Why do students have to write research papers?

The truth is that research papers are a specially-designed torture instrument. They are preferred because instructors are not directly involved in the torture. Usually students torture themselves by waiting until the last minute to write their papers and by not knowing what they are doing.

That's why this guide was written. A research paper is not supposed to be torture. Seriously. The thing about torture was a joke. A research paper is supposed to be your opportunity to explore something that interests you. You have freedom to choose a topic, usually five or more empty pages to express your own ideas, and an audience that is interested in reading what you think.

Instead of just memorizing a textbook, you can go deeper into the course subject. Plus, you will develop skills in researching, evaluating sources, organizing, arguing, analyzing, thinking logically, and expressing yourself clearly in writing (in English too). These skills, by the way, are all valued by employers.

Writing research papers should help you, not hurt you. However, to achieve this, you have to remember that instructors assign papers at the beginning of the term for a reason: **it takes time to write a good research paper.** If possible, you should spend about a week on each of the following steps:

- Choosing and narrowing a topic
- Thinking and planning
- Doing research
- Taking notes
- Planning and outlining
- Writing a draft
- Revising drafts
- Editing
- Proofreading

So whenever possible, you should spend 9 weeks on your paper. Hopefully, this guide will make it easier (maybe you could write a paper in 7 weeks instead).

How to use this guide

**If you have never written a research paper or think your research papers are horrible, read this whole guide as you write your paper.** It will take you step by step through the research paper writing process.

**If you want to review or you have certain problems with research papers, use the table of contents to find your problem areas and read those sections.** It should give you a general overview and advice. There is no “grammar” section, but if grammar is one of your problems, the solution is in the Editing and Proofreading sections.

**If you only need to know about the reference page and in-text citations, go to “APA Style Guide.”** I also suggest you look at “Evaluating Internet Sources,” all of “Using Source Material,” and the example research paper.

Good luck with your papers.

Anne Whitaker
November, 2004
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What is a Research Paper?

In academic writing, a research paper is a logical, well-developed, persuasive answer to a research question. Your instructors may assign a “research paper,” “position paper,” “argumentative paper,” “analysis paper,” “term paper,” or just a “paper.”

Each of these assignments involves doing research about a topic. Your paper, however, does not just present your research as a list of facts or as a summary of sources. Your paper is based on YOUR OWN ideas. It will be a presentation of your own opinion and/or analysis of a topic supported by evidence from your sources and sound reasoning. You may already know your opinion, and if you don't, you will develop one as you research.

There are two basic types of research papers: argumentative and analytical.

**An argumentative paper, or position paper,** takes a side on a debatable issue (it is possible to change someone's mind, including your own, about the issue). It answers a “yes/no” research question. The paper argues for your own position using strong arguments supported by logic and evidence from knowledgeable sources.

**An analytical paper** also argues for your opinion, but it answers a “why/how” question. It usually examines the causes, effects, or solutions of something. You will research answers to the question and then describe, explain, and evaluate them. Your paper will look deeply at each, rank them, and argue for the most significant ones.

Research Paper Basics

Academic writing in English is very organized and clear. As the writer, you need to do all the work for the reader; the reader shouldn't have to think to understand your ideas, organization, or logic. That's why papers usually include these basics:

- **The introduction** catches the readers’ attention, provides background information, and lets the reader know what to expect. It usually has a **thesis statement**, which clearly states the main idea of the paper (the answer to the research question and your point of view).

- **The body** supports the thesis statement. It stays focused on answering the research question. The development follows your own ideas, not the sources', and your ideas are organized clearly and logically.

- Each **body paragraph** has one point, which is supported by your own ideas and by material from high-quality sources. **Source information** is analyzed, evaluated, and integrated into your writing, and its significance to the point is clearly explained. **In-text citations** are included after every use of material from a source.

- The body may also include a discussion of **opposing arguments or alternative viewpoints** in order to show that the paper is balanced; however, the paper shows that other viewpoints are insufficient or weak.

- Finally, the **conclusion** summarizes the paper and shows the reader the significance of the paper’s findings. It is, of course, strong and memorable.

- The **reference page** lists all the sources used in the paper in APA style.

- The **sources** are high-quality, trustworthy, and varied.

- The **format** of the paper follows the instructor’s directions, or if the instructor has no specifications, then it follows the format guidelines in this guide.

Each of those will be discussed in more detail in this guide.

Instructors' assignments may vary from this basic definition depending on what they want from an assignment. So a very important rule about research paper writing is **ALWAYS DO WHAT THE ASSIGNMENT ASKS.**
Choosing and Narrowing a Topic

The last section talked about a "research question" as the basis of a paper. In some classes, your instructor may provide you with research questions to answer in papers, so you don't have to worry about choosing a topic.

If you must choose your own topic, think about things related to the course that you are interested in and have strong opinions about. If there is nothing that interests you, look through the textbook and current periodicals for interesting topics.

Then consider sources. Will you be able to find enough information about this topic in reliable sources? You may want to do a quick library or Internet search to make sure.

Your paper should have a clear, narrow topic. You can't write a 6-page paper about "abortion." That's a book. You should also try to avoid topics (such as "abortion") in which arguments are mostly based on unchanging personal beliefs.

To narrow the topic, look at a specific problem, time period, or place; or read general sources about the topic to find a small part you could write about. Some smaller topics related to abortion are the morning after pill, third trimester abortions, laws about waiting periods, or counseling before an abortion can be performed.

You also need a clear, narrow purpose for your paper. What is your research paper going to say or prove? You can't discuss every issue related to the morning after pill in 6 pages – are you going to discuss whether it works or not, whether it should be sold to girls under 16 or not, whether it should be sold without a prescription or not, why it's hard to find in the US, how its sales have affected contraceptive sales, how its sales have affected abortion rates....? You need one focus, not six.

The easiest way to figure this out is to create a "research question" to answer. What ONE question do you want your paper to answer? You may already know the answer, or you may discover it (or change it) during your research.

- An argumentative or position paper answers a "yes/no" question. For example, a paper answering the question "Should the United States have used the atomic bomb in World War II?" would only argue for the writer's opinion "The United States should not have used the atomic bomb," with the paper developing each argument in detail. Example questions:
  - Should the morning after pill be sold without a prescription?
  - Should the Kurds of Iraq have their own sovereign state?
  - Should the European Union's constitutional treaty mention Christian values?
  - Should the Slovak parliament and political parties have gender quotas?
  - Should animal organs be used for human transplants?
  - Is NATO still necessary?
  - Does Esperanto have a future?
  - How should Slovakia improve relations between Roma and non-Roma citizens? (a little different; you argue for your solution to the problem)

- An analytical paper answers a "why/how" question. For example, a paper answering the question "Why did United States use the atomic bomb in World War II?" would only analyze the reasons for this action, and the writer would show which cause(s), in his/her view, was most significant. Example questions:
  - Why is it difficult to get the morning after pill in the United States?
  - How has the ban on abortions in Poland affected women's lives?
  - Why has Tesco been successful in Slovakia?
  - Why has Brazil been so successful in fighting AIDS?
  - Why is there famine in North Korea?
  - Why has childhood obesity been increasing in the United States?
  - How has tourism influenced the life of the Sherpas in Nepal?
  - How well did Russia handle the terrorist takeover of a Moscow theater in 2002?

Longer papers may answer more than one research question and do more than one thing, but for most papers, it is best to focus deeply on one question only.
The thesis statement is the most important sentence in your paper. If someone asked you, “What does your paper say?” your answer would be your thesis statement. Everything you write will support this statement.

**A good thesis statement usually includes**

- **Main idea of the paper.** ONE idea. The entire paper is based on this statement.
- **Your opinion or attitude.** The thesis statement is not a fact or a question, but your view of the topic and what you want to say about it.
- **Purpose of the paper.** From the thesis statement, it should be clear what the paper will do – inform, persuade, explain, solve, describe, and/or analyze something.
- **Answer to the research question.**
- **Clarity.** It should be perfectly understandable after one reading and have no mistakes.

When should you write your thesis statement? It depends on when you know the answer to your research question. You may have an idea before you begin researching, you may discover it as you research, or you may not know it for sure until you have written your ideas down. In the analysis paper outline in the next section, the writer changed her thesis after doing research. Whenever you write it, remember that everything in your paper must prove it.

**Thinking and Planning (Basic Outline)**

When you have a topic, start writing ideas down. Brainstorm possible answers to your question, and when you think you know how to answer the research question, you can make a basic outline. You may be able to do this before doing any research, or you may need to read more about the topic first.

An outline is a plan for your paper. Do this before you finish researching to ensure that your paper is focused on YOUR thoughts, not just your sources’.

**Choosing and ordering points**

1. Write down all the reasons/arguments/effects/solutions (each paper is different) you have to support your thesis. Do not look at your sources – use your own brain.
2. Look at your list and organize the ideas. Some can be combined as one larger idea; some may just repeat others in different words. If you think an idea is very weak, cross it out.
3. The remaining ideas will be the main points (sections) of your paper (and you can change them later too).
4. Decide how to order these points. What order will you follow – chronological, cause to effect, problem to solution, most important to least important, weakest to strongest? Which order will make your paper the strongest and most interesting?
5. Your paper may also cover alternative or opposing viewpoints. Think of those strongest points and create a section about it.

**EXAMPLE BASIC OUTLINE before research (analysis paper)**

Research Question: Why has childhood obesity increased in the United States?

**Thesis: Childhood obesity has increased in the United States due to the unhealthy environment in which many American children are raised.**

I. Children eat more than in the past.
II. Children often do not eat healthy meals.
III. Children do not have as much physical activity as in the past.
IV. Parents model bad habits.
EXAMPLE BASIC OUTLINE before research (argumentative paper)
Research Question: Are birth control pills safe for women?
Thesis: Birth control pills are safe.
   I. Pills contain nothing harmful to health.
   II. Pills bring health benefits to women.
   III. Myths about birth control pills are wrong.

Breaking ideas into smaller parts
1. That is a very basic outline. It is possible to add more to it after researching. Then you may notice that some points are very large and detailed. If so, you will need more than one paragraph to describe it. Some sections, especially your strongest, need more than one paragraph, while others may have only one.
2. Write the idea of each possible paragraph as a sentence so you can see it has a point.

EXAMPLE OUTLINE after some research (analysis paper)
Thesis: Childhood obesity has increased in the United States due to the unhealthy environment in which many American children are raised.
I. Children eat more than in the past.
   1. Portion sizes have increased.
II. Children often do not eat healthy meals.
   1. Healthy food is hard to find (expensive + rare)
   2. Schools provide unhealthy food
III. Children do not have as much physical activity as in the past.
   1. Physical activity in schools has decreased.
   2. Some children live in areas unsafe for outdoor activity.
   3. Many children watch too much TV.
IV. Parents model bad habits.
   1. Parents do not have time, money, or info to prepare healthy meals.

