Required

Name of Topic: Phrase Renaming Topic
- The Sun and Oracle Merger: A Clash of Organizational Cultures
- Smoking Ban: A Law for a Healthier Society
Kangaroo Population Management: Murder of Innocents

Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell Policy: The Discrimination of Homosexuals in the U.S. Army

**Topic and Prepositional Phrase**

Keys to the Survival of Record Labels in the Internet Age

Healthy Drug: A Brief View of Coffee without Prejudice

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**HEADER**

The top of every page will contain the first few words of your title (capitalized as in your title), 5 spaces, and then the page number. It should be written in Times New Roman 12 and aligned right. This is called the header.

First Few Words of Title

The header is a separate section; it is not part of the text. Do not type the header on every page (this will ruin your format). Instead, using the Header/Footer tools, you enter the header section, type the title once, and insert the page number. Your header will automatically appear on every page with the appropriate page number.

**TITLE PAGE**

Every paper should begin with a title page. Like all pages, it contains the header (with page number 1). The title page also includes the title as well as your name, your e-mail address, the course number and name, the instructor's name, the assignment name, and the date. This information is necessary for identifying your work when it is uploaded to the City University of Seattle archives or emailed to your instructor.

The title should be centered on the page, in Times New Roman 12. If the title is long, it can be written in two lines, double-spaced.

Title of the Paper: Subtitle of the Paper

The identifying information appears in the bottom right corner of the title page. It should be aligned right, double-spaced, Times New Roman 12, and in the following order:

Sam Student

Student e-mail address

XXX 123 Course Name

Isabelle Instructor

Assignment

Month #, Year

**ABSTRACT**

Most likely, you can ignore this section. Papers written for publication by the APA must have an abstract (a summary of the paper). Most of your instructors will not ask for an abstract. But if they do, here are some directions:

- The abstract appears on a separate page after the title page.
- It will, of course, have the header with the appropriate page number (2).
• On the first line of the page, center the word “Abstract”.

• On the next line, start the summary of your paper’s key points. Do not indent. It should be a single block of Times New Roman 12, double-spaced text. The abstract should have 150-250 words, covering your research topic, questions, methods, results, analysis, conclusions, and/or the implications of your research.

**TEXT**

Begin your text on page 2 (or 3 if you have an abstract). Here are the key formatting issues related to the text of your paper:

• Start the text on the first line of the page.

• Each page of text will, of course, have the header with the appropriate page number.

• The text should be straight along the left margin (“align left”). It should not be straight along the right margin. Each line should end at its own place; the line endings on the right should be uneven (not “justified”).

• There should be no extra spacing between paragraphs. Check to make sure that “Line Spacing” is set at “double” and that “After” and “Before” are both set at 0.

• The first line of every paragraph should be indented ½ inch (0.5”) or 1.27 centimeters.

• Do not hit “enter” at the end of a line! Keep typing; the text will move to the next line.

• For information on including tables and figures in the text, see Chapter 6.

**HEADINGS**

Headings are short titles which are used to break up a paper into sections. For most papers in your coursework, you will not need headings. However, in these cases, headings are necessary:

• Long papers: headings keep the readers’ attention and help them follow your ideas.

• Papers with pre-established parts: headings divide the paper into each required part. An example is a case study.

• Papers in which the instructor requires headings.

APA style has a heading system with five heading levels. Section headings use Level 1 format. Sub-section headings use Level 2 format. Sub-sub section headings use Level 3 format, and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>TNR 12, Centered, Bold, Important Words are Capitalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>TNR 12, Left-aligned, Bold, Important Words are Capitalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TNR 12, indented 0.5”, bold, only first word capitalized, ends with period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>TNR 12, indented 0.5”, bold, italicized, only first word capitalized, ends with period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>TNR 12, indented 0.5”, italicized, only first word capitalized, ends with period.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So, if you have a paper with 6 sections, those section headings will all follow Level 1 format. If you have sub-sections inside a section, those headings use Level 2 format.

Some things to remember if you use headings:

• Do not use a heading that says “Introduction.” Everyone already knows that the beginning of your paper is the Introduction.

• You can format each heading individually, but if you are writing a really long paper,
it’s useful to learn how to use Microsoft Word’s Style tools. You can make a Style for each heading level and then simply choose the style you want for your text. The program can also generate a Table of Contents based on the headings.

- Headings are double-spaced and there is no extra space before or after a heading.

Here is the end of the paragraph from the previous section.

**Important Section Heading**

Here is the beginning of the first paragraph in this section. Note how everything is double-spaced and there are no extra spaces. The paragraph is also indented as it should be…

- If you do not follow the APA headings system (ask your instructor if that’s OK) and you design your own heading system, make sure that it is consistent. All headings of equal sections must have the exact same format.

**REFERENCE LIST**

The reference list includes all the sources you used in your paper. More details about creating the reference list are given in a later section. This section will just discuss the format.

- The reference list starts on a new page after the end of your text.
- The reference list has the header with the appropriate page number.
- Type and center the word “References” on the first line of the page.
- On the next line, start the first source. Each source will start on a separate line.
- The first line of every source should start on the left margin, and the following lines from the source should be indented ½ inch (0.5” or 1.27cm). This is called a “hanging indent.”
- The text should be straight along the left margin (“align left”). It should not be straight along the right margin. Each line should end at its own place; the line endings on the right should be uneven (not “justified”).
- Each line should be filled as much as possible. If a Web address is too long for one line, add a space to divide the address before a punctuation mark.
- There should be no extra spacing between sources. Check to make sure that “Line Spacing” is set at “double” and that “After” and “Before” are both set at 0.

**APPENDICES**

You should include an appendix, or appendices, with your paper if you would like to give more detailed information about something, but it is too distracting to put it into your main text. And of course, you should include appendices if the assignment requires them.

- Start each appendix on a separate page after the reference list.
- Each appendix should have the header and appropriate page number.
- If there is only one appendix, center “Appendix” on the first line of text. If there are more appendices, the first one is “Appendix A” and the next “Appendix B” and so on.
- In your text, you should refer to each appendix (if you do not, then there is no need to have an appendix!). Put the appendices in the order in which you refer to them.
- Like the rest of your paper, the appendix is double-spaced, in Times New Roman 12-point font, with one-inch margins on all sides.
IV. Reference List Guide

The reference list gives information about all of the sources you used in your paper. APA style has a very exact method for putting source information on the reference list.

All sources used in your paper must be found on the reference list, and all sources on the reference list must be cited in your paper.

Having a reference list makes your paper look professional and ensures that you have included the correct and complete information about your sources. This allows your readers to fully evaluate the quality and depth of your research and to find your sources easily if they would like more information.

The information about each source on a reference page is called an “entry.” The following pages will help you write the entry for each source. Here are the steps to follow:

1. Where did you find the source and which type of source is it? This guide is divided into 5 parts. Find the appropriate part for your source and use the list to determine which type of source you have. Each number refers to a form in the following pages.

