



## INTRODUCTION TO THE APA

and

## OTHER WRITING TIPS

for

## GRADUATE STUDENTS

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**This booklet is not written in APA style.**

### *About This Booklet*

This booklet was compiled in response to student and faculty requests for an introduction to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, better known as "the APA manual."

The booklet is not intended to replace the APA manual, but rather to help you interpret it and to call your attention to some of its most important features. In addition, the booklet provides information to supplement the APA, such as word processing instructions and writing tips.

In this booklet you will find an introduction to the Saint Mary's University Writing Center on the Twin Cities campus, a free service to help you develop your writing skills. I hope you'll take advantage of the support the Writing Center offers.

*Please note that this booklet is not formatted in APA style.* I have used APA style where possible, but APA was designed for academic papers, not "how-to" manuals. Consequently, you will see many departures from APA style and formatting.

If you want to suggest ways to make the booklet more helpful, I would appreciate hearing from you. You can reach the Writing Center through the contact information on the last page.

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Director, Twin Cities Writing Center  
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These symbols used throughout the booklet indicates a frequently-asked question ( ? ) or an especially helpful tip ( ★ ).

Numbers in brackets indicate relevant page numbers or section numbers of the APA manual.

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## WHAT IS APA?

APA is not a government agency, a Swedish rock band, an oil cartel, a test ban treaty, a sexually transmitted disease, a sports drink, a hair gel, or a California spiritualist movement. APA stands for “American Psychological Association.” Outside the field of psychology, “APA” is shorthand for the writing style manual published by the APA: *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*.

### What is a style manual and who needs one?

*The New York Times* has a journalistic style manual that each of its editors and writers must follow religiously so that folks who read the *Times* find consistency in its presentation of news. Smaller newspapers adopt *The New York Times* style or that of another journalistic stylebook such as *The Los Angeles Times* or the Columbia School of Journalism. Style manuals ensure that a newspaper’s writers are working from the same page, so to speak.

Just as newspapers require consistency of style, so do academic disciplines. English, foreign language, and linguistic professionals use the MLA (Modern Language Association); other humanities professionals use *Chicago Manual of Style*. Medical professionals use the *American Medical Association Manual of Style*, of course. Psychologists and others in the human behavioral sciences—including educators—have adopted the APA as their guide.

### Why so many guides? Why can’t everyone use the same one?

The research and writing for one academic discipline may require a style that does not meet the needs of other disciplines or professions. You can understand how a professor of French literature, for example, might require a set of stylistic guidelines different from those of a chemist or neurosurgeon.

Saint Mary’s University has adopted the APA as the official style manual for its School of Graduate and Professional Studies. (SMU medical students use the AMA.) Use of the APA ensures that SMU students have a solid stylistic foundation for their academic and, later, their professional writing.

### What’s in the APA that I need to know?

- The APA manual is a guide to clear, concise writing in an academic or professional context. The section entitled “Linguistic Devices” (Chapter 2) is an excellent guide to getting ideas across effectively and objectively. “Strategies to Improve Writing Style” (also Chapter 2) lays out the rules of grammar, punctuation, and usage *as they apply in your discipline*. No guesswork.
- The manual describes a research manuscript, section by section, in terms of content and organization, and format.
- The lengthy section on documentation style tells you how and when to cite dozens of reference types. It defines *plagiarism* and explains the difference between primary and secondary sources

## QUICK GUIDE to the APA MANUAL\*

*Bracketed numbers and decimals refer to APA page and section numbers.*

Listed below are parts of the manual that are essential to using the manual effectively. This is not to say the manual does not contain useful information not listed here, but writers new to the manual will find the sections below the best way to get started.

**Introduction: “Organization of the Fifth Edition” [xxiv].** Best overview of the manual.

### Chapter 2: Expressing Ideas and Reducing Bias in Language.

This rhetorical guide is the most overlooked part of the manual but the one most important to developing an effective academic writing style.

- [2.01]** Orderly Presentation of Ideas
- [2.02]** Smoothness of Expression
- [2.03]** Economy of Expression
- [2.04]** Precision and Clarity
- [2.05]** Strategies to Improve Writing Style
  - [40-60]** Grammar
  - [61-76]** Guidelines to Reduce Language Bias

### Chapter 3: Editorial Style

- **Reference Guide to Grammar, Punctuation, and Usage [77-130].** A good editorial guide for any writing.
- **In-Text Citations [207, 3.94].** Explains how to cite sources in the body of the paper. This section is an essential accompaniment to Chapter 4, but students often overlook it or find it difficult to locate when they need it.

### Chapter 4: References

- **Reference List Citations [215-232].** Gives the basic guidelines for construction of a reference list and each element of a reference list entry (author, pub date, titles, publisher information).
- **Index to Reference List Examples [232-236].** The examples are indexed by type of resource. Each listing gives the number of an example.
- **Index to Variations on Basic Elements [237-239].** This is an index of the same examples, but arranged by the elements of a reference list entry—author, titles, publisher—and by variations on those elements.

### Chapter 5: Sample Paper [306-320].

The model paper allows one to see what the parts of an APA paper actually look like on the page. Annotations lead to appropriate sections of the manual.

\* *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition



## BASIC FORMATTING FOR AN APA PAPER

Remember that individual programs at Saint Mary's sometimes have their own variations on APA style. Check for these variations.

### ALIGNMENT

Alignment is set at the left margin only for all text except title and title page. Lines should be even on the left margin, but ragged on the right margin like the text on this page.

### CHARACTER SPACING

Insert one space after every mark of punctuation.\* (Two spaces are acceptable after periods that end sentences, but be consistent throughout.)

\*Exceptions: No space inside quotation marks and parentheses. Note the following examples:

Byer advocated a “go-it-alone” position in the conflict.

Cole introduced the proposal (as recommended) and took a vote.

### FONT (TYPEFACE)

Use a clear, plain typeface in size 12. (The text you are reading is 8 pt). Do not use boldface, underline, or all capitals unless your instructor specifies these. Keep the font the same throughout the paper unless your instructor tells you otherwise. Select one of the following:

This is Times New Roman.

This is Bookman Old Style.

This is Century.

This is Courier.

### ★ HEADINGS

If your paper is lengthy and requires headings within it, format them in APA style. To begin, determine your headings, then type or write them on a sheet of scratch paper. It's much easier to format them correctly if you have them all together, without the text, to see how they relate to one another. Once you have determined how many levels of heading you need, then format them in the appropriate style. (See separate "Headings" section.)

### INDENTS

Indent the first sentence of each paragraph ½ inch (one tab space). All other lines of the paragraph wrap to the left margin, as in this paragraph. Indent blocked quotes (40 words or more) ½ inch on the left side only, including the first sentence.

### LINE SPACING

All lines are double-spaced throughout unless your instructor specifies otherwise. The first line of each page (except title page) begins at the top margin. Maintain a double space after headings and between paragraphs.

Use the *Format*, *Paragraph* commands to set double spacing at the beginning of the paper. Do not double space manually by pressing the Enter key twice.

### MARGINS

Set margin at 1 inch on all sides. Many word processors set the default margin at 1.25, so you may need to adjust the margins to 1 inch. (See "Using Microsoft Word for APA" in *Introduction to the APA & Other Writing Tips*.)

### PAGE NUMBERS

Place page numbers at the top right corner, ½ inch from the top (inside the header). *Never type page numbers manually.* The APA requires a header with the page number (though some instructors may not). For details about setting page numbers with headers, see the "Using MS Word for APA" section of *Introduction to the APA & Other Writing Tips*, and the APA manual itself.) Count the title page as page 1 of the document. ★

### Does APA require a page number on the title page? ?

Yes, the APA indicates a page number and header title on the title page (p. 288, sect. 5.06; pp. 296, 306, and 397); however, students should follow instructors' preferences.

### PAPER

Use 8-1/2" x 11" white paper. All papers are word-processed, one side only.

### TITLE PAGE

The title page in the APA manual is intended for the submission of a manuscript for publication and may not serve to identify college papers. If your program has not provided a model for a title page, use the example on the following page.

### May I start a sentence with an abbreviation? ?

Yes, according to the APA. Just don't use a lowercase abbreviation; you must use a capital. Section 3.29, p. 11, states,

Never begin a sentence with a lowercase abbreviation (e.g., lb) or a symbol that stands alone (e.g., α). Begin a sentence with a capitalized abbreviation or acronym (e.g., U.S. or APA) or with a symbol connected to a word (e.g., β-Endorphins) only when necessary to avoid indirect and awkward writing.

Attachment Disorder 1

Attachment Disorder: The Importance of Facial Expressions

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Saint Mary's University School of Graduate and Special Programs

PSY690 Early Childhood Development

May 16, 2004

## TITLE PAGE

(See example left)

The APA manual describes how to create a title page for a manuscript submitted for publication. That style of title page is not necessarily appropriate for student papers. If your program or your instructor give you a sample title page, use that. Otherwise use the model on the left.

The APA calls for a header and page number at the top right, ½ inch from the top edge of the paper. However, some instructors prefer that the header and page number not appear on the title page. (The format of this booklet did not allow for a page number and header on the sample title page.) Always *count* the title page as page one, even if you don't print a page number on it.

Set margins and font (size and type) on the title page to match the rest of paper. Do not use boldface, italic, or underline.



## PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is a very serious academic offence. A few students plagiarize in an attempt to cut corners or to cover academic deficiencies. Other students, unfortunately, plagiarize because they don't understand the concept of plagiarism and the methods for avoiding it. In either case, students are held accountable for their actions, and the penalty could be as severe as dismissal from the institution. Follow the rules of citation and documentation carefully, and make sure you understand what is meant by *paraphrasing*.

In APA style, a citation consists of author's last name and date of publication. A full citation appears on the References page.

Plagiarism is a very serious academic and ethical issue. Most universities impose penalties on students or staff who plagiarize, whether the plagiarism is deliberate or inadvertent.

### Avoiding Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the presentation of someone else's work as your own. If you use another author's words you must attribute the work to its original source (its author, composer, etc.).

- If you borrow an idea from, or directly quote from, another person's work, cite the source of that idea or quote.
- Phrases borrowed word-for-word from another author must be placed in quotation marks and followed by the page number from the original source.
- Cite a source even if you don't quote directly from it.
- Paraphrase with care. Inadequate paraphrasing can be another form of plagiarism, even with documentation provided.



For more tips on avoiding plagiarism, go to the Writing Center Web site from Saint Mary's University home page. From the home page, click Resources (top right) and find the Twin Cities Writing Center link.

## QUOTING AND PARAPHRASING

See the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5<sup>th</sup> ed., for details.

### Quoting

Avoid using direct quotes in your paper. They are problematic because (a) meaning can be altered when authors' words are taken out of context; (b) another author's writing style may not fit the writing style of your paper; (c) direct quotes give no indication that you understand the source, nor does it help the reader understand the source; (d) direct quotes can be distracting to the reader and break the flow of your paper.

It is not necessary to use any direct quotes in a paper. If used at all, quotes should be limited to the following:

- discussing the way an author expressed his or her ideas,
- presenting a controversial or disputed statement,
- conveying precise technical data or directions,
- rhetorical effect, to introduce or emphasize a point.

### Paraphrasing

Perhaps paraphrasing is best defined by what it is not. Changing or omitting a few words of another author's statements in order to avoid a direct quote is not paraphrasing; it is, to be blunt, a form of plagiarism. Readers are led to believe that you are presenting your understanding of another author's words, when in fact you are using that author's actual words (mostly). Paraphrasing requires that you express ideas in your own terms. Of course, you will use some of the same terminology as the original author. If you are writing about corporate downsizing, for example, you can't avoid that term. However, if you simply parrot the original author's sentence structure, style, and diction, then you are not paraphrasing.

Here's a strategy for paraphrasing: Read a section of the text you plan to reference, put the text aside, and write your own interpretation in your own words. If you can't do it, you need to reread the text for better understanding before you try again. Sometimes reading aloud is helpful.

Following is an example of how to, and how not to, paraphrase.

**The Original** (Source: Quincy, K. (1995). *Hmong: History of a people*. Cheney, WA: Eastern Washington University Press)

Vietnamese tradition wisely forbade the confiscation of land for the payment of debts, but the French ignored this tradition. A peasant's land was treated like any other real asset that could be seized for the payment of debts. Fearing the confiscation of their land for non-payment of taxes, many peasants turned to wealthy Vietnamese for loans (at interest rates that often exceeded 100% per annum) to meet their tax obligation in a futile attempt to stall off the inevitable. Slowly but surely Vietnam was transformed into a land of huge estates on which approximately seventy percent of the population toiled as sharecroppers. French tax policy was exploitative and shortsighted. Within two generations it created the social and economic conditions for revolution. (p. 114)

NOTES**Poor Paraphrase**

Vietnamese tradition did not allow the seizing of land for the payment of debts. The French, however ignored the tradition and treated land like any other asset. Fearing the loss of their property, many peasants went to wealthy Vietnamese for loans at high interest rates. Eventually, Vietnam was changed into a collection of huge estates, where nearly three-fourths of the people worked as sharecroppers. The tax policy of the French was unfair and misguided, and it set the stage for revolution (Quincy, 1995).

**Paraphrase, Second Look**

Take another look at the attempted paraphrase above. Here the words taken from the original source are italicized.

*Vietnamese tradition* did not allow *the seizing of land for the payment of debts*. *The French*, however *ignored the tradition* and treated land like any other asset. Fearing the loss *of their property*, *many peasants* went *to wealthy Vietnamese* for *loans at high interest rates*. Eventually, *Vietnam* was changed *into a collection of huge estates*, where nearly three-fourths *of the people* worked *as sharecroppers*. *The tax policy* of the French *was unfair and misguided*, and it set the stage *for revolution* (Quincy, 1995).

Most of this unacceptable "paraphrase" consists of identical words in the identical grammatical form of the original. Even if the paraphraser were to find synonyms for the original words, the passage would still be a plagiarism because the pattern of expression is the same. Now compare the paragraph above to an acceptable paraphrase below, in which the ideas are summarized and expressed in a new way.

**Paraphrase (one possibility)**

Quincy (1995) described how destitute Vietnamese peasants had to sell off their small landholdings to pay for heavy taxes imposed by the French. These plots of land were then consolidated into large estates on which the peasants had to work as sharecroppers. It was the "exploitative and shortsighted" French tax policies, Quincy concluded, that planted the seeds of political and economic revolution in Vietnam (p. 114).

If you believe that some of the author's key words ought to be retained (in this example, his words describing French tax policy), then quote only those words in your paraphrase; but provide a page number for the quoted words. If quoted words are included, the author's name should precede them the same. Now compare the paragraph above to the paraphrase below, in which the ideas are summarized and expressed in a new way.

# THE BASICS OF CITING SOURCES

See the *Publication Manual American Psychological Association*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, for details.  
See also "Special Citation Questions?"

## What is a Scholarly Source?

Sources consulted for scholarly papers generally

- have been reviewed by professional experts (peers, juries) in the field of study,
- contain content regarded as scholarly by professionals in the field,
- are archived (stored for availability) for a significant length of time.

The best way to limit your research to scholarly sources is to rely on professional or university databases, indexes, and catalogues. On the Internet, for example, search engines like Yahoo, Google, or Lycos yield a range of sources, from scholarly to downright silly. Aggregate databases [278] such as ProQuest, Psych Info, or ERIC are limited, for the most part, to scholarly sources that are adequately documented.



Ask a librarian to help you limit your searches to scholarly sources.

## Why Do We Cite Sources?

Why are we asked to use and cite scholarly sources in academic writing? There are three reasons, and understanding these help us determine what sources to cite and how to document them.

**Reason 1: Academic Ethics.** Honesty and fairness require us to let readers know whose ideas and words we have borrowed. We can't pass off someone else's work as our own. Simply changing a few words to avoid a direct quote doesn't remove our obligation to identify the source of an idea. No matter how it is worded, someone else's idea still needs to be identified as his or hers, not ours.

**Reason 2: Scholarly Credibility.** Even new research needs to be founded on, or related to, existing scholarly work. As writers, we must provide context for our ideas and establish credibility with our readers, indicating our familiarity with a solid body of knowledge about our topic. One way to do this is to relate what we are writing to what has been written before by experts in the field. Citations help identify those experts.

**Reason 3: Source Retrieval.** For various reasons, readers may want to view the sources we used in our writing, whether we used those sources for background or quoted them directly. Our responsibility as writers is to provide sufficient documentation in a systematic way so that readers can retrieve the information we used.

Reviewing the three reasons for documenting sources helps us decide what kinds of sources to cite, when to cite them, and how to provide documentation for retrieving them.

## Basic Guidelines

Keeping in mind the purpose of citing sources—ethics, credibility, and retrievability—apply the following principles:

- To retrieve a source, readers generally need to know the author, title, year of publication, and date of publication. For electronic resources, the reader needs at least an Internet address (URL or database name) and the date of retrieval. If too much retrieval information is missing, the writer must ask if the source is a reliable one.
- Use valid, scholarly sources. Aggregated databases like ERIC and ProQuest, available through university libraries, are efficient and reliable ways to access such sources. Writers can surf the Internet, but Internet sources are not screened the way university databases are, and Internet documentation information can be scarce.
- Writers should have a 1-to-1 correspondence between sources cited in the text and sources entered in the reference list at the end of the paper. (The only exception is personal communication, which is cited in text but does not appear in the reference list because it is not retrievable.)

## What to Include

For every entry in your reference list, provide the following four elements, to the best of your ability, in the following order

(a) author by last name & first initial, (b) publication year, (c) title information, and (d) publisher location and name

If the work is an Internet resource, give the full retrieval date and the URL or database as item (d).