EXAMPLE OUTLINE after some research (argumentative paper)
Thesis: Although there are some disadvantages, birth control pills are safe.
I. Pills contain nothing harmful to health.
II. Pills bring health benefits to women.
III. Myths about birth control pills are wrong.
   1. They do not cause ovarian cancer, but prevent it.
   2. They do not cause breast cancer.
   3. It is safe to use them when breastfeeding if done right.
IV. There are some minor disadvantages, but not for healthy women.

Doing Research

Doing research takes time. You will have many dead-ends and will have to start again. To save time, do not run straight to the Internet; plan your research first.

What are you looking for?
Don't look for your opinion written by other people; look for evidence to prove your opinion. Think about what kinds of information you need to support your ideas – facts, examples, statistics, first-hand accounts, and expert opinions – and find it. You may also need to find opposing arguments or get more background information about the topic.
**What types of sources do you need?**

Answer these questions: Which types of sources are best for finding the information you need? Which types are available? Which types of sources does your instructor require?

**Where can you find the information you need?**

- **Books** – If your topic is not too current, check the library catalog. Don't ignore books; they are often easier to use and more trustworthy than many Internet sources.
- **Periodicals** – If you think there are newspaper, magazine, and journal articles about your topic, search certain periodicals' web sites and check CU's online databases.
- **Non-governmental organization web sites** – If you know of reliable NGOs who work with your topic, check their web sites.
- **Government web sites** – If your topic involves a government or an international organization of states (UN, EU), search their web sites.
- **Documents on the Internet** – If you need more, do an Internet search for aspects of your topic. You may find reliable periodicals, organizations, or research.
- **Personal communication** – Find a person (or the email address of a person) who is an expert about your topic. Interviewing is a great way to get the information you need.

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**PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES**

**Primary Source** – someone’s original work: speech, eyewitness account, letter, autobiography, government/organization report based on own research, interview, case study, survey/questionnaire findings, experiments, observations, market research, original research...

- Primary sources let you interpret information in your own way.
- Many instructors will require primary sources.

**Secondary Source** – writing about a primary source: report of others’ work, analysis of an event or others' research, biography, history book, periodical article...

- These sources help you analyze, but don't use too many. You need your own ideas too.
- Avoid sources that use secondary sources as sources. Find those secondary sources.

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**GENERAL AND SPECIFIC SOURCES**

**General Sources** – sources with basic, background information about a topic: encyclopedias, general periodical articles (*Newsweek, BBC, CNN, New York Times*), textbooks...

- Go to general sources first to get the basic information about your topic.
- Do not use encyclopedias as sources in papers. Just read them for background info.
- Do not rely on general sources; get specific sources too.

**Specific Sources** – sources which go more in depth: specialized magazines, NGO/government/academic documents, academic journals (*Journal of Business Communication*),...

- These sources will focus more directly on your topic and make your research complete.
- Many of them will be primary sources as well.
- Some of these are very academic. **If you cannot understand a source, do not use it.**

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**Searching on the Internet**

If you just do a general search on the Internet for your topic, you may find hundreds of thousands of sources. Of those, very few will actually be good for your topic. To save time, know exactly what you’re looking for and use these five methods:

**Go straight to the source**

If you know of a group directly involved in your topic, go straight to their web site and do a search on their web site. You may find good primary sources and links to other sites.
Search Engines (www.google.com or www.altavista.com…)

Use the Advanced Search option.
- Use specific search words – the more specific, the more relevant your sources will be.
- Don't stop after the first search. Try different combinations of words using the different options ("all," "exact phrase," "any of these words")
- Specify words "in title" to get documents directly related to your topic.
- Specify ".org domain" or ".gov domain" or "not .com domain"
- Ask for pages “updated within a year” or “updated in the past year.”

Read the results carefully.
- The results are NOT organized by quality, so read more than the first page of results.
- Evaluate the title, author, address, date, and content on the results page before opening.
- If the first 25 results are not helpful, try other search words.

Do the same search on more than one engine. You will get different results.

Links from Good Sources

High-quality web sites should have links to other good sites. Secondary sources may have links to their sources (maybe primary ones).

Online Periodicals (print or Internet-only)

Online periodicals could be Internet versions of print periodicals (New York Times), or they may only exist on the Internet. They have a current issue which changes daily, weekly, monthly, or even faster; they also have archives of past issues. You can do a search directly on the periodical web site. Some will require you to pay to read their articles. If so, you could find the same article in the CU library or online databases.

City University Online Databases

These databases have thousands of articles which you can get for free as a CU student. This is one of the easiest, yet least used, ways to get good articles about your topic. The CU library has a detailed handout about using these and librarians can also answer any questions. Searching the databases takes time, just like a search engine search.
- Use specific search words – the more specific, the more relevant your sources will be.
- Don't stop after the first search. Try different combinations of words.
- Search for words in the "title" or "abstract" to get more relevant articles.
- Check “full-text articles” so you can see whole articles only.
- Fill in the dates to get recent articles only.
- Some instructors will require "peer reviewed" articles, so you can check that box too.

Use more than one database to find sources.

Evaluating Internet Sources

If you do an Internet search, you must evaluate every web site very carefully. Anyone can put anything on the Internet, so it's hard to find trustworthy, high-quality sources. Try to use sources that provide the author's name, position, organization, contact information; and date. Also consider these four criteria:

1. Relevancy
   The source should directly relate to your topic and be up-to-date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finding the Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The date is often at the top or bottom of the page. It may be after the © copyright symbol or after the words “last updated.” If you cannot find the date on the page, go back one step (or more) in the address to look at the previous page or home page.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✔ The source should focus on your topic, not just have a sentence about it.
✔ Most good sources will have a date. If not, make sure the information is still relevant.
2. Authority
The source should be an authoritative source that you can trust.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning about the Author/Sponsor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look for an “About...” link to read about the author and/or sponsor (organization, agency, school, corporation, periodical). Find the contact information. Go to the home page of the site to learn about the sponsor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✔ Avoid completely anonymous sources.
✔ The author should have the education, experience, or position to write about this topic.
✔ A group author (organization, agency) should be established and respected.
✔ Someone who leaves contact information is more confident about his or her work.
✔ Don’t use papers written by other students as sources. Find their sources instead.
✔ The domain in the address can help determine the source’s authority. Some clues:
  - .org = non-governmental organization
  - .gov = U.S. government web site
  - .edu = U.S. educational institution
  - .eu.int =European Union web site
  - .com = commercial web site
  - .sk = someone in Slovakia
✔ Avoid .com sites unless 1) they are periodicals or 2) you are writing about a corporation.
✔ Avoid personal web sites. Beware of these words in the address: aol, att, tripod, geocities, angelfire. Also look for the symbol ~ followed by someone’s name.

3. Purpose and audience
The source should be for intelligent readers. It shouldn’t have a hidden purpose. The best sources are objective (purpose is to inform), but biased sources (purpose is to persuade) may help you understand arguments of all sides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discovering purpose and audience</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look at the format, graphics, headings, and even tiny words at the bottom of the screen. Skim the text to understand its writing style and opinion. Who is the intended audience – children, students, buyers, the public, scholars...? Does the source give evidence for both sides of the issue? If so, does it attack the other side or treat it fairly? Is the author moderate and balanced or emotional and extreme? Beware of sensational headings and graphics, frequent exclamation points (!), advertisements related to the topic, and persuasive, simplistic writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✔ Informative sources are good because you can create your own opinion.
✔ Persuasive sources are OK if you can critically analyze the source’s arguments.
✔ Biased sources should be calm, rely on evidence, and acknowledge opposing views.

4. Accuracy
The source should have evidence for its ideas and be supported by other sources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Checking accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skim the source to see if the author has information to support his/her points. The information should seem believable to you. Look for references, a bibliography, cited sources, and links to other sites. Make sure these sources are reliable too. 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>

✔ Don’t use sources that don’t have support.
✔ The source should say where and how it found its support.
✔ Do not use or believe any statistics if the source does not say how/where it got them.
✔ Be suspicious if it is hard to check the links.
✔ Web sites are usually not edited and reviewed like books and periodicals.
✔ Some (not all) online periodical articles are checked by an editor, so they may be accurate.
✔ Scholarly journals usually have a peer review system to ensure quality.
✔ Well-established organizations usually ensure the quality of their documents.
✔ If information does not seem true, it probably isn't. Try to find it in two other good sources before believing it.
Making a Working Bibliography

When you find a good source, IMMEDIATELY WRITE ITS REFERENCE INFORMATION. Even if you check out the source, photocopy it, save it on a disk, email it to yourself, or print it, write this information down in case you lose the source.

Taking Notes

As you read a source, writing down the important ideas will help you remember these ideas and understand them better. It may seem time-consuming, but writing the paper will go faster if you already have all your ideas written down.

Also, it's easier to take notes after you have a basic outline. Then you can organize the notes under the headings of your outline.

What to take notes about

- Background information about your topic which needs to be included in your paper.
- Arguments and explanations which support or oppose your ideas.
- Facts, examples, ideas, and expert opinions which may support your ideas.

How to take notes

You can take notes on paper, on printed sources, or on a computer. Write the main idea from your outline next to the note so you know which section of your paper to put it in. Use these strategies:

- **Summarize** – Write the main points of the source in your own words. Good for sources with ideas, but not many details, related to your topic.
- **Paraphrase** – retell important information in your own words; make sure you use quotation marks for directly copied words. Good for details which will support/oppose you.
- **Quote** – copy the exact words from the source. Good for strong, exciting passages.
- **Comment** – write any questions or ideas you think of when you are reading sources.

Adding Details to the Outline

After going through your sources and taking notes, you can create a final outline.

1. First, make changes to your outline until you are satisfied with your ideas.
2. Then go through your notes and find support for each part of your outline.
3. Add the details to the right section to create a detailed outline of each paragraph. Always name the source and put the author's exact words in quotation marks.
4. It should be easy to write the first draft of your paper by following the outline.

**EXAMPLE OUTLINE of a body paragraph (after completing research)**

**Thesis:** Although there are some disadvantages, birth control pills are safe.

**II. Taking birth control pills has a lot of benefits for women’s health.**
1. Avoid unwanted pregnancy
2. Improve skin
   - less acne, ovarian cysts, anemia, “excess” hair - Greenfield (2004a)
3. Less painful menstruation
   - less blood, not so many cramps - Planned Parenthood (2003)
4. Women can enjoy life
EXAMPLE OUTLINE of a body paragraph (after completing research)

IV. Birth control pills do not cause breast cancer – the myth is wrong.
   1. Study in *New England Journal of Medicine* of 9,200 women, half
      with breast cancer, no evidence of increased risk if took pill.
   2. Good news for women in 40s and 50s
   3. Also women with breast cancer history don't have higher risk
      – same study proved this (Okie, 2002)
   4. Doesn't matter how long women use pill
      – no increased risk due to length of use, race, weight (Okie, 2002)

..................................................Writing the First Draft

There are many ways to write the first draft. The key is to be prepared before you start –
have a purpose, a thesis, enough research, and a plan. And then, just write.