SOURCES IN PRINT
1. Book
2. Brochure
3. Report
4. Chapter/article in a book
5. Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary
6. Newspaper article
7. Magazine article
8. Journal article

SOURCES FOUND ON A CU (OR OTHER) ONLINE DATABASE
9. Book
10. Document (brochure, report, etc.)
11. Chapter/article in a book
12. Newspaper article
13. Magazine article
14. Journal article

PRINT SOURCES DOWNLOADED/DOWNLOADABLE FROM THE WEB (often in PDF or Word)
15. Book
16. Chapter/article in a book
17. Document (report, brochure, etc.)
18. PowerPoint slides

ONLINE SOURCES
19. Web site
20. Periodical article on the periodical’s own web site
21. Article on an online-only news media site
22. Periodical article posted on a non-news web site
23. Web page (any text on a single web page)
24. Web page, chapter/section of a larger text
25. Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary
26. Entry in a wiki
27. Audio/video file on a web site
28. Audio/video podcast (episode in an audio/visual series) on a web site
29. Video post, on YouTube or similar user-created site
30. Blog post on a blog site
31. Message/comment posted to a newsgroup, forum, discussion group, electronic mailing list, or another person’s blog

OTHER SOURCES
32. Song
33. Movie
34. One-time broadcast on television or radio
35. Television or radio series
36. Episode of a television or radio series
37. Computer software or program
38. Personal communication: Personal interview, e-mail, phone call, class lecture
2. Go to the form for your source. Follow the directions, form, and example in the box to create your reference entry. Find the information about your source and write, punctuate, italicize, and capitalize it exactly as shown.

3. Look at the examples under each form for more help. The examples show what to do in different situations that don’t follow the simple form (the list of examples is below).

4. If you need more help, turn to the “Frequently Asked Questions” on pp. 54-56.

5. Put your reference entries in the correct order. See p. 57.

6. Check the formatting of your reference page (see p. 30 and compare your reference page to the example reference page on p. 67).

**LIST OF EXAMPLES**

**SOURCES IN PRINT**

1. Book, in print
   1.1 Non-English book
   1.2 Book, 2 authors
   1.3 Book, 3-7 authors
   1.4 Book, organization author
   1.5 Book, with editor, no author
   1.6 Book, translated into English

2. Brochure, in print

3. Report, in print
   3.1 Report, organization author

4. Chapter/article in a book, in print
   4.1 Chapter/article in a book, 2-7 authors
   4.2 Chapter/article in a book with 2 editors
   4.3 Non-English chapter/article in a book

5. Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary, in print or CD-ROM
   5.1 Entry in a multi-volume encyclopedia/dictionary
   5.2 Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary, with no entry author
   5.3 Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary with no editor or entry author
   5.4 Entry in a CD-ROM encyclopedia/dictionary

6. Newspaper article, in print
   6.1 Newspaper article on more than one page
   6.2 Newspaper article, no author
   6.3 Non-English newspaper article
   6.4 Non-English newspaper article, no author

7. Magazine article, in print
   7.1 Magazine article, special format (letter to the editor)
   7.2 Magazine article, 2 authors
   7.3 Magazine article, no author
   7.4 Non-English magazine article

8. Journal article, in print
   8.1 Journal article, 2-7 authors
   8.2 Journal article, 8 or more authors

**SOURCES FOUND ON A CU (OR OTHER) ONLINE DATABASE**

9. Book from a CU (or other) online database
   9.1 Book from Google Scholar

10. Document from a CU (or other) online database
   10.1 Company profile (Business Source Complete database and Net Advantage database)
   10.2 Company report (Mint Global database)
   10.3 Business ratios (Key Business Ratios database)
   10.4 Country report (Business Source Complete database)
   10.5 Stock report (Net Advantage database)
   10.6 Statistical data (Global Market Information database)

11. Chapter/article in a book from a CU (or other) online database
12. Newspaper article from a CU (or other) online database
13. Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database
   13.1 Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database, book review
   13.2 Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database, no print edition information
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. Journal article from a CU (or other) online database</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.1 Journal article abstract from a CU (or other) online database</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRINT SOURCES DOWNLOADED/DOWNLOADABLE FROM THE WEB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Book, downloaded from the Web</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Chapter/article in a book, downloaded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Document, downloaded from the Web</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.1 Report, downloaded, organization as author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.2 Brochure, downloaded, organization as author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3 Press release, downloaded, organization as author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.4 Lecture notes, downloaded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. PowerPoint slides, downloaded from the Web</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINE SOURCES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Periodical article on the periodical's own web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.1 Periodical article on the periodical's own web site, no print edition information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.2 Journal article abstract on the journal's own web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Article on an online-only news media site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.1 Article on an online-only news media web site, no author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Periodical article posted on a non-news web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Web page (any document on a single web page)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.1 Personal web page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.2 Personal web page, no date</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.3 Web page on an organization web site, organization as author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.4 Web page, no author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.5 Non-English web page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.6 Special document on a web page (press release, fact sheet, brochure)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.7 Interview transcript on a web page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Web page, chapter/section in a larger document</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.1 Web page, chapter/section in a larger document, organization as author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.1 Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.2 Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor or entry author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Entry in a wiki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.1 Entry in a wiki, no author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Audio/video file on a web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.1 Audio/video file on a web site, multiple creators, no date</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.2 Audio/video file on a web site, organization as creator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.3 Audio/video file on a web site, lecture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.4 Non-English audio/video file on a web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Audio/video podcast (episode in an audio/video series) on a web site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.1 Audio/video podcast, no creator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.2 Audio/video podcast, organization as creator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.3 Audio/video podcast, multiple creators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Video post on YouTube or similar user-created site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.1 Video post, screen name author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.2 Video post, no author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Blog post on a web log (blog) site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Message/comment posted to newsgroup, forum, discussion group, electronic mailing list, another person's blog</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.1 Message posted to an electronic mailing list</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.2 Comment posted to another person's blog</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHER SOURCES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Song</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.1 Song, same singer/songwriter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Movie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.1 Movie, no director</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.2 Movie, multiple producers and director</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3 Non-English movie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. One-time broadcast on television or radio</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Television or radio series</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Episode of a television or radio series</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Computer software or program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Personal communication: interview, e-mail, phone call, class lecture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. BOOK, in print

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 1: Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author: a person (last name, first initials) or an organization (corporation, agency, foundation, institute, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date: publication year. Use (n.d.) if there is no date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title: Italicize it. Only capitalize the first words of the title and subtitle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edition number: Include it if there is one (# ed.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City of publisher: Include the city and country. For US cities, include the city and state abbreviation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publisher: Do not include additional information like “Inc.” or “Company.” If the author is the same as the publisher, write “Author” as the publisher’s name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of book: Subtitle too* (# ed.). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


(1.1) Non-English book Follow Form 1, with title in the original language followed by a [translation].


(1.2) Book, 2 authors Follow Form 1, but list both authors. Separate with a comma and “&”.


(1.3) Book, 3-7 authors Follow Form 1, but list all authors. Separate with commas and “&” before last.


(1.4) Book, organization author Use the organization’s full name, capitalized, and follow Form 1.


(1.5) Book, with editor, no author Follow Form 1, with editor as Author followed by (Ed.). Write multiple editors like multiple authors, with (Eds).


(1.6) Book, translated into English Follow Form 1, starting with the book’s author and the translation’s publication date. After the English title, put the (translator's name, Trans). The publication date of the original goes at the end.

2. BROCHURE (booklet, pamphlet), in print

**Form 2: Brochure**

Follow Form 1 and its examples, but add [Brochure] after the title.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of brochure: Subtitle too (# ed.) [Brochure]. City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


3. REPORT, in print

**Form 3: Report**

Follow Form 1 and its examples, but add (identifying name/number) after the title if possible.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of report: Subtitle too (report #). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


(3.1) Report, organization author  Do not abbreviate the organization’s name.


4. CHAPTER/ARTICLE IN A BOOK, in print

Follow this form if you use a chapter/article from a book that is a collection of different authors’ works.

**Form 4: Chapter/article in a book**

Author: chapter/article author (last name, first initial). Date: year of publication.

Chapter title: Only capitalize the first word of the title and subtitle.

Editor: Write the book editor’s first initial and last name. Use Ed. for one editor and Eds. for multiple editors.

Book title: Italicize it. Only capitalize the first words of the title and subtitle.