## Sources are Cited in Two Places:

1. Cite in your text, by author's last name and year (in parentheses). The purpose of the text citation is to lead readers to the full citation on the reference page at the end of the text.
2. Cite on the reference page at the end of your document, where you will provide a full citation (see "Sample Reference Page"). The citations are listed in alphabetical order by author's last name.

See also "Primary and Secondary Sources" in this booklet.

## CITATIONS IN THE TEXT [207-217]

### Purpose of In-Text Citation

The purpose of the in-text citation is to lead readers to the correct alphabetized entry on the Reference page. The samples that follow illustrate variations on the same in-text citation.

Frazier and Paulson (1992) found that the portfolio method of assessment motivated reluctant writers.

The word *and* must be spelled out in running text, but the ampersand (&) is used inside parentheses.

In a later study (Frazier & Paulson, 1992) demonstrated that the portfolio method of assessment motivated reluctant writers

In a 1992 study, Frazier and Paulson noted that the portfolio method of assessment motivated reluctant writers.

### Varying the Citation Wording

Technically, you could write each citation the same way throughout the paper. However, the stylistic repetition sometimes gets monotonous for readers. Try varying the approach as in these examples:

1. According to Khali and Kozumi (2000), previous research failed to . . .
2. Stieglitz & Hernandez (2002) emphasized . . .
3. Several earlier studies (Willum, 1999; Wright & Formani, 1998; Gudmund, Farrar, McDermot, et al., 1996) were inconclusive . . .
4. Zarweit (1997) responded, "At no time were the subjects informed" (p. 92).
5. The failures, in Jordan's (2000) view, were caused by . . .
6. Czel (1979) defined *sensation seeking* as behavior that . . .
7. . . . but the results were inconclusive (Hammel, 2003).

### Avoid anthropomorphism (attributing human actions to non-humans nouns):

*Not:* A survey by Biggs and McCoy (2001) reported . . .

*But:* Biggs and McCoy (2001) reported . . .

Surveys, research, studies, and reports didn't *do* anything. Their authors did.

### May I cite page numbers for unquoted text?



Yes. The APA says the following:

When paraphrasing or referring to an idea contained in another work, authors are not required to provide a location reference (e.g. a page or paragraph number). Nevertheless, authors are encouraged to do so, especially when it would help an interested reader locate the relevant passage in a long or complex text (p. 121, sect. 3.39).

### Electronic Resources in Text: Page and Paragraph Numbers [APA 3.39]

Many electronic sources do not provide page numbers (unless they are PDF reproductions of printed materials). If paragraph numbers are visible, use them in place of page numbers. Use the symbol for *paragraph* (§) or the abbreviation *para.* (See examples below).

#### Example 1

As Myers (2000, ¶ 5) aptly phrased it, "positive emotions are both an end—better to live fulfilled, with joy—and a means to a more caring and healthy society."

If the online document does not contain page or paragraph numbers but does have headings, then include the heading (in shortened form) and count the paragraph from the heading under which it appears; for example, ("Innovations" section, para. 3)

#### Example 2

"The current system of managed care and the current approach to defining empirically supported treatments are shortsighted" (Beutler, 2000, Conclusion section, ¶ 1).

### Must I use page or paragraph numbers for Internet Quotations?



Not necessarily. Writers should strive to provide page or paragraph numbers whenever possible for Internet sources; however, note the following from the APA manual:

In some cases [of Internet citation], it may be necessary to omit a location reference altogether, such as when no page or paragraph numbers are visible and headings either are not provided or their use would prove unwieldy or confusing. In documents accessed with a Web browser, readers will be able to search for the quoted material. (p. 121, sect. 3.39)

## CITATIONS ON THE REFERENCE PAGE



The examples in this booklet are set at 1.5 pace and reduced type to conserve space, but the APA calls for double-spacing and 12 pt. throughout the text.

The reference list always begins on a new page. It contains an entry for each source cited in the paper, and *only* sources cited in the paper, listed in alphabetical order by author's last name. (The only exception is any personal communication of the writer, which is cited in the text but not in the reference list because it is not a retrievable source.) Entries are double-spaced within entries and between entries. Each entry is formatted in hanging indent (see instructions in the "MS Word for APA Tasks" section of this booklet).

You will encounter an endless variety of sources and countless variations in types of sources. The only way to ensure accuracy is to refer frequently to the APA manual [Chapter 4]. For other excellent illustrations of APA style, including a complete reference page, see the model paper [Figure 5.1] in the APA manual.

### Print Sources on the Reference Page

#### EXAMPLES

##### Book

Lazear, D. G. (1994). *Multiple intelligence approaches to assessment: Solving the assessment conundrum*. Tucson, AZ: Zephyr Press.

Book title is italicized but not capitalized except for first word, proper nouns, and first word following a colon. Citations always end with a period unless the last element is an Internet address.

##### Periodical Article with Two Authors

O'Flahaven, J. F., & Blassberg, R. (1992). Toward an embedded model of spelling instruction for emergent literates. *Language Arts*, 69, 409-417.

Ampersand (&) before last author. Article's title not italicized and not capitalized. Journal title both italicized and capitalized. Volume number follows title and comma, no parentheses.



**An issue number is needed only if each issue begins with page 1.** Issue number follows volume number without spaces, and is enclosed in parentheses as follows:

*Language Arts Teacher*, 23(6), 47-58.

##### Book, Publisher as Author

American Psychological Association. (1994). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Publisher's name replaces author. The word *Author* substitutes for the publisher's name.

Ministry of Education. (1992). *Dancing with the pen: The learner as a writer*. Wellington, New Zealand: Learning Media.

### Book, Chapter in a book. [APA pp. 252-253]

#### EXAMPLE 1: Unedited Book

##### **Reference List Entry:**

Author, X. (pub year). Title of chapter. In *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Pub location: Pub name.

**In-Text Citation:** Cite author and pub year, and page numbers if necessary.

#### EXAMPLE 2: Edited Book

If the book is *edited*, note editor's name in the reference list entry (but not in the text) as follows:

Author, X. (pub year). Title of chapter. In Name & Name (Eds.) *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Pub location: Pub name.

- If the book and chapter authors are the same, but the chapter doesn't have a separate title, then give a regular book citation, but include appropriate page numbers.
- If the book and chapter authors are different, but the book is not edited, check to see if you are reading a secondary source.

#### **What if I cite material from several chapters of the same book by the same author?**

If all the chapters were written by the same person(s), then cite the book only once in the reference list without naming the separate chapters.

### Electronic Sources on the Reference Page

Instructors sometimes require variations on the APA style. Always make the distinction between APA guidelines and instructor's variations. Follow your instructor's preferences.

#### THE BASICS

How do I cite an Internet source? This is not a question with a single answer. Electronic resources are now so varied that the answer must be "it depends." That's why APA "quick guides" are not very helpful and sometimes misleading. But here are some general rules.

How you cite depends, in part, on (a) what kind of document you are citing—journal article, abstract, report, etc.; (b) how it was originally published—print source, on-line only, etc.; and (c) how you retrieved it—CD-ROM, Web link, aggregate database, etc.

Keep in mind the following general guidelines [p. 269]:

- Direct readers as closely as possible to the information being cited. Whenever possible, reference specific documents rather than home or menu pages.
- Provide addresses (URLs) that work.

### Minimum Information for An Electronic Source Entry

Give the author, of course, if available, but you must provide at least

1. document title,
2. publication date—or the notation (n. d.) if date not available
3. date you retrieved the document, and
4. the Uniform Resource Locator (URL—also called an *Internet address*) or the database name (if the source came from an aggregate database like ProQuest or InfoTrac).

The following fictitious samples are based on the model for articles in professional journals. Newsletters, abstracts, reports, and other documents or forms of discourse are documented differently. You will need to refer to the APA 5th edition for these.

### EXAMPLES

#### Online Journal Article

Crow, J., Verte, D., & Zinn, P., (2001, March 7). An older population and its housing needs: What are our options? *Maturing & Health*, 3, 122-126. Retrieved February 12, 2000, from <http://oregon.agingcouncil.org/art.03.7.maturinghealth/oac.html>

After the title and volume number, add the word *retrieved*, the date of retrieval, the word *from*, and the URL.



Do not hyphenate a URL to force a break at the end of a line. It is not necessary to break a URL to avoid white space. However, if you do break a URL, do so only after a slash or before a period. Do not use a period to close an entry ending with a URL



#### **When do I use the notation [*Electronic Version*] in a reference list entry?**

A few years ago, nearly all Internet periodicals were replicas of print sources. The APA manual says that electronic sources that are identical to their print versions should be cited as print versions, with the words *Electronic Version* included in brackets. Now, however, many periodicals exist only online, and online versions may vary from their print counterparts. You may not know if your online article exists in print version, or if it varies from a print version, without retrieving a print version for comparison. A member of the APA Style Expert staff (personal communication, November 7, 2002) said the following:

The guiding principle in creating references is that they should enable readers to retrieve and use the sources referenced. As long as the reference information is clear and accurate, I don't think that, for example, an APA editor would question or change an article reference that used a URL rather than an [Electronic version] notation, even if he or she thought the two versions were identical.

In other words, the [Electronic version] notation is not necessary, and the writer may cite the source as other electronic sources are cited—with retrieval date and URL or database name.

#### Article Retrieved from an Aggregate Database

Aggregate databases gather information from many sources into one searchable database. Because an aggregate database is available from a variety of sources (university servers, CD-ROMs, Web sites, etc.), the URL may not be helpful to readers. Name the database so that readers can find the source through the same database you used [p. 278].

The example that follows is fictitious but refers to an actual database, ProQuest, accessible through the Saint Mary's University library.

Gratke, J. (2000). APA style and college writing: Learning to deal with frustration. *Journal of Graduate Studies*, 7, 23-29. Retrieved June 12, 2001, from ProQuest database.

#### ERIC Online Resources

Remember that ERIC provides only abstracts and location information. If you want the full document, either order it from ERIC or use the location information to retrieve it yourself (with help from a librarian).

Each ERIC entry is assigned an ERIC number. These numbers are prefixed with the letters *ED* (for ERIC Document) or *EJ* (for ERIC Journal).

- If the ERIC resource contains an **ED number**, a librarian will use it to help you obtain the full document, and you will include the ED number in your reference list entry. It is placed in parentheses at the end of the entry, as in Example #43 [257].
- If your resource contains an **EJ number**, a librarian will use it to help you locate the full journal article. You will then cite your source as you normally cite a journal article. The EJ number will not appear in the reference entry.
- Sometimes, in addition to the ED or EJ number, ERIC provides a **report number** or document number assigned by the document's original publisher. If you have that report number, include it in your Reference entry. Enclose it in parentheses after the document title, as in example #43 [257].

#### **I retrieved an ERIC article through ProQuest, an aggregated database. Does the reference entry follow the database model or the ERIC model?**



The most appropriate format would be a combination of Examples 88 and 43 in the APA manual. Replace the publisher name/location information with the Web retrieval statement and add the ERIC document number, as in the following example.

Author, X. (pub year). Title of document. (Report no., if any). Retrieved February 26, 2002, from ProQuest database. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED123456).

If the database provides journal title, year, and page number, include those after article title.

For more information about the use of the ERIC database, including how to document, link to the ERIC Web site at <http://askeric.org/ERIC/Help/cite.shtml>

For more information about documentation of electronic resources, consult the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition* [Chapter 4] and visit the APA Web page, which provides interpretation and updating of the manual, at the address that follows: <http://www.apastyle.org/elecref.html>

### How do I cite a telephone interview?

A telephone interview is not a retrievable source, so it does not get an entry on the Reference page. However, it must be cited in the text as follows: (J. J. Doe, personal communication, April 10, 2002). If the name of the person being cited is written into the running text, then it need not appear again in the parentheses.

All non-retrievable personal communications (interviews, letters, e-mail, memos, and the like) are cited in text but do not appear on the Reference page. Minutes of meetings appear on the Reference page only if they are retrievable. Often times the minutes of informal meetings are not published and thus not retrievable, in which case they should be treated the same as personal communications.

## PRIMARY & SECONDARY SOURCES

In the illustration below, Plante is the *secondary* source (the source you read) and Chan is the *primary* source (the source you didn't read) cited by Plante. *Primary* means the first source of information. *Secondary* is the source in which the primary source was cited. Cite as primary/secondary only when the primary source is quoted or when his or her name appears in the running text.

The diagram shows a text block with a secondary source and a primary source. The secondary source is a paragraph by Victor Plante, titled "Perchè Insegni gli Allievi Laureati Scrivere". The primary source is a paragraph by Chan (2002) titled "Bisogno Dell'Università Del San Mary". The primary source is cited within the secondary source's text.

Perchè Insegni gli Allievi Laureati Scrivere  
by Victor Plante Secondary source

Bisogno Dell'Università Del San Mary  
L'università del San Mary de Minnesota ha formato un gruppo di esperti degli istruttori e dei direttori laureati di programma per studiare l'esigenza di un centro alla relativa città universitaria delle città gemellare, il luogo di scrittura della relativa scuola dei programmi laureati e speciali. Il gruppo di esperti ha notato che la diversità (etnico, linguistico, empirico, academic) del corpo dell'allievo alla città universitaria delle città gemellare ha disposto una difficoltà insolitamente pesante sulla facoltà per fornire il

Tutti i programmi della città Chan (2002) observed that universit Primary source  
città gemellare "offrono un corso di scrittura" per la carta dal capstone vicino alla

### In-Text Citation

Cite both authors, making clear who cited whom. Using the example above, you would cite this way: Chan (as cited in Plante, 2003) reported that . . . Such an arrangement tells the reader who is being cited (Chan) and where you got Chan's information (in Plante). If the reader wants to view the primary text (Chan's), he or she must go to Plante and look up Plante's citation of Chan. You can see why readers prefer not to find secondary source information in your papers.

### Reference List Entry

List on the reference page *only the works you read*. In the example above, only Plante, the secondary source, appears on the reference page. Chan, the primary source, receives no mention on the reference page.

### When to Use Secondary Sources

Avoid secondary sources when possible. They suggest weak scholarship. With the availability of sources on the Internet and through university libraries, most sources are retrievable. When you rely on a secondary source, you raise the question of why you didn't seek the original. Furthermore, you are forced to rely on the interpretation of the secondary source author. You will simply pass along any errors he or she made in presenting the primary source. Use secondary sources when the primary source is not translated into English, when you need to discuss reviews of the primary source material, or when the primary source information is not essential to your purpose.

**SAMPLE REFERENCE PAGE**

(TOP MARGIN OF PAPER)

NOTES

## References

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## OTHER EXAMPLES OF APA STYLE

Numbers in brackets indicate sections of the APA manual\* where detailed information is available.

### TITLES: Formatting

#### Three Types of Titles

**Type 1.** Work presented as part of a larger work [4.10]. Examples: chapter in book, article from journal

**Type 2.** Stand-alone work [4.12]. Examples: book, stand-alone Internet document, brochure, report, unpublished dissertation

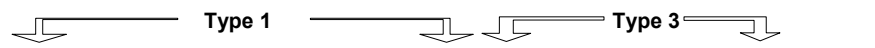
**Type 3.** Periodical [4.11] The title of the journal or other periodical

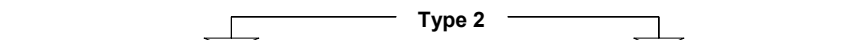
#### Titles on the Reference Page

**Type 1.** Do not italicize. Capitalize only the following: (a) first word, (b) first word after a colon, (c) proper nouns.

**Type 2.** Italicize. Capitalize only the following: (a) first word, (b) first word after a colon, (b) proper nouns

**Type 3.** Italicize. For capitalization, follow the form used by the publisher.

 Type 1                      Type 3  
Predicting alcoholism: College binge drinking. *National Journal of Addiction*, 12, 11-19

 Type 2  
Elgin, G. I. (2003). *The politics of curriculum in American education*. Boston: Boynton.

#### Titles in Your Text (excluding your own title)

**Type 1.** Place inside quotation marks. Capitalize major words (see below),. Example: "The American Work Ethic" (article from *New Psychology*)

**Type 2.** Italicize. Capitalize major words. Example: *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*

**Type 3.** Italicize. Capitalize major words (or follow capitalization of publisher). Examples: (a) *New England Journal of Medicine*, (b) *COMbusiness*

Note: When the first word or two of a title is used to replace a missing author in a text citation, follow the formatting for in-text titles.

### TITLES: Capitalizing

#### Capitalizing Titles on the Reference Page [4.10 to 4.13]

- The only titles fully capitalized on the reference page are periodical titles, which are capitalized as explained above, and are italicized: *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*.
- Titles of books and articles are capitalized in (a) first word, (b) first word after colon, and (c) proper nouns:

*From here to eternity* (book)

*Cut and paste 101: Plagiarism and the net* (stand-alone Internet article)

Manifest destiny and the settling of the American frontier (chapter in a book)

#### Capitalizing Titles in Your Text [3.13]

The general rule for capitalizing titles in the text is *capitalize major words*. But what are *major words*? *Major words* are all words except (a) coordinating conjunctions, (b) articles, and (c) short prepositions. However, capitalize these words as well if they appear as the first word in the title.

- **Coordinating Conjunctions** (not capitalized)

Coordinating conjunctions are defined as those words that connect grammatically equal elements. There are seven coordinating conjunctions, and they can be arranged by their first letters to form the "word" *fanboy*:

**f**or, **a**nd, **n**or, **b**ut, **o**r, **y**et

Examples: *Forgiven but Not Forgotten*

"The Cambridge Spelling Report: Help or Hoax?"

