RESEARCH & APA STYLE GUIDE

2010

(2nd edition)

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 your coursework. 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 includes information about the free resources available online to City University of Seattle students.

The goal of your assignments, however, is not just to find and then present your research. If your instructor and classmates wanted to see your research, they could just read your sources themselves. Your job is also to show 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 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.

Note to those with the first edition: If you have the first edition of this guide, you can still use it, but I recommend replacing the following pages with the second edition: Chapter IV Reference List Guide (pp. 31-57) and page 67. While most of the changes in the second edition are just minor corrections and rewrites, the reference list guide has changed, hopefully for the better. Since the publication of the new APA style manual in summer 2009, APA style experts, commentators, and critics have corrected, simplified, or clarified several complex or confusing issues related to the reference list (Did you know there are weekly blogs devoted entirely to APA style?!) So the guide now has more explanations at the beginning, fewer forms, and simpler rules for online sources. (And I promise that there will be no new edition until the next APA style guide comes out in 8 years....

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September, 2010
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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 websites**

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:

  o **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.

  o **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 three e-book databases on the City University of Seattle portal.

  o **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’ websites.

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

  o **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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<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)

2. Create your account. If you have an account, go to #5 below.
   - Click on the link "Create Your Account"
   - Type in your date of birth in MMDDYYYY format [03281980=March 28, 1980]
   - Enter your City University of Seattle 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. Click on “Student” to get to the login page. Then enter 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 websites 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 websites]
  - 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]
  - Avoid plagiarism
  - Use the APA citation style
• **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. Actually, 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>Articles, abstracts, and photos from scholarly journals, news magazines and newspapers on topics in the social sciences, humanities, the arts and technology. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alt-PressWatch</td>
<td>Full text database comprised of the newspapers, magazines and journals of the alternative and independent press. (ProQuest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>netLibrary</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>Research Library</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>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychology Topics</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medline</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>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsycARTICLES</td>
<td>Full text articles from journals published by the American Psychological Association and the Canadian Psychological Association. (EBSCO)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsycBOOKS</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>
<td></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>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Management Topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Database</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABI/Inform Trade and Industry</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>Accounting and Tax with Standards</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 IFRIC. (ProQuest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Source Complete</td>
<td>Abstracts and full text articles from scholarly and popular business, law, and computer systems periodicals. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication &amp; Mass Media Complete</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>Mint Global</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>Morning Star Investment Research Center</td>
<td>Comprehensive financial data on stocks and funds, including research and independent opinions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Advantage</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>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Information Technology Topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Database</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Books 24x7</td>
<td>Entire electronic books (e-books) for background and in-depth research, or just search for relevant chapters. Three frequently updated collections include over 12,000 e-books on Information Technology, Finance, and Business.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Source</td>
<td>Full text articles on topics such as computer science, programming, artificial intelligence, information systems, software, etc. (EBSCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE Computer Society</td>
<td>Full text articles from IEEE journals covering Internet computing, intelligent systems, security, privacy, and other topics in Information Technology.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### How to Search on an Online Database

To learn more about searching, use the "How Do I...?" tutorials named above. 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 need only one, 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>EBSCO (Ac. Search Premier)</th>
<th>ProQuest (Res. 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>EBSCO</th>
<th>ProQuest</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*)</td>
<td>Use? to replace one letter in the middle (wom?n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For close words in a text</td>
<td></td>
<td>Use W/# between two words. (W/3 finds texts in which words are written within 3 words.)</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>EBSCO</th>
<th>ProQuest</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>EBSCO</th>
<th>ProQuest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use “Narrow results by” in the left column.</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>
<tr>
<td>Narrow your search by subject, publication type, geography, and more.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each time you narrow your search, the left menu will give you more options to narrow further.</td>
<td></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’ Websites

Go straight to the websites 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 website addresses, then you can do a Google search for the organization).

Try Periodical Websites

If you know that a periodical has written about your topic, go to its website 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 website, use it to connect you to other good sources. Check out the links on the website. 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 source for reliability, but the chances are high that it 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 sources, the chances are high that it 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.
  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 a Web 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 using 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 website.
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 looking for a web page again 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 ONLINE SOURCES**
You must evaluate every online source very carefully to determine whether it is appropriate to use as a source in your work. Anyone can put anything on the Web, 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.

**Finding the Date**
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 a web page, go back one step (or more) in the address to look at the previous page or home page of the website.

- 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.

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**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 websites 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.

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**Sponsorship (Organization Author, or Publisher of a Website)**

- 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.

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**Learning about the Organization**

Investigate the home page of the website of the organization, corporation, agency, periodical, or other entity whose website 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 publisher’s status: .org=non-governmental organization; .gov=government; .edu=educational institution; .com=commercial website. 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.