Edition number: Include it if there is one. Page numbers: Write the pages for the chapter/article.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of chapter. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), Title of book: Subtitle too (# ed., pp. #-#). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


(4.1) Chapter/article in a book, 2-7 authors

Follow Form 4 but list all authors. Separate the names with commas; use “,” &” before the last name.

(4.2) **Chapter/article in a book with 2 editors**  Follow Form 4 with both editors (Eds.). Separate with “&”


(4.3) **Non-English chapter/article in a book**  Follow Form 4 and add [translation] of chapter title.


---

5. **ENTRY IN AN ENCYCLOPEDIA/DICTIONARY, in print or CD-ROM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 5: Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow Form 4 and its examples, but include the volume number (Vol. #) of the encyclopedia if there is more than one book in the set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author, A. A. (Date). Title of entry. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), <em>Title of reference work: Subtitle too</em> (Vol. #, pp. #-#). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5.1) **Entry in a multi-volume encyclopedia/dictionary**  Add “Vol. #”.


(5.2) **Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary, with no entry author**  Start with entry title; then use Form 5.


(5.3) **Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary with no editor or entry author**  Start with the entry title, skip the editor information, and follow Form 5.


(5.4) **Entry in a CD-ROM encyclopedia/dictionary**  Add [CD-ROM] after the reference work’s title. There will be no volume number or page numbers.


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6-8. PERIODICAL ARTICLE, in print

A periodical is a document which is published regularly (periodically). Newspapers are usually daily and for general audiences, magazines usually weekly or monthly for general or professional audiences, and journals are usually published a few times a year for a more academic audience.

Form 6: Newspaper article

- **Author**: Last name, then first initials. The author could also be a news service, but the newspaper is not the author.
- **Date**: Include the entire publication date.
- **Article title**: Only capitalize the first words of the article’s title and subtitle.
- **Newspaper**: Capitalize and italicize the newspaper’s name.
- **Page numbers**: Use “p.” to indicate the page number of the article and “pp” if the article is on more than one page.

Author, A. A. (Year, Month day). Title of article: Subtitle too. *Newspaper Name Capitalized*, p. #.


(6.1) **Newspaper article on more than one page**  Follow Form 6 and write all page numbers, using pp.


(6.2) **Newspaper article, no author**  Start with the title and follow Form 6. Don’t start with the newspaper name!


(6.3) **Non-English newspaper article**  Follow Form 6, but translate the [Article title].


(6.4) **Non-English newspaper article, no author**  Start with title and [translation], and follow Form 6.


Form 7: Magazine article

- **Author**: Last name, then first initials. The magazine is never considered the author.
- **Date**: Include the entire publication date.
- **Article title**: Only capitalize the first words of the article’s title and subtitle.
- **Magazine**: Capitalize and italicize the magazine’s name. Write the volume number in italics. Do not write “Vol.”
- **Page numbers**: Write the page numbers of the article. Do not use “p.” or “pp.”

Author, A. A. (Year, Month day). Title of article: Subtitle too. *Magazine Name Capitalized, volume number italicized*, ##-##.


(7.1) **Magazine article, special format**  Use for Letter to the Editor, Book Review, Special Reports, etc. Follow Form 7 and write the [format] after title.


(7.2) **Magazine article, two authors**  Follow Form 7 but list both authors. Separate with “,” &”.


9. BOOK, from a CU (or other) online database

Form 9: Book from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 1 and its examples, but publisher information is not necessary.
Add a retrieval statement with the name of the database where you found the book.


9.1 Book from Google Scholar Follow Form 9, treating Google Scholar as a database.


10. DOCUMENT (brochure, report), from a CU (or other) online database

The CU online databases mostly contain periodical (newspaper, magazine, and journal) articles; however, there are also brochures, reports, and other non-periodical documents. Here is how to write the reference entries for the most common documents you will use.

Form 10: Document from a CU (or other) online database

Author: a person (last name, first initials) or an organization (corporation, agency, foundation, institute, etc.).
Date: Write the complete publication date – as much as is available.
Title: Italicize the document title, only capitalize the first word, and put [type of document] after it if you know it.
Retrieval statement: Add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.


10.1 Company profile (Business Source Complete database and NetAdvantage database)


10.2 Company report (Mint Global database)


10.3 Business ratios (Key Business Ratios database)

(10.4) Country report (Business Source Complete database)


(10.5) Stock report (Net Advantage database)


(10.6) Statistical data (Global Market Information database)

Give information about the type of statistics in the title, and put the form of the data [graph, chart, table, etc.] after the title.


11. CHAPTER/ARTICLE IN BOOK, from a CU (or other) online database

Form 11: Chapter/article in book, from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 4 and its examples, but publisher information is not necessary. Add a retrieval statement with the name of the database where you found the book chapter/article.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of chapter. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), *Title of book: Subtitle too* (# ed., pp. #-#).

Retrieved from XYZ database.


12-14. PERIODICAL ARTICLE, from a CU (or other) online database

Here is how to cite newspaper, magazine, and journal articles from online databases on your reference list.

Form 12: Newspaper article from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 6 and its examples, and add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.


Form 13: Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 7 and its examples, and add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.

Author, A. A. (Year, Month day). Title of article: Subtitle too. Magazine Name Capitalized, volume number italicized, ##-##. Retrieved from XYZ database.


(13.1) Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database, book review


(13.2) Magazine article from a CU (or other) online database, no print edition information

If you can't find information about the print edition (volume or page numbers), then skip it.


Form 14: Journal article from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 8 and its examples and add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.


(14.1) Journal article abstract from a CU (or other) online database

Follow Form 14 but add [Abstract].

PRINT SOURCES DOWNLOADED FROM THE WEB

These are print sources which you find on the Internet. They can be downloaded, usually as PDF or Word documents. Instead of the publisher information, include the name of the Web site publisher.

15. BOOK, downloaded from the Web

**Form 15: Book, downloaded from the web**

Follow Form 1 and its examples, but publisher information is not necessary.

Add a retrieval statement with the name of the organization whose site you found the book on (if it’s not already named as the author) and the complete web address where you found the book.

If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of book: Subtitle too* (# ed.). Retrieved from Organization Web site:

http://address


16. CHAPTER/ARTICLE IN BOOK, downloaded from the Web

**Form 16: Chapter/article in book, downloaded from the Web**

Follow Form 4 and its examples, but publisher information is not necessary.

Add a retrieval statement with the name of the organization whose site you found the book on (if it’s not already named as the author) and the complete web address where you found the chapter/article.

If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of chapter. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), *Title of book: Subtitle too* (# ed., pp. #–#).

Retrieved from Organization Web site: http://address


17. DOCUMENT, downloaded from the Web

**Form 17: Document downloaded from the Web**

Author: a person (last name, first initials) or an organization (corporation, agency, foundation, institute, etc.)

Date: Write the complete publication date – as much as is available.

Title: Italicize the title and capitalize only the first word. Include any edition number or identifying number and put [type of document] after it if necessary.

Retrieval statement: Add a retrieval statement with the name of the organization whose site you found the document on (if it’s not already named as the author) and the complete address where you found the document.


17.1 Report, downloaded, organization as author
No organization in retrieval statement because it’s already named as the author. No [type of document] is necessary because it’s clear that these are reports.


/Empty_Promises.pdf


/2007_google_annual_report.pdf


17.2 Brochure, downloaded, organization as author
No organization in retrieval statement because it’s already named as the author.


17.3 Press release, downloaded, organization as author
No organization in retrieval statement because it’s already named as the author.