*The Logic and Rhetoric of Exposition*

- **Articles** (not capitalized)

Articles are those three critical little words--a, an, and the--without which we can scarcely write a sentence

#### **Short Prepositions** (not capitalized)

Prepositions, like articles, are function words. When paired with nouns, they identify relationships of position and time, like *before sundown*, *between you and me*, *among the trees*, and *above average*. There are more than 70 common prepositions. Do not capitalize prepositions of three words or fewer. There are 13 you should not capitalize:

as at but by for in of off on out 'til to up

## QUOTATIONS

### How do I use direct quotes effectively?

In a word, *sparingly*. You could probably write a better paper if you didn't use any. Direct quotes can be problematic.

- Quotations are necessarily taken from their original context and may not fit properly in the context you provide. Sometimes the meaning or intent of the quote is changed by the new context.
- Quoting someone directly provides no indication of how well, or even *if*, you understand the material you are quoting. Overuse of quotes therefore can cause you to lose credibility with your readers.
- Quoting, if not done very skillfully, can break up the flow of your writing. Suddenly encountering another person's writing style can be jarring to readers.

Use direct quotes only (a) if you intend to comment on the author's word choice or style of expression, or (b) once, for emphasis or rhetorical effect.

#### Quotation of Fewer than 40 Words. Keep within paragraph text.

Phenix and Scott-Dunn (1991) stated, "There is clearly a need for a new kind of spelling instruction, one that raises students' awareness about language and its patterns, and focuses on word construction rather than word memorization" (p. 26).

Note page number *outside* quotation marks and period after parentheses.

Jones and Smith (1992) described "the social construction of word families as a powerful tool in spelling instruction" (p. 415).

#### Quotation of More than 40 Words. Place in separate, indented ("Blocked") paragraph.

Swicegood (1994) linked the use of portfolios with the Individual Education Plan (IP) when he stated the following:

Insight gained through informal, ecological approaches gives teachers access to viable information, which in turn leads to more effective interventions and practices, both in schools and clinical settings. The use of student portfolios in placement and instructional planning contexts, including the design of IEP goals and objectives, can add depth and breadth to the intervention process.

(p. 14)

Note that indentation of quote replaces quotation marks and that the period is placed at end of quote rather than after the parenthesis of page citation.

### Capitalization of Quotations\*

#### Capitalize the first word of a quoted sentence [p. 118, Quotation 1; and p. 293].

Harris (2000) remarked, "Finding information is an art, not a science" (p. 214).

According to Plotnik (1982), "The licensing or copyright agreement with the author does not cover items the author borrowed from another source" (p. 16).

#### However, if the quoted sentence completes an unfinished sentence or follows the word *that*, do not capitalize the first word or precede it with a comma. [p. 118, Quotation 2; and p. 120]

Sutter was fascinated with Lake Superior because "the ore boats and foreign freighters seemed impossibly exotic" (p. 2).

Quincy acknowledged that "negotiations over bride price sometimes involved more than the price of the bride" (p. 105).

#### Do not capitalize the first word of a quoted phrase (incomplete sentence).

Bryson (2002) called the English language "a merry confusion of quirks and irregularities that often seem willfully at odds with logic and common sense."

#### If the quote is interrupted, do not capitalize the first word of the resumed quote.

"People and places," noted Zinsser, "are the twin pillars on which most nonfiction is built" (p. 54).

\* Sources: Hacker, D. (2003) *A writer's reference*, p. 284. Boston: Bedford St. Martins.  
Harris, M. (2000). *Prentice Hall reference guide to grammar and usage* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.), p. 229. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

### How should I format quoted material that is not in APA format?

Section 3.35 (p. 118) of the APA manual states that direct quotations must adhere to the wording, spelling, and interior punctuation of the original source. But what about formatting—for example, of bullets: According to a member of the APA Style Expert staff,

This is a question about which there does not seem to be complete agreement . . . in the ranks. However, in my opinion, when quoting material, . . . keeping bullets rather than changing them to enumerated paragraphs is the way to go. The author undoubtedly had a choice between bullets and enumerated paragraphs when writing the original work, so it is good form to respect that choice when quoting the work, if it is possible to do so. (Personal communication, November 7, 2002)

To indent block quotes see section entitled "Using Microsoft Word for APA Tasks" in this booklet.



## PUNCTUATION

See also "Transitions and Conjunctions"

### Spacing

Each mark of punctuation is followed by one space. (Two spaces may follow a period ending a sentence; however, if used the practice should be consistent throughout the paper.)

Exceptions No space is required after

- opening parenthesis:

Departing flights (except those already noted) are temporarily grounded.

- opening quotation mark, and comma or period before a closing quotation mark

The captain remarked, "The space is inadequate." I agreed.

All other punctuation marks are followed by one space.

### Apostrophe (')

Use an apostrophe

1. to show ownership or possession.

Add an apostrophe and an s ('s) to words that don't end with an s:

somebody's car (the car belonging to somebody)  
the men's locker room (the locker room of the men)  
a month's rent (the rent of a month)

Add only an apostrophe after the s to words that already end in s.

twelve days' pay (that is, the pay for twelve days)  
the students' tests (that is, tests belonging to the students)

2. to form contractions.

Show omission of letters with apostrophes:

Could not = couldn't; he is = he's; they are = they're; cannot = can't

### Colon (:

1. Use a colon after a complete sentence that introduces a list.

The breakfast menu contained the clients' favorite foods: bran muffins, bananas, pancakes and maple syrup, and bacon and eggs.

If the introduction is not a complete sentence, no punctuation is needed:

Dieters preferred low fat breakfast foods such as strawberries, unbuttered whole wheat toast, unsweetened cereal, and applesauce.

2. Use a colon on the reference list, to separate publisher/location from name.

Hebring, R. J., Jr. & Vang, C. (2002). *Collective wisdom, diverse experience: Managers' real stories* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York: Random House

### Commas: Six Rules

The following six comma rules will enable you to punctuate most sentences correctly.

1. **Use a comma before a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, so\*, yet, nor, for) if it joins two sentences.**

- Ellen thought the movie was exciting, and Fred liked it more than any he had seen that year.
- Fred and Ellen saw a movie and went out to dinner afterwards. (No comma needed because and is not joining two sentences.)

\* (when *so* means *therefore* or *as a result*, but not when it means *so that*)

2. **Use a comma after introductory expressions.**

An introductory expression is a word or words that lead up to the main part of the sentence.

- Frankly, I have had enough of this cold and rainy weather.
- When our bakery closed down, Jan had to make her own bread.
- Confused by the freeway signs, Ralph got hopelessly lost in Chicago.

3. **Use commas to separate three or more items in a series.**

Use a comma after each item, including the one before the conjunction (*and* or *or*).

- Protestors wore black pants, red shirts, and green sashes.
- Students can study before class, after school, or on Saturday afternoon.

4. **Use commas to set off words and phrases that interrupt the sentence if those words are not essential to the purpose of the sentence.**

- Michelle took her seat at the table and, much to everyone's surprise, blew her nose on the tablecloth.

- I liked Brad's sense of humor. His lewd jokes, however, deeply embarrassed his grandmother.
- Bill, a man of much courage, grabbed the burglar's hand and bit off his trigger finger.

**5. Use a comma to set off a phrase at the end of a sentence if that phrase refers to the beginning or middle part of the sentence, or to the entire sentence.** These phrases will usually begin with a word ending in -ed or -ing.

- Teachers offered rewards to the students, trying to improve test scores.


With a comma, the sentence means that teachers offered rewards in an attempt to improve test scores. (The phrase *trying to improve test scores* might better be placed before or after *teachers* and set off with commas.)

- Teachers offered rewards to the students trying to improve their test scores.

Without a comma, the sentence means that teachers offered rewards only to students who were trying to improve their test scores.


**Example:**

The company recognized every branch manager, raising morale and encouraging high standards.



The sentence above—containing a comma before the final phrase—means that *raising morale and encouraging high standards* are the result of the company's recognition of every branch manager. *Raising* refers to the entire sentence that precedes it.

The company recognized every branch manager raising morale and encouraging high standards.



Without a comma, the sentence means that the company recognized only those branch managers who were raising morale and encouraging high standards.

**Example:**

Close communication exists among the cell types, allowing interchange of secretions between the hormones.

The sentence above means that the interchange is a result of the close communication (among the cell types). *Allowing* refers to the phrase *close communication exists among cell types* (that kind of communication is what allows the interchange).

Close communication exists among the cell types allowing interchange of secretions between the hormones.

The sentence above means that communication exists only among cell types that allow the interchange. (*Allowing* refers only to *cell types*.)

**Example:**

Effects on the endothelium increase sensitivity to pressure agents, causing the vasoconstriction seen in preeclampsia.

Effects on the endothelium increase sensitivity to pressor agents causing the vasoconstriction seen in preeclampsia.

**6. If rules 1-5 don't apply, you probably don't need a comma. Most people over-use commas.**

Exception. Occasionally, a comma is needed to prevent the misreading of a sentence, even if one of the five rules doesn't apply. Note the following example:

Patients who can discuss side effects with their doctors before undergoing surgery.

Adding a comma will prevent misreading of the sentence:

Patients who can, discuss side effects with their doctors before undergoing surgery.

## HEADINGS [3.31, 5.10]

### ★ Heading Tips

Format your headings after the paper is complete because heading format is determined by how many levels of heading are needed, and this you may not know until the paper is finished.

The best way to keep track of headings is to list all your headings on scratch paper. When you see them all at once, you'll have a much better idea of the overall organization of your paper and of the headings' relationships to one another. Furthermore, you will find that formatting APA style is much easier when you can view the headings together. Once you have them all set up, transfer the styles to your paper. D

Don't forget that the section titles (abstract title, title of the paper, reference page title) are always formatted as Style 1 headings. Rarely will you need more than three levels of headings, and two may suffice.

Sections 3.31 and 5.10 of the APA manual provide details about headings, but the sections must be read very carefully. The style 5 heading (all uppercase and centered) is very rarely used, so double check with your instructor or advisor if you find yourself typing it.

Remember that headings require no special spacing between lines. They follow the double-space pattern of the rest of the paper. They require no special font effects except for the italicizing of style 2, 3, and 4 headings.

What students seem to find most difficult about headings is that the sequence of styles changes according to the number of headings used. What does that mean?

### ★ Headings: A Summary

- If the paper requires 2 levels of headings, use **style 1** and **style 3** (not 1 and 2).
- If the paper requires 3 levels of headings, use **styles 1, 3, and 4** (not 1, 2, and 3).
- If the paper requires 4 levels of heading, **styles 1, 2, 3, and 4**.
- If the paper requires 5 levels, style 5 subordinates all others, so use **styles 5, 1, 2, 3, 4**—in that order.

**Style 1** is (a) centered, (b) capitalized in title style.

**Style 2** is (a) centered, (b) italicized, (c) capitalized in title style.

**Style 3** is (a) placed at left margin, (b) italicized, (c) capitalized in title style.

**Style 4** is (a) indented half-inch from left margin, (b) italicized, (c) not capitalized, except for first word and proper nouns, (d) followed by period, (e) placed on the same line as the text that follows it.

**Style 5** is (a) centered, (b) all caps.

### Sample Text with Three Levels of Heading

(TOP MARGIN OF SAMPLE PAPER)

Title of Paper in Style 1

*First Major Heading in Style 3*

The text for subheading number one begins here. You can have as many paragraphs as you like under this heading. If you are dividing the paper into sections, you know you will need at least one more heading at this level because you cannot "divide" your paper into "one." Therefore, continue typing your paragraphs until you are ready for the next heading.

*Second Major Heading in Style 3*

Now you have divided your paper into two subheadings, the minimum number of divisions. You can make more divisions—as many as you like. In fact, you can divide the subheadings if you want to. Suppose that, within Subheading One, you want further subdivisions. You just have to use a sub-subheading style to distinguish the subdivisions from the larger subheadings.

*First minor subdivision in style 4.* This is the *paragraph level subdivision*, used to create a third level of heading. Put the subdivision heading at the beginning of the paragraph, italicize the heading, and place a period at the end of it to separate it from the paragraph text. You can add additional unheaded paragraphs if necessary

*Second minor subdivision in style 4.* You have already learned that if you start dividing a section, you must have at least two divisions at that level. This paragraph is the second minor subdivision of the *Second Major Heading in Style 3*

*Third Major Heading in Style 3*

The headings illustrated in this sample may look a little odd (and perhaps boring) to you if you haven't used them before. However, they are standard for academic writing.

You probably wouldn't want to use academic-style headings for a brochure or for advertising; but they serve the purpose of formal academic writing—and some business writing—because they are low profile and do not distract from the text.

(BOTTOM MARGIN OF SAMPLE PAPER)

## Sample Text with Four Levels of Heading

---

(TOP MARGIN OF SAMPLE PAPER)

Title of Paper in Style 1

*First Major Division in Style 2*

Ora avete diviso la vostra carta in due sottotitoli, il numero minimo di divisioni. Potete rendere più divisioni -- altrettante mentre gradite. Infatti, potete dividere i sottotitoli se desiderate. Supponga che, all'interno del sottotitolo uno, desiderate ulteriori suddivisioni. Dovete usare appena uno stile di secondario-sottotitolo per distinguere le suddivisioni dai più grandi sottotitoli.

*Second Major Division in Style 2*

*First Major Heading in Style 3*

Il testo per il sottotitolo il numero uno comincia qui. Se state dividendo la carta nelle sezioni, sapete che avrete bisogno almeno di un'nuova intestazione a questo livello perché non potete "dividere" la vostra carta "in una." di conseguenza, continuerete a scrivere i vostri paragrafi a macchina fino a che non siate pronti per. . .

*First minor subdivision in style 4.* Uno stile preferito spesso è *suddivisione livellata di paragrafo*, come illustrato qui. Iniziate semplicemente un nuovo paragrafo, mettete l'intestazione di suddivisione all'inizio del paragrafo, italicizzate l'intestazione e disponete un periodo all'estremità di esso per separarli dal testo di paragrafo.

*Second minor subdivision in style 4.* Già avete imparato che se cominciate dividere una sezione, dovete avere almeno due divisioni a quel livello. Questo paragrafo è la seconda suddivisione secondaria del sottotitolo il numero due.

*Second Major Heading in Style 3*

Le intestazioni illustrate in questo campione possono osservare poco un dispari (e forse alesaggio) a voi se non li avete usati prima. Tuttavia, sono standard per scrittura academic. Voi probabilmente non desidererebbe usare le intestazioni di academic-stile per un opuscolo o per fare pubblicità; ma servono di scrittura academic convenzionale di affari una certa e -- scrittura -- perché sono profilo basso e non distract dal testo.

---

(BOTTOM MARGIN OF SAMPLE PAPER)

## How do I format appendix headings?

The title of the appendix is separate from any headings that may fall in the appendix. Therefore, every appendix will have a uniform layout: "Appendix," centered at the top of the page and a title, centered (with uppercase and lowercase letters). The text below the title then follows the standard headings as described in section 3.91.

## COMPOSING LISTS

### Using Bullets

★ The APA does not allow lists marked with bullets. To make a list (seriation), follow one of the appropriate APA styles explained and illustrated below.

**Numbers or Letters?** (Note: The following list is not APA style.)

1. First off, the APA uses the term *seriation* when discussing lists. Look under the term *seriation* or *paragraph seriation* in the APA manual's index.
2. Whether you use letters within a paragraph or numbers in a list of paragraphs, the elements in a series *must be grammatically and semantically parallel*. For information on parallel construction, see the APA manual [2.11, 60].
3. Items in a numbered list are double-spaced, just like the rest of the text. They are single-spaced below to save copying costs.
4. If you are creating a numbered list, turn off the word processor's automatic numbering function. See the "Using MSWord for APA Tasks" section of this booklet.

### Alphabetized Series Within a Sentence [3.33 and 5.12]

When seriated items appear within a sentence, they can be—but don't have to be—designated by letters (not numbers) in parentheses. Whether the items are in a single sentence or not, *remember the serial comma*—that's the comma before the last item, as in the following two examples:

#### EXAMPLE 1: Unlettered Seriation in a Sentence

The researchers divided participants into four groups on the basis of age, gender, height, and weight.

serial comma

#### EXAMPLE 2: Lettered Seriation in a Sentence or Paragraph

In the text, cite all the research sources you used to produce your text, even if you don't quote the sources directly. Cite each source each time you refer to it in your paper. Citations serve three functions: (a) to give credit to the persons whose ideas you used, (b) to allow readers to find your original sources, and (c) to establish the credibility of your presentation. Most of the time, you will comment on or paraphrase the ideas of others. Occasionally, you will provide direct or indirect quotes to emphasize or clarify a point. Note, however, that you must cite sources, regardless of whether you quote or paraphrase.

serial comma

### Numbered Paragraph Series [3.33 and 5.1]

Sometimes it is not feasible to contain series within a paragraph because (a) either the series is lengthy, as in a set of instructions, or (b) the series itself is a direct quote that was originally listed as paragraphs. If the series cannot be included within one paragraph, set it down in separate paragraphs, using numbers followed by periods. **You must turn off the auto-numbering function** of the word processor (see the "MS Word for APA" section of this booklet). Indent each numbered item as though it were a paragraph. Begin each paragraph with a number, followed by a period and a space. Note that margins are different for direct quotes than for unquoted text.