- You could start at the beginning and write until the end.
- Or you could write paragraphs separately, in any order you like. Many writers do the body
  paragraphs first and save the introduction and conclusion for the end.

Advice for the first draft

- Read about writing paragraphs and using source material in this guide before you start.
- Do not worry about perfection yet. Do not worry about grammar.
- Be aware of plagiarism. Write down the source whenever you use anything from a source.
- **Do not wait until the last minute!** You will need time to revise, edit, and proofread.
- If you are missing information, mark the spot and then do more research to fill in the gap.

..................................................The Introduction

The introduction is often one paragraph, but in longer papers with more background
information, it may be two or more. In general, introductions do the following things:

Gain the immediate attention of the audience

- Here are some (but not all) of the ways to start an interesting and relevant introduction:
  - Short anecdote that leads to your topic
  - Surprising statement/fact that relates to your topic
  - Quotation from famous person, expert that introduces your topic
  - Brief and **interesting** historical review of your topic
  - Statement which stresses the importance of your topic
  - **Contradiction** – someone else’s opinion (opposite of yours) about your topic
- **Do NOT be general or boring!**

Provide necessary background information or definition of any terms

- Give the necessary history, facts, or definitions. Do NOT give too much information. The
  reader does not need to know everything, just what is necessary to follow your paper.
  - You can use a source in the introduction – just to give background information. The source
    should not answer the question or give your opinion.

Briefly introduce the reader to your main points in a few sentences

Have a thesis statement (often the last sentence)

- Make sure the purpose and point of view of your paper are very clear.
- **Do NOT announce your intentions** (“This paper will prove,” “I’m going to write about”).
- **Do NOT write a long, wordy, confusing thesis statement.**
Body Paragraphs

Body paragraphs can be written in many ways, depending on your purpose. However, each paragraph should have ONE idea which supports the thesis statement. Other usually necessary parts of body paragraphs are

**Topic Sentence**
Usually, but not always, the first sentence. It introduces the paragraph's idea, makes your point about this idea, relates to the thesis, and connects to the previous paragraph. The topic sentence is NOT a fact nor an idea from a source. Every sentence in the paragraph will support this topic sentence.

**Explanation of topic sentence**
The sentence(s) after the topic sentence often further describe the main idea of the paragraph.

**Support**
Several sentences then support and prove the topic sentence. **For more help with using sources to support your ideas, read “Using Source Material” in this guide.**

- **details** – facts, examples, experience, description, and experts' opinions are important to show the reader that your ideas are true. These details come from your head and sources.
  - If using source material, decide whether to quote, paraphrase, or summarize. Always cite the source.
  - Do NOT rely on sources too much. YOUR paragraph should mostly be YOUR ideas.
- **explanation** – Explain why/how the supporting details prove the topic sentence (sandwich the details with your own ideas). It is your job to make the significance clear; the reader should not have to think hard.
- **organization of the support** – The details should have a logical order: chronological, general to specific, cause to effect, least to most important, process, problem to solution...

**Concluding sentence**
The last sentence should review the body paragraph, emphasize the point and/or thesis again, or prepare the reader for the next body paragraph. Do NOT end the paragraph with a source citation! End with your own idea.

**Cohesion**
Every sentence should logically connect to the sentences before and after it. And the whole body paragraph should support your thesis statement.

The Conclusion

The conclusion is probably the shortest paragraph, but it's also the most important because this is what the reader will remember. A conclusion usually does these things:

**Connect to the last sentence of the previous paragraph**

**Summarize the findings of your paper**

- Use different words/phrases to summarize your thesis and main ideas.
- Be brief. Do not repeat everything. Just remind the reader what the paper said.
- Do NOT write any new information in the conclusion.

**Show the significance of your findings**

- Explain to the reader why your paper is important – what does it mean? What does it solve? What does it say about your topic? What should the reader take from your paper?
End with a strong, memorable concluding statement(s)

- Make sure this statement is relevant to your topic.
- You could relate your ending to the beginning of your introduction.
- Do NOT be too general, too unbelievable, too sweet, or too obvious.
- The reader will say “Wow! I’m glad I read this!”

................................. Connection between Ideas

You need to show the reader how your ideas are connected between paragraphs and between sentences. Often this happens naturally as you write; however, sometimes you’ll need to make the connection clearer to the reader. Here are 3 ways to do this:

1. **Pronouns (he/she/they/this/that/these/those)** – Use a pronoun to refer to a noun from the previous sentence.

   * Teachers should **not put grades on essays. This** would eliminate students’ tears.
   * Angela Rizzi argues that grades do not motivate students. **She** thinks teachers should only write comments, but not grades.

2. **Repeated words/ideas** – Use the same word or a synonym in the next sentence.

   * The policy **on changing classes** is too strict. According to the policy, a student must get the signatures of 7 different people before **moving to another class**.

3. **Transition words** – These words clearly state the relationship between two sentences. While they are very helpful, too many transition words at the beginning of sentences can be annoying. **Do not use a lot of transition words!** One (maybe two) in a paragraph is enough. Here are some transitions; if you are not sure what a word means, look it up in a dictionary.

   - to start – **first, first of all, to begin with**
   - to add another idea – **in addition, furthermore, also, moreover, what’s more**
   - to add a more important idea – **more importantly, what’s worse, what’s more**
   - to add your last idea – **finally, most of all, most importantly**
   - to contrast with the previous idea – **however, nevertheless, on the other hand**
   - to show the result of the previous idea – **therefore, thus, consequently, as a result**
   - to emphasize an idea – **in fact, in particular**
   - to give an example of the previous idea – **for instance, for example, to illustrate**
   - to show a time relationship between ideas – **first, second, then, next, finally**

Remember that these words usually appear at the beginning of a complete sentence.

   * **Sentence. Transition, sentence.** OR **Sentence; transition, sentence.**

   - The law does not stop teenagers from drinking. **Therefore,** it is ineffective. **RIGHT!**
   - She loves to travel; for example, in May she went to Rome, Paris, and Brazil. **RIGHT!**
   - Many organizations use English. **For example,** the UN, the EU, and NATO. **WRONG!**
   - Left-handers have problems **for instance,** shifting gears. **WRONG!**
Your first draft is not the end. You still have work to do. Revising strengthens the content of your paper. Do this with your first draft more than a week before your paper is due.

**Know what to fix**
Before you can revise, you need to know what to fix. How can you find that out?

- **Get feedback** – Ask an instructor or friend to look at part of your paper.
- **Use a checklist** – The end of this guide has a research paper checklist. See if your draft has all of the necessary things, and add those that aren't there.
- **Outline** – Make an outline of your draft by listing the main idea of each paragraph. This will show whether your ideas are clearly organized and whether they focus on the thesis.
- **Read your paper for focus** – Read every sentence of your essay. After each, ask yourself, "Does this support the thesis statement?" If it doesn't, change it (or your thesis).
- **Read each paragraph for support.** Does every body paragraph have enough support for the topic sentence? Did you use specific details – facts, examples, and description?
- **Read the beginning and end of every paragraph.** Check that every paragraph links smoothly with the one before it and after it.
- **Read your paper as the audience** – Imagine that you are the audience. Read your paper and write down any comments or questions your audience might have.

**Fix it**
Once you know what to fix, you must do it. Be daring. You will not have a good paper if you are afraid to change things. It may be easier to completely re-type your paper while just looking at your first draft. How can you change your paper?

- **Erase** words, sentences or paragraphs – eliminate all unnecessary or irrelevant ideas
- **Add** words, sentences or paragraphs – add new ideas, new support, more explanation
- **Reorganize** words, sentences or paragraphs – put your ideas in a logical order
- **Re-write** words, sentences or paragraphs – keep your ideas but present them better

**Revise it again**
If there is time (make time), you should revise your second draft too.

**Editing**
When you are happy with your paper's content, it's time to edit. Editing will make your writing more precise and easier to understand. Do this a week before your paper is due.

To edit successfully, find your old English grammar book, grammar notes, and an English-English dictionary. Then experiment with the following strategies until you find what works best for you:

1. **Read your paper out loud slowly (or ask someone to read it to you).** You will hear mistakes, wordiness, repetition, and lack of clarity, which you can correct. If you don't know how to correct something, start looking through those grammar books.

2. **Use the spell check and grammar check functions on the computer.** They will find some things, but don't just accept the program's changes; check each one.

3. **Editing strategies for specific problems**
   - **Connection between ideas**
     - Read the beginning and end of every paragraph to make sure they flow together.
     - Go through the paper sentence by sentence and find the connections between them.
     - If the ideas don't connect, add a transition, pronoun, repeated word, synonym, or another sentence.
- **Wordiness**
  - Find all the very long sentences (25 words or more). Try to rewrite them more clearly.
  - Read each sentence. After each one, ask, “Is it necessary to the paragraph? Does it add something new? Could it be eliminated completely or partly? Could it be combined?”
  - Read each sentence word by word. Is every word necessary? Could some be eliminated or re-written in a shorter, clearer way? Could passive verbs be rewritten as active ones?

- **Repetition, Lack of variety**
  - Read each sentence and ask, “What is the purpose of this sentence?” *Does it introduce a new idea? Does it support or explain the previous idea? OR does it just repeat it?*
  - Read the first 5 words of each sentence to find sentences starting in the same way (transition word, subject, phrase). Change some so your sentences have variety.
  - Look at the length of every sentence. There should be a variety of short and long sentences. Make sentences shorter by dividing them or longer by combining them.
  - Find words which are repeated a lot. Use a dictionary to find other words to use.

- **Sentence structure**
  - Go through the essay sentence by sentence. Label the subject(s) and the verb(s) in every sentence. Make sure each sentence has a subject and verb. Make sure there are not too many subject-verb combinations in each sentence, and make sure that word order is Subject+Verb+Object. Fix fragments, run-ons, and word order.

- **Word choice**
  - Find all the long words. Could some be replaced with shorter, clearer words?

- **Clarity, Non-English structure**
  - Read your paper without using a lot of effort – you’re just reading because you are interested in the topic. If you have to read something twice, it’s not clear.
  - Read your paper and translate it into Slovak in your head. If it’s really easy to translate, then maybe the writing is not following English structure and style.
  - THINK IN ENGLISH. Is this how an English-speaker would say that sentence?
  - Say your ideas out loud in English. Write exactly what you said. You probably speak more clearly than you write.