17.4 Lecture notes, downloaded


18. POWERPOINT SLIDES, downloaded from the Web

Form 18: PowerPoint slides, downloaded from the Web
Follow Form 17, but use [PowerPoint slides] after the title.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of slide show [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from Organization Web site: http://address

ONLINE SOURCES (SOURCES ON THE WEB)

19. WEB SITE

A web site is collection of related web pages. Various entities publish web sites, including individuals, businesses (.com), news media (.com), governments (.gov), non-profit organizations (.org), and schools/universities (.edu). It is important to know which type of site you are using, to evaluate the site’s purpose (to inform, influence, or sell), to verify the legitimacy and authority of the entity, and to check the sources and currency of its information.

To cite an entire web site, you do not put it on the reference list. Instead, you discuss the web site and give its home address in your paper. For example,

The WebMD web site provides in-depth and up-to-date information about common illnesses and diseases (http://www.webmd.com).

If you take information and ideas from a specific page on a web site, then you will cite that page on your reference list. See all the examples below.

20-22. PERIODICAL/NEWS ARTICLE, on a Web Site

A web page could be a periodical/news article. These articles are generally found on news media web sites – either the periodical’s own web site (www.newsweek.com) or an online-only news media web site (CNN, BBC). News media web sites provide current information; it could be general up-to-the-minute news or more specialized research in a field. Make sure the news source is legitimate. Some sites allow any user to post an article – these sites should not be used for academic research.

Form 20: Periodical article on the periodical’s own web site

Follow Forms 6-8 and their examples, and add a retrieval statement with the article’s complete address. Because you will often not be able to find the print edition’s volume, issue, or page numbers online, online newspapers, magazine, and journal articles often look the same on the reference list. If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too. *Periodical Name Capitalized, volume number if available (issue number if available), page numbers if available*. Retrieved from http://address


(20.1) Periodical article on the periodical’s own web site, no print edition information


(20.2) Journal article abstract on the journal’s own web site Follow Form 20 but add [Abstract].

**Form 21: Article on an online-only news media web site**

CNN, BBC and other news media sites with articles can be treated like periodicals, but with no volume, issue, or page numbers. Include the article’s author, publication date, article title, and site name (like a periodical). Then add a retrieval statement with the article’s complete address.

If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too. *News Media Site Capitalized*. Retrieved from

http://address


http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/technology/7105212.stm

(21.1) **Article on an online-only news media web site, no author**  Start with the title.


**Form 22: Periodical article posted on a non-news site**

If a periodical article is posted on a non-news site, you need to acknowledge the periodical and the host site. You also need to give the date on which you found the article, in case it is removed later. Follow Forms 6-8 and their examples. Often you will be unable to find the volume number, issue number, or page numbers of the print edition.

Then add a retrieval statement with the date on which you found the article, the organization on whose web site you found the article, and the complete address of the article.

If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too. *Periodical Name Capitalized, volume number if available(issue number if available), page numbers if available*. Retrieved Month day, year, from

Organization Web site: http://address


Common Dreams Web site: http://www.commondreams.org/views03/0706-02.htm

**23. WEB PAGE**

A web page is a single resource with its own address on a web site. It is usually in html format, and unlike downloadable documents or periodical articles, the information may change (depending on how often the page is updated). Thus, you should include the date on which you found the page in your retrieval statement.

**Form 23: Web page**

Author: Person (last name, first initials) or organization: corporation, department, agency, institute, etc. Date: Search hard for the last page update or the copyright date of the web site. If you can’t find a date, use (n.d.). Title: Italicize the title of the web page, and only capitalize the first words of the title and subtitle. Retrieval statement: Include the date on which you found the document, the name of the organization that publishes the web site (if it’s not clear from the author or title), and the web page’s complete address. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of web page*. Retrieved Month day, year, from Organization Web site:

http://address

(23.1) **Personal web page**  Don’t put the organization in the retrieval statement because it’s an author-published page.


(23.2) **Personal web page, no date**  No organization in retrieval statement because it’s author-published.


(23.3) **Web page on an organization web site, organization as author**  Don’t put the organization in the retrieval statement because the organization is already named (as author).


(23.4) **Web page, no author**  If you can’t find an author (no person or organization), start with title. Follow Form 23.


(23.5) **Non-English web page**  Follow Form 23 and add [translation] after the web page title.


(23.6) **Special document on a web page**  Follow Form 23 and add [type of document] after the title. Possible types: press release, brochure, fact sheet, etc.


(23.7) **Interview transcript on a web page**  Authors are (Interviewer) and (Interviewee). Add [interview transcript].

24. WEB PAGE, CHAPTER/SECTION IN A LARGER DOCUMENT

Some web sites contain long documents (such as reports, books, or papers) with each chapter or section located on a different web page. You should cite the chapter/section which you used.

**Form 24: Web page, chapter/section in a larger document**

- **Author:** Person (last name, first initials) or organization: corporation, department, agency, institute, etc.
- **Date:** Search hard for the last page update or the copyright date of the web page/site.
- **Title of section:** Capitalize the first word of the chapter/section title and subtitle.
- **Chapter/section number:** Put this after the title of the complete document.
- **Retrieval statement:** Include the date on which you found the chapter/section, the name of the organization publishing the site (if it’s not clear from the author or titles), and the chapter/section’s complete web address. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of chapter/section. In Title of larger document: Subtitle too (chap./sect. #).

Retrieved Month day, year, from Organization Web site: http://address


(24.1) **Web page, chapter/section in a larger document, organization as author**


25. ENTRY IN AN ONLINE ENCYCLOPEDIA/DICTIONARY

An online encyclopedia/dictionary is usually a Web version of a printed one. Do not use general encyclopedias for university-level academic research, but some specialized encyclopedias may be acceptable. User-created sites like wikis are not encyclopedias and are cited differently (see below).

**Form 25: Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary**

Follow Form 5 and its examples, but exclude city/publisher information. Then add a retrieval statement with the date on which you found the entry and its complete web address. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.


(25.1) **Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor** Follow Form 25 but skip the editor info.

(25.2) Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor or entry author
Start with the entry title, skip the editor information, and follow Form 25.


26. ENTRY IN A WIKI
A wiki is a collaborative web site, which allows its users to create and edit web pages. A well-known example is Wikipedia. Wikis cannot guarantee the accuracy and expertise of their entries. Use them with great caution!

Form 26: Entry in a Wiki

- **Author**: Use the author’s real name, if possible. Otherwise, use the screen name.
- **Date**: Use the exact date of the entry – look for the date it was last edited or updated. If there’s no date, use (n.d.).
- **Title**: Don’t italicize the title of the entry.
- **Retrieval statement**: Include the date you found the entry and its complete address. If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of entry. Retrieved Month Day, Year, from Name Wiki: http://address


(26.1) Entry in a wiki, no author


27. AUDIO/VIDEO FILE, on a web site
These are single audio or video files which can be found on the trusted web sites of corporations, governments, non-governmental organizations, news media, universities, and other entities. Use this form for files that are not part of a series.

Form 27: Audio/video file on a web site

- **Creator**: Name the person (people) who created the audio/video file, followed by his/her role. Generally, this is Producer, Writer, and/or Director, but could also include Interviewer, Moderator, Presenter, Discussant, and/or Interviewee.
- **Date**: Use the date on which the video or audio was created and/or broadcast.
- **Title**: Put the title in italics, capitalize the first word only, and follow it with [video file] or [audio file].
- **Retrieval statement**: Include the name of the organization whose web site you found the file on (if it’s not clear from the author or title) and the file’s complete web address.


(27.1) Audio/video file on a web site, multiple creators, no date  List all the creators.  


http://www.insightnewstv.com/c47/

(27.2) Audio/video file on a web site, organization as creator  No organization in retrieval statement.  


(27.3) Audio/video file on a web site, lecture  Treat the lecturer as the creator.  


(27.4) Non-English audio/video file on a web site  Add a [translation] after the video title.  