#### EXAMPLE 3: Paragraph Seriation, Unquoted Text

At the end of the first segment of the writing course, students completed the following set of writing tasks. The instructors designed the tasks to test the students' abilities to apply the information acquired by reading and discussing the text and by completing exercises in the workbook that accompanied the text. Students completed tasks in the order presented.

1. Paraphrase four ideas (two from each of the sources provided) in your own words. Varying your presentation, provide in-text citations for each paraphrase.
2. From the Marsh and Willis article, give three short reasons why teachers cannot control everything in the curriculum. Write several introductory sentences to the issue, followed by the seriation. Remember to cite your source.
3. Briefly describe your role as a professional. Provide some introductory sentences and then, using complete sentences, list the three most important aspects of your work.

#### EXAMPLE 4: Paragraph Seriation, Blocked Quote

A summary of the characteristics of research helps to clarify both its meaning and its methodology. Best and Kahn (1993) summarized characteristics of research:

1. Research is directed toward the solution of a problem.
  2. Research emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles, or theories that will be helpful in predicting future occurrences.
  3. Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence.
  4. Research demands accurate observation and description.
  5. Research involves gathering new data from primary or first-hand sources or using existing data for a new project.
  6. Although research activity may at times be somewhat random and unsystematic, it is more often characterized by carefully designed procedures that apply rigorous analysis.
  7. Research strives to be objective and logical, applying every possible test to validate the procedures employed, the data collected, and the conclusions reached.
  8. Research involves the quest for answers to unsolved problems.
- (pp. 20-22)

### ***TABLES [3.62-3.74] AND FIGURES [3.75-3.86]***

### NOTES

Use tables and figures sparingly, and only if the information contained in them is essential for understanding the text of your paper. Tables and figures should supplement, not duplicate, what is expressed in the text.

Mention the table or figure at the appropriate point in the text. Refer readers to the table or figure with words such as

as shown in Table 2, the results were . . .

configuration of parts (see Figure 1) depended upon . . .



#### **Numbering and Placing Tables and Figures**

- Table or figures are numbered in order of appearance in the text, and they are numbered separately from one another (i.e. Table 1, Figure 1).
- Provide a *title* for each table and place the title above the table, after the table number (see p. 149 of APA manual for illustration).
- Provide a *caption* for each figure and place the caption beneath the figure, after the figure number (see p. 180 of APA manual for illustration).
- For APA style, place each table or figure on a separate, unnumbered page, after the Reference page. All tables come before all figures.
- If the table or figure appears in an appendix, the appendix letter appears before the number of the table or graph, e.g., Figure A2.
- In APA style, tables have horizontal lines but *not* vertical lines.

#### **Citations for Tables and Figures**

No citation is needed in the text or on the Reference page, only a comment to direct the reader to the table or figure (e.g., See Table 1).

#### **Tables and Figures from Another Source [3.73].**

If you obtained a table or figure from another source, you must, according to the APA manual, “give credit in the figure caption to the original author and copyright” (p. 200).

- Place the citation below the reproduced table (or figure) itself. Do not include a citation in the text or on the reference page unless the source is mentioned in your text. Do, however, point readers to the table or figure (e.g. See Figure 3).
- Examples of wording for such citations are provided in the APA manual **[3.73]**. (The author and the copyright holder may not be the same because the publisher, not the author, usually holds the copyright.)



## OOPS! TROUBLESHOOTING THE APA MANUAL

Yes, even the APA makes occasional boo boos; some of these will be corrected in subsequent printings. Furthermore, the APA manual itself wasn't printed in APA style (neither was the booklet you are reading). APA style applies to academic papers, not necessarily to "how to" manuals. To keep you from getting confused, the Writing Center offers this "heads up" bulletin. Check your manual to make the necessary corrections or notations.

### Heads Up #1: Alignment of Margins

To save space, most examples in the APA manual are single-spaced, even though the lines would be double-spaced in your paper. Also, margins in the manual are justified, or aligned at *both* margins, but you should never align both margins in your papers—only the left.

Note, for instance, Example 14 on p. 244. The alignment of both margins creates irregular spacing between characters, making proofreading very difficult. Now turn to the model reference list (Figure 5.1 on p. 314). The model reference list clearly indicates that the APA did not intend for reference list entries to be aligned at both margins.

### Heads Up #2: Numbers, Lists, and Seriation

If you search the index for information about formatting numbered lists, do not look under *numbers* or under *lists*. Instead, look under "Seriation, within a paragraph or sentence," where the index refers you to pages 116 [3.33] and 292 [5.12].

Both these sections deal with numbers, lists, and seriation; but the example of a seriated paragraph list on page 117 [3.33] is *wrong* because the numbered paragraphs are indented and aligned ("blocked") on the left side. Actually, according to APA, the left margins of these numbered paragraphs should return all the way to the normal left margin; only the first line of each paragraph should be indented.

Another example of a numbered list appears on p. 292 [5.12], where the paragraphs are indented and wrapped to the left margin of the text. This is a better example; however, even in this example the text is set in from the normal left margin.

To clarify some of the verbal and visual confusion, look at the following examples of numbered lists, both of which are formatted in APA style. The first example illustrates a list you would compose yourself; the second example illustrates a list quoted from another source.

To create numbered lists in APA style, you must turn off the word processor's automatic numbering function (click "Undo") or customize your automatic numbering function for APA style (see Auto-Formatting in the "MS Word for APA Tasks" section of this booklet). Then type each item as follows: Tab (1/2 inch); type number and period; one space; type first word of item. Remember,

TAB—NUMBER—SPACE--WORD

**NOTE:** Text in the following examples has been single-spaced to fit the page. APA text in your papers is always double-spaced.)

### EXAMPLE 1: Paragraph Seriation, Unquoted Text.

At the end of the first segment of the writing course, students completed the following set of writing tasks. The instructors designed the tasks to test the students' abilities to apply the information acquired by reading and discussing the text and by completing exercises in the workbook that accompanied the text. Students completed the following tasks:

1. Paraphrase four ideas (two from each of the sources provided) in your own words. Varying your presentation, provide in-text citations for each paraphrase.
2. From the Marsh and Willis article, explain why teachers cannot control everything in the curriculum. Write several introductory sentences to the issue, followed by the seriation. Remember to cite your source.
3. Give four short quotations, two from each source. Preface two quotes with a sentence in your own words. In the other two, make the quotation part of a complete sentence.

← Wrapped to left margin of the document's text

### EXAMPLE 2: Paragraph Seriation in a Blocked Quote.

A summary of the characteristics of research helps to clarify both its meaning and its methodology. Best and Kahn (1993) summarized characteristics of research:

1. Research is directed toward the solution of a problem.
2. Research emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles, or theories that will be helpful in predicting future occurrences.
3. Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence.
4. Research demands accurate observation and description.
5. Research involves gathering new data from primary or first-hand sources or using existing data for a new project.
6. Although research activity may at times be somewhat random and unsystematic, it is more often characterized by carefully designed procedures that apply rigorous analysis.
7. Research strives to be objective and logical, applying every possible test to validate the procedures employed, the data collected, and the conclusions reached.
8. Research involves the quest for answers to unsolved problems.

(pp. 20-22)

← Wrapped to left margin of the *indented* text

Always use numbers (unless your instructor specifically tells you otherwise). APA does not allow bullets. ★

### Heads Up #3: Citing Secondary Sources

### NOTES

When you cite a source you haven't read, but only read *about* in a secondary source, use the phrase, *as cited in*. Suppose, for example, you read an article by Mayo, who cited information from Diaz. If you use Diaz' information without reading her original work, the in-text citation would be as follows: *Diaz (as cited in Mayo, 2000)*. You can read more about secondary sources in **Chapter 4, p. 247, Example 22**, of the APA manual.

Note, however, that in the model paper in the APA manual [308], the secondary source example reads as follows: *(cited in Brown & Milstead, 1968)*. The word *as* (which should appear before *cited*) has been omitted. The omission was a publishing misprint. Secondary source citations should be worded as shown in Chapter 4, Example 22.

See "Primary and Secondary Sources" in the "Citing Sources" section of this booklet.

### Heads Up #4 Including Publication or Retrieval Date for Internet Documents

The instructions in the APA manual [**Section I, *Electronic Media*, p. 269**] require that publication date or retrieval date be included in citations of Internet sources. The following two examples illustrate the point. The first has a publication and retrieval date; the second has no publication date. If the publication date is missing, type in its place the letters *n.d.* in parentheses, and then type the retrieval date.

Hastings, G., Wang, H., & Tubo, T. (1999, June 12). Losing the poverty war: An update. *Center for Social Change Newsletter*. Retrieved April 30, 2000, from <http://www.socialchange.net./subscribe/newslet14.html>

Granite Rock County Health Services. (n.d.). Evaluation of the Granite Rock County teen pregnancy target program. Retrieved August 12, 2001, from [http://www.graniterock.cty.nm.gov/reports/taskforce\\_adol.html](http://www.graniterock.cty.nm.gov/reports/taskforce_adol.html)

Note, however, that Examples 73, 74, and 76 of the APA manual [272-273] do not include retrieval dates. The omission of the dates is an error. Each of these examples should include a retrieval date after the word *retrieved* and before the word *from*.

---

#### Works Consulted for This Section

- Adelheid, N. A. M., & Pexman, P. M. (1999). *Presenting your findings: A practical guide for creating tables*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Szuchman, L. T. (2005). *Writing with style: APA style made easy* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

# USING MICROSOFT WORD® FOR APA TASKS

Screen shots reprinted by permission of Microsoft® Corporation.

## GENERAL TIPS

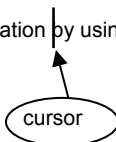
### Backspace and Delete

The keyboard has *two* delete keys: *Backspace* and *Delete*. What's the difference?

- *Backspace* deletes characters and spaces to the *left* of the cursor.
- *Delete* deletes characters and spaces to the *right* of the cursor.

Save yourself some time and frustration by using the correct key.

Two *Backspaces* will delete a space and an "n."



Two *Deletes* will delete a "b" and an "y."

### Typing Dashes and Hyphens

- Hyphens are used to connect words and parts of words. The hyphen key is located next to the 0 on the keyboard. Type hyphens with *no space before or after* (e.g., *step-by-step* instructions).
- Dashes are intended to separate words and phrases. To create a dash, type two hyphens with *no space before, after, or between them*. Use dashes to indicate an interruption (e.g., Students in the third group—those who received no training—were least successful at accomplishing the task).

### Highlight Text without "Racing"

To prevent the cursor from "racing" when you're trying to highlight a large block of text,

1. **Click** the cursor where you want highlighting to begin.
2. **Press and hold** the Shift key.
3. **Click** the cursor where you want highlighting to end, and **release** the Shift key.

### Delete Single Hyperlink


When you type a URL (Internet or e-mail address) and press the Enter key, the URL turns blue and underlines, creating a hyperlink. Hyperlinks occur on your Reference page when you type URLs for electronic sources. Hyperlinks must be converted to "normal" text.




Method 1 if you typed the hyperlink, Click the Undo icon (left-curve arrow) on the toolbar, or

Method 2 if you copied the hyperlink into your document, Highlight the hyperlink with the mouse, click the *right* mouse button, select hyperlink, and click Remove Hyperlink.


You can turn off the word processor function that creates hyperlinks in the first place. See the "Customize Auto-Formatting" section.

### Show/Hide

The Show/Hide function allows you to see hidden formatting codes—a helpful tool when you need to correct or modify formatting. To turn on Show/Hide, click the Show/Hide icon on the menu bar. If you don't find the icon, customize your toolbar (see the "MS Word for APA" section). The Show/Hide icon  is a toggle switch: press it *on*, press it *off*. It reveals the following codes:


Symbol	Meaning
	Manual line feed (Enter button pressed)
	Tab space
	Space inserted (space bar)
....Page Break....	Manual page break inserted (Ctrl+Enter).

### Undo

The Undo icon (back arrow) on the toolbar allows you to cancel out your last command or your last several commands (if you keep pressing it). Make a mistake? Just click .

### Center

Never center text by tabbing or spacing. If you do, any revisions will throw the text off center. Use the Centering function of the word processor. It will automatically adjust centering as you revise. You can center text before or after it is typed. If you center after typing, you'll need to highlight the text, then center it. To center text,

Method 1: Click the Centering icon  on the toolbar, then type text, or

Method 2: Click Format, Paragraph, Alignment Center (see Figure 1).

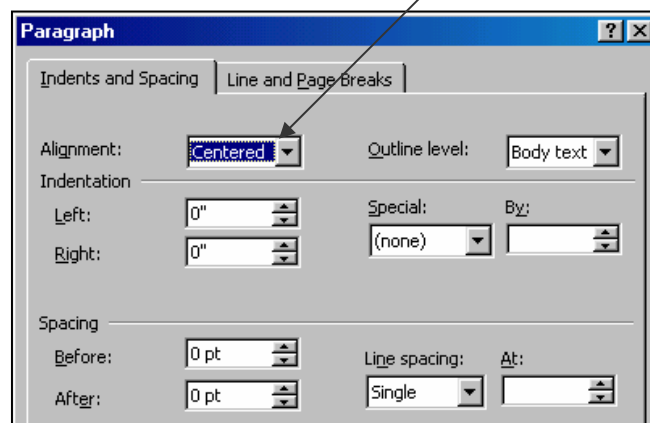


Figure 1, Paragraph Format Window

## TYPEFACE (Fonts) [5.02]

Use an 11-pt. or 12-pt. serif black typeface (font) for text. APA recommends Times Roman and Courier.

This is typed in Times New Roman.  
This is typed in Courier.  
This is typed in Century.

*Serifs* are the tiny lines that dangle on the ends of letters. Word processors offer a variety of serif fonts. Avoid those that appear decorative, unusual, or otherwise distracting. Keep the font appropriate to the formality of an academic paper.

### Setting Typeface in MS Word

Most Word screens have the font type and size selections right on the toolbar. If not,

- Click Format on the toolbar, select Font, and click choices on the font menu,

or

- Right click the mouse from inside your document to get the font menu.
- Set font *before* you begin typing the text. That's easier than changing it later.
- If you *do* have to change font after typing it, highlight the text you want to change, then follow instructions for changing font.

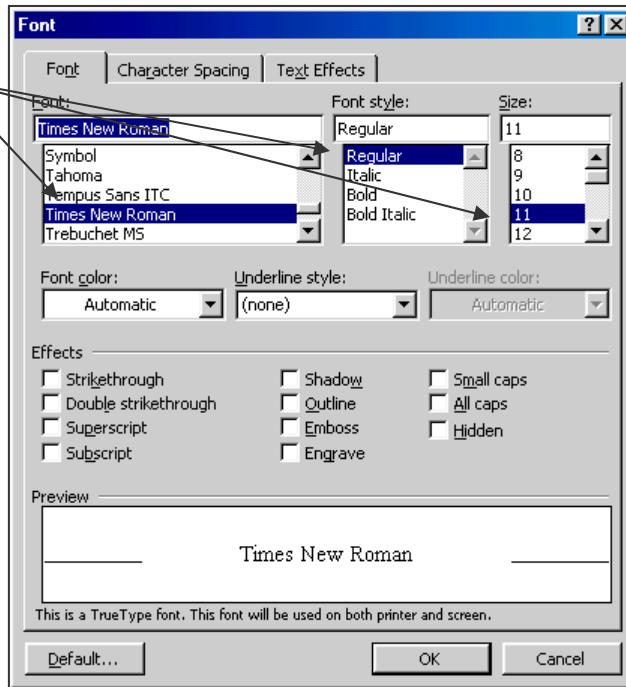


Figure2, Font Selection Window

Keep font the same throughout the paper, modifying only for italics when necessary.

## MARGINS AND ALIGNMENT

Margins for APA are 1 inch all around (except for doctoral students, who use 1.5 on left). The margin default on MS Word is 1.25, so you may need to change margins as follows:

1. Make sure the cursor is at the *very beginning of the paper*.
2. Click File, then Page Setup.
3. Click the Margin tab, if not already selected, to change settings.
4. Close to return to editing screen.

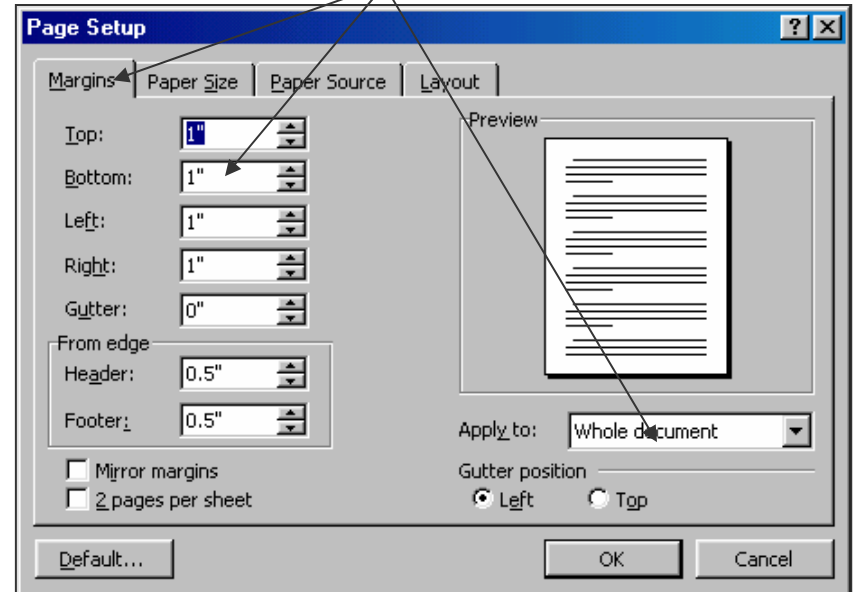



Figure 3, Page Setup Window

- Text is aligned at the left margin unless it needs to be indented to begin a paragraph or to offset a blocked quotation.
- To align text at the left margin, click the Align Left icon  on the toolbar, or see the instructions for Centering.
- Do not align text at both margins.* Text aligned at both margins creates irregular spacing between words and makes proofreading difficult.

