Franklin Style Manual

A resource for avoiding plagiarism and using APA style (6th ed.)

FRANKLIN UNIVERSITY

Updated September 2011

Dear students and faculty,

The Franklin Style Manual *is adapted from the Student Learning Center's earlier* APA Guide. *Besides integrating the latest APA guidelines* (*as presented in the 6th edition of* The Publication Manual for the American Psychological Association, 2010), *this manual provides extra discussion of fundamental writing tasks, such as locating sources and avoiding plagiarism. While these additions cannot replace full research and writing guides, like those you will be assigned for courses having a major writing component, the guidelines here should remind you of the key purposes and aims of research writing and academic work in general, which will help you on the pathway to success for any writing assignment.*

Our reason for revising Franklin's APA guide so substantially is that we are a growing institution, regularly developing new majors that bring into our learning community a wider variety of students and faculty. As discussed later in this manual, the expectations for writing vary more or less with each discipline and course, many of which require minor alterations to Franklin's chosen standard for academic papers—that is, the APA guidelines for scholarly publication. In fact, APA has itself left many of its recommendations open to revision and clarification depending on the purposes and expectations of particular writing communities. In order to have the common APA standard serve as a true "go-to" standard for academic coursework, as opposed to just a vague guide for preparing manuscripts, a fuller manual was required, in part, "to get everyone on the same page." This manual, then, clarifies expectations for academic writing at Franklin, identifying where Franklin as an institution diverges from APA recommendations and where particular assignments, courses, or instructors may diverge from both APA and Franklin-wide recommendations. Whenever you have questions about the material in this document and how it can be applied to particular assignments, you are encouraged to ask your instructor and, if further help is required, to contact the tutors at the Student Learning Center: slc@franklin.edu.

As a document intended to accommodate a growing, modern university, finally, the Franklin Style Manual *should be considered a work in progress. We on the Franklin Writing Team encourage you to send suggestions for modifications, disagreements with standards, or requests for additions to the following e-mail address: writing@franklin.edu. We will review these submissions regularly as we publish periodic revisions and updates to the manual itself.*

Write well!
January 20, 2011

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Introduction

The term "style manual" (or "style guide"), while commonly used to describe a writing resource like this document, is often misunderstood. Style manuals do *not* primarily focus on how to improve one's verbal style (though some of the guidelines can certainly help). Rather, they present and clarify a variety of conventions for grammar, formatting, and documentation expected when writing for specific communities of readers. You may recognize many of the following style manuals: the *Chicago Manual of Style*, the *Publication Manual for the American Psychology Association,* and the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. Each of these manuals treats composition and presentation guidelines shared by fairly large academic audiences having different specialties and interests. Since most professional societies and organizations adopt some set of guidelines, often based on one of the manuals listed above, you will need to learn to use references like this one as standard practice in producing formal written work, whether writing for colleagues or classmates.

The *Franklin Style Manual* reflects Franklin University's expectations for using APA formatting and documentation guidelines. Use this manual whenever your coursework calls for a paper following APA guidelines for grammar, usage, formatting, or documentation. When a course requires other materials that also treat APA documentation (which often occurs in writing classes), use the required textbook as your primary reference and this manual as a supplement. When there seem to be conflicting guidelines, your instructor can tell you what he or she expects. Some classes and assignments, moreover, may follow alternative guidelines for formatting, editing, and proofing, in particular, guidelines that match the expectations of more specialized fields of work. This is especially true for later coursework in your program of study, which will present you with particular conventions for professionals in your field. When you have questions about which references and resources to use, ask your instructor for clarification. She or he will determine what exceptions or modifications to this manual's guidelines should be followed to meet the aims of the particular class or assignment.

Finally, beyond serving as a common style manual for editing, formatting, and documenting academic papers at Franklin University, this guide also provides an extended discussion of plagiarism. Each year, many students are disciplined for committing plagiarism because they do not understand what plagiarism is or the ways to avoid it by correctly citing and quoting sources. To understand the academic concerns about plagiarism, you should keep in mind the common aims of all work you submit in the process of earning your degree. As stated in Franklin's *Academic Bulletin, 2010-2011*, "the purpose of education is to advance one's own intellectual skills and to demonstrate the outcomes of those efforts" (p. 16). To demonstrate your own intellectual achievements accurately, you need to acknowledge how the work of others contributed to your own efforts. Consequently, the initial sections of the manual, before coming to the specifics concerning plagiarism, will discuss research writing in more general terms.

1. Researching and Writing Responsibly

One desired outcome of many college-level writing assignments is active intellectual engagement with other thinkers, whether they be experts in your field, professionals outside your field, or just fellow citizens sharing common concerns and facing similar issues. Quite often, students will demonstrate their intellectual engagement in writing, especially by responding to or drawing upon the thoughts and ideas of other writers. To participate responsibly in these "academic conversations," you have the obligation both to analyze the varying perspectives on your topic and to represent those perspectives fairly and appropriately for the purposes of each particular assignment. In other words, as a researcher, you will need to be curious about other views and diligent in finding and analyzing them; as a writer, you will need to present your own ideas and analysis without plagiarizing or misrepresenting the words or ideas of others.

1.1 Finding Sources

For many writing assignments, your instructor will provide sources with which to work. However, you will often be required to locate sources on your own. While the types of sources you are asked to use may vary from class to class and assignment to assignment, you will ultimately have the responsibility to resolve these following research decisions more or less independently: (a) how to locate credible and appropriate sources addressing your topic; (b) whether the sources you locate suit the purposes of the assignment; and (c) whether you have done enough research to achieve the goals of the assignments. Your instructors will give you more or less specific guidance for achieving these research tasks, depending on the scope of the assignment and level of the course, but below you will find some fundamental considerations for doing any research project.

§ 1.1.1 Are you conducting the appropriate kind of research?

There are two general types of research, primary and secondary. *Primary research* includes any collection of facts and details gathered through direct interaction with or observation of the subject being studied. Interviews, surveys, laboratory experiments, and methodical field observations are all examples of primary research. *Secondary research* comes from published sources documenting the research efforts (primary or secondary) of other individuals. Many writing assignments will accommodate both primary research and secondary research, but some assignments may favor one kind over the other. As you direct your research efforts, consider where to expend your energy in order to best meet the requirements of the assignment. For example, you will not want to spend time trying to locate a published interview of an expert (a secondary source) when your assignment calls for you to conduct your own interview of an expert (a primary source).

§ 1.1.2 Are you exploring a variety of media?

All sources come in some medium—or physical format—and some sources actually come in multimedia formats. While the most common distinction made is that between print and online media, there are, in fact, numerous other formats that can be used for a variety of research projects. These formats include CDs and DVDs, as well as paintings and sculptures. Print and online media themselves take a number of more or less common forms. Print sources can be books, periodicals,

or pamphlets, to name some of the most common. Online sources can be websites, digital media files, digitized articles and books, or e-mails. As a researcher, you need to understand how to access and navigate the media most likely to provide sources useful for your projects. You also need to know which publication and production details to record in your notes, so that you can document the sources appropriately. Each medium has special qualities that are considered more or less relevant for the purposes of documentation. Note that the list of model entries for the References page (in Section 2.3) is divided, for the most part, according to medium.

§ 1.1.3 Are you using the right search tools?

Besides existing in a variety of media, sources can be found in many ways. Primary sources, for instance, people to survey or interview, can be located on organizational websites. Many secondary sources, on the other hand, are thoroughly catalogued in library databases, including the main catalogue of the library's collection and more specialized research databases. A mix of sources, as most people know, can be found through Web search engines. At Franklin, you will probably use all these kinds of search tools. Be sure to take advantage of the many tutorials and other search resources provided by Franklin's Nationwide Library. When having difficulty locating suitable sources, ask a librarian for assistance, referring to your assignment as you explain to the librarian what kinds of sources you are trying to find and how you plan to use them.

§ 1.1.4 Are you recording the right information about your sources?