AUDIO/VIDEO PODCAST (episode in an audio/video series), on a web site  

A podcast is an episode in a video/audio series and it can be watched online or downloaded It can be found on news media, corporation, government, non-governmental organization, and university sites.

Form 28: Audio/video podcast

Creator: Name the person (people) who created the podcast, followed by his/her role: Writer, Director, Producer, Interviewer, Moderator, Presenter, Discussant, Interviewee....  

Date: Use the date on which the podcast was created or broadcast. Use (n.d.) for no date.  

Episode: Capitalize the first word of the podcast title. Put the [part number] if known after the series title.  

Series: Put the series title in italics.  

Retrieval statement: Start with “Podcast retrieved from” and then put the organization whose web site the podcast is on (if it’s not clear from the author or title) and the podcast’s complete address.


(28.1) Audio/video podcast, no creator  

(28.2) **Audio/video podcast, organization as creator**  No organization in retrieval statement.


(28.3) **Audio/video podcast, multiple creators**


**29. VIDEO POST, on YouTube or similar user-created site**

Video posts on sites such as YouTube are cited differently because anyone can post a video on these sites. Evaluate them carefully.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 29: Video post</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author: the creator, producer, and/or director of the video, not the person who posted the video online.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title: Don’t italicize the title of the video. Follow the title with [video file].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieval statement: Start with “Video posted to” and include the video’s complete address.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Author, A. A.  (Date of posting). Title of video [video file]. Video posted to http://address


(29.1) **Video post, screen name author**  If you cannot find the author’s real name, use his/her screen name.

SoldierKnowsBest. (n.d.). Windows 7 vs. Snow Leopard [video file]. Video posted to http://www.youtube.com/user/SoldierKnowsBest#play/uploads/30/MOqBCyLtNJ8

(29.2) **Video post, no author**  If you cannot determine an author (producer, director), start with the title.

30. BLOG POST, on a web log (blog) site

A blog (web log) is the web site/page of an individual who regularly posts stories or commentaries. Some blogs are personal diaries, while others are specialized on certain topics. You must be very certain of the reliability of a blog post’s author and information if you cite it in academic research.

**Form 30: Blog post**

Include the blog author’s real name, if possible. Use the exact date of the post. Don’t italicize the title of the post. Identify it with [web log message]. Write the post’s complete address, and if the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date of posting). Title of posting [web log message]. Message posted to http://address


31. MESSAGE/COMMENT, posted to a Newsgroup, Forum, Discussion Group, Electronic Mailing List, or Another Person’s Blog

Many web pages allow readers to post comments. If you use such a comment/message in academic research, you must be very certain of the reliability of the message’s author and information.

**Form 31: Message/comment**

Author: Include the message/comment author’s real name, if possible. Otherwise, use the screen name.

Date: Use the exact date of the post.

Title: This could be the message title or the title of the subject/thread. Don’t italicize the title. Provide the number or other identifier of the message/comment in [brackets].

Retrieval statement: Include the name of the Group/Forum/List/Blog as well as the complete address of the post. If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

Author, A. A. (Date of posting). Subject line or Thread title [identifying #]. Message/Comment posted to

Title of Group/Forum/List/Blog archived at http://address


(31.1) Message posted to an electronic mailing list

If you receive an email as a member of the list, but the message is not saved on the Internet, then it is “personal communication” [p. 60]. If the mailing list messages are on the Internet, then follow Form 31.


(31.2) Comment posted to another person’s blog

Author is comment author. Title is of original blog post.

OTHER SOURCES

32. SONG

Form 32: Song
   Songwriter is the author of the song. Artist is the singer or band.
   If the author and artist are different, use [Recorded by] and name the artist.
   Use [CD] to indicate that it’s a musical recording.

   Songwriter, A. A. (Year). Title of song [Recorded by Full Name of Artist]. On Title of album [CD].
   Location: Label.


(32.1) Song, same singer/songwriter  Artist wrote and sang own song. Eliminate [Recorded by].


33. MOVIE

Form 33: Movie
   Put the creators of the movie (producer, director) in the author position. Put their roles in parentheses.
   Italicize the movie title. Capitalize the first word and put [Motion Picture] after the title.
   Use the country where the movie was mostly made.

   Producer, P. P. (Producer), & Director, D. D. (Director). (Year). Title of movie [Motion picture].
   Country: Studio or distributor.


(33.1) Movie, no director  Just name the producer.

   Entertainment.

(33.2) Movie, multiple producers and director  List all, separating with commas and “&.”

   picture]. United States: Le Studio Canal.

(33.3) Non-English movie  Write the non-English title and then translate it in [brackets].

   Barabáš, P. (Director). (1997). 80 metrov pod vrcholom [80 metres under the summit] [Motion picture].
   Slovakia: K2 Studio.
### 34-36. TELEVISION/RADIO BROADCAST, SERIES OR EPISODE

**Form 34: One-time broadcast on television or radio**

Put the producer of the broadcast in the author position followed by (Producer). Use the date on which the broadcast aired. Italicize the title and capitalize the first word. Add [Television broadcast] or [Radio broadcast]. Name the studio or distributor and the city where the studio or distributor is located.

Producer, P. P. (Producer). (Date of broadcast). *Title of broadcast* [Television/Radio broadcast]. City: Studio or distributor.


**Form 35: Television or radio series**

Put the producer of the series in the author position followed by (Producer). Use the copyright year of the series. Italicize the title and capitalize the first word. Add [Television series] or [Radio series]. Name the studio or distributor and the city where the studio or distributor is located.


**Form 36: Episode of a television or radio series**

Include the author (Writer) and director of the episode if possible. The year is the copyright year of the episode. Capitalize the first word of the episode’s name, followed by [Television series episode] or [Radio series episode]. Name the producer(s) of the entire series (first initial then last name). Italicize the series title, and only capitalize the first word of the title. Include the episode’s part number in brackets if available. Name the studio or distributor and the city where the studio or distributor is located.


### 37. COMPUTER SOFTWARE OR PROGRAM

**Form 37: Computer software or program**

Creator is the person(people) or organization responsible for the program or software. Follow the title with [Computer software] or [Computer program].

Creator, C. (Year). *Title of work* [Computer software/program]. City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


### 38. Personal Communication: Interview, E-mail, Phone Call, Class Lecture

These sources do not go on the reference page. Use the in-text citation guidelines on p. 60.
FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS ABOUT SOURCE ENTRIES

AUTHOR QUESTIONS

What if there is no author?
First, decide if an organization (corporation, company, department, agency, institute, ministry, etc.) is the author. Do not use a newspaper, magazine, or journal as the author.
If there really is no author, then put the title first. See examples 5.2, 5.3, 6.2, 6.4, 7.3, 21.1, 23.4, 25.2, 26.1, 28.1, 29.2, 33.3.


What if there is an organization as the author?
That’s great. Write the complete name of the organization – do not shorten or abbreviate it. See examples 1.4, 2, 3.1, 10.1-6, 17.1-3, 23.3, 23.5, 23.6, 24.1, 25, 27.2, 28.2, 29, 37.


What if the author has a title (Ph.D., Mgr.) or “Jr.” or “III”?
Don’t include titles. Put the other things after the first name, like this:


What if the author has a screen name?
Search hard for the author’s real name, but if you can’t find it anywhere, use the screen name. See examples 26, 29.1.


What if there are 2 authors?
Write them in the order they appear in the source, with a comma and & between them. See examples 1.1, 1.2, 7.2, 7.4, 9.1, 14.1, 23.7, 24, 27.1, 33, 35.


What if there are 3-7 authors?
Write them in the order they appear in the source, with a comma between each author and “,” &” before the last one. See examples 1.3, 4.1, 8.1, 11, 20, 28.3, 33.2.