Follow same procedure to change alignment to left.

## INDENTS [5.08, 5.13, 5.18]

### Paragraph Indent

For consistency, indent paragraph either by

- pressing the Tab key, which is usually pre-set to indent ½ inch.
- or by using [Format--Paragraph--Indent .5"] to indent ½ inch whenever you press the Enter key (see Figure 1).

Do not use the space bar to indent. One-half inch does not necessarily equal 8 or 10 spaces.

Check paragraph indentation against the ruler bar above your document. (If you don't see a ruler bar, go to the menu bar, click View, and then click Ruler (see "Dot Leaders" section for an illustration). For hanging indents for the Reference page, see "Hanging Indents" in this section of the booklet.

### Blocked Quote Indent

Quotations of 40 words or more should be double-spaced and blocked ½ inch from the left margin. *Do not* do this manually by using the Enter and Tab keys. Instead, change the paragraph indentation for the quoted text only.

1. Highlight text to be indented.
2. On the menu bar, click **Format**.
3. Click **Paragraph**
4. Click the **Indents and Spacing** tab if not already selected.
5. In the Indentation section, set left indentation to **.05**.

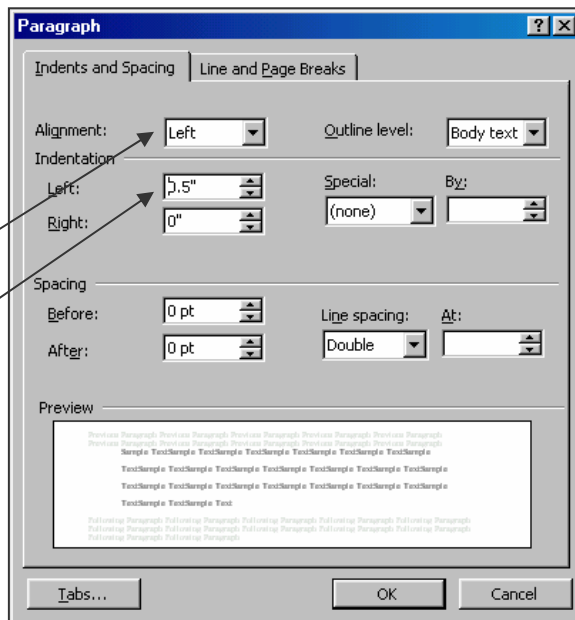


Figure 4, Paragraph Format Window

### Alternate Method

Without changing settings, type the quote, highlight the quote, drag the ruler bar indent ½ inch to the right (see Figure 16).

### Hanging Indents for Reference List



You can set hanging indents before or after typing the text. If you format hanging indents after typing the text, you'll need to highlight the text before formatting. You will also need to remove all Tabs, if you inserted any, from the Reference list. (See Show/Hide in this section.)

For hanging indents,

1. Set **Left** Indentation to **0**.
2. Click "hanging" in the box marked **Special**.
3. Set the hanging indent margin to **.05**.

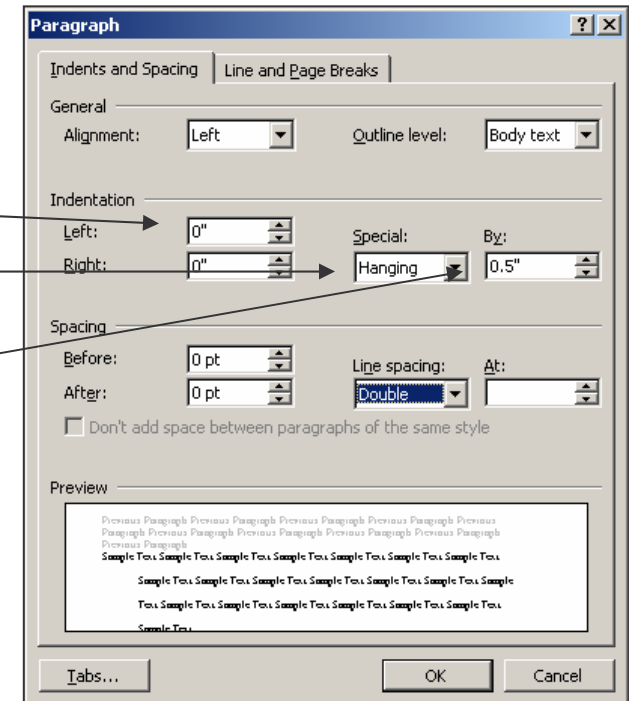


Figure 5, Paragraph Format Window Setting Hanging Indents

## PAGE HEADERS AND PAGE NUMBERS [5.06 and 6.03]

### Page Headers

Page *headers* are not to be confused with page *headings*. Headings are inserted throughout the text to designate important sections of the paper. *Headers* appear in the top margin of each page and include a page number and, in APA style, a short form of the paper's title. (Some programs dispense with the header title, so check with your advisor or instructor about your program's preference.)

Page headers cannot be typed directly on the page. They appear in a "no type zone" in the top margin of the paper. So how do you get them there? First, view the Header box, which is invisible when you are in the normal editing screen. It's easiest to insert headers and page numbers at the same time, so proceed to the section on page numbers.

- ★ If you insert page numbers by using the Insert Page Numbers command from the file menu, you will not be able to insert text into the header.

### Page Numbers

- Pages are numbered consecutively, beginning with the title page and continuing through the appendixes. (Some instructors and programs do not want the page number and header to show on the title page. Check before typing the title page.)
- Use Arabic numerals in the upper right-hand corner, inside the page header.
- Include a header with the page number. The header usually consists of the first two or three words of your title, and it is placed five spaces to the *left* of the page number.
- *Do not* "type" page numbers; use a word processor for automatic pagination.
- *Do not* use the Insert Page Number function of the word processor because it will not allow you to type headers with the page numbers.

### Setting Page Numbers within the Header in MS Word (See Figures 6 and 7)

1. Click View, then click Hader and Footer.
2. With the cursor inside the header, align the text to the right (see Figure 6)
  - a. Click the Align Right icon on the toolbar, or
  - b. Click Format, then Paragraph, then change alignment to right.
3. Type a header, followed by five spaces.
4. On the Header window (it opens when you select Hader and Footer), click the Insert Page Number icon.

- ★ Note: If necessary, you can change the font of the header and page number to match the font of your text. Follow the same procedure as for changing font in the text.

5. Close the header toolbar. Once you have set your page numbers, they will automatically adjust to changes in the length and pagination of any part of your paper.

Header Box in View Header Mode.

Use Align Right button to place header and number in correct position.

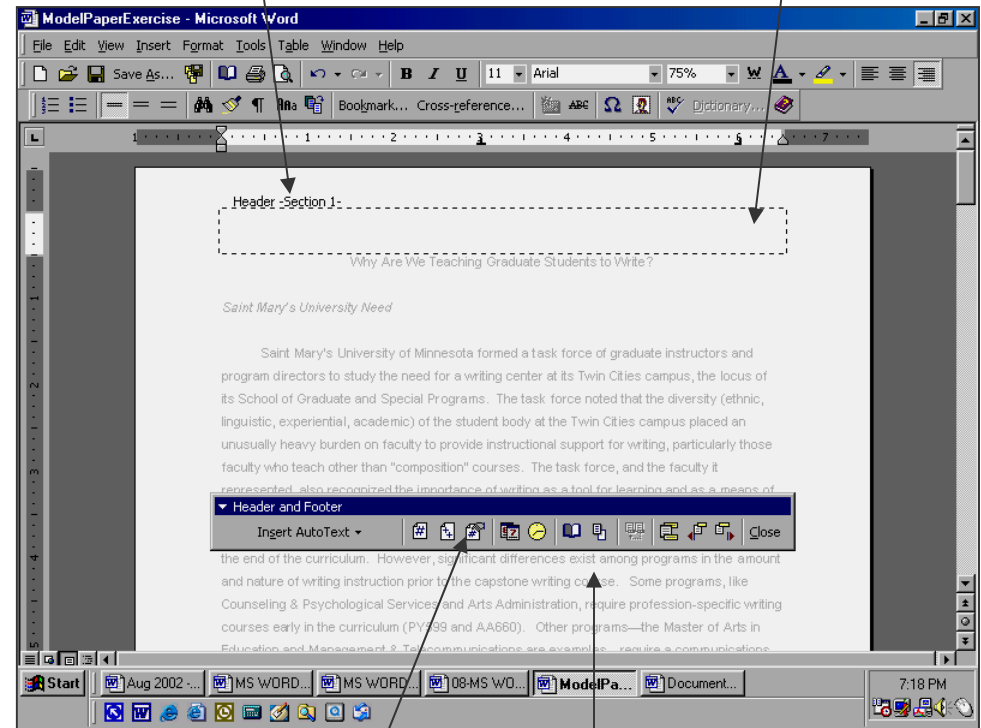


Figure 6, Header Insertion Window

Header Window lets you select page number options. Hold mouse over each button to see its function.

The Format Page Number icon opens the window shown on the right that allows you to set page numbering to start at any number you wish. This is helpful if your title page is in a separate file.

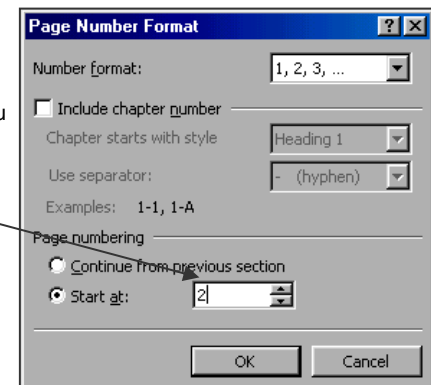



Figure 7, Format Page Number

## LINE SPACING [5.03]

All text in an APA paper is double-spaced, even indented quotes and items in the reference list. (Note, however, that most examples in the APA manual and in this booklet are single-spaced to save space.)

- Never single-space text.
- Never use one-and-a-half-spacing.
- Most important, never press the Enter key twice at the end of a line to create a double-space. You'll create spacing problems throughout the paper every time you revise.

### Setting Double-Space in MS Word

**Method One:** Click the Double Space icon  on the toolbar.

**Method Two:**

1. Click **Format**.
2. Click **Paragraph**.
3. Set the Line Spacing to Double.

Double spacing begins at the point where you placed the cursor when you gave the Double Space command.

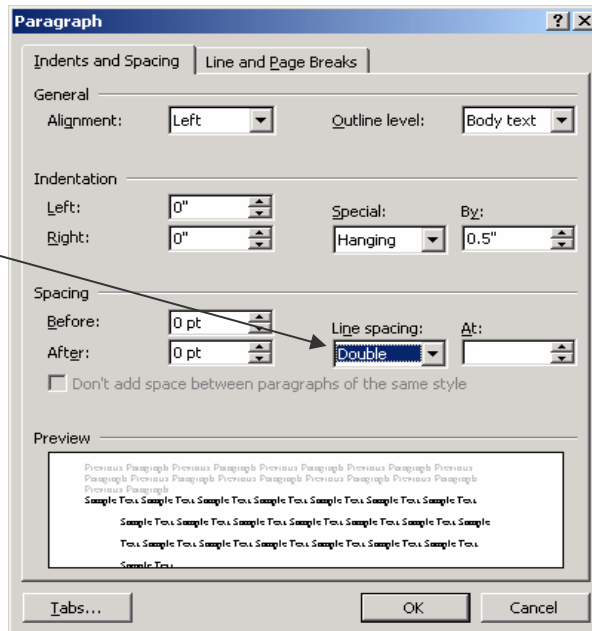


Figure 8, Paragraph Format Window

## CUSTOMIZE AUTO-FORMATTING (for Windows XP®)

You learned earlier in this booklet that numbered lists in APA style are “wrapped” to the left margin. You can customize your auto-formatting to comply with APA style; however, you may prefer just to turn off auto-formatting for APA documents.

### Customize AutoFormat for a Single Document

1. On the menu bar, click **F**ormat, then **A**utoFormat...
2. When the AutoFormat window opens, click on the **O**ptions button to open the AutoCorrect window (see Figure 10).
3. Click the tab titled AutoFormat As You Type.
4. Click to remove checkmarks from Automatic bulleted lists and Automatic numbered lists.

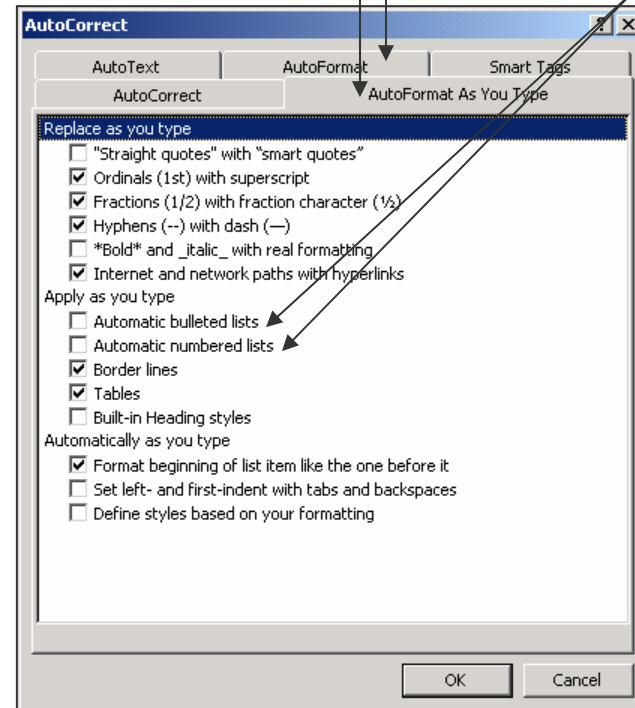


Figure 10, Customize AutoFormat for a Document

★ **NOTE:** If you experience irregular line spacing (especially triple spacing) between paragraphs, see "Irregular Spacing Between Paragraphs" and Figure 13.

While the customizing window is open, you can click other tabs to make the changes you want for the document you are working on. For example, you can remove the check from "Internet and network path with hyperlinks" to prevent hyperlinks on your Reference page.

### Customize AutoFormat for All Documents (Not for networked computers.)

To avoid going through this customizing process for each document, you can customize AutoFormat for all documents: Select **T**ools from the menu bar. After selecting **T**ools, click **A**utoCorrect Options, and proceed with steps 3 and 4 for "Single Document."

Note: you cannot make a permanent AutoFormat change if you are working on a networked computer.

### Customize Spelling and Grammar Check

The red lines and green lines of the auto-spell check and auto-grammar check can be annoying, especially on the reference page. You can turn off the auto-spell check and auto-grammar check, and still check your spelling and grammar when you are ready.

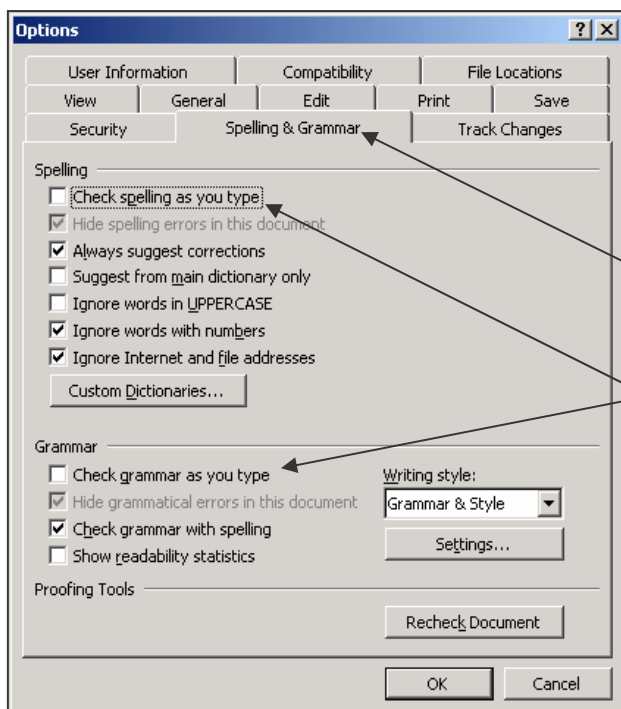


Figure 11, Customize Check-As-You-Type

Remember that you can still use the spelling and grammar check by selecting **T**ools, **O**ptions, Spelling and Grammar when you are ready to check your document. Turning off the Auto-check just keeps the checker turned off as you type.

- 1 Select Tools from the menu bar.
2. Click on **O**ptions (Do not select Spelling & Grammar, which will activate the checker!)
3. When the **O**ptions window opens, click the Spelling & Grammar tab.
4. Click to remove checks from "Check spelling as you type" and from "Check Grammar as you type."

### A Word of Caution About Grammar Check



The grammar checker can be a useful tool, but it cannot think the way a human does. If you type something that doesn't fit one of the grammatical patterns stored in the grammar checker's memory, it will give you an "alert," meaning it can't find a matching pattern. Think of the alert as a question rather than a command. It is asking, *Is this the pattern you really want?* For example, the grammar check usually alerts writers to use of the *passive voice*,\* because passive voice is usually best avoided. However, it is not necessarily wrong, and on occasion it may even be preferred to active voice. You must decide to keep, discard, or modify text that sets off the grammar alert. Don't change something just because the grammar check highlighted it.