Before you can expect to use a source in a paper, you need to record some key information about the source so you can both determine whether the source has the proper credibility (see 1.2.5 below) and cite the source correctly, assuming you actually use it in your paper (see Section 2.2 below). The details you should record depend upon the medium by which the source was published or produced and (to a certain extent) how you found the source. Before you fully commit to reading a source, you might make sure you can find all the information needed to cite the source (see Section 2.3 below). This step may seem premature when you are still doing exploratory research, but locating such information actually prevents you from wasting time writing a paper built on sources that ultimately will not prove authoritative enough for your audience.

1.2 Evaluating Sources

As you browse through each potential source, pay extra attention to the details that determine the source's credibility. These include the author, the date of publication, and the publisher, as well as some qualities of the writing itself. Writing that includes documentation for references and standard edited English tends to carry more weight with academic audiences, especially if the source has been recently published by a peer-reviewed journal or respected academic press.

That is not to say that other sources will not be useful for some writing projects. For instance, you may be assigned to write an analysis of an advertising campaign, which would obviously require you to cite sources that do not have the level of scrutiny required for academic publications. Likewise, you may be asked to analyze popular views of a software product as conveyed in self-published blogs and online consumer forums, neither of which can stand for academic publications, no matter the credentials of the contributors. These sources are fine for some purposes, but not

others. The appropriateness of the source depends entirely upon the purpose of the assignment and how you are using the source in the paper. It is your job as a researcher and writer to make sure you know the criteria that determine a source's credibility for your writing project.

§ 1.2.1. Assessing the authority of sources

The overall authority of a source often depends upon the credentials of those writing or producing the sources, but it also depends upon whether the source has been scrutinized by professionals in the field. *Peer-reviewed* journals represent the pinnacle of academic authority (even though the articles in them are not perfect or beyond critique), since multiple experts in the discipline have read and approved a source for publication. Journalistic sources, such as newspapers, are also considered highly credible, because a professional editor exercising respected journalistic standards has reviewed the work of practicing journalists. Some current event sources may nonetheless be stronger than others. For any edited source, you can learn much about its authority and suitability by researching the periodical or press itself, which may have particular focus areas, biases, and agendas that may affect how readers perceive the source's credibility.

On the other end of the spectrum are unedited or self-published sources. In particular, sources written by anonymous online authors, such as *Wikipedia* articles or reader-posted comments on any site, do not uphold the standards of academic credibility, because readers never know the credentials of the last person who edited the entry. Any detail you find for reference on *Wikipedia* or similar *wiki* sites should be confirmed by a source having more authoritative production guidelines, such as those for peer-reviewed journals or professionally edited books. In fact, a wiki article itself may cite credible sources, which you can access directly for your own research project.

§ 1.2.2. Assessing Web search results

Bear in mind that sources found online tend to require extra scrutiny, especially when located via a Web search engine. One cannot simply type subject keywords into *Google* and expect to retrieve instantly the most recent, unbiased, or scholarly of sources. Many valuable sources may indeed show up in queries conducted via one of these broad Web searches, but you will need to sift through the results to determine which sources are appropriate for your assignment.

There are various qualities to look for in assessing appropriateness. Academic or professional sources from the Web include organizational home pages or online professional journals. Non-professional and non-academic sources may include personal home pages, blogs, or general online audience magazines. In general, if many pop-up advertisements, advertising banners on the sides of the page, and/or "flashy" advertisements exist on the page, it is not likely to have much academic credibility—even so, it may be suitable as a source representing popular perspectives or, in some cases, news on current events. If a page references other scholarly works or professionals, it may be worth investigating, or perhaps the sources referenced by the page are worth review themselves.

Remember, finally, that sources used in a project should be accessible to readers, who can learn details about the source on your References page. Some of these details may be tricky to identify with some online sources. The trickier it is, the less likely those sources will be of use to readers.

1.3 Using Sources Effectively

Whether you locate your sources yourself or are provided sources for reference by your instructor, you need to determine how they will fit into your own writing project. Remember, the purpose of using outside sources for academic papers is generally to obtain and reference material that supports *your* original observations, thesis, or main claim. If you find yourself using more quotations or paraphrases than writing your own material, you need to re-evaluate what *you* are actually contributing to your paper. What are the observations, analyses, and conclusions *you* bring to the topics? Your name is on the front page of the paper; therefore, *you* should provide most of the paper's content. Regardless of the assignment, do *not* simply collect and report material from others. Instead, insert your own voice by presenting an original analysis of what the sources say and critical thinking about their bases for saying it, how they say it, or what they do not say.

§ 1.3.1. Referencing sources in the body of the paper

As emphasized above, sources you reference in your paper should be utilized to help explain, support, and illustrate for your original observations and key points. Sources can provide examples; they can offer authoritative views on particular concepts; they can define analytical terminology you then apply to examples; and so on. Once you have determined the key points you want to make, you have a few options for drawing upon source material for support and illustration.

◊ **Quotation.** Quotation is using the exact wording of the original source. Be careful not to overuse quotations or present longer quotations than necessary. Quotations should only be used when the wording of the original source is either the main object of analysis or particularly poignant. You might, for instance, quote specific wording when analyzing controversial opinions expressed in sources, since readers will want reassurance that you are not just presenting a biased interpretation. While there are many other strategic reasons for using quotations of varying length to achieve a particular purpose, some general guidelines apply: (a) all quoted language must be put into quotation marks to avoid plagiarism (see the next section); (b) your own analysis and explanation of the quotation should be at least as long as the quotation itself; and, finally, (c) quotations should not generally appear in places where readers expect your original wording and observations (for instance, as a thesis statement, as a topic sentence for a paragraph, etc.).

◊ **Summary**. Summarizing is reiterating the main point conveyed by the source or describing the source's overall approach to the topic using your own words. You would summarize, as opposed to quote, when you want to report only the gist of the author's writing or quickly describe the manner by which the source treats the topic. If you go into particulars beyond what most readers can easily take away from a quick review of the source themselves, then you probably need to provide quotations or paraphrase specific passages, each of which requires more careful considerations for integration into your own writing, especially in terms of proper citation. While a summary does not require specific page references be cited, since the summary presumably reflects the gist of the source as a whole, you nonetheless need to cite and credit the source to avoid plagiarizing.

◊ **Paraphrase**. Paraphrasing is putting the ideas presented in a particular passage of a source into your own words. You would want to paraphrase a passage, as opposed to quote it, in order to tailor the concepts and ideas expressed by the source to fit your particular audience, which may not have

the same background and interests as the audience for whom the original source was written. You also might paraphrase a passage, rather than quote, to translate the ideas into terminology and concepts you already introduced in the paper, thereby better to support the overall purposes of your paper. Note that paraphrased passages can be either short, such as, a phrase conveying a statistic, or long, a whole paragraph explaining a complex idea. No matter their length, paraphrases should always be cited with references to specific passages in the original source. Bear in mind that paraphrasing is one of the key places where writers inadvertently plagiarize, either by borrowing original wording from the source without using quotation marks or by not making clear where the paraphrased ideas begin and original writing ends (and vice versa). See more in Section 1.4 below.

◊ **Figures and tables reproduced from sources.** Many writing projects in the digital age now include visual evidence for support. If you use a figure or table in the body of your paper, expect to explain its significance at length, just as you would explain and analyze an extended quotation. If you discuss the figure only in passing, then consider shifting it to an appendix appearing after the main body of the paper. Cite the table or figure as you would a quotation or paraphrase, noting the source and referencing the location where it appears in the source. Be sure to note any modifications you have made and provide appropriate headings and formatting.

§ 1.3.2. Introducing and positioning sources within a paper

As mentioned above, not all sources have equal credibility and suitability for all writing assignments. Likewise, when finally presenting sources within your paper, do not assume all play equal roles in helping you demonstrate your main points. Rather, as the writer, you should tell readers how the references to sources help you achieve your purpose. To make this connection for readers, you will need to spend time introducing important or controversial sources, especially so you can show your position on their relevance to your original treatment of the subject.