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**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.

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**Learning about a Source’s Objectivity**

Learn about the site publisher 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).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Checking accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>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).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.
Websites 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 other people’s opinions (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
- Sandwitching 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, it is like stealing his/her property (or borrowing it without asking). Presenting someone’s words and/or ideas as your own like this 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 to know 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 changing an author’s ideas to fit 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?

**Source:**


**1. 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.

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**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 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.”

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.
Most people prefer ads with green backgrounds (Malley, 2005). That’s interesting.

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) reports that…

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. 31) 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.
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.

B, C, E, and F need in-text citations. An in-text citation includes the author and date (B and C may just be missing the date, if Scooby and Spot are the authors). B, C, E, F 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 or did the research (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 • agree • argue • assert • assume • believe • claim
  • conclude • demonstrate • deny • determine • discover • doubt • emphasize
  • explain • find • indicate • maintain • note • observe • point out
  • prove • report • say • show • state • suggest • 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 these problems: your argument loses its impact as it is hard to follow 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, p. 4).
  
  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).

- **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 that “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.

  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 your 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 on the next page, the words that did not change are underlined.
EXAMPLE PARAPHRASES


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**

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 the main ideas of the paragraph 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.

   o **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.

   o **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.

   o 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. Add a brief description of the person or organization to give the source credibility.

- **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. 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).

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**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.

*reprinted with permission*
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 just trusted Wikipedia and 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 a whole paragraph 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 for City University of Seattle coursework.

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 “APA Format_Example Paper” Word document (http://www.vsm.sk/en/students/academic-support/) and use it for your paper.

Basic Format for All Papers:
- Use A4-size paper. Check that your word processing program and printer 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

The title appears on the first page (title page) to hook the reader. In the 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
- An Overview of Savory Coffee’s Health Benefits

**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, 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/Cover Page**

Every paper should begin with a title page (sometimes called cover 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, with no extra space before or after a heading. Like this:

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 paper’s 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 paper’s 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 used in your paper. The information about each source on a reference list is called an “entry.” APA style has a very exact method for writing source entries on the reference list.

Following this style makes your paper look professional and ensures that you have included the complete information about your sources. Your readers can then evaluate the quality of your research and find your sources easily.

Here are the directions for writing an APA reference entry for each source.

**STEP 1: Determine whether you have a 1) print source, 2) source from an online database, 3) online source, 4) other source, or 5) personal communication.**

- **Print sources**: Printed works (things you can hold in your hand).
- **Sources found on an online database**: You used a CityU or other database or to find the source.
- **Online sources**: These are found on the Internet, either on a web page or as a download.
- **Other sources**: Sources that are not in print and not online, such as TV, radio, or film.
- **Personal communication**: You received information through personal contact: a face-to-face interview, email, phone call, text message, or class lecture (These will not go on the reference list).

**STEP 2: Within the category you chose above, determine the type of source. Each category includes several types of sources (listed below) and each type has its own reference entry form. Read the notes in the category to help you decided which form you should use.**

- **Print sources**: These include printed materials such as books, brochures, and periodical articles.
  
  Read the two notes below, but it should be fairly easy to determine the type of source here. The numbers correspond to the form numbers used later in this guide.
  
  1. Book, in print
  2. Brochure (booklet, pamphlet), in print
  3. Report, in print
  4. Chapter/section/part of a book (each part is by a different author)
  5. Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary (in print or CD-ROM)
  6. Newspaper article, in print
  7. Magazine article, in print
  8. Journal article, in print

  ➢ *You only have to include book chapters separately on the reference page if each chapter is written by a different author. Otherwise, just cite the whole book.*

  ➢ *A periodical is a document which is published regularly (periodically). You need to decide whether yours is a newspaper, magazine, or journal. Newspapers are usually daily and for general audiences, magazines usually weekly or monthly for general or professional audiences, and journals are published a few times a year for a more academic audience.*

- **Sources found on a CityU (or other) online database**: Databases, like those from City University of Seattle’s library or Google Scholar, mostly contain periodical (newspaper, magazine, or journal) articles, but there are also books, reports, data, and other non-periodical documents. Use the notes below to help determine which type of source you have. The numbers correspond to the form numbers used in this guide.
  