\*For information about active and passive voice, see the section of this booklet entitled "Active and Passive Voice."

### HYPERLINKS

#### Delete Single Hyperlink

When you type a URL (Internet or e-mail address) and press the Enter key, the URL turns blue and underlines, creating a hyperlink. Hyperlinks occur on your Reference page when you type URLs for electronic sources. Hyperlinks must be converted to "normal" text.

Method 1 if you typed the hyperlink, Click the Undo icon (left-curve arrow) on the toolbar, or

Method 2 if you copied the hyperlink into your document, Highlight the hyperlink with the mouse, click the *right* mouse button, select hyperlink, and click Remove Hyperlink.

#### Turn Off Hyperlinks for Current Document See Figure 12



This option prevents the creation of hyperlinks in the current document only. You will have to select the option again to prevent hyperlinks in subsequent documents.

To prevent hyperlinks from being created automatically in the current document,

1. On the menu bar, click **F**ormat, then **A**utoFormat...
2. When the AutoFormat window opens, click on the **O**ptions button to open the AutoCorrect window..
3. Click the tab titled **A**utoFormat As You Type.
4. Click to remove the checkmark from the automatic hyperlinks box (Internet and network paths and hyperlinks).



## IRREGULAR SPACING BETWEEN PARAGRAPHS

### Turn Off Auto-Hyperlinks for ALL Documents (Not for networked computers)

This option prevents hyperlinks in the current and all subsequent documents, until you remove the option.

★ This option will not work on networked computers (like Saint Mary's) that do not allow access to the computer's hard drive. However, it works well for stand-alone computers, like those most people have at home.

Click on Tools, select Autocorrect Options, and then follow steps 3-4 above.

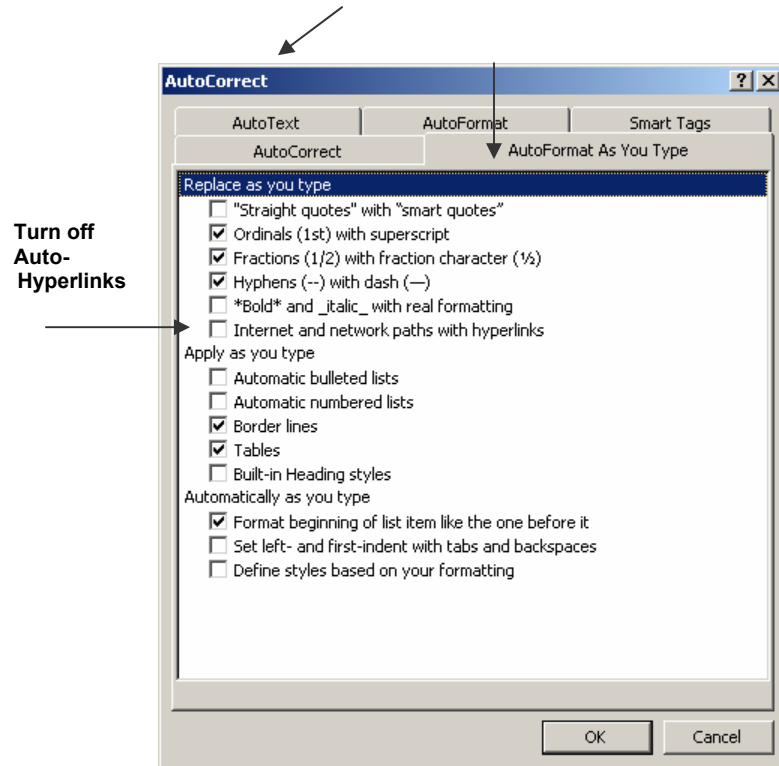


Figure 12, Turn Off Auto-Hyperlinks for Current Document Only

### Problem

Cutting and pasting between documents can upset the line spacing of your document, sometimes leaving three lines rather than two between paragraphs, as shown in the example.

### Remedy

The extra line space cannot be removed by changing the line spacing to double. Instead, change the setting as follows:

1. Highlight the text you want to change.
2. On the menu bar click Format, Paragraph.
3. Set the Before and After boxes to 0. You may also have to set Line spacing to Single and then reset to Double.
4. Click OK to return to document. You may need to readjust spacing.

To avoid irregular paragraph spacing, learn how to copy and paste text from the Internet into your document. See Figure 14.

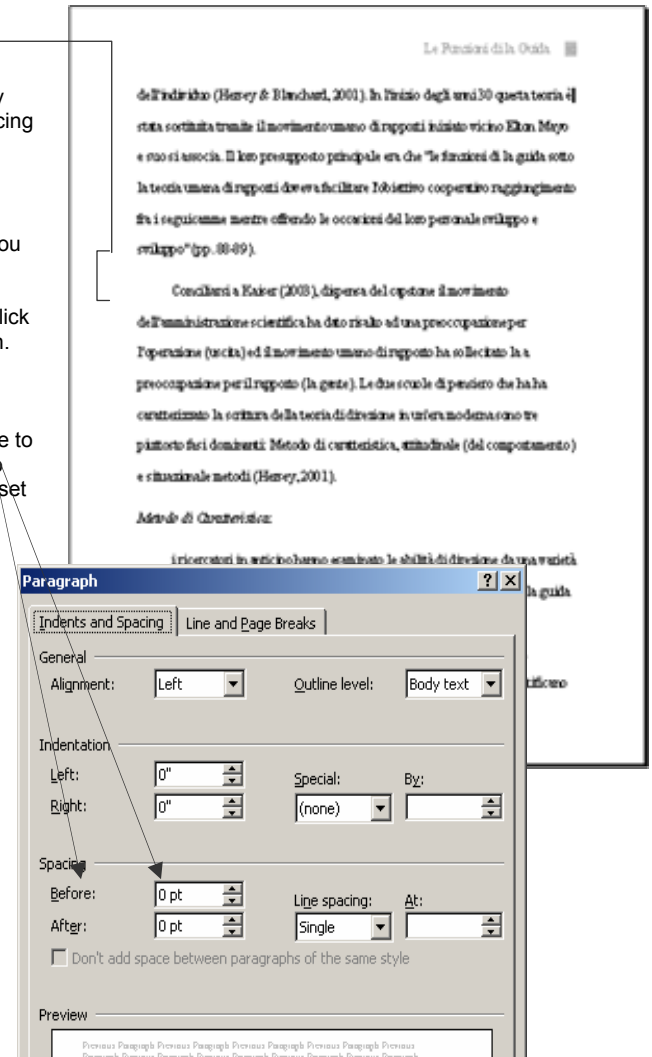


Figure 13, Customize Check-As-You-Type

## ★ How to Avoid Irregular Spacing: Pasting Text from the Internet

Irregular paragraph spacing occurs when you copy electronic text and paste it into your document. It's best to avoid the problem rather than remedy it because the remedy can sometimes require much time-consuming reformatting of text.

When you copy electronic text, *paste it into a blank document before pasting it into your working document.*

Do not use the Paste command to insert electronic copy. Instead, use Paste Special... from the Edit option on the Menu Bar as shown below.

1. Highlight and copy electronic text.
2. Open a new document.
3. In the new document window, select Edit, then Paste Special... If you use just Paste, you will bring in hidden formatting codes from the electronic text.
4. When the Paste Special... dialogue box appears, select Unformatted Text.

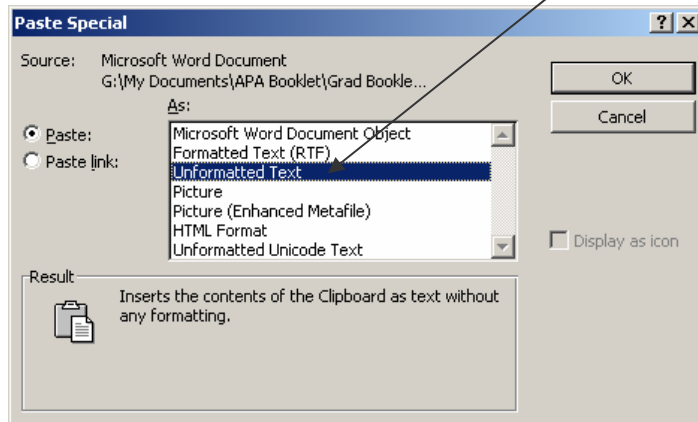


Figure 14, Paste Text From the Internet

This procedure allows you to paste the text without including hidden format codes. You can then reformat it to fit your document. If you bring in "foreign" format codes with pasted text, you may not be able to remove the codes from your document

NOTES

## DOT LEADERS FOR TABLE OF CONTENTS

Although the APA does not call for tables of content and therefore provides no guidelines for them, some instructors do require a table of contents. Generally a table of contents calls for *dot leaders*—rows of dots from entries to their page numbers, like this:

Statement of the Problem .....	3
Research Questions .....	4
Definition of Terms.....	5
History of the Charter School Movement.....	9

You will have trouble making your page numbers line up, and you will wear yourself out typing dots if you don't set up dot leaders for your tab stops. Dot leaders automatically insert dots when you press the tab key, and the dots adjust automatically to proportioned characters, giving you a straight column on the right.

### Set Dot Leaders

- Using the Ruler Bar as a Guide, decide the position where you want to dot leader tab to stop. If you have a one-inch right margin, you will probably want to set your tab at 5.7
  - On the toolbar, click **Format**, and then **Tabs**, to open the Tab Formatting Window (see Figure 15).
  - Highlight and delete any existing tabs.
  - Type desired tab stop.
  - Make sure alignment is set at **Left**.
  - Set Leader at **2** (for dots).
  - Click both **Set**, and then **OK**.
- NOTE: You must click both **Set** and **OK** to engage dot leader.
- Return to table of contents, type a heading, and press **Tab** key for dots.

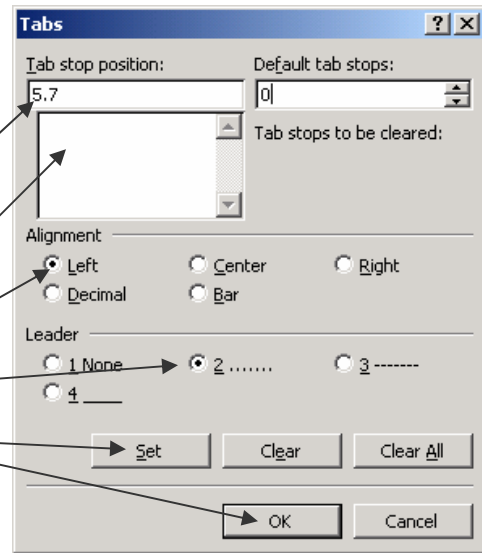


Figure 15, Tab Formatting Window

### Subheadings

If your table of contents contains subheadings, you cannot indent them with the **Tab** key, which now inserts dot leaders. The easiest way to indent subheadings without dot leaders is to drag them using the ruler bar (see Figures 16 and 16a).

Statement of the Problem .....	3
Research Questions .....	4
Definition of Terms.....	5
History of the Charter School Movement.....	9
Urban Changes.....	10
Inner City Crises .....	12
Private Initiatives .....	13
Legislation .....	15

### Ruler Bar (in Print Layout view)

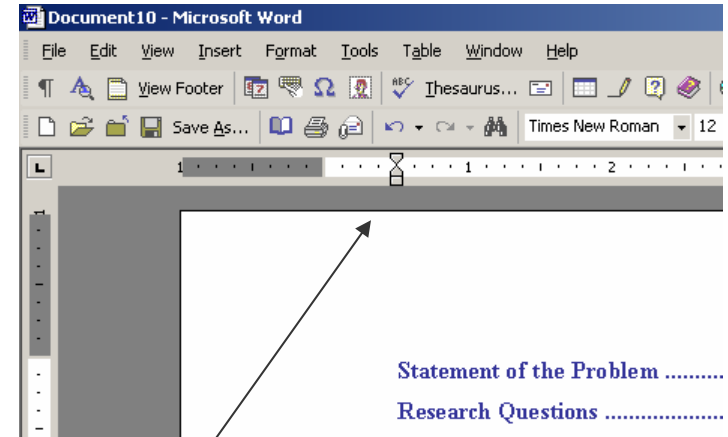


Figure 16, Ruler Bar

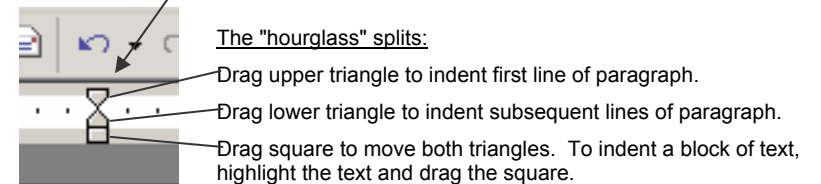


Figure 16a

## SENDING ATTACHMENTS BY E-MAIL

If you want to submit a paper by e-mail to the Writing Center, or if you want to e-mail the paper to anyone else, send it as an e-mail *attachment*. If you try to insert it into the body of the e-mail message, the formatting will be lost. In fact, a lengthy message in the body of the e-mail can cause problems with your e-mail or the recipient's e-mail.

The directions presented here were written for Web Mail used at Saint Mary's. Perhaps you use another form of e-mail. However, e-mail attachments follow a general pattern; so even if the icons and commands here appear different from yours, you can still use these directions to help you negotiate your own e-mail.

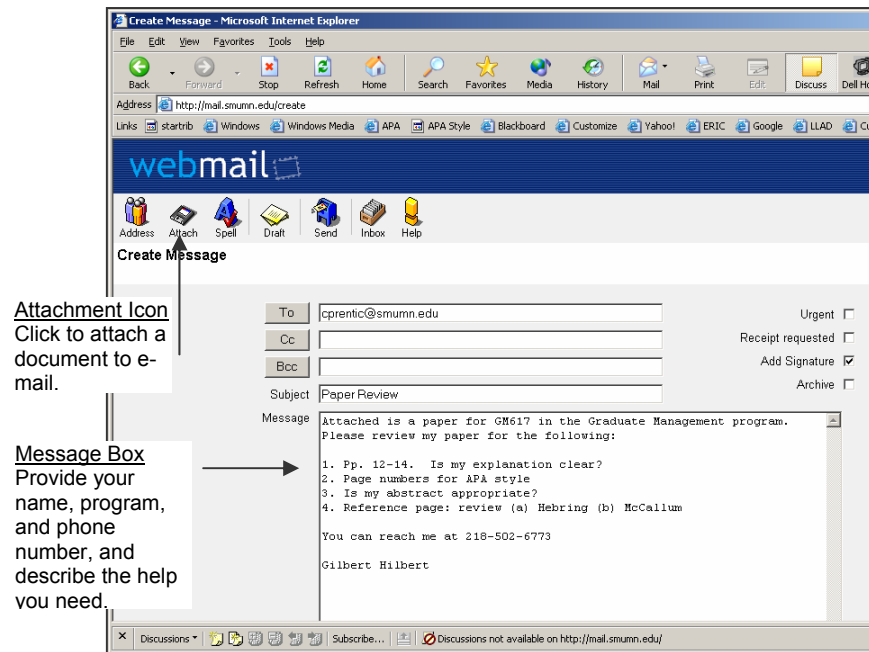


Figure 17, Create Web Mail Window

In Webmail, the *Attachment* icon is a diskette. Other forms of e-mail use different icons, or they may simply display the word *Attachments*. The icon may appear elsewhere on the screen. However, all e-mail forms have some sort of visible cue for adding an attachment.

1. Open your e-mail screen and prepare your e-mail message.
2. Find your *Attachment* icon and click it to open an attachment window. Web Mail's attachment window is shown in Figure 17a.

3. Select *Browse* to search your file lists, just as you would if you were retrieving a file from your diskette or hard drive.
4. Highlight the file you want, then press either *Open*, *Insert*, *Ok*, or *Attach*—or whatever term your mail program prompts—to return to the Attachment Window
5. The file you selected will show in the Filename slot. Now press *Add File* (or whatever your program prompts). In Web Mail, the file will next appear in the Attached Files slot.
6. When you are sure the file has been selected (in Web Mail, it will appear in the Attached Files slot), press OK to return to mail screen.

After you browse and select a file, its name will first appear here. After you press Add File, its name will appear here. Then its time to press OK to return to the mail screen.

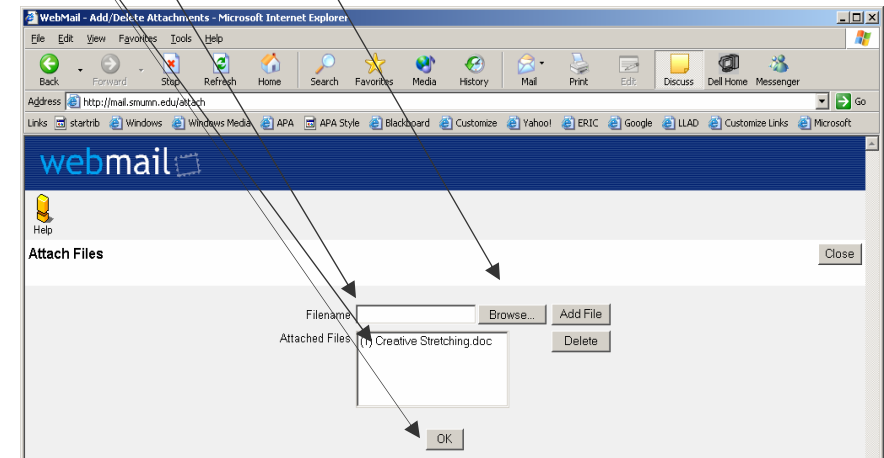


Figure 17a, Web Mail's Attachment Window

6. When you return to the mail screen, search for an icon that indicates your file has actually been attached. Figure 17b illustrates a Web Mail screen indicating that a document has been attached.
7. Now you can send your e-mail as usual.