What if there are 8 or more authors?
Write down the first six authors in the order they appear, with a comma between each author, then an ellipsis (...), and then the last name of the final author. See example 8.2.


DATE QUESTION

What if there is no date?
Search hard. Go to the homepage. Look for the copyright symbol. Look for the date last updated. If you still can’t find it, use (n.d.) for “no date.” See examples 23.2, 27.1, 29.1.

TITLE QUESTIONS

What if the source is not in English?
Write the title as it is in the other language and then translate it in [brackets]. Only translate the title of the source, not other things (like periodical names). See examples 1.1, 4.3, 6.3, 7.4, 23.5, 27.4, 33.3.


Which words of the title do I Capitalize?
Capitalize the first word of the title, the first word of the subtitle, and proper nouns (words that are always capitalized). The only things that have all major words capitalized are periodical, people, organization, and database names.


Which titles do I italicize?
This is tough to answer because it changes. Usually, something in every entry will be italicized, except for things posted online – (26)wiki entries, (29)video posts, (30)blog posts, and (31)messages/comments. These have no italics. In other entries, if there is only one title, then it is italicized (like a web page). If there are two titles, the larger work is italicized. So, if there is an article and a periodical, the periodical name is italicized because it is the larger work.


PUBLISHER QUESTIONS

How do I find the city of the publisher of a book?
On the title page or the page after it. If there are many cities, use the first one listed.

When do I need to use the state, province, or country with the city name?
Always. For U.S. cities, just include the state abbreviation. For other cities, include the country name.


What if the author and publisher are the same?
Don’t repeat the author’s name. Write “Author” as publisher. See examples 3.1, 7.1.


Do I have to write the whole name of the publisher?
Write important words, but not Co. and Inc. and Publishers. Keep Books and Press.

PAGE NUMBER QUESTIONS

When do I need to write down page numbers on the reference list?
For an article in a periodical, chapter in a book, and entry in an encyclopedia or dictionary. Always write the page numbers if you found the source in print or on an online database. If you found it on the Web, you may not be able to find the page numbers from the print edition. See examples 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 20, 20.2.

When do I use “ p.” and “pp.” on the reference list?
Only use p. and pp. for newspaper articles, chapters in books, and entries in encyclopedias/dictionaries. See examples 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 16.
RETRIEVAL STATEMENT QUESTIONS

What is a retrieval statement?
This is a sentence that begins “Retrieved from” and tells your readers where you found something on the Internet. It should lead the reader directly to your source. It could include the date you found the source, the name of the organization that publishes the web site, the name of the online database where you found the source, and/or the address of the source.

When do I include the date I found the source?
Include the retrieval date (Month day, year,) for sources that might change – basically, anything that exists on a web page (not on an online database, not in a periodical, and not in a downloadable document or video). Because a web site is updated and changed frequently, you need to tell readers when you were on the site in case it changes before they look at it. See all the examples for forms 22-26.


When do I include the name of the organization that publishes the web site?
You include this to give your source credibility. So, if the name of the organization is not clear from the author or title information, you should include this in your retrieval statement. See examples 17, 17.4, 18, 22, 23, 23.4, 23.7, 24, 27, 27.1, 27.3, 27.4, 28, 28.1, 28.3.


When do I include the address?
For all things found on the Internet, except those from online databases. If you use an online database, then you just put the name of the database in the retrieval statement. This is because the reader can go to the database and do a simple search for your article.


The address is so long. Can’t I just write the first part of it?
No. The address should take the reader directly to the page that you used.

What if my computer automatically underlines and colors my address?
Stop it! You can put the cursor on the address, right click on the mouse, and choose “Remove hyperlink.” Or you can highlight the address and change the font to black and remove the underlining.

What if the address is really long and doesn’t fit on a line?
Don’t move the whole address to the next line. Fill the first line as much as you can and then divide the address by hitting the space key before a punctuation mark. Do not add hyphens (-) to addresses or change them in any way. See most of the examples in this guide.

ORDERING SOURCE ENTRIES ON THE REFERENCE LIST

After you have written all your source entries correctly, you can put them in order on your reference list. The entries are listed in alphabetical order, as follows:

- **List entries in alphabetical order according to their first word (author’s last name, organization name, or title), BUT do not count “a/an/the” when determining alphabetical order. Use the first significant word.**


- **If an author wrote on source alone and another source with someone, put the single one first.**


- **If the same author wrote two different sources, put the oldest first.**


- **If the same author has two or more entries with the same date, use alphabetical order by title. Then put “a” after the year in the first entry, “b” after the year in the second entry, “c” after the year in the third entry, etc.**


V. In-Text Citation Guide

An in-text citation must appear in your text when you use material from a source. The in-text citation tells the reader what came from a source, which source it came from, and how to find that source on the reference list.

PUTTING IN-TEXT CITATIONS IN THE TEXT

- An in-text citation is usually written (Author's Last Name, Year), following the information in the reference list entry. The citation goes after the source information. Do not put information from the source after the citation.
  
  This is information from the source (Neff, 1993). This is not from the source.

- If you use the author's name in your text, the in-text citation only includes the year and comes after the author's name. In this case, the in-text citation introduces the source material, which immediately follows.
  
  Washington Post journalist Neff (1993) gave this information.

- If you use the same source again in the same paragraph, you do not need to repeat the citation. You can just repeat the author’s name in your text.

- If you use a direct quotation from a source, the in-text citation should also tell the reader exactly where the quotation can be found in a source.
  
  o For sources with page numbers, put the page number of the quotation in the in-text citation after the quotation, like this:
    
    Author (Year) said, “This quotation” (p. #).
    This is a “quotation from the source” (Author, Year, p. #).
    Dr. Researcher said, “This quotation” (as cited in Author, Year, p. #).
  
  o For sources without page numbers (web pages), do not create your own page numbers and do not use page numbers created by your computer or printer. If the source has numbered paragraphs, you can use those, like this:
    
    Author (Year) said, “This quotation” (para. #).
    This is a “quotation from the source” (Author, Year, para. #).
    Dr. Researcher said, “This quotation” (as cited in Author, Year, para. #).

  o If the web page has sections/chapters/headings, use the section name and the number of the paragraph where the quote is (count the paragraphs), like this:
    
    Author (Year) said, “This quotation” (Name section, para. #).
    This is a “quotation from the source” (Author, Year, Name section, para. #).
    Dr. Researcher said, “This quotation” (as cited in Author, Year, Name section, para. #).
  
  Here is an example:
  
  Dr. Julie Sanders, a professor at Top University, found that “the most productive consultants are those who are not afraid to change their minds” (as cited in Polk, 2009, Not Afraid of Change section, para.5).

FORMING IN-TEXT CITATIONS

To write in-text citations correctly, you first need a correct reference list.