  9. Book, from an online database
  10. Document (brochure, report, figure, table, etc.), from an online database
  11. Chapter/section/part of book, from an online database (each part is by a different author)
  12. Newspaper article, from an online database
  13. Magazine article, from an online database
  14. Journal article, from an online database

  ➢ *Look carefully for periodical titles, as that is what most database sources will be. If the type of periodical is unclear, you need to decide whether it is a newspaper, magazine, or journal (see the note in “Print sources” above).*

  ➢ *If you cannot find a periodical title, and you’re sure that your source is not a book or part of a book, then treat it as a document and follow Form 10.*
• **Online sources:** These are sources found online, but not in a database, and their reference entries are the most difficult. You will need to identify different types of web offerings. A website is a collection of related pages, created and maintained by an organization or individual. A web page is a single resource on a website, with a separate address. Your reference list will contain web pages or material downloaded from web pages, not websites. Carefully read the notes below to determine which form to use. The numbers correspond to the form numbers used in this guide.

  15. Website
  16. A text on a web page
  17. Specific document, on a web page or downloaded from a web page
  18. Book, on a web page or downloaded from a web page
  19. Chapter/part/section of a book/document, on a web page or downloaded from a web page
  20. Periodical/news article on its own periodical/news media website
  21. Periodical/news article posted on another website
  22. Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary
  23. Entry in a wiki
  24. Audio/video file on a web page
  25. Audio/video podcast (episode in an audio/video series)
  26. Video post, on YouTube or similar user-created site
  27. Blog post on a web log (blog)
  28. Message/comment, posted to a newsgroup, forum, discussion group, electronic mailing list, comment section, or another person's blog

- If your source is a written source, determine whether it is a specific type of document (Form 17), a book (Form 18); part of a document or book (Form 19); a periodical article (Forms 20-21); or an entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary/wiki (Forms 22-23). If it is none of these things, and just a text on a web page, then use Form 16.

- Many web page texts and almost all downloaded material are specified as a certain type of document (brochure, report, press release, lecture notes, slides, fact sheet, table, figure, etc.). Use Form 17 for these documents.

- Some books or documents will have different chapters/sections/parts on different web pages or downloads. Put the part which you used on your reference list, using Form 19.

- To determine whether a web page text is a periodical article, examine the website. Obviously, something on a print periodical's own website or an online-only periodical site is a periodical article. News media sites which regularly publish news or information, such as CNN and BBC, can also be periodicals. Don't worry about whether it's a newspaper, magazine, or journal. Use Form 20. However, when another site posts an article from a periodical, use Form 21 to credit both the periodical and the other site.

- An online encyclopedia/dictionary is usually an electronic version of a printed one. Although you should not use general encyclopedias for university-level academic research, some specialized encyclopedias may be acceptable. Use Form 22.

- A wiki is a collaborative website, which allows its users to create and edit web pages (so anyone can be an author). They are cited a bit differently than encyclopedias because they often change. Use Form 23.

- There are three types of audio/video sources. Audio/video files and podcasts can be found on established websites (created and maintained by an organization or individual(s)). Use Form 24 for individual files, not part of a series, and use Form 25 for podcasts (episodes in an audio/video series). Form 26 is for videos posted online by users (so anyone can be an author), on sites such as YouTube.

- A blog (web log) is the web page of an individual who regularly posts stories or commentaries. To cite a single post on a blog, use Form 27.

- Form 28 includes all messages and comments that Web users write in discussions or in response to online content.

• **Other sources:** Audio, visual, or even text sources found on other media – CDs, DVDs, TV, radio, software... The numbers correspond to the form numbers used in this guide.

  29. Song (audio recording)
  30. Movie
  31. TV/radio broadcast (one-time program)
  32. Episode of a television/radio series
  33. Computer software or program

- If you find a song, movie, TV/radio program or episode online, then it is considered an online source and you should use Form 24, 25, or 26.
• **Personal communication:** Personal contact with a source. Because your readers will not be able to access these sources, they do not go on your reference list. Instead, you will just refer to them with in-text citations (see p. 60).

**STEP 3:** Find the Form Number for your source on the following pages. There is a box for each form which includes directions, the basic format, and an example.

**STEP 4:** Read the directions and follow the basic format in the box to create your source entry. Fill in your source information, punctuating, italicizing, and capitalizing it exactly as shown. Here is the information you will need:

- **Author:** The author can be a person, group of people, or organization (corporation, agency, foundation, institute, ministry, department, etc.). Authors are important for credibility.

- **Date:** The publication date. Be as specific as your source allows (year, month, day).

- **Title:** The title of the source, and the title of any larger material which it is part of (i.e., an article and its newspaper). Each form has a specific, but similar, way of writing titles.

- **Publisher information** (Print Sources and Other sources): Name and location of the publisher.

- **Retrieval Statement** (Online Sources and Sources Found on an Online Database): This gives the reader the exact location of the source. For online database sources, it includes the name of the database. For online sources, it includes the complete web address. For online sources, you must also determine whether the following are necessary:
  - Retrieval date: the date on which you accessed the source. It must be included for sources which are likely to change (frequently changing web pages, wikis).
  - Organization that publishes the website where the source was found. This must be included if the organization is not clear from the author, title, or address, in order to give your source more credibility.