**NOTE:** You can attach more than one document to an e-mail message. Your e-mail program will determine whether you can select them all at once or one at a time

## USING DOCUMENT COMMENTS

The Web Mail screen in Figure 17b indicates that the message contains an e-mail attachment. The indicators in other e-mail programs may look different and appear elsewhere on the screen, but all e-mail programs show attachments.

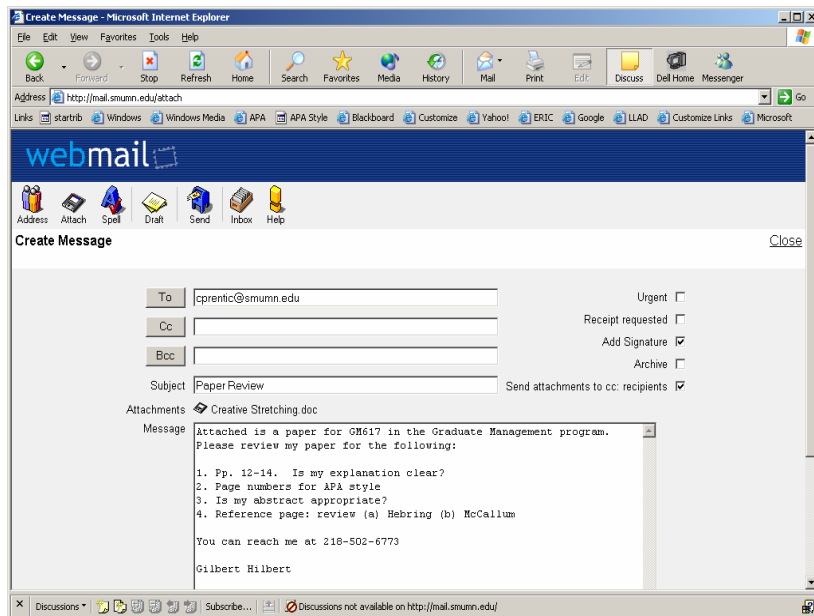


Figure 17b, Web Mail Window Indicating Attachment

When you send a paper for review, the reviewer can insert comments into the margins of your text. (Electronic comments are standard procedure when Writing Center staff review papers online.) The comments can be operated a number of ways. These directions will help you manage them. You can also insert your own comments into your document. (See Figure 18)

These instructions are for Microsoft® Word 2000 for Windows XL. Comments may appear and function differently in another version of Word.

**Show All Comments in a Document** To show all comments in your document,

1. on the menu bar, click View
2. click to turn on the Markup icon

This procedure also allows you to print your document *with* comments.

**Hide All Comments in a Document** To hide all comments from your view,

1. on the menu bar, click View
2. click to turn off the Markup icon

This procedure removes comments from view temporarily but does not delete them. The procedure also allows you to print the paper *without* comments showing.

**Delete Comments From a Document** To permanently delete any comment from a document,

1. right click on the comment
2. select and click Delete Comment

**Print Document With or Without Comments**

To print *with* comments,

1. on the menu bar, click View
2. click to turn on the Markup icon
3. print as usual.

To print *without* comments,

1. on the menu bar, click View
2. click to turn off the Markup icon
3. print as usual

**Add Your Own Comments to a Documents**

To insert *your own* comment into a document,

1. place the cursor at the insertion point and click (or highlight a string of text)
2. on the menu bar, click Insert
3. click to turn on the Comment icon

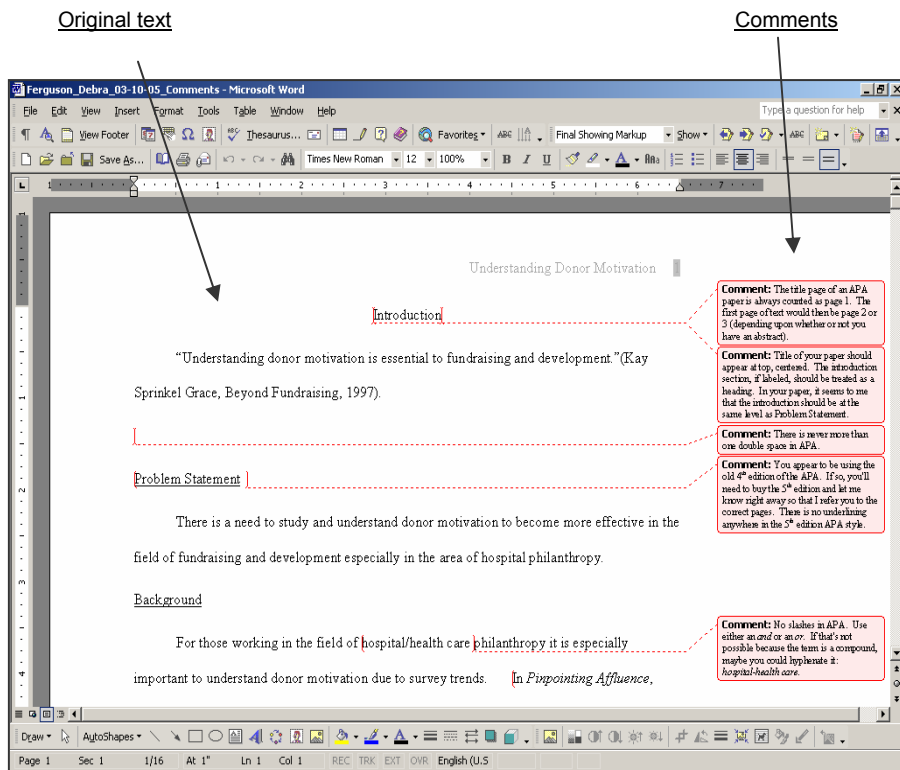
NOTES**Remove Strikethrough**

If your paper contains words with a line through them (to suggest that you omit or replace those words), you can remove the strikethrough as follows:

1. highlight the words,
2. on the menu bar, click **F**ormat, then **F**ont,
3. click to remove check in the *strikethrough* box,
4. click OK to return to document.

The strikethrough will be removed, but the words will remain.

Figure 18 illustrates a screen showing document comments.



**Figure 18, Screen Showing Document with Electronic Comments**

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Works Consulted for This Section

- American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Rubin, C. (1999). *Running Microsoft® Word 2000*. Redmond, WA: Microsoft Press.

## WRITING TIPS

### ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE [2.06]

#### Active Voice

Instructors often tell students to write in the *active voice*. What does this mean? Active voice emphasizes a subject *doing* something, as in the following sentence:

Captain Hawes fired the gun.  
I made a mistake.

#### Passive Voice

By contrast, passive voice emphasizes something *done to* a subject.

The gun was fired.  
A mistake was made.

Passive voice emphasizes a different subject: in the examples above, passive voice places the focus on *gun* and *mistake*, while active voice places the focus on who fired the gun and who made the mistake.

Passive voice can also leave out important information—*who* did the action—contributing to vagueness and evasiveness.

#### Active or Passive Voice?

In general, use the active voice because it is usually more direct, provides more information, and reduces wordiness. Passive voice often requires more words than active voice to express an idea, thus contributing to the problem of wordiness.

Active: Captain Hawes fired the gun.  
Passive: The gun was fired by Captain Hawes.

Active: The President made a mistake.  
Passive: A mistake was made by the President.

However, use the passive voice when you want to emphasize the *receiver* rather than the *doer* of the action:

Passive: Tetracycline was increased to 50 mg.  
Active: Researchers increased tetracycline to 50 mg.

Passive: Students in Klein's (2003) study were paid \$25 to participate.  
Active: Klein (2003) paid students \$25 to participate in the study.

Use passive voice to avoid awkward and vague pronouns (like the pronouns *you* and *we*, when they don't refer to identified individuals):

Active: You can use fewer words, but you will lose important information.  
Passive: Fewer words can be used, but important information will be lost.

In the last example, passive voice removes the the vague subject, *you*, and places the emphasis on what can be done, rather than who can do it.

### VERBS: TENSE FOR REPORTING RESEARCH [2.06]

Research is always reported in the past tense. (*Tense* is the grammatical term for *time*.) Whatever was said, done, written, etc. was done earlier and is not still being done. Note the earlier examples and their past tense verbs. Here are some past tense verbs used for writing about research. *These words have different meanings, so select carefully for your context:*

accepted	accounted for	advised	advocated	affirmed
agreed	analyzed	asserted	claimed	commented
concurred	considered	contradicted	countered	declared
defended	demonstrated	denied	described	disavowed
disclaimed	discovered	disputed	dissented	emphasized
established	examined	explained	explored	expressed
implied	indicated	informed	inquired	investigated
maintained	mentioned	noted	observed	offered
posited	presented	probed	promoted	proposed
questioned	recognized	recorded	recounted	refuted
rejected	related	remarked	reported	repudiated
revealed	stated	studied	suggested	summarized
supported	surveyed	theorized	urged	

Although research is reported in the past tense (because the research was done in the past), sometimes *present* tense is needed to express general truths or facts that exist in the present. Consider the following example: ★

Galileo *realized* that the earth *revolves* the sun.

The realizing took place in the past, but the earth is still revolving around the sun.

## ***APOSTROPHES***

## NOTES

### **To Show Ownership or Possession**

- Add an apostrophe and an s ('s) to words that don't end with an s.  
     somebody's car (the car belonging to somebody)  
     the men's locker room (the locker room of the men)  
     a month's rent (the rent of a month)
- Add only an apostrophe after the to words that already end in s.  
     twelve days' pay (that is, the pay for twelve days)  
     the students' tests (that is, tests belonging to the *students*)
- To show joint possession, add an apostrophe and s to only the last word in the group: e.g.,  
     Laurel and Hardy's last movie (a movie by the team of Laurel and Hardy.)
- But to show individual possession, add an apostrophe and s to each word in the group: e.g.,  
     Fossum's and Day's opinions (the opinions of Fossum, and the opinions of Day)

### **To Form Contractions**

Show Omission of Letters with Apostrophes

Could not = couldn't    He is = he's    They are = they're    Cannot = can't

Correct an Especially Troublesome Error

*It's* (a contraction) means *it is* (e.g., It's not snowing now).  
*Its* means *belonging to it* (e.g., The school lost its funding).

To test for correctness, ask yourself, "Do I mean *it is*?"

### **★ Avoid Misuse of apostrophes.**

Do not use an apostrophe for simple plurals.

Wrong: All the ~~player's~~ knew this was the last chance to score.

Right: All the players knew this was the last chance to score.

Do not use an apostrophe for pronouns that already indicate possession.

Wrong: We didn't know the suitcases were ~~her's~~ (~~your's~~, ~~their's~~, ~~our's~~).

Right: We didn't know the suitcases were hers (yours, theirs, ours).

In APA style, do not use apostrophes for plurals of numerals or letters.



## TRANSITIONS and CONJUNCTIONS: Punctuation and Meanings

**Coordinating Conjunctions:** for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

1. Lucy didn't like the way the contest was run. She let the judges know it.
2. Lucy didn't like the way the contest was run, and she let the judges know it.

The second example is a compound sentence—two independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunction.

**Punctuation Rule:** Use a comma before a coordinating conjunction when it joins two independent clauses.

**Subordinating Conjunctions:** as, after, although, because, before, if, when, while, since, until, unless, so (that), whether, even though

1. The contest was unfair. Many people did not applaud for the winner.
2. *Because* the contest was unfair, many people did not applaud for the winner.
3. The winner could not enjoy her victory *because* she knew the contest was unfair.

The last two examples are *complex* sentences—one independent clause and one dependent clause. The dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction.

**Punctuation Rule:** When a *dependent* (incomplete) clause begins a sentence, use a comma at the end of the clause. When the *independent* (complete) clause begins the sentence, a comma is not necessary before the conjunction.

**Adverbial Conjunctions:** consequently, furthermore, however, in fact, indeed, likewise, moreover, otherwise, therefore

1. Everyone wants a new set of rules. Changes are not possible until next year.
2. Everyone wants a new set of rules; *however*, changes are not possible until next year.

The second example is a compound sentence—two independent clauses

**Punctuation Rule:** Use a semicolon between the independent clauses and a comma after the conjunction.

**Transition Words:** Adverbial conjunctions can be used as transition words, but so can many other words.

Examples are simple sentences—one independent clause each.

1. Everyone wants a new set of rules. **However**, changes are not possible until next year.
2. Everyone wants a new set of rules. Changes are not possible, **however**, until next year.
3. Everyone wants a new set of rules. Changes are not possible until next year, **however**.

**Punctuation Rule:** Punctuate the sentences and then set off the transition words with *commas*

### Transitions and Their Meanings

Transitional words and phrases link ideas in one clause or sentence with those in the next. They help the reader see the relationships between ideas. Think of them as *bridges* linking one idea to another, or as road signs that lead the way.

Some of these words may be used between independent clauses that have been joined by a semicolon. In that case, they are called *adverbial conjunctions*, and they are set off by a comma. Note this example: Lara was loud, bossy, and insensitive; consequently, people avoided her whenever possible. Transitional expressions placed elsewhere *within* the clause are punctuated with commas. Here are some frequently used transitional expressions and their most common uses.

**Example:** specifically, for instance, for example, to illustrate, in particular, especially, most importantly

**Addition:** also, furthermore, besides, likewise, moreover, again, finally, in addition, in the first (second, third) place, what is more, at last, next, beyond that

**Comparison and Contrast:** Comparison: similarly, likewise, at the same time, in the same way, in like manner Contrast: however, nevertheless, still, nonetheless, conversely, rather, whereas, on the one hand, on the other hand, on the contrary, by contrast, in contrast,

**Repetition:** again, in other words, once again, to repeat, as stated

**Cause and Result:** therefore, thus, hence, consequently, as a result, all in all, for this/that reason, because

**Conclusion:** finally, then, thus, hence, therefore, in conclusion, to summarize, in short, all in all, in brief, on the whole

**Time:** earlier, before, since, subsequently, eventually, gradually, meanwhile, simultaneously, now, immediately, recently, suddenly, currently, during, then, next, after a while, at last, in the meantime, until now

**Concession:** doubtless, surely, certainly, naturally, granted, no doubt, admittedly

**Place:** elsewhere, here, there

## TROUBLESOME WORDS

Because of the complexity of English spelling rules and pronunciation, writers sometimes confuse some common words. The word processor's spell check can't help with these because all are correctly spelled. Writers should determine which words confuse them, and then memorize ways to keep them straight. Here is a list of words that writers often confuse. Learn some memory devices to help you tell them apart.

a lot	accept/except	affect/effect
all right	between/among	coarse/course
it's/its	knew/new, know/no	loose/lose
passed/past	personal/personnel	quiet/quit/quite
suppose/supposed	than/then	their/there/they're
though/thought/tough	use/used	wear/we're/were
weather/whether	who's/whose	you're/your

### Helpful Hints for Troublesome Words

**Accept/except** *Except* always means that something/someone is left out (*x'd* out):  
Everyone is going *except* Sam. (Sam is *x'd* out.)

**Affect/effect** *Effect* means *result*, so try substituting *result*. (Note that both *result* and *effect* have an *e* in the beginning.)

The effect of Gena's greed was that she lost her inheritance. (*Result* makes sense, so *effect* must be correct.)

I wonder how this powder will affect my skin. (*Result* does not make sense, so *affect* must be correct.)

**Between** is used only between two: a secret between my mother and father

**Among** is used with more than two: a fad among American teens

**Course** refers to a course of study and contains a *u*. U (you) pass a course.

**Coarse** means *crude, rough, or rude*, like the word *arse* (*ass*), which it contains.

**Here** is a place (*here* and *there*). *Hear* means *listen* (has an *ear* in it).

**Loose/lose** Remember that *loose* rhymes with *goose* and both have double *o*'s. If you want to use *lose*, you have to *lose* an *o*.

**Passed** is something *done*. (Harry passed the quiz. The bus passed us by.)

**Past** refers to a condition, location, or time.

The time for grief is past (a condition).

Drive past the Dairy Queen (a location).

Have you had car trouble in the past (a time)?

Note the difference in *past* and *passed*:

Glenda passed Henry in the park. (She did it.)

She rode past him on her bike. (Where she rode--a location)

She had done that in the past. (When--a time)

### Quit/quite/quiet

1. Quit rhymes with white (substitute *qu* for *wh*)

2. Quit rhymes with shit (substitute *qu* for *sh*)

3. Quiet has two syllables: qui-et

### Should have/would have/ must have

Some people write *should of* when they mean *should have*. People do this because, when pronounced, *should have* gets run together ("should've") so that it sounds like *should of*. In fact, no construction called *should of* exists in the English language. Always write *should have, would have, must have*.

### Then/than

1. *Then* has to do with time, and it rhymes with *when*, another time word: I can't go out when it rains. Then (at that time) I work on my school work.

2. *Than* is used with comparisons: She is taller than I am.

3. *Then* rhymes with *when*. *Than* rhymes with *fan*.

### There/their/they're

1. *There* is a place, like *here* and *there*.

2. *Their* shows ownership (their coats), as an *heir* owns the family fortune.

3. *They're* is a contraction for *they are*. Try substituting *they are* to see if it makes sense in the sentence.