Too often, student writers jump right into a quotation or paraphrase without telling readers anything about the authority, expertise, or biases of the source's author(s). Similarly, student writers often omit sufficient explanation and examination of quotations and lengthy paraphrases, forcing readers to make their own connections between the source's observations and the paper's overall purpose. In both cases, the writer of the research paper loses a valuable opportunity to direct readers' attentions and lead them from what they already know and understand to new information and connections. Clear transitions and introductions to sources help demonstrate the writer's main thesis and persuade skeptical audience members to adopt a new point of view.

There are a few strategies writers can use to create meaningful transitions to source material. The primary verbal tool to frame such references is to begin them with phrases of attribution: *According to . . . , an economist at University . . . said; the head of the Finance Committee, . . . , stated;* and so on. Such phrases allow you to insert background information about the source. Another strategy writers often use is to dedicate extended passages, even whole paragraphs, to explaining how quotations and paraphrases reflect, support, or qualify points raised earlier in the paper. There are many other strategies for engaging with outside sources, and you are encouraged to discuss with your instructors the most commonly accepted ways for engaging with sources within your field. For more general guidance on how to introduce sources, you can also review the suggestions in numerous guides on research writing or arrange for tutoring with the Student Learning Center.

§ 1.3.3. Citing references

Your methods for presenting source materials are ultimately up to you and should be based on your overall purpose in writing and original development of ideas for your particular audience. However, every instance where a source appears in your paper must be cited properly for a number of reasons. While the following section (1.4 below) treats the practical uses of correct citation to avoid charges of plagiarism, three other practical purposes for citing sources exist:

- To acknowledge and credit the intellectual work of other thinkers writing in the field.
- To help your readers locate your sources if they desire further information.
- To illustrate that your arguments and analyses are based on an established, accepted body of information—or, in other words, that you are not just making these things up!

In a nutshell, knowing the source of words or information helps professors and fellow students engage (as with you) in a broader conversation about the subject about which you wrote. By citing your sources, you show your readers that you are neither writing about some esoteric, unimportant topic, nor so self-important that you think your own ideas matter more than those of others.

1.4 Avoiding Plagiarism with Proper Citation and Quotation

Whether you present quotations, summaries, or paraphrased passages, you must do so responsibly, following academic guidelines for crediting other thinkers. Part of this responsibility includes taking the time to learn the differences between appropriate and inappropriate use of material from outside sources. This section covers the basic distinctions between proper use of source material and plagiarism. In the next section ("2. APA Documentation"), you will learn even more about how to document your sources, especially about the APA conventions for quotation and citation. As will become clear, this section covers quotation and academic documentation standards in more general terms, but especially for the purposes of avoiding plagiarism or misrepresentation.

§ 1.4.1. Defining and assessing plagiarism

Plagiarism is often presumed to refer only to copying with the intent to cheat. According to *The Oxford American Dictionary of Current English* (2011), however, *to plagiarize* is to "take and use [the thoughts, writings, inventions, etc., of another person] as one's own." Notice that this definition of plagiarism does not take into consideration whether the violation was intentional or not. This means that plagiarism can be committed inadvertently. Having been accused of plagiarism, some professional writers have, for instance, claimed that their note-taking methods led to accidental confusion between their own observations on what sources say and direct quotations from sources recorded in their notes. In the end, no matter whether readers believe these writers' excuses, the plagiarized passages themselves do not meet academic standards and may be considered *academic dishonesty* (see more below), depending on the circumstances and nature of the plagiarism.

From a practical perspective, then, the intentions of the writer play no role in assessing whether or not a piece of writing has been plagiarized. Rather, a determination that a passage has been plagiarized is based on three qualities of the writing itself: (a) its similarity in wording, structure, and ideas to another piece of writing; (b) the degree to which those similarities are explicitly attributed to another piece of writing; and (c) the likelihood that unacknowledged similarities are

merely coincidental. If similarity is high and acknowledgement and likelihood of similarity are low, readers have good reason to believe the passage is plagiarized. This does not mean, however, that low similarity indicates no plagiarism. A single phrase, when not attributed to an earlier author who used that phrase in unique application to the particular subject of writing, can be considered plagiarized—unless it is placed within quotation marks and clearly attributed to its source.

In most cases, instructors who first identify plagiarism in a paper and then file formal charges point to whole paragraphs or extended series of small, unacknowledged similarities that are unlikely to be coincidental. It does not matter whether the writer confused notes with recorded quotations or consciously copied-and-pasted text directly from a source into a draft document—or even whether the writer happened to recall a significant amount of similar verbiage from a source read days or weeks earlier. If a paper shows a significant unacknowledged similarity that is unlikely to be coincidental, an instructor can reasonably file a formal plagiarism charge (which the student would then be allowed to appeal). Bearing this in mind, students should exercise due diligence to learn how to record information carefully and acknowledge sources properly. Students should also take the time to correct inappropriate borrowings identified in drafts by instructors, peer reviewers, or electronic tools. Not doing so is a failure of due diligence and warrants charges of plagiarism.

§ 1.4.2. Understanding the consequences of plagiarism

In academic settings, using someone else's words or ideas without proper acknowledgment is considered to be one form of *academic dishonesty*, an attempt to pass off another's work as one's own. As a form of academic dishonesty, plagiarism bears with it serious consequences. Franklin University, to further its commitment to high-quality education, imposes severe penalties for academic dishonesty—from a grade of zero on an assignment to failing a course or being expelled from the university with a notation on one's permanent record. The complete policy can be found on pages 16-18 of the *Franklin University Academic Bulletin 2010-2011* available here: http://www.franklin.edu/franklin/files/bulletin/2010General_Information.pdf

In Section 1.4.1, you learned that the existence of plagiarism does not depend on intentionality. It may seem unfair, then, that charges of plagiarism fall under the category of academic dishonesty. Yet the rationale for placing them in such a category is not unlike the rationale used for other forms of legal prosecution wherein the welfare of the community depends on the due diligence individuals take to learn the laws. In fact, plagiarism violations are sometimes compared to traffic violations: Not knowing the speed limit is not an acceptable excuse to avoid getting a speeding ticket. Just so, not knowing how and when to acknowledge sources properly is not a sufficient excuse to avoid a charge of plagiarism. Each student is responsible for correct citation practices to avoid plagiarism, which is a concept covered in many courses and treated by many required textbooks and writing resources (this one included). If a charge of academic dishonesty is filed, the consequences will not only be assessed based on the degree of plagiarism, but also on the degree to which the writer chose to ignore clear and frequent warning signs.

In the bigger picture, inattentiveness to plagiarism can have more severe consequences than failure of an assignment or class. The academic standards held by the institution where you acquire your degree ultimately reflect the quality of work exhibited by students graduating with those degrees. To uphold such standards, many institutions not only provide frequent guidance on issues like

plagiarism, but some have also revoked degrees later found to be based on plagiarized work. In the professional world, finally, employers and colleagues expect college graduates to understand the differences between original work and plagiarized work. While plagiarism is not the same as copyright violation (see more in the following section), writers who are able to uphold the academic standards for producing original work can more readily identify potential copyright violations that can cost firms thousands of dollars in damages and legal fees.