**STEP 5:** Look at the examples under each form for more help. These show what to do in situations that don’t follow the form in the box. (List of examples is below).

**STEP 6:** For more help, go to the “Frequently Asked Questions” on pp. 54-56.

**STEP 7:** Put your source entries in the correct order. See p. 57.

**STEP 8:** Check the formatting of your reference page (see p. 30 and compare your reference page to the example reference page on p. 67).

**STEP 9:** Make sure that all sources used in your paper are on the reference list, and all sources on the reference list are in your paper.

**LIST OF EXAMPLES**

**SOURCES IN PRINT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form Number</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Non-English book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Book, 2 authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Book, 3-7 authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Book, organization author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Book, with editor, no author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Book, translated into English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Brochure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Report, organization author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chapter/section/part of a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Chapter in a book, 2-7 authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Chapter in a book with 2 editors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Non-English chapter in a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Entry in a multi-volume encyclopedia/dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Entry in an encyclopedia/dictionary, no author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Entry in encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor, no author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Entry in a CD-ROM encyclopedia/dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Newspaper article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Newspaper article on more than one page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Newspaper article, no author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Non-English newspaper article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Newspaper article, news service author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Magazine article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Magazine article, special type (letter to editor)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Magazine article, 2 authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Magazine article, no author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Non-English magazine article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>Journal article, 2-7 authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>Journal article, 8 or more authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOURCES FOUND ON A CITYU (OR OTHER) ONLINE DATABASE</td>
<td>ONLINE SOURCES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Book</td>
<td>15 Website</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.1 Book from Google Scholar</td>
<td>16 Web page text (unspecified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Document, from an online database</td>
<td>16.1 Web page text, organization as author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1 Company profile (Business Source Complete database, Net Advantage database, others)</td>
<td>16.2 Web page text, no date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.2 Company report (Mint Global database, others)</td>
<td>16.3 Non-English web page text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.3 Business ratios (Key Business Ratios database, others)</td>
<td>17 Specific document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.4 Country report (Business Source Complete database, others)</td>
<td>17.1 Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5 Stock report (Net Advantage database, others)</td>
<td>17.2 Annual report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.6 Statistical data (Global Market Information database, others)</td>
<td>17.3 Report, organization as author</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.</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 the book is not the first edition (# ed.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City of publisher: Include the city and country. For U.S. 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 Capitalize and do not abbreviate the organization’s name.


4. CHAPTER/SECTION/PART OF A BOOK (different authors), in print

Form 4: Chapter/section/part of a book (each part is by a different author)
Author: chapter 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 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 in a book with 2 editors** Follow Form 4 with both editors (Eds.). Separate with “&”


(4.3) **Non-English chapter 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>
</tbody>
</table>

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of entry. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), *Title of reference work: Subtitle too* (Vol. #, pp. #-#). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.


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


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


(5.3) **Entry in a print encyclopedia/dictionary with no editor or 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.

6. NEWSPAPER ARTICLE, in print

**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) **Newspaper article, news service author** Follow Form 6. Capitalize the name of the news service.


7. MAGAZINE ARTICLE, in print

**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 type**

Use for Letter to the Editor, Book Review, Special Reports, etc. Follow Form 7 and write the [Type] after title.


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

(7.3) Magazine article, no author Start with the title and follow Form 7. Do not start with the magazine name.


(7.4) Non-English magazine article Follow Form 7, but translate the [Article title].


8. JOURNAL ARTICLE, in print

Form 8: Journal article

Author: Last name, then first initials. The journal is never considered the author.
Date: Only the year is necessary, but if there is no issue number, use the entire date.
Article title: Only capitalize the first words of the article’s title and subtitle.
Journal: Capitalize and italicize the journal’s name. Write the volume number in italics, followed by the issue number in parentheses.
Page numbers: Do not use “pp.” for pages. Just write the page numbers of the article.

Author, A. A. (Year). Title of article: Subtitle too. Journal Name Capitalized, volume number(issue number), ##-##.


(8.1) Journal article, 2-7 authors Follow Form 8, listing all authors. Separate with commas and “&” before last.


(8.2) Journal article, 8 or more authors Follow Form 8, but list the first 6 authors, then an ellipsis (…) and the last author’s name.


9. BOOK, from an online database

Form 9: Book from an 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.


### 10. DOCUMENT (brochure, report, data), from an online database

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 10: Document from an online database</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author: a person (last name, first initials) or an organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date: Write the complete publication date – as much as is available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title: Italicize the document title, only capitalize the first word, and put [Type of document] after it if you know it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieval statement: Add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Author, A. A. (Year, Month Day). *Title of document* [Type of document]. Retrieved from XYZ database.