**Though** (pronounced *tho*, rhymes with *go*) means *although*.

**Thought** refers to brain activity: She thought carefully before answering.

**Tough** (pronounced *tuff*) means *hardy* or *thick-skinned*. (Associate with *rough*).

**To** and **too** can be told apart by the fact that *too* means *also* or *in excess* and it has an excessive number of *o*'s. (It has one, and one more.)

### Wear/were/where

1. Wear your earrings on your ear. *Wear* is something you *do*.

2. *Where* is about a place: Where is the Tootsie Roll I left here?

**Whether/weather** *Weather* contains the letters for heat.

**Contractions:** Test contractions by substitutions in the following way.

*Its* or *it's* The dog chased *its* tail. (*not it's = it is*)

*Your/you're* If Brad comes along, *you're* going to be sorry (you are).

*Were/we're* I don't understand why *we're* moving. (*we're = we are*)

## AVOIDING PRONOUN CONFUSION

To avoid repetition of nouns, writers use pronouns as substitutes for nouns already named.

Jamison told the woman that **his** (Jamison's) table was wobbly because **his** (Jamison's) son had lopped off **its** (the table's) leg with **his** (Jamison's son's) toy saw.

Pronouns are extremely useful as long as their antecedents (the words they stand for) are absolutely clear. When pronouns are vague—when their antecedents are not clear—readers are left to guess at their meanings. Such guessing irritates readers and causes misinterpretations. (Lawyers know a lot about pronouns!)

- **Make sure that pronouns refer to something specific and that what they refer to cannot be misunderstood.**

Managers wanted new policies immediately, but this didn't happen until June.

What exactly does *this* stand for in the sentence above? *This* managers? *This* policies? No single antecedent exists for *this*. The sentence needs to be recast. Here are some possibilities:

Managers wanted new policies immediately but didn't get them until June.

Managers wanted new policies immediately, but these new policies weren't implemented until June.

*This, that, these, and those* are pronouns frequently used carelessly, leaving readers to ask, "This *what?*" "That *what?*"

- **Do not use this, that, these, or those unless the antecedent has already been named.**

Suddenly this woman rose from her chair and stalked out.

Unless *this woman* has been introduced to readers in a previous sentence, they will wonder, "What woman?"

- **If you have trouble with vague pronouns, avoid using *this, that, these, and those* all alone.**

Edwards' boundless optimism creates high expectations on a limited budget. That worries his supporters.

What worries Edwards' supporters: his optimism, the high expectations, or the budget? The word *that* alone doesn't tell us. Use the appropriate term after *that*. For example,

Edwards' boundless optimism creates high expectations on a limited budget. That optimism worries his supporters.

- **Double check your use of *which, that, who*. Readers usually associate a pronoun with the noun closest to it.**

Homeless people waited for hours in the cold rain to get into the shelter, which made many of them ill.

How alarming to think that the shelter made them ill! That's what the sentence suggests, however. The word *which* is associated with the noun closest to it: *shelter*. Recast the sentence to place *which* next to the noun it refers to:

To get into the shelter, homeless people waited for hours in the cold rain, which made many of them ill.

Perhaps it wasn't just the cold rain that made them ill. To include the waiting, recast the sentence again, this time eliminating *which*

Waiting in the cold rain for hours to get into the shelter made many of the homeless people ill.

- **Avoid the Great Unnamed.**

It was not revealed by the authors why only women were included in the trial.

*It* seems not to refer to anybody or anything in the sentence. (Actually *it* refers to the entire phrase *why only women were included in the study*, making its use redundant.) Recast the sentence:

The authors did not reveal why they had included only women in the trial.

- **Never use *you* in academic writing.**

The study showed that you can reduce the risk of stroke by taking one baby aspirin per day.

The use of *you* suggests a specific reader, who, even if known, should not be addressed directly. Such direct forms of address are just too chummy for academic or professional writing. Recast the sentence:

Research showed that taking one baby aspirin per day can reduce the risk of stroke.

- **Never use *we/us* or *they/ them* unless those pronouns refer to specific individuals.**

We know that people pay attention when their money is at stake.

Who is the *we* in the sentence above? The writer is including himself and some unspecified others. *Unspecified* means *vague*. The use of *we* creates another rhetorical problem: by including all readers, the writer ensures that *somebody* will disagree. Using *we* to mean *everyone* challenges someone to disagree, thereby creating the opposite effect intended.

If a work is co-authored, using *we* to refer specifically to the authors is fine:

We (the other author and I) designed the study to exclude girls between the ages of 6 and 8 years.

**? Am I allowed to use "I" or "we" in a paper?**

Yes. In fact you *should*. The APA says this about the use of first person pronoun (*I, We*):

Inappropriately or illogically attributing action in an effort to be objective can be misleading. Examples of undesirable attribution include use of the third person . . . and use of the editorial we. . . Writing "The experimenters instructed the participants when "the experimenters" refers to yourself is ambiguous and may give the impression that you did not take part in your own study. Instead, use a personal pronoun: "We instructed the participants." (p. 37).

For clarity, restrict your use of *we* to refer only to yourself and your coauthors (use *I* if you are the sole author of the paper) (p. 39; see also 4th example p. 52).

**ELIMINATING WORDINESS**

*Wordiness* refers to the habit of loading one's writing with words that don't contribute to the purpose or meaning of one's message. Why do people resort to wordiness? Some resort to wordiness because they've been assigned a 500-word paper, but have only 200 words worth of ideas about the topic. Hence, the extra words to satisfy the word count. Unfortunately, wordiness adds quantity but subtracts from the quality.

Other writers use extra words to obscure fuzzy or undeveloped thinking. When they're not sure what they're talking about, they try to cover their inadequacies with words. Most readers, however, recognize the ploy. Writers who rely on verbosity lose credibility with their readers.

Some writers are wordy without realizing it. They employ stock phrases without considering whether or not they add meaning to our sentences. Below are some examples. Wordiness is a problem that should be corrected when revising. Mark out those meaningless or repetitive phrases.

The Western style of academic and business writing requires you to (a) state ideas directly and clearly, and (b) use as few words as possible to get the point across.

**Don't use more words than you have to:**

in this day and age = today  
at this point in time = now

**Don't say the same thing twice:**

in the month of November = in November  
yellow in color = yellow

**Don't use words that don't add meaning:**

The fact of the matter is that I'm tired = I'm tired

WORDY

CONCISE

an unexpected surprise ----- a surprise  
at that point in time ----- then  
due to the fact that ----- because  
end result ----- result

past history----- history  
He is a person who can be trusted ----- He can be trusted.  
in order to----- to  
the field of computer science----- computer science  
There are many teens who smoke.----- Many teens smoke.  
two different kinds----- two kinds  
refer back to----- refer to  
surrounded on all sides----- surrounded  
There is no doubt that he lost. ----- No doubt he lost.

Unless you know that you are a very succinct drafter, you should plan to cut your wordage by 20% in your first revision of each paper. Read through your work and find places to cut repetitions and unnecessary wording. The following is an excerpt from a paper written for a management course.

~~The employees were not in agreement with the change in operational procedures that the manager was wanting. Owing to the fact that they had much work to do, it was not easy for them to adapt to new changes. What they were trying to express was that they were dissatisfied, but there was a lot of resistance to their communication on the part of the manager. It seems to me that the manager should have been able to work out some way to let the employees of her company be heard by her. A manager who had good training would have had an idea about what to do. Personally, I don't think that the manager in this company had been trained very well. As far as my opinion, I would have to say the poor managers are the kind of people who don't listen to what their employees are trying to say, whereas good managers try to find ways for the employees to express themselves and then try to respond to what the employees are saying.~~

Now compare the paragraph to the following one, which has been revised for wordiness and redundancy:

The employees did not agree with the supervisor's proposed procedural changes. Because they had heavy workloads, they could not easily adapt to change. They tried to express their dissatisfaction, but the manager resisted communication. The manager should have listened to her employees. A well-trained manager would have known what to do. Poor managers don't listen, whereas good managers listen and respond to their employees' feedback.

## IMPROVING SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION: PARALLELISM

*Parallelism* means that all sections are grammatically equal or balanced. Consider the following example:

*Whenever Harry has free time, he enjoys sailing, hiking, and he plays basketball.*

Remember that old jingle from Sesame Street?



One of these things is not like the others . . .

Whenever Harry has free time, he enjoys  
(a) sailing,  
(b) hiking,  
and  
(c) to play basketball.

What is not like the others, of course, is the phrase *to play basketball*. It is grammatically unparallel. The sentence would be better written as follows:

Harry enjoys sailing, hiking, and playing basketball.

That way, each of the three elements is expressed in grammatically parallel form.

Parallel sentences are easier for readers to grasp, and they indicate that you have thought through carefully what you intend to write. Everyone would understand (though maybe not appreciate) the sentence about Harry, even if it weren't parallel. The sentences you write in your paper, however, are likely to be more complex and carry more sophisticated messages than *Harry likes sailing*, and their ideas much more sophisticated, causing readers to rely more on the grammatical structure.

Here are two examples of sophisticated sentences with parallelism problems:

### 1. Example 1

#### Unparallel

The course instructor helped us see the necessity of designing meaningful curriculum, meeting the required standards, and to keep the human element in mind.

#### Parallel

The course instructor helped us see the necessity of designing meaningful curriculum, meeting the required standards, and keeping the human element in mind.

### 2. Example 2

#### Unparallel

Johnston hypothesized that with drug X, post-operative recovery would be fast, improved respiratory status, and with better pain control than drug Y.

#### Parallel . . . but

Johnston hypothesized that with drug X, post-operative recovery would be fast, respiratory status would improve, and pain control would be better than drug Y.

The sentence still has problems because the comparison is not clear and the parallel elements are awkward; so let's take the sentence a step further:

#### Parallel and Improved

Johnston hypothesized that, in comparison to drug Y, drug X would speed post-operative recovery, improve respiratory status, and provide better pain control.

In the last example, each element begins with a simple verb to eliminate the awkward and repetitious *would be* construction. Also, the comparison is clarified by placing the items being compared—the drugs—in the same part of the sentence.

## WRITING A SUMMARY, RESPONSE, OR CRITIQUE

**Summary.** A condensed version of an original presentation that

- identifies the original author by name,
- identifies the context for the original presentation, and
- states the original author's main idea and major points

**Response.** Describes and explains your *intellectual* response to the original author's presentation. The response may include one or more of the following:

- how the original author's ideas compare to the ideas of other experts.
- whether or not the original presentation contained logical flaws or misinformation.
- whether or not the author responded to other points of view on the subject.
- how the author's ideas might be applied or how they might change a situation if they were (or were not) applied.

**Critique.** A combination of summary and response. Summary precedes response in a critique.

### Tips For Writing Good Summaries

- Put aside your own opinions when you begin to read the original, and do not let yourself mentally argue with the author as you read. Remain objective in order to "hear" what the author is saying.
- Start your reading with these questions, in this order:
  - What is the topic?
  - What opinion does the author most want readers to keep in mind about this topic?
  - What arguments or information does the author use to convince (or try to convince) readers?
- Summarize *as you read*. Write a sentence in your own words at the end of each paragraph. Draw from these sentences for your final summary. Put the text out of view to ensure that you are summarizing *in your own words*. Check yourself.

- Never insert your own ideas into a summary. A summary contains only the ideas of the original author. Period. Your opinions are appropriate for the response or critique.
- Formatting can give you hints about main ideas and supporting points.
  - The title can suggest a question and answer about the topic.
  - Headings and section breaks can give a clue to main topics.
  - Italics or boldface type usually indicate an important point.
  - Paragraph or sentence numbering can indicate important points.
  - The main idea of a paragraph is often (though not always) expressed in the first two or last two sentences of the paragraph.
  - The first paragraph often provides an overview of the entire article. The last paragraph often provides a very brief summary.
- Examples, illustrations, and anecdotes (little stories) are almost never main points. When you run across an example, ask yourself: Ok, what is this an example of?
- Use the original author's ideas, but not his or her words. Instead, paraphrase the author. *Paraphrase* means that you read the author's words, and, without referring to the text, write down the author's idea in your own words.
- Make sure you understand what you're reading. If you don't, talk to someone— instructor, classmate, Writing Center consultant—until you are sure you do. You can't summarize what you don't understand. Get help: it's not only allowed, it's encouraged.

### Tips for Writing Good Responses

- In academic or scholarly writing,
  - responses are based on facts that you can support (facts from experts, class discussions, assigned reading in your text, and the like), not on hearsay or emotions
  - responses are based on the original author's purpose and audience.
  - you must provide support for the opinions you express in your response.
  - your opinions and interpretations appear only in your response, not in your summary of the author's work.
- Sometimes an instructor will ask you for a gut reaction or a reaction based on your own experience. In that case, and only in that case, you may stray from Point 4 above. Still, you should try to analyze your reaction so that you can state *why* you responded as you did.

### Tips for Writing Good Critiques

The most frequent mistake students make when asked to critique an article is to tell the instructor only what the article is about. A critique requires that you articulate *your opinions* about the article. If your instructor does not provide guidelines for writing a critique, follow these:

- Identify the author, his or her affiliation, and the context for the article or presentation.
- In one to three paragraphs, summarize the article: Describe the focus and identify the major points of the article. Do not insert your opinions in this part.
- If the work being critiqued is a research study, describe the type of research, including purpose and methodology.
- Comment on the author's assumptions, methods, and conclusions. What was the author trying to accomplish? Did the author acknowledge and respond to other points of view? How objective was he or she? What new ideas were presented? How do the author's ideas compare with prevailing views on the topic? What strengths or weaknesses did you notice in the author's methods and reporting?
- Comment on the author's work in terms of your own knowledge and experiences with the topic. If you came away with new insights, explain them. If you disagree with the author, say why; but explain your views as they derive from knowledge and objective experience, not from feelings or intuition.
- Describe how you can apply what you learned from the article. If you reject its application, explain why. How could others in your profession apply this information?
- Provide a complete reference for the article in APA style.

**NOTE:** Special instructions from your instructor always take precedence over this guideline.

Increase Your Vocabulary!  
Join Merriam-Webster Inc.'s *Word of the Day*  
To join the list via e-mail, send a blank e-mail to  
[mw-wod-subscribe-request@listserv.webster.m-w.com](mailto:mw-wod-subscribe-request@listserv.webster.m-w.com)



## FORMULATING A RESEARCH QUESTION AND THESIS

Once you have selected a topic, you might think you are ready to search for information—but hold on a minute! Ask yourself, *what do I want to know about this topic?* If it's a topic you are familiar with, ask yourself, *what is the most important point to make about this topic?* Such questions give you motivation and focus, and they help you stay on track. You'll know what you're looking for: the answer to your questions.

An outline or overview—a roadmap, if you will—is very helpful at this point. You need to know where you are going, how to get there, and when you have arrived. If necessary, or if you desire, you can revise the outline and the research question as you proceed.

Your answer to the major research question is the **thesis** of your paper. Have you ever read something, and afterwards found yourself asking so . . . *what's the point?* If there is no point, it's because the essay, research paper, or editorial didn't have a thesis—or at least a clear one.

Sometimes you won't refine your own thesis until you've completed your research. However, you'll never find the thesis without a research question.

## WRITING AN ABSTRACT

Abstracts can vary according to the purpose of the document and the instructor's or publisher's preferences. The following points, however, are useful general guidelines. For additional information, including styles for empirical studies, reviews or theoretical articles, methodological papers, or case studies, see Section 1.07 of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition.

### Length

An abstract is less than one page, double-spaced. It is generally one paragraph ranging in length from 75 to 120 words.

### Contents

- Write a comprehensive summary of the article, including conclusions.
- Indicate the purpose and scope of the information contained in the article.
- Describe the kinds of sources used (professional literature, observation, interview, etc.) or methods or procedures, depending upon type of article.
- State conclusions, implications, and applications.
- Use key words used in the article that will enable database searchers (a) to discover your work in a keyword search and (b) to decide whether your article is pertinent to their needs.
- Mention nothing in the abstract that is not included in the article.
- Be focused: Use specific nouns (e.g., *elementary science teachers*, not *educators*) and active verbs.
- Be objective: Summarize, but don't evaluate or editorialize.
- Be *concise*; every word must count.

### Tips for Being Concise

- Do not repeat the title in the abstract.
- Avoid citing sources if possible.
- Use numerals (e.g. 32) rather than words (thirty-two).
- Start with the most important statement about the article.
- Include only the most important findings.
- Do not include examples.
- Avoid passive voice (e.g., not *similar results were reported by three researchers . . .*, but *three researchers reported similar results*).
- Avoid starting sentences with "it is" and "there are" (e.g., not *There were four studies that showed . . .*, but *Four studies showed*).
- Avoid meaningless phrases like *This review was undertaken to compare x and y* (instead of *This review compares x and y*)

### APA Formatting

- The abstract follows title page and is numbered as page 2.
- Type the word *Abstract* one inch from top margin, centered, no italics or bold, only first letter capitalized (Style 1 heading).
- Double-space throughout, including after title line.
- Use same font as body of article.

### Other APA Rules for Abstracts

- Avoid abbreviations if possible, but define them if used.
- Do not use quotes; if citation is necessary, use brief the form (author, pub date).
- Use third person (*he, she, it, they*) but not first (*I, we*) or second (*you*).

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#### Works Consulted for This Section

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- Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary* (10<sup>th</sup> ed.). (2001). Springfield, MA: Merriam Webster.
- Szuchman, L. T. (2005). *Writing with style: APA style made easy* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.



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- **Links to APA Information On-line.**
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