§ 1.4.3. Determining what needs to be cited

While the examples in Section 1.4.4 below address the practical considerations for how to integrate the words and ideas of others appropriately into your own writing project, this section focuses on one of the trickier aspects of responsible documentation: determining what to cite when common knowledge or casual observations are involved. The APA's *Publication Manual* (2010) has a highly instructive passage on this very issue:

> The key element of this principle [determining when to cite] is that authors do not present the work of another as if it were their own work. This can extend to ideas as well as written words. If authors model a study after one done by someone else, the originating author should be given credit. If the rationale for a study was suggested in the Discussion section of someone else's article, that person should be given credit. Given the free exchange of ideas, which is very important to the health of intellectual discourse, authors may not know where an idea for a study originated. If authors do know, however, they should acknowledge the source; this includes personal communications [e.g., e-mails, interviews, etc.]. (p. 16)

The gist of this passage is that you should give credit to all sources you know influenced the ideas and wording you present alongside your own work. While the principle is fairly straightforward, when student writers work on research papers, many common confusions come to light, some of which lead to fallacies in citation. Most of these fallacies derive from misunderstandings about more or less subtle distinctions pertaining to the influence of other thinkers on a writer's work and what those distinctions mean for academic audiences.

◊ **Borrowing words versus borrowing ideas:** *Both kinds of material need to be cited*, but all borrowed words must also be put within quotation marks or, for longer quotations, put into block formatting (see more below). Sometimes student writers borrow phrases and passages verbatim from the source, but then only acknowledge them as borrowed ideas. This most often happens when students do not properly paraphrase the ideas of sources (again, see more below). Anytime you copy-and-paste words from a source into your own paper or otherwise take passages verbatim, you should immediately put quotation marks around the borrowed material to show readers (and remind yourself) that you did not just use a source's ideas, but also its original means for explaining the ideas—that is, *the words themselves*.

◊ **Copyright violation versus plagiarism:** One related fallacy student writers often have concerns passages in the public domain, that is, passages not protected by copyright laws. The status of a passage as public domain or not does not alter the requirement to cite and quote properly. When the same wording is repeated without citation on multiple websites, student writers and the sites copying these passages may be exempt from charges of copyright violation—assuming the passages

are truly in the public domain—but student writers are not exempt from charges of plagiarism if the passages are not properly identified with quotation marks and in-text citations.

Simply put, plagiarism is not the same as copyright violation. An individual or organization can buy the rights to use words and ideas from any original author and use them without acknowledgment (as is often the case for material appearing on commercial websites). This practice nonetheless constitutes plagiarism and is unacceptable where original work is expected. No matter how many sources you can find similar to the phrases in question, you must put all words you copy-and-paste from a source within quotation marks, providing also proper citation in the body of the paper and on your References page. In such a case, you would ideally cite the most authoritative source repeating the wording (e.g., a government document, professional website, or earlier printed reference), since this key source is probably the one from which the others took their wording.

◊ **Common knowledge versus personal memory:** Another common fallacy student writers have about academic citation pertains to the distinction between common knowledge and personal experience. Often, students will omit citation for facts or details they "just read (or heard) somewhere." When those facts or details truly represent common knowledge, they need no citation. However, the test for common knowledge is not based on one's personal memory, but rather on the expectation that your audience would already take that fact or detail for granted.

In practical terms, then, common knowledge in the context of academic documentation is audience-dependent, based on what the *audience holds in common as an accepted and generally understood observation*. To illustrate, most educated audiences will not expect you to cite references to the dates of the signing of the Declaration of Independence or the ratification of the U.S. Constitution, or other dates audience members can easily recite off the tops of their heads or readily recall with a quick reminder. By contrast, facts and details that you acquired through your own personal experiences (readings, lectures, or other activities outside the common educational experience shared by audience members) should, in most cases, be credited to an authoritative reference. Besides doing your readers the service of providing a reference they can use to learn more about the information in question, you also force yourself to verify that what you recollect is accurate.

◊ **Common knowledge versus specialized knowledge.** Student writers often mistake the accepted facts, theories, and details held by a specialized group of readers for common knowledge among a broader audience. You may read academic sources from special professional or disciplinary journals wherein no citations appear for information or ideas that do not seem part of common knowledge. Such details usually reflect the common knowledge of experts in the field, who would be the primary audience for specialized publications like academic journals. When writing for a broader academic and professional audience, however, writers should generally provide fuller documentation, especially to identify their sources for expert knowledge. An accountant, for instance, may take for granted that fellow accountants are familiar with a particular practice for recording depreciation; however, this accountant cannot expect a broader business audience to share the same understanding. A reference can help the audience in such a context understand the bases upon which experts derive some of their common concepts and practices.

As a student writer, more importantly, you need to show your instructors from where you are deriving your understanding of particular professional and academic fields. Your instructors for

classes within your major will ultimately give you a sense about which facts, theories, and details do not need citation for an audience of fellow specialists. Until then, err on the side of caution. If you are not sure whether particular information should be attributed, provide a citation, especially if you can recall specifically where you acquired the information. If you cannot recall the specific source where you originally acquired a piece of information, look for an authoritative source conveying the information in question—experts regularly verify *and cite* details they take for granted when presenting them to colleagues. Remember, finally, that *exact wording from a source*— no matter whether the wording discusses some detail within common knowledge—must be put within quotation marks and provided a citation to avoid plagiarism (see more below).

§ 1.4.4. Quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing responsibly

In simple terms, your main responsibility as a writer using research is to make clear to readers which ideas and words are your own and which come from the sources themselves. In this section, you will be presented some examples to help illustrate the dividing line between appropriate and inappropriate borrowing. Immediately below is an original passage from a 2006 article written for *Regulation* magazine, a periodical covering the impacts of government regulation on broader economic issues. The original passage below is used to demonstrate the distinctions between plagiarism and responsible use of source material.

> Anytime there is a consensus about the future, it is probably wise to bet against it. In the past couple of years, predictions about home prices have gone from a sober questioning of future price growth to shrill apocalyptic predictions of an impending market collapse that will trigger a deep recession.
>
> We cannot claim to have a crystal ball that works any better than the commentariat, but we believe a clear look at the available data suggests that the situation is far from dire. While average home prices in the United States have increased smartly in the past decade, that by itself is not sufficient to conclude anything about what future prices will do.

References

Stewart, S., & Brannon, I. (2006, Spring). A collapsing housing bubble? *Regulation*,

   29(1), 15-16. Retrieved from http://www.cato.org/store/regulation-magazine

◊ **Quoting responsibly:** When intentionally borrowing the exact wording from sources, you must do one of two things to avoid plagiarism: (a) enclose all borrowed words within quotation marks or (b) format the borrowed words (if more than 40) as a block quotation (see more below). A reference to the source is not enough. The special formatting tells readers clearly, *these are not my words, but those of my source*. Here are two variations of responsible quotations for the passage:

APPROPRIATE SHORT QUOTATION

As late as 2006, Stewart and Brannon characterized forecasts of a burst in the housing

bubble as "shrill apocalyptic predictions" (p. 15). This assessment . . .

APPROPRIATE LONG QUOTATION (OVER 40 WORDS)

Stewart and Brannon (2006) displayed a strong reliance on comparative data analyses, which provided their bases for critiquing the views expressed in the popular press:

> We cannot claim to have a crystal ball that works any better than the commentariat, but we believe a clear look at the available data suggests that the situation is far from dire. While average home prices in the United States have increased smartly in the past decade, that by itself is not sufficient to conclude anything about what future prices will do. (p. 15)

Their confidence in their forecast came from . . .

By using quotation marks or block formatting, the writer easily avoids plagiarism. However, writers have another key responsibility when presenting direct quotations: *the wording must match exactly what appears in the original source*. If you need to modify the exact wording to improve the focus of the quotation or clarify some idea in the quotation, you must do the following:

- Insert ellipses (…) where you omit words from the original. This practice can be useful to cut down the size of long quotations, from which you may only need the beginning and the end or key pieces in the middle.
- Put square brackets (*[. . .]*) around words you insert for clarification or readability. This technique may be useful to explain the meaning of phrases in the quoted material that may have been explained in the unquoted portions of the original source.

When you use either of these techniques, you must be sure not to change the intended meaning (as best you see it) of the original wording.

APPROPRIATE USE OF BRACKETS AND ELLIPSES IN A SHORT QUOTATION

Stewart and Brannon (2006) presented a measured, but confident view of their forecast: "We cannot claim to have a crystal ball . . ., but . . . the available data suggests that the situation [as of April 2006] is far from dire" (p. 15). Their data led them to . . .