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**Proofreading**

When you think your paper is ready to turn it, it's time to proofread. If you don't proofread, your paper may be full of careless errors, which shows the audience that you were too lazy, rushed, or uncaring to fix your paper. To proofread:

- Do not look at your paper for 24 hours (this requires time management skills!)
- Print your paper – you’ll see mistakes that you might not see on a computer screen.
- Start with the last sentence of your paper and read your paper sentence by sentence, going backwards. (This will help you focus on grammar, not content).
- Cover all the other lines with another piece of paper.
- Point your pen at each word.
- Think about the grammar, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, meaning... of every word.
- If you are unsure about anything, use a dictionary or grammar book. If you are still unsure, mark the line and ask someone for help.
- Fix any mistakes that you found.
- Print your paper and proofread it again!

**It is a long, slow, unpleasant experience at first. However, the more you proofread, the easier it gets, the better your English gets, and the higher your grades get too.**
**USING SOURCE MATERIAL**

.................Why is Source Material Necessary?

A “research” paper by name requires research. But more than that, using source material makes your paper more convincing. Your opinions will be more believable if you have facts, examples, description, and expert opinions to support them. Your paper still focuses on your own ideas; your research shows that there is strong evidence for them.

**Source material is useful to**

- provide proof (facts) and support (others’ ideas) for your own arguments
- provide examples of your ideas
- define and clarify points
- provide an opinion different from your own to refute

**Do NOT use source material to**

- write a thesis statement or topic sentence (these should have your own point of view)
- state your point (write your point in your own way)
- fill a body paragraph (most of the paragraph should be your own ideas)

..................................................Citing the Source

To cite a source means to name the source where you found information and ideas. Every time you use anything from a source in your paper, you will cite it by writing an **in-text citation** after the information. Because it 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 page**. The end of this guide gives directions for the reference page and in-text citations.

The in-text citation guide explains how to cite sources, but when is it necessary?

**What to cite**

- Quote, paraphrase, or summary of a source (opinion as well as fact).
- Charts, graphs, pictures, maps (etc.) from a source.

**What not to cite**

- Your own thoughts and opinions.
- “Common knowledge.” This is something an educated person should know or could easily find out. Ask yourself:
  1. Would an intelligent person know this?
  2. Did you, a non-expert, know it before you did research?
  3. Is it found in many different sources?

If the answer is yes, you don’t need to cite it even if you found it in a source.

**TO CITE OR NOT TO CITE?**

For which of these ideas do you need to cite your source?

1. Vienna is the capital of Austria (you read this in a source).
2. Capital punishment is wrong (you think this).
3. 45% of brown dogs have fleas (you learned this from the TV news).
4. Abraham Lincoln was the 16th president of the United States (you just know this)
5. The 5 items in Lincoln's pockets when he was killed (you know this because you're a Lincoln fan).
6. CU tuition will go up by 7% (you learned this in an interview with the dean).
7. CU tuition is high compared to Slovak state universities (you think/know this).
8. When elephants see blue, their heart rate increases (you read this somewhere a few years ago).

Cite #3, 5, 6, 8. – you found this information somewhere and it's not commonly known.
Don't cite #1, 4, 7. – common knowledge. Don't cite #2, 7 – your opinion
When to Quote, Paraphrase, or Summarize

When using information and ideas from a source in your writing, you will choose one of these options:

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

**Paraphrase:** restate source material in your own, completely different, way. Do this when you want a specific idea or detail from a passage, but you can write it 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 the main idea of a passage, not the details.

Quoting

To use the exact words from a source, use "quotation marks" to show they are not your words.

**Only use a quotation if**
- The source says something so perfectly that you could never write it better OR
- You want the reader 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 cool, special, strong words.
- You can write the author's words just as well in your own way.
- You're just being lazy.
- You need to fill a page.
- You're writing a thesis statement, topic sentence, or concluding sentence.

YOU SHOULD HAVE FEW QUOTATIONS IN A PAPER!

SHOULD YOU QUOTE THESE WORDS from the Slovak Spectator? (reprinted with permission)

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. Satinský will always be remembered as a clown, a storyteller, a friend to children, Slovakia’s uncrowned king of humor and a noble-minded man.

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.)

How to write quotations

1. USE SHORT QUOTATIONS! Readers want to read your words. Don’t quote a whole paragraph; use 1-2 sentences or a part of a sentence.

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

3. Name the speaker in your writing:
- If you’re quoting the author, use the author’s name:

  According to Richards (2002), smokers “are following a long painful twisting road of doom.”
If the person who said the quotation is different than the author, name the speaker:

As lung research scientist Dr. Smith said, smokers “are following a long painful twisting road of doom” (Richards, 2002).

4. If you skip words in the middle of a quotation, use ellipses (…) to show where you skipped. You don't need them at the beginning or end of a quotation. Be careful not to change the author's meaning.

As Richards (2002) said, smokers “are following a long… road of doom.”

5. 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.

As Richards (2002) said, smokers “[follow] a long painful twisting road” before they die.

Paraphrasing

To paraphrase a passage from a source, rewrite it in your own way, keeping the author's idea and information.

**Use a paraphrase to**

- keep the specific details you want but say them in a more interesting, relevant way
- make the author’s idea easier to understand

**Paraphrasing is changing all THREE of these things:**

- changing the vocabulary of the author’s sentence.
- changing the word order of the author’s sentence.
- changing the grammar of the author’s sentence.

**What stays the same:**

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

**EXAMPLE PARAPHRASE**

**Article:** “St. Kitts and Nevis,” by The CIA World Factbook

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. Unfortunately, the state's financial situation has been hurt recently because tourism, the biggest contributor to the island’s budget, has decreased since September 11, 2001.

**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. Introduce the author.
4. Check that you didn’t use the same vocabulary, word order, or grammatical structures. Check all three of these things. Be very careful.

5. 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. Don’t forget to introduce the author.

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

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

Summarizing

To summarize the author’s idea, you should not include any details, just the major opinion or finding of the author. Also do not to put your own opinion in a summary.

How to summarize a paragraph/passage

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

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

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

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

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

Using Quotes, Paraphrases, Summaries Effectively

Quotes, paraphrases, and summaries will not help if they are just thrown into your paper with no connection to the writing around them. They need to be introduced and explained to the reader, who should not have to think hard about what the source means.

You can help the reader by integrating the source material into your writing. In other words, think of the source material as the middle of a SANDWICH. It's meat (or cheese for vegetarians) that needs to be held in your paper with bread on both sides.

The top of the sandwich introduces your own idea to the reader, and the bottom explains what the source material means and how it supports your idea.

Include all of these things when using information from a source:

- Your own idea or point which the source will support.
- Introduction to the source information – name the speaker/author/organization if possible to make it clear that the following ideas are not yours.
- Quotation, paraphrase, or summary (choose the best way(s)).
- In-text citation in APA style.
Explanation of the source info – show what the information from the source means and how it supports your point. Be specific; don't generalize. Focus on the source's information. Remember, the reader won't understand unless you explain it very well.

Look at the example in the box to see how this works.

EXAMPLE SANDWICH
Which of these passages sounds better?

1. Birdwatching groups are very concerned about the effect of human construction on bird habitats. Danish Wind Energy Association* (2003), “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.” People living near wind turbines have concerns about the noise they make.

2. Birdwatching groups are very concerned about the effect of human construction, especially huge wind turbines, on bird habitats. The Danish Wind Energy Association (2003) acknowledges that “birds often collide with high voltage overhead lines, masts, poles, and windows of buildings,” but it points out, “Birds are seldom bothered by wind turbines.” Birds seem to know how to avoid turbines, unlike other man-made structures. This is good news for birdwatchers, birds, and the wind power industry.

Yes, the second one. In the first, the quotation is unconnected, unexplained and not even part of a complete sentence. The reader can only ask, “Why are you using this? What does it mean? How does it support your point? How does it connect to the ideas before and after it?” The second one 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

Plagiarism and How to Avoid It

What an author writes becomes his or her own property. So if you use another author’s words OR ideas without informing the reader, you are stealing the author’s property. Presenting someone else’s words and/or ideas as your own like this is called plagiarism.

It is a very serious issue in English academic writing – students can fail a class or be suspended because of it.

The most obvious plagiarism is turning in someone else’s paper (paragraph, or even sentence) as your own. There are other types of plagiarism that you must be aware of:

Types of plagiarism found in research papers

- Using an idea or information you found in a source without citing the source.
- Copying a passage from a source word by word without using quotation marks. Even if you have an in-text citation, this is plagiarism because those words are not yours.
- Taking a passage from a source and changing it just a little (a few words). Even if you have an in-text citation, this is plagiarism because those words are not yours – you must use quotation marks or change the passage completely.
- Taking small but important phrases from sources and writing them in your paper without quotation marks. Again, even if you have an in-text citation, this is plagiarism. The combination of words is unique; you must give credit to the author.
- Using words which aren’t the author’s exact words in quotation marks. Adding or deleting words from a quotation (unless it’s clear to readers) misrepresents the author.
- Changing source information to fit your opinion. This is stealing the author’s name and reputation to suit your paper, which is a major violation of scholastic honesty.
To avoid plagiarism is not difficult

- **DO NOT WAIT UNTIL THE LAST MINUTE (OR DAY, OR WEEK)!** This is it – the BIG RULE. Most plagiarism occurs because students do not have enough time to write their papers right. Start your paper when it is assigned.

- **BASE YOUR PAPER 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 an outline of your own ideas before you do a lot of research.

- **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.

- **Quote, paraphrase, or summarize correctly.**
  - Copy quotations **exactly** from the source and use quotation marks.
  - Change vocabulary, word order, AND sentence structure when paraphrasing.
  - Use all your own words when summarizing.

- **Use quotation marks around any unique words or phrases** you take from an author.

- **Correctly cite the source** whenever you use any source material, including other people's opinions, not just facts and examples.

- **When your paper is finished, compare your paper to your sources** to make sure that you didn’t unintentionally plagiarize the exact words of your sources.

- **Make sure every source cited in your paper is on your Reference page, and every source on your Reference page is in your paper.**

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### FIND THE PLAGIARISM

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

**Source:** U.S. Department of State. (2004). *Forests.*

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

**Students’ sentences**

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

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

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

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

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

F. 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 (Department of State, 2004).

**Plagiarism:** A-no quotation marks and citation, B-no quotation marks, E-no quotation marks, incomplete paraphrase (only changed some words).
...What is APA Style and Why Do I Have to Use It?

City University has adopted APA style as the standard style for coursework. 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. This makes it easier for you to present your papers and for readers to understand and find your research.