The in-text citation is designed to direct the reader to more information about the source, which can be found on the reference list. So the in-text citation will correspond to the first part of each source entry on the reference list. Since the reference list is in alphabetical order, the reader will know exactly where to look on the list to find the source from the in-text citation.
This chart shows how to write the in-text citations for sources with authors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ONE AUTHOR</th>
<th>(Author, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (Neff, 1993). Neff (1993) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANIZATION AUTHOR (organization is not abbreviated)</th>
<th>(Organization, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (Federation of American Scientists, 2007). Federation of American Scientists (2007) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANIZATION AUTHOR (organization is often abbreviated)</th>
<th>first time (Organization [ORG], Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation, first time</td>
<td>This is from the source (Federal Emergency Management Agency [FEMA], n.d.). Federal Emergency Management Agency [FEMA] (n.d.) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Next citations</td>
<td>FEMA (n.d.) said this, or this (FEMA, n.d.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TWO AUTHORS</th>
<th>(Author &amp; Author, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (Wang &amp; Garshelis, 2008). Wang and Garshelis (2008) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3-5 AUTHORS</th>
<th>first time (Author, Author, Author, Author, &amp; Author, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation, first time</td>
<td>This is from the source (Thomas, Taylor, &amp; No, 2009). Thomas, Taylor, and No (2009) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Next citations</td>
<td>Thomas et al. (2009) said this, or this (Thomas et al., 2009).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6 OR MORE AUTHORS</th>
<th>(Author et al., Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (Barrett et al., 2006). Barrett et al. (2006) gave this information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there is no author, the in-text citation starts with the title – because that is what starts the source entry. To keep the citation short, use only the first few words of the title.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO AUTHOR, TITLE IN ITALICS</th>
<th>(First words of title, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (President Bush’s speech, 2004).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO AUTHOR, TITLE IN REGULAR TEXT</th>
<th>(“First words of title,” Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t just talk; register. (2003, August 31). <em>The Los Angeles Times</em>, p. M4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-text citation</td>
<td>This is information from the source (“Don’t just talk,” 2003).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If you have two (or more) sources with different authors who have the same last name, include the first initial in the in-text citation.

### DIFFERENT AUTHORS, SAME LAST NAME  
(A. Author, Year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**In-text citation**

This is information from the first source (B. Johnson, 2007).
Ben Johnson (2007) gave this information.
This is information from the second source (P. Johnson, 2009).
Patrick Johnson (2009) gave this information.

If you have one author who wrote two (or more) sources in the same year, use the a, b, c... designations after the year, as on the reference list entries.

### SAME AUTHOR/YEAR, DIFFERENT SOURCES  
(Author, Yeara)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**In-text citation**

This is information from the first source (Kinder, 2003a).
Kinder (2003a) gave this information.
This is information from the second source (Kinder, 2003b).
Kinder (2003b) gave this information.

If you find the same information in two or more sources, you can put multiple sources in the in-text citation.

### SAME INFORMATION IN 2 (OR MORE) SOURCES  
(Citation 1; Citation 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**In-text citation**

This is information is from both sources (Neff, 1993; Wang & Garshelis, 2008).

If your source cites another published source, you should give credit to both sources. Your reference list and in-text citation will contain the source that you really used. In your text, name the original source of the information. Then the in-text citation will start with “as cited in” and continue with the normal citation.

### YOUR SOURCE CITES ANOTHER SOURCE  
(as cited in Your Source’s Citation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**In-text citation**

Dr. John Pop reported this (as cited in Federation of American Scientists, 2007).

### PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Personal communication – email, letter, interview, or phone call – does not appear on the reference list because there is no way for your audience to find the information. Instead, you will just use an in-text citation about your communication. The basic form is (P. Person, personal communication, Month day, year). Here are two examples:

- It takes students 7 months to master APA style (S. Dunlop, personal communication, June 12, 2009).

- English professor Sam Dunlop (personal communication, June 12, 2009) found that it takes students 7 months to master APA style.
VI. Using Tables and Figures

A table is a presentation of data in columns and rows. A figure is any type of illustration: a chart, graph, map, diagram, drawing, photograph, etc.

APA style has very detailed and complex rules for using tables and figures in papers designed for publication. If you are planning on publishing your paper, you will need to consult the sixth edition of the *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*. If you are using tables and figures just for your City University of Seattle coursework, here are simpler guidelines:

**When to use tables/figures**

If you want to include a table/figure in your presentation slides or papers, make sure it is necessary. A table/figure that is essential to the audience’s understanding of your paper or presentation should be included in your text or slides. If a table/figure is useful, but not necessary, put it in your paper’s appendices.

**Checklist for tables/figures**

Make sure you can answer “yes” to the following questions about your table/figure:

- Is it easy to understand?
- Is it easy to read?
- Does it only include relevant information?
- Does it add more to your text (and not just repeat it)?
- Is it accurate?
- Is it proportional?
- Are any abbreviations and symbols explained?
- Does your text refer to the figure or table?
- Is it labeled and numbered (Figure 1; Table 1)?
- Is it titled and/or captioned?
- Is it formatted like all other figures/tables in your paper or presentation?

**Referring to the Table/Figure**

In your paper or in your presentation, you must refer to the table/figure. If you don’t, then the table/figure is really not necessary...

In a paper, you don’t need to direct the readers through each step of reading the table/figure – the readers have time to do it themselves. But you do need to explain the table/figure’s significance in the paragraph it supports:

- Table 1 shows...
- As shown in Figure 2, ...
- The cost of living has dropped dramatically in the last 5 years (see Figure 7).

In a presentation, since the slide will change, you should talk through the table/figure for the audience to ensure that they have enough time to comprehend it.

**Labels, Titles, and Captions**

Figures and tables should be labeled with numbers in the order in which they appear in your text (Table 1, Table 2, Table 3; Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3).

The text describing tables and figures should be just like the text of your paper – Times New Roman 12, double-spaced.
In APA style, tables should start with a label (“Table 1”) and then the title should appear on the next line. The title should describe the measures and variables shown in the table. The audience should understand the content of the table without having to look at your text or listen to your presentation.

Table 1

*Title of the table.*

![This is your table.](image)

*Note:* Include any notes for understanding the table here and also the in-text citation.

Figures, on the other hand, should have a caption below the figure. It starts with the figure’s label and includes a short but complete explanation of the figure.

![This is your figure.](image)

*Figure 1:* This is what this figure is showing. The audience should understand it now. The source is also cited in this caption.

**Citing a Table/Figure**

- If you created a table/figure yourself from your own original research, then there is no in-text citation.
- If you found a table/figure in a source, then the source goes on your reference page and you will need an in-text citation with the table/figure.
  
  The in-text citation should go at the end of the table notes or the figure caption. Write it just as any other in-text citation.

  However, pay close attention to the source of the data. Sometimes the data and the table/figure came from different sources. For example, you found a bar graph in a source by Euromonitor (2008), but Euromonitor made the graph based on data from the International Monetary Fund. In that case, you should give credit both to Euromonitor and the IMF. In the caption you could write:

  *Source:* Euromonitor (2008), based on data from the International Monetary Fund.

  Exactly how to do it is up to you; just be clear and consistent throughout your paper or presentation.

- If you created a table/figure yourself based on data from a source, then the source goes on your reference page and you will need an in-text citation with the table/figure. However, the citation should make it clear that only the data, not the design, came from a source. You can do this by writing:

  *Figure based on data found in Author (Year).*

  Exactly how to do it is up to you; just be clear and consistent.
VII. Example Paper in APA Style

Wonderdog: The Use of Golden Retrievers as Helping Dogs

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ENG 211 English Composition

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Informative Essay

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“The popular saying ‘a dog is man’s best friend’ is no longer enough,” according to veterinarian Dot Spot (2006b). “In fact,” she continued, “dogs are helpers and healers as well” (p.12). Golden Retrievers especially fit Spot’s new definition of dogs’ relations with humans. As a breed in general, Retrievers are one of the most intelligent. Their versatility makes them ideally suited for a variety of tasks, including work with senses, prisoner reform, and physiotherapy programs. So although Golden Retrievers make great pets, they are also valuable as support animals.