◊ **Paraphrasing responsibly:** By putting the ideas and explanations from your sources into your own words, you can often forge a strong connection between your own observations on the subject and those presented by other thinkers. Such strong connections, when they allow you to build upon research to present an original thesis or perspective, exemplify well the fundamental aims of research writing. Paraphrasing, however, has its pitfalls. When not done with proper attention to the boundaries between your own ideas and words and those of others, you can easily fall into one of the following errors, each of which constitutes plagiarism of the original source: (a) using too much original wording from the source; (b) borrowing the structure of an extended passage; or (c) omitting clear boundaries between paraphrased and original material.

(a) Borrowing too much of the original wording. Recall that paraphrasing involves putting another's ideas into *your own words*; this rephrasing does not simply mean changing a word or two in the original. Your source's choice of wording represents the intellectual labor of its authors, and so should be clearly acknowledged when borrowed. When not put into your own phrasing nor acknowledged as borrowed (with quotation marks), the words taken from the source have been plagiarized. Here is a passage inappropriately paraphrasing the original passage above:

> **INAPPROPRIATE** PARAPHRASE DUE TO BORROWED WORDING
>
> Taking a contrarian position, Stewart and Brannon (2006) argued in the spring issue of *Regulation* magazine that a **smart increase in U.S. home prices** over the preceding 10 years was **not by itself sufficient to conclude** that the housing industry was a bubble about to burst (p. 15). They further claimed that other statistics showed the economic outlook was **far from dire**. Based on this fuller picture, Stewart and Brannon characterized the change in opinion among the **commentariat**, from measured caution on continued price rises to **apocalyptic** prognoses of **recession,** as faulty reasoning.

The words in bold above illustrate the locations where the writer has not sufficiently translated the source's original wording into new phrases. Besides including full verbatim phrases from the original ("not by itself sufficient to conclude" and "far from dire"), both of which reflect the authors' unique way of presenting their observations, the paraphrase above borrows uncommon diction, such as "smart" (from "smartly"), "apocalyptic," and "commentariat"—all of which reflect stylistic originality that the authors worked hard to develop. There are certainly words from the original that can be repeated without plagiarizing, such as "home prices" and "recession," either of which might have been used already in a research paper on this subject. Combined with the other copied verbiage, however, these borrowings only provide more evidence for a failure to rephrase fully.

(b) Reusing the sentence and paragraph structure of the original. This next passage represents the second kind of inappropriate paraphrasing. The writer has avoided using the authors' original phrasing throughout, but has effectively mimicked the whole series of sentences, simply finding substitute phrases, rather than creating a truly original representation of the source's material.

> **INAPPROPRIATE** PARAPHRASE DUE TO BORROWED STRUCTURE
>
> Writing for *Regulation* magazine, Stewart and Brannon (2006) noted that, whenever there is general agreement about upcoming events, it is smart to take a contrarian position (p. 15). Over the preceding months, measured caution from analysts on continued in rises house prices had changed to forecasts of a catastrophic housing collapse producing an extended economic slowdown. The authors claimed no ability to

foresee the future better than popular financial analysts, but they also did not think an unobstructed view of published statistics supported a strongly negative prognosis on housing. While the sales figures (in terms of dollars) had trended up sharply over the preceding 10 years, this information was found inconclusive for the purpose of forecasting the subsequent direction of those trends.

Sentence structures, like choices in diction, reflect the original work of authors. In fact, many writers find the structuring of sentences and paragraphs more difficult than the wording of discrete phrases. Consequently, academic readers expect that researchers either clearly quote the wording directly or do a full and proper paraphrase, one that reflects the researcher's unique recapitulation of what the source says, rather than just a fresh coat of paint over the source's original structure.

(c) Failing to provide clear attribution for all borrowed ideas. The final form of inappropriate paraphrasing pertains to longer passages—in particular, passages that contain multiple sentences paraphrased from the source. When readers cannot tell whether a sentence represents the original analysis of the writer or that of a source, the writer is effectively plagiarizing. This problem is most apparent when writers fail to tell readers that they have actually begun paraphrasing a source, as the following examples shows, but it occurs in general where a paraphrased sentence has not been clearly cited or introduced by a phrase of attribution, as illustrated here:

INAPPROPRIATE PARAPHRASE DUE TO UNCLEAR ATTRIBUTION, EXAMPLE 1

Sharp rises in sales figures for U.S. housing over the 10 years leading up to 2006 were not then determinant indicators of an impending burst in the housing bubble. Taking a contrarian position in the spring of 2006, Stewart and Brannon claimed that other numbers showed the economic outlook then was "far from dire" (p. 15). Based on this analysis, there was no good reason to expect a sharp drop in housing prices, much less a slowdown in the broader economy due to such a drop.

INAPPROPRIATE PARAPHRASE DUE TO UNCLEAR ATTRIBUTION, EXAMPLE 2

Sharp rises in sales figures for U.S. housing over the 10 years leading up to 2006 were not then determinant indicators of an impending burst in the housing bubble. Based on analysis of other financial statistics and skepticism of popular consensus, there was no good reason to expect a sharp drop in housing prices, much less a slowdown in the broader economy due to such a drop (Stewart & Brannon, 2006, p. 15).

In the first example, the writer has clearly cited the middle sentence, but the ideas before and after come from the source as well. In the second example, the writer has put a citation at the end of the final sentence, not indicating sufficiently that the opening sentence also comes directly from the source. Note that citations *are given* in both paragraphs, but also note that they *fail to show readers clearly* that the whole passage is a paraphrase of the source's ideas, not the researcher's original analysis. Readers assume, based on the manner of citation, that the writer is presenting at least some original analysis, which is not the case, so the writer commits plagiarism.

Correct paraphrasing: Here finally are two appropriate paraphrases of the original source material presented above. The key difference between these two examples is that one borrows a few specific phrases from the original—albeit using quotation marks to identify properly the borrowings— while the other rewords the passage entirely. Notice in these examples how clearly the writer shows readers that the whole passage is based on source material.

APPROPRIATE PARAPHRASE INTEGRATED WITH BRIEF QUOTATIONS

Taking a contrarian position at the beginning of 2006, Stewart and Brannon concluded that a sharp upward trend in home sale prices over the previous 10 years did not necessarily indicate a housing bubble, much less one about to burst. Their own analyses of other statistics led them to posit an economic outlook that was "far from dire" (p. 15). Based on that data, Stewart and Brannon judged the change in attitude among the contemporary "commentariat"—from measured caution on continued price rises to "apocalyptic" prognoses of "recession" (p. 15)—as faulty, alarmist analysis.

APPROPRIATE PARAPHRASE, WORDING CHANGED ENTIRELY

Taking a contrarian position, Stewart and Brannon (2006) argued that a sharp upward trend in home sale prices over the preceding 10 years did not necessarily indicate a housing bubble, much less one about to burst (p. 15). The authors claimed that other numbers showed the economic outlook was not then a point of concern. Based on that data, Stewart and Brannon judged the change in attitude among popular financial commentators—from measured caution on continued price rises to excited warnings of impending recession—as faulty, alarmist analysis.

These are by no means the only ways to paraphrase the original ideas of the authors. In fact, there are *numerous* other ways to do so. In general, the effectiveness of a paraphrase depends upon how appropriately and accurately the ideas of the source are presented for the purposes of supporting the writer's overall thesis and key points or observations. A writer might, for instance, highlight the

authors of the original passage more when paraphrasing an opinion than when paraphrasing an explanation of a mechanical process or simply repeating statistics. In any case, the paraphrasing examples in this section are not primarily intended to give guidance on the effectiveness of particular paraphrasing techniques, but rather to identify the common pitfalls writers exhibit when they do not take the time and effort to reword source material sufficiently. These pitfalls, when not avoided, can lead to plagiarism or misrepresentation of another's work.