APA style has changed as ways of spreading information have changed, but it is still the style 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.

Paper Format

Your papers should follow a standard format unless your instructor has said otherwise. In general, City University's chosen format includes:

- **TITLE PAGE** with header; centered title; and your name, course number and name, instructor name, assignment, and date in the bottom right corner.
- **HEADER** with first words of the title and the page number on every page.
- **TEXT** double-spaced, aligned left, with Times New Roman 12-point font and one-inch margins on all sides. First line of every paragraph indented ½ inch (1.27cm).

If you don't know what these things mean or how to make them, read these directions:

**How to make the title page**
- Move the cursor to the center of the page.
- Align text “center.” In Microsoft Word, you can do this by clicking a box on the toolbar above your document. Or click on “Format.” When this menu appears, open “Paragraph.” Choose “centered” from the “Alignment” menu.
- Type the title, using capital letters for the first word and all important words. Do not use quotation marks or underlining.
- Move down until the cursor is about five spaces from the bottom of the page.
- Align the text “right” using the toolbar or the “Format/Paragraph/Alignment” step.
- Type the required information (first name then last name), hitting “enter” after each.

**How to make the header (top right of every page)**
- Do not write a separate header for every page on the first line of the text! This will ruin your format if you rewrite something or send your paper to someone.
- In Microsoft Word, click on “View.”
- When this menu appears, click on “Header and Footer.” A box will appear.
- Change the alignment to align right.
- Type the first few words of your title, capitalized as in your title.
- Look at the Header and Footer toolbox and find the box with the symbol #. Click on that box and it will automatically put your title and page number on each page.
- When you are done typing, click on “close” in the Header and Footer toolbox.

**How to format your text**
- Do not hit the enter key at the end of a line! Text automatically moves to the next line.
- Make these settings before you type. Or, if you do it afterwards, select your whole text (hold down the left button on the mouse and drag your cursor over the text, or hold down the “Control” and “A” buttons on the keyboard) before doing these things:
  - Click on “Format” in Microsoft Word.
  - When this menu comes on screen, open “Paragraph.”
  - Find “Line spacing” in the box and choose “double.”
  - Find “Alignment” in the box and choose “left.”
  - Find “Indent.” Under “special,” choose “first line.” Put .50” or 1.27cm after “By.”
On the toolbar, click on “Times New Roman” and “12”. Or click on “Format,” open “Character,” and look in “Font” to find the correct font and size.

**How to set the margins**
- Click on “File” and open “Page Setup.”
- Under “Margins,” set the margins at 1” or 2.54cm.
- Also check “Paper Size” in this box. It should be “A4.”

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**The Title**

Worry about the title after your paper is finished. A good title should
- Catch the readers' attention
- Identify the topic
- Give the main idea of your paper
- Be long enough to do those three things
- NOT give too much information
- NOT be a research question
- NOT be a sentence (especially the thesis)

**Common types of titles**
1. General Subject: Specific Focus of Paper.
   - Wonderdog: The Use of Golden Retrievers in Therapy
2. Name of General Subject: Phrase Renaming Subject.
   - Level 6: An Unnecessary Hell
3. General Subject plus Specific Prepositional Phrase.
   - The Firm from a Woman’s Viewpoint

---

**The Reference Page**

The reference page is a separate page at the end of your paper which lists all the sources you used in your paper.

*All sources used in your paper must be listed on the reference page, and all sources on the reference page must be cited in your paper.*

Without a reference page telling readers how to find your sources, readers may not trust your information. By giving them the complete and correct source information, you show that you have done research and are confident about your ideas. Following the APA reference page style ensures that you included the correct and complete information about your sources.

---

**Reference Page Format**

If APA style is followed correctly, *reference pages for all papers look the same!* These are the important features of a reference page:

- **Header** with first words of the title and the page number.
- **“References”** centered at the top of the page
- **Text** double-spaced, aligned left, with Times New Roman 12-point font and one-inch margins.
- **Hanging indent** – the first line is on the left margin and other lines are indented ½ inch.
- **Web addresses**, NOT underlined or colored, fill a line and then are divided after a slash (/) and before a period (.)

If you don’t know what these things mean or how to make them, read the directions here.
How to format a reference page

Header: Follow the directions on page 20.

Title: Type “References“ on the first line of the page. Do not use italics, quotation marks, underlining, or bold letters. Align the text “center” by clicking on the box on the toolbar or using “Format/Paragraph/Alignment.”

Margins: Before starting, go to “File/Page Setup/Margins” to set all margins at 1” or 2.54 cm. Also check “File/Page Setup/Paper Size” to make sure you are using “A4” paper. The text should be aligned “left”—go to “Format/Paragraph/Alignment” to do that. Do not “justify” the text (it should NOT be straight on the right margin).

Font: On the toolbar, choose “Times New Roman” and “12” before you start. Or use Format/Character/Font to specify the font.

Spacing: Set the spacing before you start typing; don’t just hit “Enter” twice. Use “Format/Paragraph/Line spacing” in Microsoft Word to make everything double-spaced.

Hanging Indent: Do this before starting. Click on “Format” and open “Paragraph.” Under “Indents and Spacing,” there is a part called “Indentation.” Look at the “Special” menu and choose “hanging” by 1.27 cm or .50“. This will make the first line of the source stay on the left margin and indent the following lines (like this).

Lines: Fill each line as much as possible; if an Internet address is too long to fit on one line, add a space to divide the address, but only after a slash (/) or before a period (.). Do not divide addresses after a hyphen (-).

Order on a Reference Page (alphabetical)

The information about each source is called an “entry.” Each entry should begin with the author (last name of person or organization name). If there is no author, the entry begins with the title. The entries are listed in alphabetical order.

◆ List entries according to their first word (the author’s last name, organization name, or title).
◆ BUT do not count “a/an/the” when determining alphabetical order. Use the second word.
◆ If the same author has two entries, put the oldest first.
◆ If one author wrote one source alone and the other with someone, put the single one first.
◆ If the same author has two entries with the same date, use alphabetical order by title. Then put “a” after the year in the first entry, and “b” after the year in the second entry (and so on).

There is certain information that must be written for each type of source, and there is a certain way to do it for each type of source. It only requires following directions and can be done right.

1. **Evaluate your source.** Make sure it is a high-quality source appropriate for your paper.

2. **Determine exactly what kind of source it is.** If you are not sure, there are descriptions about each type of source on the following pages:

   **PRINT SOURCES**
   - BOOK..................................................................................................................24
   - CHAPTER IN AN EDITED BOOK........................................................................25
   - BROCHURE...................................................................................................25
   - PERIODICAL ARTICLE
     - NEWSPAPER........................................................................................26
     - MAGAZINE.............................................................................................26
     - JOURNAL.................................................................................................27

   **ONLINE DATABASE SOURCES**
   - PERIODICAL ARTICLE FROM ONLINE DATABASE................................................28

   **INTERNET SOURCES**
   - PERIODICAL ARTICLE ON THE INTERNET
     - PRINT PERIODICAL............................................................................29
     - INTERNET-ONLY PERIODICAL..........................................................30
   - STAND-ALONE DOCUMENT........................................................................30
   - DOCUMENT ON COMPLEX WEB SITE (AUTHOR/HOST DIFFERENT).....................31
   - CHAPTER/SECTION FROM LARGE DOCUMENT.............................................32
   - MESSAGE POSTED TO NEWSGROUP, FORUM, DISCUSSION GROUP....................32

   **AUDIOVISUAL SOURCES**
   - RECORDING (CD, RECORD, CASSETTE)..................................................................32
   - MOVIE, VIDEO, DVD......................................................................................33
   - TELEVISION BROADCAST OR SERIES..................................................................33
   - SINGLE EPISODE OF TELEVISION SERIES.......................................................34

   **ELECTRONIC SOURCES**
   - CD-ROM, COMPUTER SOFTWARE OR PROGRAM...............................................34

   **PERSONAL COMMUNICATION**
   - INTERVIEW, EMAIL, PHONE CALL, CLASS LECTURE...........................................34

3. **Find the basic form for the source** on the page numbers above.

4. **Follow the basic form to make your source entry.**
   - Find the required information in your source and write it exactly as in the basic form.
   - Punctuate, italicize, and capitalize exactly as in the basic form.
   - Put one space after periods and commas.
   - Do not underline anything.

5. **Look at the example entries under each basic form for more help.**

6. **Read “Frequently Asked Questions”** on pp. 35-36 for questions about authors, dates, titles, publishers, and Internet addresses.

7. **Compare your reference page to the example reference page** on p. 37.
Print Sources: Book

**Basic Form for a Book**

Author, A. A. (year of publication). *Title of book italicized: Notice where the capital letters are (edition number if available).* City of publisher: Publisher’s name.

- If the city isn’t well-known, include the US state abbreviation or country, like this: City, State: Publisher.
- If the author is also the publisher, use “Author” as publisher.

(1) **Book with one author**

Haberstroh, J. (1994). *Ice cube sex: The truth about subliminal advertising.* Notre Dame, IN: Cross Cultural Publications. [Notre Dame isn’t well-known, so put the state as well (IN for Indiana).]


(3) **Non-English book** Put title in original language. Then write an [English translation] in brackets.


(4) **Book with 2 authors** List authors as they appear on book. Separate by a comma and “&”.


(5) **Book with 3-6 authors** List authors as they appear on book. Separate by commas and “&” before last.


(6) **Book with a group author – organization** Write the full name. Do not use abbreviations!


(7) **Book with a group author – corporation (annual report)**


(8) **Book with an editor, no author** Put the editor first and then (Ed.). Use (Eds.) for more than one.

(9) **Book with no author/editor** If you are sure that there is no author or editor, put the title first.


(10) **Translated book** If a book was translated into English, start with author and publication date. Put the translator's name and Trans. after the title. The publication date of the original (in the other language) goes at the end.


[*The in-text citation will list two dates: (Meroy, 1959/1958).]

---

**Print Sources: Chapter from an Edited Book**

A chapter from a book in which each chapter has its own author and the book has an editor.

---

**Basic Form for a Chapter from an Edited Book**

Author, A. A. (year of publication). Title of chapter. In E. E. Editor (Ed.), _Title of book_ italicized: Notice where the capital letters are (pp. #-#). City of publisher: Publisher’s name.

- Author is the chapter author.
- Editor’s name is written first initials then last name.
- “Ed.” is editor. “Eds.” is more than one editor.
- Page numbers (pp.) are for the chapter.

(11) **Chapter in an edited book with one editor**


(12) **Chapter in an edited book with 2 editors**


---

**Print Sources: Brochure**

A brochure is a small printed pamphlet or booklet.