### (10.1) Company profile (Business Source Complete database, NetAdvantage database, and others)


### (10.2) Company report (Mint Global database and others)


### (10.3) Business ratios (Key Business Ratios database and others)


### (10.4) Country report (Business Source Complete database and others)


### (10.5) Stock report (Net Advantage database and others)


### (10.6) Statistical data (Global Market Information database and others)

Give information about the type of statistics in the title, and add the form of the data [Graph, Chart, Table, etc.].

11. CHAPTER/SECTION/PART OF A BOOK (different authors), from an online database

Form 11: Chapter/section/part of a book, from an online database (each part is by a different author)
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.


12. NEWSPAPER ARTICLE, from an online database

Form 12: Newspaper article, from an online database
Follow Form 6 and its examples, and add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.


(12.1) Newspaper article from a database, on more than one page (consecutive pages)


13. MAGAZINE ARTICLE, from an online database

Form 13: Magazine article, from an 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 an online database, special type (book review)

(13.2) Magazine article from an online database, no print edition information
If you can't find information about the print edition (volume or page numbers), then skip it.


**14. JOURNAL ARTICLE, from an online database**

**Form 14: Journal article, from an online database**
Follow Form 8 and its examples and add a retrieval statement with the name of the database used.


(14.1) Journal article from an online database, abstract only Follow Form 14 but add [Abstract].


**ONLINE SOURCES (SOURCES FOUND ON THE WEB)**

**15. WEBSITE**
You will not cite an entire website on your reference list. If you want to discuss a whole website in your paper, then you can just put its home address in your text. For example,

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

**16. A TEXT ON A WEB PAGE**

**Form 16: A text on a web page (not a specific document or periodical article)**
Author: Person (last name, first initials) or organization.

Date: Last page update or the copyright date of the website. 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 retrieved the web page (if the web page seems likely to change), the name of the organization that publishes the website (if it’s not already clear from the author, title, or address), 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: Subtitle too*. Retrieved Month day, year, from Organization website: http://address

(16.1) Web page text on an organization website, organization as author

Don’t put the organization in the retrieval statement because the organization is already named (as author). Decide whether a retrieval date is necessary or not (will the page change?)


(16.2) Web page text, no date

Retrieval date is necessary because this page is likely to be updated, changed, or deleted.


17. SPECIFIC DOCUMENT (report, etc.), on or downloaded from a web page

Form 17: Specific document, on a web page or downloaded from a web page

Follow Form 16, but no retrieval date is necessary (because these are more established works). And include the following information, if provided: (identifying name and number) and/or [Type of document], such as Report, Brochure, Press Release, PowerPoint slides, Lecture notes, Fact sheet, Interview transcript, etc.

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of document: Subtitle too (identifying #) [Type of document]. Retrieved from Organization website: http://address


(17.1) Report, on a web page or downloaded from a web page

Use the [Report name] which the organization gives to the document (in this case – Backgrounder).


(17.2) Annual report, on a web page or downloaded from a web page

If “annual report” is part of the title, it is not necessary to put it in brackets too.

(17.3) **Report, organization as author, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**

If (identifying number) and/or [Type of document] are not specified, you do not need to include them.


(17.4) **Brochure, organization as author, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**


(17.5) **Press release, organization as author, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**


(17.6) **Interview transcript, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**

Authors are (Interviewer) and (Interviewee). Add [Interview transcript]. (In this case, the organization is not named in the retrieval statement because it’s clear from the web address that it’s CBS News).


(17.7) **Lecture notes, on a web page or downloaded from a web page** Add [Lecture notes] after the title.


(17.8) **PowerPoint slides, on a web page or downloaded from a web page** Add [PowerPoint slides].

(17.9) **Song lyrics, on a web page or downloaded from a web page** Author is songwriter. Add [Song lyrics].


(17.10) **Statistical data, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**

Use [Statistical data], or, if the data is already formatted, write [Table], [Figure], [Graph].


### 18. BOOK, on a web page or downloaded from a web page

**Form 18: Book, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**

Follow Form 1 and its examples, but publisher information is not necessary. Add a retrieval statement with the name of the organization that publishes the website (if it’s not already clear), and the web page’s complete address. Retrieval date is not necessary.

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


### 19. CHAPTER/PART/SECTION OF A BOOK OR DOCUMENT, on a web page or downloaded from a web page

**Form 19: Chapter/part/section of a book/document, on a web page or downloaded from a web page**

Follow Form 4, but do not include the publisher information. After the title of the book or document, include the edition number if there is one. Then write the page numbers of the chapter or the chapter/part number, depending on what you know.

Add a retrieval statement with the name of the organization that publishes the website (if it’s not already clear), and the chapter’s complete address. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.