◊ **Summarizing responsibly:** Summarizing can be much less challenging than paraphrasing, but has its own pitfalls. First, though, be aware that a summary can exhibit the first paraphrasing problem discussed above. When summarizing, make sure to use your own wording to restate the source's main point or describe the source's perspective. When you do borrow exact wording, put it into quotation marks, just as you would for an extended paraphrase of a fuller passage. Using the sample above, for instance, you could not simply copy-and-paste the authors' own summary of the point of their article, presenting it to readers without quotation marks or rewording:

> INAPPROPRIATE SUMMARY DUE TO BORROWED WORDING
>
> Stewart and Brannon (2006) concluded that the housing situation was **far from dire** at the beginning of 2006. Their outlook did not predict an **apocalyptic** downturn. . . .

Besides the inappropriate form of borrowing just illustrated, there are other potential problems with summaries, especially (a) misrepresenting an opinion as a fact and (b) concluding from a single source that one perspective is generally taken as fact. This example illustrates both errors:

> INAPPROPRIATE SUMMARY DUE TO MISREPRESENTATION
>
> At the beginning of 2006, no major fall in housing was expected (Stewart & Brannon, 2006), so no one could reasonably have anticipated a burst in the housing bubble. . . .

This summary obscures the fact that the authors are actually responding to a multiplicity of predictions that the housing industry was a bubble about to burst and that the economy was going into recession. An appropriate summary of the article might rather go like this:

> APPROPRIATE SUMMARY
>
> Looking at a variety of statistics aside from home prices, Stewart and Brannon (2006) determined that a sharp downturn in housing was not then imminent. Given their . . .

2. APA Documentation

The documentation conventions discussed here reflect the guidelines set out by the American Psychology Association in its most recent *Publication Manual* (6th ed., 2010). The APA standards were chosen by Franklin because they represent the most commonly used guidelines for the psychological and behavioral sciences, which are research areas informing many applied fields of study involving human interaction, from business administration to computer interface design.

Like most scientific citation styles, the APA guidelines represent an *author-date* system, as opposed to an *author-title* system (like MLA or Chicago styles). Author-date citation systems, since they always present the date immediately after the author, highlight the currency of research, which is imperative to consider when judging the relevance of empirical studies. However, the APA documentation guidelines can accommodate a variety of kinds of sources, not just published scientific research. For some of your coursework, the timeliness of the study may not be as important as the influence of the author or the publication itself; likewise, conclusions of experiments may be less important than original wording presented by well-spoken authors or important individuals. As you determine how to introduce and cite your references in the course of your paper, decide how best to apply APA guidelines to achieve your overall purpose for writing.

2.1 The Basics of APA Documentation

Complete APA citation of sources involves two key parts:

- *reference-list entries* (usually appearing on a separate References page) and
- *in-text notes* (appearing in the main body of the paper).

Your References page includes key bibliographic information on the sources you used to develop the body of your paper or project. Entries generally include the author(s), the date of publication, the title of the source, and various details of publication depending upon the medium of production and means of access. Section 2.3 below provides examples for a variety of kinds of sources published in media ranging from traditional printed books to social media sites. Be sure to consult this reference or another APA guide to determine how to format listings on your References page.

It is not enough, though, to tell readers *which* sources you viewed. You must also tell readers *where* you actually draw upon sources in your paper. In-text notes indicate to readers where the sources on your References page are quoted, paraphrased, or summarized, and they also give readers useful information about the sources themselves. In APA documentation, in-text notes generally include three key details: (a) the author's last name, (b) the year of publication, and (c) page references to the material used (which may be omitted when quickly summarizing the gist of the whole source). The standard format of in-text notes and variations from it are covered fully in Section 2.2 below. The following section explains how the two parts work together to provide complete citation.

◊ **How the two parts work together:** Below is a paper excerpt quoting a book. While the in-text citation and quotation marks in the passage are important for the purposes of giving the source proper credit and avoiding plagiarism, the details in the citation (in bold in the example, but not in a real paper) also point to a fuller bibliographic entry listed on the References entry farther below.

> Many sociologists address the challenges of public problem solving by focusing on social influence. For example, **Putnam (2000)** notes, **"**social capital allows citizens to resolve collective problems more easily" **(p. 288)**. For Putnam, "social capital" is . . .

In this passage, *Putnam* is the author's last name; *2000* is the year the book was published; *p. 288* is the page where the quotation is located. The title of the book is unnecessary for APA citation, but can be provided when it helps readers understand the relevance and importance of the source. In fact, you might want to provide other details about the author or publisher alongside the in-text note to establish credibility or explain relevance. For proper documentation, however, the in-text note need only include the author, date, and (for quotations and paraphrases) page number.

As noted above, in-text notes alone are not sufficient for complete documentation in APA. Readers may want to know more about how to locate the source and who published or produced it, all details that should appear on the References page, whether or not you refer to such details in the body of the paper. Since Putnam's book is cited in the body, the writer of this paper must also give a full listing for the book on the References page. The References page listing would look like this:

> References
>
> . . .
>
> Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*.
>
>   New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.

Although the essential pieces of APA documentation are fairly simple, especially if using traditional sources like books and articles, there are many required variations to accommodate the wide variety of sources available to 21st-century researchers. These variations are covered in 2.2 and 2.3.

2.2. Formatting In-text Notes

As explained above, in-text notes play an essential role in avoiding plagiarism, because they help you clearly identify which words and ideas come from sources and which ones are your own. The notes, also as covered above, allow you to give readers key details—namely, the author and the year of publication—allowing fuller access to information about the sources themselves, which readers can find on the References page. The following sections go into more depth about which details need to be presented within in-text notes and how to format those details so they will not disrupt the flow of your writing.

Note that the examples in this section are given letters to allow for cross-referencing throughout the section. Note also that a sample References page including entries for all sources used in these examples appears at the end of the section on page 29. As you read the guidelines below and look at the examples, review carefully the connections between in-text notes and fuller listings on the References page.

§ 2.2.1. Where to put in-text notes

The key details for in-text notes, which will be discussed more in Section 2.2.2, can actually appear in two different locations surrounding the quotation, paraphrase, or summary being cited: (a) in a *parenthetical note* following the cited material or (b) in the main flow of the sentence introducing cited material. Sometimes, you will put citation details in both places. While you always have the option of putting your entire in-text citation within a parenthetical note, keep in mind that some sources are best introduced in the main flow of the sentence to demonstrate to readers the credibility and relevance of the research, but also to provide smoother transitions. For instance, you might want to give readers some background about an author, noting his or her expertise in the field, before giving a quotation. Here are some basic guidelines for the two citation techniques:

(a) When citing a source entirely within a parenthetical citation, place the author's last name (no first names or initials) immediately after the opening parentheses, followed by a comma and the year of publication. If the source is attributed to multiple authors, list all the authors' last names, separating them with commas and putting an ampersand before the final name in the list; omit the comma when only two names are listed. To cite specific pages being paraphrased or quoted, put a comma after the year of publication, and then list a location reference indicating where the material appears in the source. Be sure to use the appropriate location abbreviation, depending on the medium of the source and whether it is paginated (e.g., *p., pp., para., sect.*, etc.). Finally, be sure to place the parenthetical citation immediately after the relevant information in the sentence and before subsequent punctuation marks, including ending punctuation for the sentence itself.

> **A. CITING A SOURCE ENTIRELY WITHIN A PARENTHETICAL NOTE**
>
> One argument against a growing housing bubble in the mid-2000s was steadiness in the
>
> Housing Affordability Index (Smith, 2005, p. 30). A rise would have . . .