---

**Basic Form for a Brochure**

Author, A. A. (year of publication). _Title of brochure italicized: Notice where the capital letters are_ [Brochure]. City of publication: Publisher name.

- If author is also publisher, use “Author” as publisher.
(13) **Brochure**


---

**Print Sources: Periodicals: Newspaper Article**

A periodical is a printed document which is published regularly (periodically).

---

**Basic Form for a Newspaper Article**

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

- Capitalize and italicize the newspaper's name.
- Use “p.” for one page and “pp.” for more than one page.

---

(14) **Newspaper article, one author**


(15) **Newspaper article on more than one page** Write all pages, using pp.


(16) **Newspaper article with no author** Begin with the title. Don’t start with the newspaper name!


(17) **Non-English newspaper article** Translate the [Article title]. Do not translate the newspaper name.


(18) **Non-English newspaper article, no author**


---

**Print Sources: Periodicals: Magazine Article**

---

**Basic Form for a Magazine Article**

Author, A. A. (Year, Month day). Title of article: Subtitle too with only first words capitalized. *Magazine Name Capitalized, volume number if available, ##-##*.

- Capitalize and italicize the magazine name.
- Find volume number on the cover or contents page.
- Do not use “p.” or “pp.” Write the numbers only.
- Italicize the volume number after the title.
(19) Magazine article with one author

(20) Magazine article with two authors

(21) Magazine article with no author  Start with the title. Do NOT start with the magazine name.

(22) Non-English magazine article  Write the non-English title and translate it, but not the magazine name.

(23) Magazine article (special part)  For a special kind of article, write it in [brackets] after the title.

Print Sources: Periodicals: Journal Article

These periodicals specialize in one topic and contain articles and research by experts. They usually contain “journal” in their titles, are very thick, and come out a few times a year.

| Basic Form for a Journal Article |
| Author, A. A. (Year). Title of article: Subtitle too with only first words capitalized. Name of Journal Capitalized, volume number (issue number if necessary), #.#.#. |
| - Same as a magazine except for the date – just write the year. Put the volume number if page numbers for journal continue throughout the year. BUT if the page numbers for each issue begin on page 1, put the issue number too. |

(24) Journal article with 2-6 authors

(25) Journal article (7 or more authors)  After 6 authors, write “et al.” which means “and others.”
(26) **Journal article with issue number** When the issue starts with page 1, include the issue number.


---

**Online Database Sources: Periodical Article**

Articles which you find using an online database, like those on the CU library web site. They could be newspaper, magazine, or journal articles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Form for a Periodical Article from an Online Database</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too. <em>Title of Periodical Capitalized, volume number (if available)</em>, page numbers of print version. Retrieved Month day, year, from XYZ database.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same as a print newspaper, magazine, or journal article, with the date you got it and the name of the database used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use “p.” and “pp.” for newspapers only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Remember the volume number for magazines and journals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(27) **Newspaper article from database**


(28) **Newspaper article from database, no author**


(29) **Magazine article from database**


(30) **Journal article from database**

Internet Sources: Article from Print Periodical

Articles from a print newspaper, magazine, or journal which you have found on the Internet.

**Basic Form for a Print Periodical Article on the Web**

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too without capitalization. *Title of Periodical Capitalized, volume number if possible, page numbers of print version if possible.*

Retrieved Month day, year, from http://web address

- Same as a print article BUT add retrieval date (the day you found it) and complete and exact Web address of article.
- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).
- If there is no author, start with the title of the article, not with the periodical name.

(31) Print newspaper article on Internet, one author


(32) Non-English print newspaper article on Internet, no author


(33) Print magazine article on Internet, one author


(34) Print magazine article on Internet, no author


(35) Print journal article on Internet, 7 authors

Internet Sources: Article from Internet-Only Periodical

An Internet-only periodical is a newspaper, magazine, journal, or other news service which only exists on the Internet (it is not printed). There is usually a current main page, which is updated monthly, weekly, daily, or even by the minute, and archives of older articles. General periodicals will have different sections (like magazines and newspapers) for sports, technology, education, etc.

**Basic Form for an Internet-Only Periodical Article**

Author, A. A. (Date). Title of article: Subtitle too without capitalization. *Title of Periodical*

*Capitalized, volume number (issue number). Retrieved Month day, year, from*

http://web address

- Same as other periodical articles, but there are no page numbers. Include the volume and issue numbers if available.
- Add the retrieval date (the day you found it) and the complete and exact Web address of the article.
- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).
- If there is no author, start with the title of the article, not with the periodical name.

**36) Internet-only periodical article, one author**


http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/health/760787.stm [No volume number.]

**37) Internet-only periodical article, no author**


Internet Sources: Stand-Alone Document

Non-periodical, individual documents on the Internet. Evaluate these very carefully before using them in your papers.

**Basic Form for an Internet Document**

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of document*. Retrieved Month day, year, from http://web address

- Add the retrieval date (the day you found it) and the complete and exact Web address of the document.
- If the document is more than one Web page, provide the address to its first page.
- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).
- If there is no individual author, look for an organization, agency, or sponsor to use as the author.
- If there is no author at all, start with the title.

**38) Internet document, one author**

(39) **Internet document, no author**  Start with the title.


(40) **Organization report on its own site**  If there is no individual author, the group is the author.


(41) **Government report on its own site**  If there is no individual author, the group is the author.


**Internet Sources: Document on Complex Web Site (Author/Host different)**

Documents which you find on a large, complex web site.
When the author is very different from the host (sponsoring organization, agency, university, business), you need to name the host in the retrieval information for the document.

**Basic Form for a Document from a Complex Web Site (with different author/host)**

**Author, A. A.** (Date). *Title of document*. Retrieved Month day, year, from Host Name Web site: http://web address of document

- Add the retrieval date (the day you found it) and the complete and exact Web address of the document.
- Write the full name of the host organization followed by the words “Web site:”
- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).

(42) **Document from a Complex Web Site with different author/host**


### Internet Sources: Chapter/Section from Large Internet Document

You used only part (a chapter or section) of a large document by one author on the Internet.

**Basic Form for a Chapter/Section from a Large Internet Document**


- Use “In” before the name of the complete document.
- Use “chap.” for chapter, or use “section” or “part” to describe the part which you used.
- Write the complete and exact address for the part which you used.
- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).

(43) **Chapter/Section from a Large Internet Document**


### Internet Sources: Message Posted to Newsgroup, Forum, Discussion Group

**Basic Form for a Posted Message**

Author, A. A. (Date). Message title [Msg. #]. Message posted to web address of group

- If the address is too long for one line, divide it ONLY AFTER A SLASH (/) OR BEFORE A PERIOD (.).
- Use the author’s real name if possible. - Do not italicize anything.

(44) **Posted message**


### Audiovisual Sources: Audio Recording (CD, Record, Cassette)

**Basic Form for an Audio Recording**

Songwriter, S. (Year). Title of song [Recorded by Full Name of Artist]. On *Title of album* [CD or Record or Cassette]. Location: Label.

- If the singer and songwriter are different, write the name of the singer in brackets after “Recorded by”
(45) Audio Recording, one singer/songwriter

(46) Audio Recording, different singer/songwriter

**Audiovisual Sources: Movie, Video, DVD**

**Basic Form for a Movie, Video, or DVD**
Producer, P. P. (Producer), & Director, D. D. (Director). (Year). *Title of movie with first word capitalized* [Motion picture]. Country: Studio or distributor.
- Name both the producer and director.
- Use the country where the movie was mostly made and released.

(47) Movie, one producer

(48) Movie, multiple producers and director

(49) Non-English movie Write the non-English title and then translate it.

**Audiovisual Sources: Television Broadcast or Series**
A TV broadcast is an individual offering on TV, like the news or a one-time program. A TV series is a program on TV (or from TV but now on video) with more than one part.

**Basic Form for a Television Broadcast or Series**
Producer, P. P. (Producer). (Date of broadcast or copyright). *Title of broadcast or series* [Television broadcast or Television series]. City: Studio or distributor.
- Use the date you watched the broadcast. Use the copyright date of the series.
- Find the city of the studio or distributor.
(50) Television broadcast


(51) Television series


Audiovisual Sources: One Episode of a Television Series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Form for an Episode of a Television Series</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Author, A. A. (Writer), &amp; Director, D. D. (Director). (Year). Title of episode</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Television series episode]. In P. Producer (Producer), <em>Title of television series</em> [chap. # or part # if available]. City: Studio or distributor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(52) Episode of a TV Series


Electronic Media Sources: CD-ROM, Computer Software and Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Form for Electronic Media</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Creator, C. (Year). Title of work [Type of media]. City: Producer.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Type of media could be CD ROM, Computer Software, or Computer Program.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(53) Computer software, group author


(54) CD-ROM, no author (encyclopedia article)


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

These sources do not go on the reference page. Use the in-text citation guidelines.
FAQs about the Reference Page

AUTHOR QUESTIONS

- What if there is no author?
  First decide if an organization, agency, or corporation is the author (a periodical is not). If not, then put the title first. See examples 9, 16, 18, 21, 28, 32, 34, 37, 39, 54.
  Title. (date).

- What if there is a group author (organization, government agency, or corporation)? Write the name of the group as the author. Write the full name (United Nations Development Program), not initials (UNDP). See examples 6, 7, 13, 40, 41, 43, 53.

- 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:
  Author, A. A., Jr.

- What if there are 2 authors?
  Write them in the order they appear in the source, with a comma and & between them. See examples 3, 4, 20, 24, 46, 51.
  Author, A. A., & Author, B. B.

- What if there are 3-6 authors?
  Write them in the order they appear in the source, with a comma between each author and “&” before the last one. See examples 5, 48.
  Author, A., Author, B. B., & Author, C.

- What if there are 7 or more authors?
  Write down the first six authors in the right order, with a comma between each author, and after the last one, write “et al.” (which means “and others.”). See examples 25, 35.

DATE QUESTION

- What if there is no date?
  If you can’t find one, then write “n.d.” (“no date”). See examples 40, 43.
  Author, A. (n.d.).

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]. Don’t translate the names of periodicals. See examples 3, 17, 18, 22, 32, 49.

- Which words do I Capitalize?
  Capitalize the first word of the title, the first word of the subtitle, and proper nouns (words that are always capitalized). BUT capitalize all major words in periodical names.
  Title of document: Subtitle too. Capitalized Name of Periodical.

- Which words do I italicize?
  Italicize titles of books, brochures, Internet documents, audiovisual sources, and electronic media. Italicize names of periodicals and their volume numbers. Something in each entry will always be italicized! (except posted messages (44))
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?
  If the city is not well-known. Use a state abbreviation for strange US cities, use a province for weird Canadian cities, and use the country name for not well-known international cities. See examples 1, 3, 4, 5, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54.