(19.1) **Section of a document on a web page, organization as author**

(19.2) Chapter of a document downloaded from a web page, organization as author


(19.3) Chapter of a book, downloaded from a web page


20. PERIODICAL/NEWS ARTICLE, on its own periodical/news media site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 20: Periodical/news article on its own periodical/news media website</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow Forms 6-8 and their examples, and add a retrieval statement with the article’s complete address.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you cannot find the volume, issue, or page numbers of the print edition, or if there is no print edition, then just skip that information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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


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

(20.3) Article on an online-only news media website


(20.4) Article on an online-only news media website, no author  Start with the title.


21. PERIODICAL/NEWS ARTICLE, posted on another site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 21: Periodical/news article posted on another site</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow Forms 6-8 and their examples. You may not find the volume, issue, or page numbers of the print edition. Add a retrieval statement with the organization on whose website 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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. ENTRY IN AN ONLINE ENCYCLOPEDIA/DICTIONARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 22: Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary (NOT a wiki)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow Form 5 and its examples, but do not include/publisher information. Add a retrieval statement with the complete web address of the entry. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(22.1) Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor  Skip the editor info.


(22.2) Entry in an online encyclopedia/dictionary, no editor or author  Start with title. Skip the editor.

23. ENTRY IN A WIKI

Form 23: Entry in a Wiki
USE WITH GREAT CAUTION. WIKIS CANNOT GUARANTEE THE ACCURACY OF THEIR ENTRIES.

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. After “In” write the name of the wiki in italics.
Retrieval statement: Retrieval date and address. If address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.

.wikispaces.com/Knowledge+mapping

24. AUDIO/VIDEO FILE, on a web page

Form 24: Audio/video file on a web page (not part of a series)

Creator: Name the person (people) who created the audio/video, followed by his/her role. Generally, this is
Producer, Writer, and/or Director, but could also include Interviewer, Moderator, Presenter, Lecturer,
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 that publishes the website (if it’s not already clear
from the author, title, or address) and the file’s complete web address. If the address is too long, divide it
before a punctuation mark.

Creator, C. C. (Role). (Date). Title of audio/video [Video/Audio file]. Retrieved from Organization
website: http://address

Friedman, T. L. (Lecturer). (2005, May 16). The world is flat [Video file]. Retrieved from
Massachusetts Institute of Technology OpenCourseWare website: http://mitworld.mit.edu
/video/266

(24.1) Audio/video file from a news media website

If the organization is clear from the address or author, don’t put it in the retrieval statement.

/russia-s-bridge-to-nowhere.html

(24.2) Audio/video file, multiple creators, no date List all the creators.

.com/c47/
(24.3) **Audio/video file, organization as creator**  No organization in retrieval statement.


(24.4) **Non-English audio/video file**  Add a [Translation] after the video title.


### 25. AUDIO/VIDEO PODCAST (episode in an audio/video series)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form 25: Audio/video podcast (episode in an audio/video series)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creator: Name the person (people) who created the podcast, followed by his/her role: Writer, Director, Producer, Interviewer, Moderator, Lecturer, Presenter, Discussant, Interviewee….</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date: Use the date on which the podcast was created or broadcast. Use (n.d.) for no date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title: Capitalize the first word of the podcast title. Put the series title in italics. Put the (part number) if known after the series title. Add [Audio podcast] or [Video podcast] at the end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieval statement: Include the name of the organization that publishes the website (if it’s not already clear from the author, title, or address) and the podcast’s complete web address. If the address is too long, divide it before a punctuation mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(25.1) **Audio/video podcast from a news media website**  If the organization name is clear from the address or author, do not include it in the retrieval statement.


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


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Audio/video podcast, multiple creators

Meier, A. (Moderator), Goldstein, D. (Presenter), & Greene, D. (Discussant). (2009, April 17). If SUVs were as efficient as refrigerators, the world would be exporting oil. The roots of energy: How California changed the way the world uses energy (part 5) [Video podcast]. Retrieved from University of California Television website: http://www.uctv.tv/search-details.aspx?showID =16780

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

Form 26: Video post, on YouTube or similar user-created site
USE WITH GREAT CAUTION. VERIFY THE SOURCE’S CREDIBILITY.

Author: the creator, producer, and/or director of the video, not the person who posted the video online.
Title: Don’t italicize the title of the video. Follow the title with [Video file].
Retrieval statement: Include the video’s complete address. If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.

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


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


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


27. BLOG POST, on a web log (blog)

Form 27: Blog post, on a web log (blog)
BE CERTAIN OF THE CREDIBILITY OF THE AUTHOR AND ACCURACY OF THE INFORMATION.