(b) When introducing a source in the main flow of the sentence, provide the author's last name, just as you would in a parenthetical citation. As with parenthetical citations, first initials are not generally used; in the main flow of the sentence, however, you do have the option of listing an initial or even a full first name. Place the year in parentheses immediately after the author's last name, unless you have already mentioned the year of publication as part of your segue to the source. For multiple authors, list all their last names separated by a comma with the word *and* before the last author's name. The year goes in parentheses after the last author's name. Page references (or other kinds of location references, such as section headings) go in parentheses *after* the quotation or paraphrase, following the guidelines for parenthetical note placement described above.

> **B. CITING A SOURCE BY INTRODUCING THE AUTHOR IN THE MAIN FLOW OF THE SENTENCE**
>
> A prominent real-estate economist, Smith (2005) eschewed the possibility of a housing
>
> bubble by citing steadiness in the Housing Affordability Index (p. 30). A rise would . . .

§ 2.2.2. What details to include in in-text notes

The guidelines above explain how to place the three standard details of information generally required for in-text notes. These standard details include the following:

- author (or authors, last names only);
- year (no full dates, even if listed on the References page); and
- page reference (for quotations and paraphrases, but not summary statements).

However, what you present in in-text notes ultimately depends upon the associated listings on the References page, which may include sources with no identified author and other kinds of sources complicating the standard requirements listed above. Not only are there a few kinds of sources that do not have the required information, but some extra information may be required for some in-text notes, especially to avoid confusion between similarly cited sources on the References page. As you create in-text notes, ask these questions:

◊ **Are more than five authors listed for a source?** To avoid a cumbersome in-text citation, you should list only the first author's last name followed by the Latin abbreviation *et al.* ("and others"). *Examples*: Kurland et al. (2010) concluded . . . *or* . . . (Kurland et al., 2010, p. 459-460).

◊ **Are two sources listed on your References page written in the same year by two authors with the same last name?** Provide initials before the surnames to distinguish the two sources.

◊ **Is a source by an organizational author?** An "author" is not limited to an individual person or specific individual. Sources may be credited to public corporations, private companies, not-for-profit organizations, government agencies, and other kinds of group authors. When citing an organizational author in the main body of the text, spell out the whole name of the group or organization the first time it is used. If you plan to use an abbreviation later in the text, introduce the abbreviation in parentheses after the organization's full name. In some cases, this abbreviation will appear in the same parenthetical note as the year and page number. See example E. below.

◊ **Is a source unsigned?** If an author is unknown, the first item of the entry on the References page should be a title, rather than an author's name. Corresponding in-text notes should reflect this fact by referring to a shortened version of the source's title instead of a name. When a title appears in the body of the paper, all major words should be capitalized. Titles italicized on the References page should be italicized within the body of the text, while those with no special formatting on the References page, such as article titles, should be placed within quotation marks. See example K.

◊ **Are there multiple sources on the References page written by the same author(s) in the same year?** To distinguish one source from the other(s), you must put a distinguishing lowercase letter after the year in each entry on the References page listing the same year (e.g., *1999a*, *1999b*, etc.). This same lowercase letter will also appear in all in-text citations for the source.

◊ **Are you citing multiple sources in the same parenthetical note?** Separate each citation with a semicolon and order them according to how they appear in the References page—that is, alphabetically with multiple sources by the same author listed earliest to latest. See example K.

◊ **Are you using quotations or observations that your source attributes to another, secondary source?** When quoting a passage that includes in-text citations within it, you need do nothing different than you would for any quotation: simply provide the passage verbatim, *including the source's in-text note*. Alternatively, you may decide to use the secondary source's words alone as the primary point of interest, which commonly occurs when quoting from public remarks published in news sources. In which case, you would provide an in-text note crediting the author who is quoted in the source you are actually using—the one you are putting on your References page. Precede the in-text to the source listed on your References page with the phrase *as quoted in* or *as cited in*. As long as you do not quote your source's source directly (sometimes a better option when actually published separately), you need not add it to your References page. See example H. below.

◊ **Does a source you are quoting or paraphrasing lack page numbers?** While many online articles actually do have pagination (especially PDF versions—which most instructors prefer), when page numbers are not listed by the source, cite paragraph or section numbers as provided (preceded by ¶or the abbreviation *para*.). When no reference numbers are provided at all, cite any available section heading. Page references are not required for single-page sources, but other reference locators are welcome, especially if referring to a long Web page. See D., E., and G.. below.

§ 2.2.3. How to place and punctuate in-text notes

Although 2.2.1 above explains the two basic options you have for placing in-text notes alongside cited material, writers often find in-text notes difficult to punctuate correctly. This section offers more guidance on the mechanics of coordinating in-text notes with specific kinds of references.

◊ **Short Quotations (40 words or less):** When you take another author's ideas word for word, you must put double quotation marks around the information (or use block formatting for longer quotes—see below). The page number (or other location reference—see above) where the passage appears must also be part of the in-text citation, presented in parentheses after the quotation and before the end punctuation for the sentence. The quotation starts and ends with double quotation marks (**". . ."**). Notice that for short quotations the period at the end of the sentence goes *after the in-text citation*, which goes outside the closing quotation mark.

C. SHORT QUOTATION FROM A PAGINATED SOURCE

Smith and Smith (2006) subscribe to a value-based definition, stating, "a bubble [is] a situation in which the market prices of certain assets (such as stocks or real estate) rise far above the present value of the anticipated cash flow from the asset" (p. 3).

D. SHORT QUOTATION FROM SINGLE-PAGE SOURCE WITH NO SECTION HEADINGS

Later in the year, Krugman (2006) characterized Greenspan as an "optimist," aligning himself with the "pessimists," whom Krugman believed had "the stronger case."

By 2010, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) offered a detailed definition of "predatory lending," including acts wherein lenders "knowingly lend more money than the borrower can afford" ("What Is Predatory Lending?").

◊ **Long Quotations (over 40 words):** Quotations with more than 40 words should be presented as indented blocks of text starting on a new line. Indent one-half-inch from the left margin. Omit quotation marks, since the indentation and citation tell readers that the words are from a source. Maintain double-spacing, even if the original does not include double-spacing. If the quotation includes a paragraph break within it, indent one-half-inch from the already indented block margin where the break appears in the original. Unlike other quotations, the parenthetical citation for a block quotation should come *after the closing punctuation* for the final sentence of the quotation:

Schiller (2006) presents a more poetic view of the behavior leading to financial bubbles:

> The kind of less-than-perfectly rational behavior that underlies the [current] bubble is not abject foolishness. It is not the error of fools. It is more the error that afflicts some of Shakespeare's tragic figures—in the sense of having subtle weaknesses or a partial blindness to reality. (p. 18)

The "partial blindness" described by Schiller appears in many statements from . . .

◊ **Short paraphrases (one sentence or less):** When presenting observations from a source without using the source's original wording, you do not have the challenge of coordinating quotation marks and citations, but you still must provide mention of the author and date and a reference to a specific location in the source. You have the option of presenting all these details in a closing parenthetical citation at the end of the sentence, or you can introduce the author and year in the main flow of the sentence, placing the page reference (or whatever location reference is available) in parentheses after the cited material. As with quotations, the end punctuation marks for the sentence follow the parenthetical citation (see also examples A. and B. above).

Rules for releasing executive pay had not changed since 1993 (White, 2007, sect. 7).

Writing in 2001, E. Chancellor posited that increased speculative short-selling could actually help prevent financial bubbles (as cited in Chanos, 2003, "Short Sellers").

◊ **Long paraphrases (multiple sentences):** Extended paraphrases of a source require the writer both to make clear which pieces of information come from the source and to identify as specifically as possible where those borrowed ideas are found in the source. It may be that extended paraphrases cover material spanning multiple pages, in which case, the writer would need to put multiple page references throughout the paraphrase. The example below illustrates a long paraphrase of passages extending multiple pages. The examples of appropriate paraphrasing above (Section1.4.4.) illustrate a paraphrase of two successive paragraphs on a single page.