◆ What if the author and publisher are the same?
  Don’t repeat the author’s name. Write “Author” for the publisher. See examples 6, 7, 53.

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

PAGE NUMBER QUESTIONS

◆ When do I need to write down page numbers on the reference list?
  For articles in print periodicals (found on paper, database, or Internet) and chapters in books.

  ➢ When do I use “p.” and “pp.” on the reference page?
    Only use p. and pp. for newspapers and chapters in books. See examples 11, 12, 14-18, 27, 28, 31, 35.

WEB ADDRESS QUESTIONS

◆ When do I have to write down the address?
  For all documents found on the Internet, except articles from online databases. Write the address that leads the reader straight to the document – not the home page.

◆ What if my computer automatically underlines and colors my address?
  Stop it! Put the cursor on the address, right click on the mouse, and choose “Remove hyperlink.”

◆ 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 and divide the address after a slash (/) or before a period (.). See below and see examples 31, 34, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 44.


References


An in-text citation is a short entry in parentheses which you will put in your text directly after you use something (paraphrase, summary, or quote) from a source.

- It usually contains the author (last name only!) and the year of the source.
  
  This is information from the source (Author, year).

- Direct quotations also require a page number. Use p. for one page and pp. for more than one.
  
  This is a “quotation from the source” (Author, year, p. #).

- If you use the author's name in your text, the in-text citation includes the year and comes directly after the author's name.
  
  Author (year) wrote a lot of interesting things.

- If you use the author's name in your text and a direct quotation, the page number comes after the quotation.
  
  Author (year) said “this quotation” (p. #).
  
  Author (year) said “this quotation” (p. #), which is very significant to this topic.

- If someone who is not the author says the quotation, then the complete in-text citation comes after the quotation.
  
  Speaker of the quotation said, “I said this in the article” (Author, year, p. #).

- If your source cites another work (a book, study, article), then name that work’s author in your text. The in-text citation will say “as cited in” and your source.
  
  John Researcher's study discovered this (as cited in Author, year).

- If there is no author, the in-text citation contains the shortened title of the source. See the guide for more examples.
  
  This is information from a source with no author (“Title,” year OR Title, year).

- If there is no date, put n.d. in the in-text citation.
  
  This is information from a source with no date (Author, n.d.).

- If there is no page number on Internet documents, don't create your own and don't use page numbers created by your computer or printer. If the document has numbered paragraphs, use those. If there are no numbered paragraphs, don’t worry about numbers for short documents. For long documents, write the name of the heading and the number of the paragraph under it (count them) where the quotation can be found.
  
  Author (year) said “this quotation” (para. #).
  
  Author (year) said “this quotation” (Heading name, para. #2).
### In-Text Citation Guide

These pages contain examples of in-text citations in the following situations:

1) one author  
2) organization/corporation/group author  
3) two authors  
4) 3-5 authors  
5) 6 or more authors  
6) no author  
7) no page/para number (Internet document)  
8) personal communication  
9) same information in 2 or more sources  
10) another work cited in the source  
11) 2 works by the same author in the same year  
12) 2 works by different authors with same name

---

1) **Work with one author** – (Author's last name, year).
   
   For quotation – (Author's last name, year, p. #).


   **In-text citation:**
   
   Books are no longer expressions of authors' insights on life (*Tumultuous, 2003*). *OR*
   
   Tumultuous (2003) believes that books are no longer expressions of authors' insights on life.

2) **Work with organization/corporation/group author** – (Organization, year).
   
   For quotation – (Organization, year, p. #).

   If the organization has an abbreviated name, write the full name in the first citation with the abbreviation in brackets: (Organization [Abbreviation], year). Later, use the abbreviation only. Don't make up the abbreviation if the organization does not use one.


   **First in-text citation:**
   
   In 2000, only 12 schools for girls existed in the country (*Rights of Women [ROW], 2001*). *OR*
   

   **All further in-text citations:**
   
   Parents in Kaban were afraid to let their girls leave their houses to go to school (ROW, 2001).

3) **Work with 2 authors** – (Last name & Last name, year).
   
   For quotation – (Last name & Last name, year, p. #).


   **In-text citation:**
   
   In a recent California study, 75% of 25-year-olds said they often lied (*Notreal & Lying, 2003*). *OR*
   
   In a recent California study by Notreal and Lying (2003), 75% of 25-year-olds said they often lied.
4) Work with 3-5 authors – first: (Last name, Last name, & Last name, year). All authors then: (Last name et al., year). et al. means “and others” For quotation – (Last name, Last name, & Last name, year, p. #).


First in-text citation:
92% of 500 MBA graduates like chocolate (Baker, Singer, Grocer, & Butcher, 2003). OR

Baker, Singer, Grocer, and Butcher (2003) found that 92% of MBA graduates like chocolate.

All further in-text citations:
Research shows that “MBA graduates especially enjoy Mars bars” (Baker et al., 2003, p. 245). OR

Baker et al. (2003) reported that “MBA graduates especially enjoy Mars bars” (p. 245).

5) Work with 6 or more authors – (Last name of first author et al., year).
For quotation – (Last name of first author et al., year, p. #).


In-text citation:
Marilyn Keyes broke five fingers in her conflict with a toaster (Shoulder et al., 2003). OR

As Shoulder et al. (2003) stated, Marilyn Keyes broke five fingers in her conflict with a toaster.

6) Work with no author – 2 WAYS! LOOK at #1 and #2!

1. If title of an article or chapter – (“Shortened title,” year).
For quotation – (“Shortened title,” year, p. #).


In-text citation:
The majority of pirates never got rich but instead died young at sea (“Following the path,” 2003).

2. If title of a web page, book, or brochure – (Italicized shortened title, year).
For quotation – (Italicized shortened title, year, p. #).


In-text citation:
The team thought it would die after losing its food in the snow (Interview with members, 2002).
7) Long Internet document with no page/paragraph numbers – (Last name, year).
   For quotation – (Last name, year, Heading name, para. #)

If the document is long and has headings, cite the heading above the quotation and count the paragraphs to find the number of the paragraph where the quotation is.


In-text citation: [This quote was in the fifth paragraph under the heading “Contraceptive education.”] Notreal and Lying (2003) note, “More teens are becoming aware of contraceptive choices, which underlies the need for comprehensive sex education” (Contraceptive education section, para. 5).

8) Personal communication: email, letter, interview, phone call
   (first initial. Last name, personal communication, Month day, year)

NO REFERENCE ENTRY. Personal communication does not go on the Reference page because there is no way for the reader to find the information.

In-text citation: The APA style is confusing (J. Dunlop, personal communication, October 10, 2003). OR In Jim Dunlop's view, the APA style is confusing (personal communication, October 10, 2003).

9) Same information in two or more sources – (Last name, year; Last name, year).

2 or more sources gave the same idea or information, so the in-text citation must include all those sources from the Reference page. Put the sources in the in-text citation in the order from the Reference page. Use semi-colons between them.

Smith, B. (2003, March 6). In the end, it's an addiction. Food Times, p. 2.

In-text citation: Studies proved that chocolate is addictive (Marks & Samson, 2001; Smith, 2003; Zellers, 2001).

10) Another work cited in the source – (as cited in Last name, year).
   For quotation – (as cited in Last name, year, p. #).

If the source cites another author's published work, name that author in your text. The in-text citation will say “as cited in” followed by the author of your source.


In-text citation: In their book about snack foods, Chip and Kandi determined that packaging plays a huge role in the foods' popularity (as cited in Marks & Samson, 2001). [Marks and Samson used Chip and Kandi as a source.]
11) Two works by the same author in the same year – (Author, yearX).
For quotation – (Author, yearX, p. #).

Use a, b, c after the year on the reference page and in the in-text citations to mark the
different works by the same author in the same year.

Jones, B. (2003a, March). Intelligence is hard to judge. Sonar, 21, 45-60.
Jones, B. (2003b). Kicking and screaming all the way to school: The lack of motivation among
profjones/motivation.html

In-text citations:
Girls are smarter than boys (Jones, 2003a).
Only 21% of American elementary school students know how to tie their shoes (Jones, 2003b).

12) Two works by two authors with the same name – (First initial, Last name, year).
For quotation – (First initial, Last name, year, p. #).


In-text citations:
Five professional cyclists were suspended for steroid use in 2001 (H. Parker, 2002).
The lack of oxygen at high altitude is the biggest danger of cycling in the Alps (L. Parker, 2003).

IN-TEXT CITATIONS REPEAT WHAT IS FIRST IN THE REFERENCE ENTRY
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### Research Paper Checklist

#### CLEAR OBJECTIVE, THESIS, AND FOCUS

- ____ Thesis is clear and easy to find
- ____ Thesis answers research question
- ____ Clear point of view
- ____ Purpose of paper is clear
- ____ Every paragraph supports thesis
- ____ Paper proves the thesis

#### DEVELOPMENT

**Organization/Cohesion**

- ____ Clear, logical order of paragraphs
- ____ Connection between paragraphs
- ____ Information/ideas in right paragraph
- ____ Information/ideas organized in paragraphs
- ____ Each paragraph argues only one point
- ____ Clear introduction, body, conclusion
- ____ Topic sentences in every paragraph
- ____ All ideas relate to those before and after

**Introduction**

- ____ Hook sentence(s) catches attention
- ____ Enough background information about topic
- ____ Thesis statement
- ____ Reader knows what this paper will do
- ____ Writer’s point of view is clear

**Body Paragraphs**

- ____ Strong, convincing points
- ____ Opposing side included and minimized
- ____ Arguments, analysis logical
- ____ Topic sentences with one idea
- ____ Topic sentences relate to thesis
- ____ Topic sentences have point of view
- ____ Sufficient support in each paragraph
- ____ Use of examples to support points
- ____ Use of specific details to support points
- ____ Source information is integrated
- ____ Support is explained/analyzed
- ____ Source information is appropriate
- ____ Each paragraph explains “why/how”
- ____ Each paragraph proves thesis statement
- ____ Specific explanations
- ____ No repetition of ideas
- ____ No irrelevant ideas/information
- ____ Appropriate concluding sentences

**Conclusion**

- ____ Connects to last body paragraph
- ____ Emphasizes thesis idea
- ____ Summarizes the points of the paper
- ____ Not too much information
- ____ No new information
- ____ Shows that the topic is important
- ____ Reader says, “Wow, I’m glad I read this!”
- ____ Last sentence is not too unbelievable
- ____ Last sentence is not too sweet
- ____ Last sentence is not too general

#### DEPTH, APPROPRIATENESS, AND USE OF RESEARCH

**Use of Source Material**

- ____ Appropriate amount of source material
- ____ Paper has own ideas, not just sources'
- ____ Source material used to support ideas
- ____ Source material is introduced
- ____ Source material is explained
- ____ Few quotations (effective, special, necessary)
- ____ No long quotations
- ____ Speaker of quotations usually named
- ____ Special words from source in quotation marks
- ____ Quotations copied correctly

**Sources**

- ____ High-quality, current, relevant sources
- ____ Specific sources
- ____ Primary sources used
- ____ Variety of sources (authors, locations)
- ____ No heavy reliance on 1-2 sources
- ____ No lack of information

#### GRAMMAR, SPELLING, PUNCTUATION, CLARITY...

- ____ Paper was edited
- ____ Paper was proofread
- ____ Paper was proofread again
FORMAT

Title page
- Header in top right corner with first few words of title and the page number
- Title of paper centered; each important word capitalized
- 1-inch (2.54 cm) margins on all sides
- Student name, course number/name, instructor name, assignment, date in bottom right corner.