Author: Include the blog author’s real name, if possible.
Date: Use the exact date of the post.
Title: Use the title of the post, not the title of the whole blog. Don’t italicize it. End with [Web log post].
Retrieval statement: Write the post’s complete address. If the address is too long for one line, divide it before a punctuation mark.


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

**Form 28: Message/comment**

**BE CERTAIN OF THE CREDIBILITY OF THE AUTHOR AND ACCURACY OF THE INFORMATION.**

- **Author:** Include the message/comment author’s real name, if possible. Otherwise, use the screen name.
- **Date:** Use the exact date the message/comment was posted.
- **Title:** This could be the message title or the title of the subject/thread. Don’t italicize the title. If the messages are numbered, provide the number. In brackets, write the [Type of message/comment].
- **Retrieval statement:** Include 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). Title of message or Thread title (msg./comm., #) [Web log comment/Discussion forum message/Newsgroup message/Article comment/Electronic mailing list message]. Retrieved from http://address


**OTHER SOURCES**

29. SONG (audio recording)

**Form 29: Song**

- **Author:** Songwriter is the author of the song. Artist is the singer or band.
- **Title:** If the author and artist are different, put [Recorded by] and name the artist after the title. Identify the [Type of media] of your recording – CD, Cassette, Record.
- **Publisher:** The album’s label and the city where it is located.

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

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


### 30. MOVIE

**Form 30: Movie**

Author: Put the creators of the movie (producer, director) in the author position. Put their roles in parentheses.

Title: Italicize the movie title. Capitalize the first word and put [Type of media] after the title. Use [Motion picture] if you saw it in a theater.

Publisher: Name the studio or distributor. Write the country where the movie was mostly made.

| Producer, P. P. (Producer), & Director, D. D. (Director). (Year). *Title of movie* [Type of media]. |
| Country: Studio or distributor. |

**30.1 Movie, no director**  Just name the producer.


**30.2 Movie, multiple producers and director**  List all, separating with commas and “&.”


**30.3 Non-English movie**  Write the non-English title and then translate it in [brackets].


### 31. TELEVISION/RADIO BROADCAST

**Form 31: One-time broadcast on television or radio**

Author: Put the producer of the broadcast in the author position followed by (Producer).

Date: Use the date on which the broadcast aired.

Title: Italicize the title and capitalize the first word. Add [Television broadcast] or [Radio broadcast].

Publisher: 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.

### 32. EPISODE OF A TELEVISION/RADIO SERIES

**Form 32: Episode of a television or radio series**

Author: Include the author (Writer) and director of the episode if possible.

Date: The copyright year of the episode.

Title: Capitalize the first word of the episode’s name, followed by [Television series episode] or [Radio series episode]. After “In” 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) if known.

Publisher: Name the studio or distributor and the city where it is located.


### 33. COMPUTER SOFTWARE OR PROGRAM

**Form 33: Computer software or program**

Author: Creator is the person(people) or organization responsible for the program or software.

Title: Follow the title with [Computer software] or [Computer program].

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

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

AUTHOR QUESTIONS

What if there is no author (or editor)?

First decide if an organization (corporation, company, department, agency, institute, news service, 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, 7.3, 20.4, 22.2, 23.1, 26.2.


What if there is an organization as the author?


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 as the author. See examples 23, 26.1


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, 17.6, 19, 22, 24.2.


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, 17.9, 20, 25.3, 30.2.


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 16.2, 24.2, 26.1.


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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, 16.3, 24.4, 30.3.


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 people's names and the names of organizations, periodicals, and databases.

Which titles do I italicize?
This is tough to answer because it changes. Usually, something in every entry will be italicized, except for things that can be posted online by any web user – (23)wiki entries, (26)video posts, (27)blog posts, and (28)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.

When do I use (parentheses) after a title?
Parentheses are used with identifying numbers (book edition numbers or report numbers). They are also used to indicate how a smaller source fits into a larger source (chapter number, chapter page numbers, and episode numbers). See forms 3, 4, 5, and 19, and examples 1, 17.3, 25.2, 25.3, 28, 32.

When do I use [Brackets] after a title?
Besides title translations, brackets are used to more specifically clarify the type of source for your readers. This guide gives several examples (such as Abstract, Annual report, Brochure, Company profile, DVD, Graph, PowerPoint slides, Press release, and Video file), and you can also write your own. See forms 2, 10, 17, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, and see examples 7.1, 13.1, 14.1, 19.2, 20.2.

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?
For the U.S., write the state abbreviation after the city. For other cities, write 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 1.4, 3.1.


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?
An article in a periodical, chapter in a book, and entry in an encyclopedia or dictionary should have page numbers. Always write the page numbers if you found the source in print or on an online database. If you got it online, you may not be able to find the page numbers from the print edition. See forms 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 14; also see examples 19.2, 19.3, 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 forms 4, 5, 6, 11, and 12; also see 19.2 and 19.3.