The intelligence of Golden Retrievers has long been recognized. They were originally bred in the 19th century as hunting dogs, their soft mouths ideal for carrying downed fowl back to the hunter (Benji, 1992). In more recent times, Retrievers have shown that they are capable of more than just finding dead birds. As Maximillian (2003), an animal psychologist, noted, “In several current studies, Golden Retrievers have consistently placed in the top five breeds when tested for intelligence and trainability” (p. 1238). His findings were based on a ten-year survey of breeders and trainers. Such survey results are not rare. In fact, in a landmark study released by Albert Huff (2008), Retrievers placed first in a survey of fourteen different intelligence and training categories. While Golden Retrievers, German Shepherds and Labrador Retrievers all placed consistently at the top of the tests, Retrievers’ dispositions made them marginally more trainable than these other breeds. So Golden Retrievers are not only highly intelligent but they are willing to be trained as well. In a study by The Scientific Canine Report, Retrievers were the only breed with a 100% passing rate at obedience schools (“The semi-annual study,” 2008). Thus, Retrievers’ intelligence makes them able and willing to perform tasks requested of them. This superior intelligence and trainability have made Retrievers successful helping dogs.

As helping dogs, Retrievers participate in a variety of tasks; they have been used with great success as both seeing-eye dogs for the blind and drug-sniffing dogs for police and border security. Dr. Spot (2006a) found that “their ability to effectively assimilate large
numbers of training cues and to effectively recall that information makes them ideal candidates for seeing-eye purposes” (p. 14). Retrievers must not only remember all the commands necessary to accompany a blind person during the entire day, but also all the locations visited. Retrievers may help their owners navigate busy intersections, shop in crowded stores, and hop on and off buses. According to Spot, it takes an average of only three trips for Retrievers to become fully accustomed to a situation and location. In addition, Professor Tin (2008) of Top Medical University pointed out that Retrievers’ disposition makes them less likely to resort to aggressive behavior in these stressful situations. This is a highly desirable canine trait since seeing-eye dogs can find themselves in difficult positions.

The second sense that has made Retrievers invaluable is their sense of smell. Retrievers’ have a keen sense of smell: Benji’s (1992) classic guide to Retrievers catalogued over 150 smells that these dogs can distinguish. These sniffing powers, along with Retrievers’ disposition and high degree of trainability have made them excellent members of Toronto’s Pearson International Airport’s drug squad since 1978. This practice has since caught on at over 30 airports and 1400 secondary schools in Canada alone (Save the Pets, n.d.). Other countries, like the U.S., Japan, and Peru, have also followed the Canadian model. This success, as well as Retrievers’ use as helpers for the blind, demonstrates how well-suited Retrievers are for varied tasks.

In addition to being used as guides for the blind and drug-sniffing dogs, Golden Retrievers have recently become valuable in criminal rehabilitation. Usually, puppies which will be trained for seeing-eye purposes are first raised by a family for a year before they enter the exhaustive training program (Fido & Rover, 2008). Breaking with this tradition, Dr. Dan Canine began a program at San Quentin Penitentiary in 1992 in which he had inmates, not families, care for Retrievers from the age of eight weeks to one year. His short-term study of inmates who were released after participating in the program showed a significant drop in reoffending when compared to those who were convicted of similar crimes over the same
period. Canine speculated that “the emotional commitment necessary to raise a puppy, love it, then give it away seems to help inmates cope more ably with post-prison life” (as cited in Shaggy, 2005, Effect on Prisoner section, para. 12). So prisoners as well as Retrievers gain skills and maturity from this experience. Once again, Retrievers have earned their designation as helping dogs.

Finally, Golden Retrievers have been successful helpers in therapy programs for the elderly or disabled. Due to Canine’s prison study, other rehabilitation programs, including various companionship programs for the elderly and physiotherapy programs for long-term disability patients, have been set up, reported Bauwau (2009) in *The New York Times*. When the elderly or those incapacitated by accidents work with a pet, they seem to benefit greatly from the relationship. According to Dr. Sandy, a psychologist who runs such programs, “The patients [involved with raising pets] report feelings of greater optimism about their disability, and their hospital stays are shorter than estimated” (as cited in Zelda, 2007, para. 2). While any pet can bring hope to a patient, these programs mainly use Retrievers, as smaller dogs or mixed breeds had more discipline problems (Bauwau, 2009). Retrievers’ superior intelligence and trainability make them perfect for these programs. So, while the Retrievers are being raised to be drug-sniffing or seeing-eye dogs, they are also helping the incarcerated, elderly, or physically disabled people who raise them, giving the caregivers a sense of responsibility. Through these programs, Golden Retrievers have once again shown their usefulness.

Golden Retrievers are much more than a man’s (or woman’s) best friend; they are also valuable working dogs. In study after study, they consistently rank as one of the most intelligent and trainable of dogs. Their versatility makes them ideal for use as seeing-eye dogs and for drug-sniffing purposes. Their importance in prison rehabilitation and therapy programs is only beginning to be realized. Golden Retrievers are truly a golden breed and at this rate maybe one will be elected president some day!
References


### VIII. APA Style Checklist

**Header**
- Created using “Header” tool (not typed separately at the top of every page)
- First few words of title, capitalized like the title, then 5 spaces, then the page number

**All pages of paper**
- Header in the top right corner, with correct page number
- 1-inch (2.54 cm) margins on all sides
- All text is Times New Roman 12 (or another instructor-approved font)
- All text is double-spaced, with no extra spaces between paragraphs

**Title page**
- Title of paper centered (double-spaced if two lines)
- Title identifies topic, shows purpose, and catches audience’s interest
- Title is no longer than 12 words, with no abbreviations or unnecessary words
- Title consists of phrases, not a sentence or question
- First word of title, first word of subtitle, and all important words are capitalized
- Student name, email address, course number and name, instructor name, assignment, and date, aligned right at bottom of page

**Abstract (if necessary)**
- “Abstract” centered at top of page
- Text is double-spaced, no indent

**Text**
- Aligned left; right margin not justified
- First line of every paragraph indented ½ inch (1.27cm)
- Figures and tables are numbered and formatted consistently

**Use of research**
- Own ideas, not just sources’
- Well-chosen source material used to support ideas
- Source material is integrated into student’s work
- Author/speaker is named and introduced
- Source material is explained
- It’s clear what is from a source and what is from the student
- Appropriate choice of quotation, paraphrase, summary
- Few quotations (effective, special, necessary)
- No very long quotations
- Unique words from a source are in quotation marks
- Quotations copied correctly
- Correct punctuation and capitalization with quotations
- Completely changed paraphrases/summaries, without changing author’s ideas
- Figures and tables are relevant and necessary
- Figures and tables are referred to in the text

**In-text Citations**
- All sources from in-text citations are on the reference list
- Citation is (Author, year) or (Title or “Title,” year) depending on the reference list entry
- If author’s name used in the text, it is followed by the year
- Citation appears directly before or after information from source
- Citations of quotations include page or paragraph number
- Paragraphs do NOT end with in-text citations (source material is sandwiched)
- Figures and tables are cited
Reference List
____ Aligned left; right margin not justified
____ Hanging indent - entry starts on left margin; following lines indented ½ inch (1.27cm)
____ All sources on the reference list are cited in paper
____ Entries are in alphabetical order (not counting “the” and “a/an”)
____ Each entry begins with the author’s name (individual or organization)
____ Entry begins with the title if there is really no author
____ Each entry has a date, or (n.d.), in the second position
____ Periodical is named if article came from periodical
____ Capitalized proper nouns, first words of title and subtitle, and periodical names only
____ All sources found using the Internet have a retrieval statement
____ Sources found on online databases give the database name, not a web address
____ Online sources that may change (web pages, etc.) include a retrieval date
____ No underlining or colors
____ Addresses fill lines as far as possible and then are divided before a punctuation mark
____ All web addresses work (check them!)
____ Source information is complete and correct (no missing ingredients, misspellings, etc.)

Appendices
____ Each appendix is on a separate page
____ “Appendix A” (or B, C…) is centered at the top of the page
____ Each appendix is referred to in the text