Header
- Created using “Header” option (not typed separately at the top of every page)
- First few words of title, capitalized like title
- Page number
- In top right corner of EVERY page

Text
- Exact length required by instructor
- Double-spaced
- Aligned left; right margin not justified
- Times New Roman 12-point font (or another, instructor-approved font)
- 1-inch (2.54 cm) margins on all sides
- First line of every paragraph indented ½ inch (1.27 cm)

Reference Page
- Double-spaced
- Aligned left; right margin not justified
- Same font as paper, no underlining or colors
- 1-inch (2.54 cm) margins on all sides
- Hanging indent (each entry starts on left margin; following lines indented ½ inch (1.27 cm)
- “References” centered at top of page
- Addresses fill lines and then are divided after a slash (/) and before a period (.)

APA REFERENCE METHODS

Reference Page
- All sources on reference page are cited in paper
- Entries are in alphabetical order (not counting “the” and “a/an”)
- Each entry follows the basic form given in this guide
- Each entry begins with author’s name (individual or group) Author. (Date). Title: Subtitle too
- Entry begins with title if there is really no author
- Italics in each entry (title of book, periodical, or web document)
- Periodical is named if article came from periodical.
- Capitalized proper nouns, first words of title and subtitle, and periodical names only.
- Internet documents have retrieval date (Retrieved Month day, year from)
- Source information is complete (not missing author, date, title, address…)
- Source information is correct (author, date, title, address)
- Web addresses work (TRY TO OPEN THEM!)

In-Text Citations
- All sources in in-text citations are on reference page
- Each citation follows the form given in this guide
- Citation is (Author, year) or (Title or “Title,” year) depending on what is first on the reference page
- Citation appears directly after information from source
- If author’s name used in text, it is followed by the year. Author (year)
- Period, comma after citation
- Citation includes page numbers of quotations
- Correct punctuation with “quotations”
- Paragraphs do NOT end with in-text citations
Birth Control Pills:
A Safe Choice for Women

Gabriela Zurikova
IEP 060 – Writing VI
Anne Whitaker
Research Paper
August 30, 2004
Janka (24) bought a pregnancy test and now is waiting for the results, which makes her nervous. One second may change her whole life, and she could become the mother of an unwanted child. To avoid this stressful situation, it was only necessary to have used a 43-year-old method of birth control – the birth control pill – once a day. It has been taken by approximately 80% of American women today (Okie, 2002), and its effectiveness is over 99% if used correctly (Planned Parenthood, 2003). However, some women still fear that taking the birth control pill could harm their health. In fact, the pill’s composition provides advantages to women, including prevention of ovarian cancer. Moreover, there is no connection between the pill and breast cancer, and its usage is possible during breastfeeding too. Although there are also a few disadvantages to its use, the birth control pill is safe for women.

Birth control pills contain nothing harmful to women’s health. This oral contraception is divided into two groups. First are combination pills including estrogen and progestin (synthetic progesterone) hormones like those produced in the ovaries, and second are progestin-only-pills (Planned Parenthood, 2003). So they contain the same hormones as women’s bodies produce. Estrogen is a hormone which makes the evolution of the uterus more active when a women’s body becomes sexually mature. It also makes the endometrium (the uterus walls) thicker at the beginning of the menstrual cycle. Then, the endometrium is ready to accept the egg with the help of progesterone, which is made in the second part of the menstrual cycle (National Cancer Institute, 2003). Both combination and progestin-only pills give women the right amount of these hormones so that they cannot get pregnant. Estrogen in combination pills stops the ovaries from producing eggs, while progestin-only pills “thicken cervical mucus” to stop the fertilization of eggs (Planned Parenthood, 2000, Basics section, para. 2). These hormones are included in birth control pills because they are natural to the body. They “fool the body into acting as if it's pregnant” (Alice, 1998), but they do not damage the body. So, progesterone and estrogen used in oral contraceptives are safe.

Another fact is that taking birth control pills has a lot of benefits for females’ health condition. Not just young 18-year-old girls, but also 30-year-old women use the pill not only to avoid unwanted pregnancies, but to improve the condition of their skin as well. And they are right because according to Dr. Marjorie Greenfield (2004b), compared with non-pill users, users of birth control...
Birth Control Pills 3

Birth Control Pills 3

pills not only have fewer problems with acne, but also with ovarian cysts, anemia and “excess” hair on the face and body. Moreover, usually 14- to 20-year-old girls have painful menstruation for the first two days every month, but birth control pills are the solution. Women have lighter menstruations and do not suffer from such terrible stomach cramps when they use the pill (Planned Parenthood, 2003). That means that the pill help girls and women enjoy their lives, go out with friends, or exercise instead of staying in bed because of pain. In summary, these examples show that birth control pills have a beneficial influence on women’s health and lives.

Despite these advantages of using contraceptive pills, there is a myth that their use causes ovarian cancer. In fact, the deaths of females from this cancer are not connected with birth control pills at all; on the contrary, birth control pills are successful in fighting against it. The effect of birth control pills on the ovary is interesting. Scientists from the Duke Comprehensive Cancer Center found that progestin from the pill led to “increased cell turnover in the ovarian epithelium, indicating that progestin might lower ovarian cancer risk by activating cancer-preventative molecular pathways in the ovary” (“Oral contraceptives,” 2002). If cell turnover in the ovary is higher, then cells that may become cancerous are destroyed earlier and faster, due to the effects of progestin from birth control pills. In fact, another study at Duke showed that women who took pills with more progestin had a lower risk of ovarian cancer than women who took pills with more estrogen; however, all women who took birth control pills had a lower risk of ovarian cancer than other women (“Oral contraceptives,” 2002). So birth control pills, especially progestin-only ones, are effective in fighting against ovarian cancer. According to Dr. Greenfield (2004b), the effectiveness of these pills is so great that some doctors now advise women to take the pill for five years just because of its benefits in preventing ovarian cancer. So it is obvious that birth control pills neither increase the danger of cancer of the ovaries nor damage their functioning, so the myth should be forgotten. In actuality, the longer women use this form of birth control, the bigger the protection against ovarian cancer they have. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and Harvard Medical School studies found that women who used the pill for one year had a 10-12% less chance of getting ovarian cancer, while women decrease the risk of getting the cancer by 50% if they use the pill for no less than five years. This protection lasts even after women stop using the pill (National Cancer Institute, 2003). Thus,
long use of pills is not a bad decision because it not only protects against unwanted pregnancy, it also helps to prevent cancer for a long time in the future. So, especially women whose mothers or grandmothers had ovarian cancer are protecting themselves in the right way by taking birth control pills.

Another claim is that birth control pills may cause breast cancer, which is a blunder. The truth is that not only 20- to 30-year-old women, but also women in their 40s, 50s and 60s do not have a higher chance of getting breast cancer just because they used oral contraceptives. According to a study in *The New England Journal of Medicine* called the Women's Contraceptive and Reproductive Experience study, of 9,200 women between 35 to 64, where half of them had a breast cancer diagnosis, there was no evidence of increased breast cancer risk if a woman had used birth control pills (as cited in National Cancer Institute, 2003). So, especially women in their 40s and 50s, who are at risk of getting breast cancer because of their age, do not have to be afraid of taking the pill because it does not affect this condition. There is also another interesting fact about women with a history of breast cancer in their families. The study showed that women with breast cancer in their families did not have a higher risk if they took the pill (as cited in Okie, 2002). So, women having breast cancer in the past are free to use the pill as well as healthy women. They could also use the pill for two, five, or ten years without worrying. There is no higher risk of breast cancer due to time of usage, race, or even weight (as cited in Okie, 2002). So almost all women can safely use the pills for weeks, months or years. In conclusion, there is no connection between breast cancer and using the birth control pill.

It is also remarkable that it is possible to use the pill during lactation as well. Women breastfeeding their infants also need to use birth control to avoid pregnancies, and hormonal oral contraceptives, especially progestin-only-pills, are one of the safe options. In comparison with combination pills, they are better to use because they do not contain estrogen, which could reduce the amount of mother’s milk. But the most important point is that they do not affect the child’s health at all (Sears & Sears, n.d.). So, women do not have to stop either taking the pill or breastfeeding their babies. Furthermore, combination oral contraceptives are also approved to use. These pills may be used when the milk is well produced, which is six months after birth (Greenfield, 2004a). That means that when the mother’s body is accustomed to breastfeeding, it is possible and safe to use both kinds

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**Note:** Text is not in Times New Roman 12 font in order to save space.
of oral contraceptives without worrying about the baby or mother’s health. In short, the birth control pill could be used during lactation with no danger to the child.

Although the use of oral contraception has all these benefits, there are also a few disadvantages. For instance, a woman taking the pill for the first time may have terrible headaches and feel sick. She may experience bleeding during the month as well. These are typical side effects of oral contraceptives, but they usually disappear in three months (Planned Parenthood, 2003). Those changes are caused because of progestin and estrogen’s influence on the body, but the bad effects soon vanish. If the effects do not disappear, a doctor can help women to choose another kind of birth control pill. However, the one group in danger while taking birth control pills are smokers over 35. This combination is risky because these women have a higher risk of heart attacks (Okie, 2002). Here, smoking is the bad habit which endangers women, not the pill. In general, birth control pills benefit women's health much more than they hurt.

Using oral contraceptives is a safe solution to avoiding unwanted pregnancies. They contain hormones which do not confuse the system of women’s bodies and bring health benefits into their lives. The pill is especially successful in the prevention of ovarian cancer; moreover, there is no danger connected with breast cancer. Taking birth control pills is also safe for women breastfeeding their babies; on the other hand, there are a few side effects and risk groups who should be careful. However, oral contraceptives should not be a symbol of jeopardy, but a symbol of women’s freedom and choice.
References


NOTE: Due to the topic, the writer needed a lot of research to support her ideas. Other, less scientific topics, will require less source information and more of your own ideas.
Bibliography