RETRIEVAL STATEMENT QUESTIONS

What is a retrieval statement?
A statement that begins “Retrieved from” and states where you found an online database source or online source. It comes at the end of their reference entries.

When do I include the address of my source in the retrieval statement?
Include the exact address (directly to your source) for all sources found online, except those from an online database. Online database source retrieval statements only include the name of the database used (see forms 9-14).

Retrieval statements for online sources must include the address. The date you found the source and/or the name of the organization that publishes the website where you found the source may also be necessary (see the next two questions).


When do I include the date I found the source in the retrieval statement?
Include the retrieval date (Month day, year,) for web page sources that will probably change (wikis, and some web page text that is not a specific document or periodical article). You must determine whether your readers should know when you accessed the source, in case they later visit the web page and cannot find what you cited. Providing the retrieval date will protect you. See examples 16, 16.1, 16.2, 16.3, 23, 23.1.

When do I include the name of the organization in the retrieval statement?
If the name of the organization that publishes the website where you found the source is not clear from the author, title, or address, include it in your retrieval statement. The organization’s name will help your readers see the credibility of your source. You also need to include the website organization name when a periodical article is posted on another site. See examples 16, 17, 17.1, 17.7, 18, 19, 19.3, 21, 24, 25, 25.1, 25.3.


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 one 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 quote, paraphrase, summarize or otherwise 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 locate 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). It goes after the source information. Do not put information from the source after the citation.

  This should be information from the source (Neff, 1993). This should not be from the source.

  However, 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.

  According to Washington Post journalist Neff (1993), source information goes here.

- 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 the 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 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 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 of section, para. #).

    This a “quotation from the source” (Author, Year, Name of section, para. #).

    Dr. Researcher said, “This quotation” (as cited in Author, Year, Name of 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 the reference list. So the in-text citation will correspond to the beginning of each source entry on the reference list (usually the author, but sometimes the title). Because 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>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANIZATION AUTHOR (organization is not abbreviated)</th>
<th>(Organization, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANIZATION AUTHOR (organization is often abbreviated)</th>
<th>first time</th>
<th>further citations (ORG, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TWO AUTHORS</th>
<th>(Author &amp; Author, Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3-5 AUTHORS</th>
<th>first time</th>
<th>further citations (Author et al., Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6 OR MORE AUTHORS</th>
<th>(Author et al., Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

If there is no author, the in-text citation starts with the title – like the entry on the reference list does. 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>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO AUTHOR, TITLE IN REGULAR TEXT</th>
<th>(“First words of title,” Year).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIFFERENT AUTHORS, SAME LAST NAME (A. Author, Year)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In-text citation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAME AUTHOR/YEAR, DIFFERENT SOURCES (Author, Yeara)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In-text citation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAME INFORMATION IN 2 (OR MORE) SOURCES (Citation 1; Citation 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In-text citation</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YOUR SOURCE CITES ANOTHER SOURCE (as cited in Your Source’s Citation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In-text citation</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PERSONAL COMMUNICATION**

Personal communication – email, letter, interview, phone call, or even a class lecture – 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 for the source. The basic form is (P. Person, personal communication, Month day, year). Here are two examples:

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

- English professor Sam Dunlop found that it takes students about seven months to master APA style (personal communication, June 12, 2009).
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 and where 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 the other figures/tables in your paper or presentation?

**Referring to the Table/Figure**

In your paper or in your presentation, you must mention 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.

Note: Include any notes for understanding the table, and also put an in-text citation here if necessary.

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.

Figure 1: Title of the figure. Explanation of the figure’s symbols, abbreviations, and/or terminology, and an explanation of what the figure shows. If necessary, put the in-text citation here too.

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 use a table/figure from a source, then add the source to your reference list and include 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 put the source on your reference list. You will need an in-text citation of that source 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

Davidko Student
davidko_student@cityu.edu
ENG 211 English Composition
Isabelle Instructor
Informative Essay
June 5, 2009
“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 well-suited 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 (1.27 cm)
_____ 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, or summary
_____ Few quotations (effective, special, necessary)
_____ No very long quotations
_____ Unique words from a source are in quotation marks
_____ Quotations are copied correctly
_____ Correct punctuation and capitalization with quotations
_____ Completely changed paraphrases/summaries, without changing authors’ 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 the source
_____ Citations of quotations include page or paragraph number if possible
_____ Paragraphs do NOT end with in-text citations (source material is sandwiched)
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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
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Appendices
_____ Each appendix is on a separate page
_____ “Appendix A” (or B, C...) is centered at the top of the page
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