I. LONG PARAPHRASE

The roles of individual agents in producing large-scale financial crises are often hard to identify, but they are important to consider when formulating regulations for trade and commerce. Gray, Frieder, and Clark (2007) offer a series of historical case studies to illustrate connections between financial bubbles and ethical or professional misconduct of individuals (p. 860). The railroad industry of the 19th century, which Gray et al. compare to the dot-com industry of the 1990s (p. 866), is associated with multiple bubbles. In the mid-1800s, one stock bubble is attributed to both economic downturn and falsified books (pp. 867-868). By contrast, a later railroad bubble, leading up to the Panic of 1873, does not appear to be associated with clear ethical misconduct, but is more attributable to debt assumed on unrealistic growth estimates (pp. 869-70). The cases described by Gray et al. illustrate a range of challenges for those who write and enforce regulations: from detecting outright corruption and fraud to balancing the public interest in economic stability with the right of large-scale capitalists to assume risk commensurate with their desired rates of return.

No matter the form or length of the original passage, the paraphrasing writer has the responsibility to show readers clearly which ideas come from the source and which are the original contributions of the writer. Notice how the example below does not repeat all the authors' names and the year of publication throughout. Since no other source by the same group of authors appears on the References page, readers can be assured that all the page references in the extended paraphrase refer to the article introduced at the beginning of the paragraph. For more guidance on how to streamline citations and make them more readable, see Section 2.2.3 below.

◊ **Summary statements:** Brief recapitulations of the main point or conclusions of a source require no direct page reference, but still need to be attributed to a source on your References pages. Below are two examples, one citing a single source and one citing multiple sources sharing a single point:

Henderschott, Henderschott, and Ward (2003) dismiss the notion that sharp price rises and declines generally indicate financial bubbles driven by unreasonable exuberance.

Although the two years preceding the burst in the housing bubble saw multiple early forecasts of the event (Krugman, 2006; "Latest Anderson Forecast," 2005; Leonhardt, 2005), many economics experts, including journalists and academics alike, foresaw no catastrophic downturn (Brennan, 2006; Kudlow, 2006a, 2006b; Smith, 2005).

§ 2.2.3. When to streamline notes for readability

While the instructions heretofore have focused on the required formatting of in-text notes, this section gives some guidelines for improving readability when frequent in-text citations become cumbersome for readers trying to follow the main flow of the paper. You may be able to streamline your notes if you answer "yes" to any of the following questions:

◊ **Do you repeatedly cite a source in a single paragraph?** As long as there is only one source for the author (or group of authors) on the References page, you can generally omit the year of publication for subsequent citations in the same paragraph, assuming you have introduced the source in the main flow of the sentence, rather than in a parenthetical note. However, if your References page includes multiple entries from the same author(s), you'll need to list a year in *all* in-text citations for the source in order to tell readers clearly which of these entries is referenced.

◊ **Do you repeatedly cite a source with three to five authors?** For sources with more than two authors and less than six, you must list all the last names in the first in-text citation. For in-text citations appearing later in the paper, however, replace all but the first author's name with the Latin abbreviation *et al.* ("and others"). If another source you use would also have the same abbreviated form, then provide enough authors' names for each in-text citation to distinguish the two sources. Example I. above illustrates the abbreviated form.

◊ **Do you cite the same source many times in a row before citing another source?** When providing multiple quotations or paraphrased passages from one source in the same paragraph, you do not need to repeat the author's name and year with each reference, as long as you don't introduce another source between separate citations. Of course, you still need to make sure readers understand which information and ideas come from the source and which represent your own analyses and observations. You have a couple of ways to make this clear without the cumbersome repetition of the author-date information: (a) give new parenthetical page (or paragraph, etc.) references after each sentence paraphrasing or quoting a passage in the source; (b) use phrases of attribution to introduce information from the source (e.g., *The authors go on to say . . .* ; *According to the study, . . .*; etc.). Example I. above illustrates both techniques.

§ 2.2.4. Sources needing in-text notes but no entry on the References page

Finally, realize that there are a few kinds of sources that require in-text citations, but no corresponding entries on the References page.

◊ **Are you citing an unpublished communication (e.g., e-mail, memo, interview, etc.).** These sources cannot be found and verified by your readers by doing standard source searches; consequently, there is little use for fuller detail on the References page. Even so, you are required to acknowledge when such sources have influenced your own writing. When relying on personal communications for important parts of your paper, consider putting transcripts in an appendix (see Section 4 below). Whether you provide fuller text in an appendix or just make passing references, the in-text citation must have the following information: (a) the last name of the author (initials and names are acceptable here), (b) a description of the source, and (c) the date of the communication.

> IN-TEXT CITATIONS FOR UNPUBLISHED COMMUNICATIONS
>
> According to one expert, . . . (J. Bolton, personal interview, January 10, 2009).
>
> According to an e-mail from M. Tan (personal communication, September 9, 2010), . . .

◊ **Are you citing classical or sacred texts with well-known editions and citation practices?** Since readers have many options for accessing the same text you are using, you do not need an entry on the References page to direct them to a specific publication. However, you should tell readers the version of the text you are using and refer to specific passages by way of standardized numbering for the source. Biblical passages, for instance, are cited by book, chapter, and verse; Shakespeare's plays are cited by referring to the act, scene, and line numbers. Many modern editions provide examples (in their introductory materials) demonstrating how to cite specific passages through standard citation schemas. Your instructor can help you determine whether a source is considered a classical or sacred text common enough to omit from the References page.

> IN-TEXT CITATIONS SACRED AND CLASSICAL TEXTS WITH COMMON VERSIONS AND CITATION SCHEMES
>
> The authority of civic leaders has often been attributed to a divine hand, as conveyed,
>
> for example, in Ezekiel: "I will set a shepherd over them" (32:23, King James Version).

◊ **Are you citing a full website without referring to specific pages?** While you will often quote or paraphrase specific passages on a website, you may only make summary statements about the contents or authorship of a site. When referring to specific passages, you must give a full citation on your References page (see Sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4). If only making general observations, however, you need only mention the name of the site and give a quick parenthetical note for the site's URL. Since you are referring to the whole site, rather than a specific page, the URL should be very short.

> IN-TEXT CITATIONS TO WHOLE WEBSITES (RATHER THAN SPECIFIC PAGES)
>
> Amazon (http://www.amazon.com) is a commonly known provider of e-books. . . .

References

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/news/speech/2007/spch022307jww.htm

2.3 APA Reference Lists

As noted above, all sources cited in the body of your paper must be listed more completely on a References page, which follows the main text of the paper. Of course, you may not be working on a research *paper*. If working on a project to be presented in another media format, a slide presentation or Web page, for example, you would present a special References section listing the same details discussed here. The format of the References page in a formal APA-style paper—including spacing, indentation, and so on—is covered in Section 3.2.4 below. In this section, we treat the format of the reference-list entries themselves, including the key details required for particular kinds of sources and common formatting guidelines applying to all listings.

◊ **Templates for citation:** All reference-list entries include variations on the same basic elements, each of which reflects information useful for readers to access and review sources for themselves. However, these basic pieces are altered to accommodate the special features of particular kinds of sources. The following sections (2.3.1-2.3.6) cover these variations, going from the most basic and traditional sources to more specialized and non-traditional kinds of sources. To help you understand these variations, each section includes (a) an opening set of guidelines for dealing with particular kinds of sources, (b) templates reflecting standard structures for commonly used kinds of sources, and (c) many examples of reference-list entries for real sources. Immediately below are the most basic templates for print, online, and recorded media (i.e., CDs, DVDs, etc.).

2.3. BASIC TEMPLATES FOR REFERENCE-LIST ENTRIES	
Print	**Author(s). (Date of publication).** *Title of the source*. **Publication information.**
Online	**Author(s). (Date of online posting).** *Title of the source*. **Online retrieval information**
Recorded media	**Main contributor(s) (Contributions). (Date of production).** *Title of the source* **[Format]. Production information.**

These three simple templates illustrate the most basic structures for all entries on the References page. Notice that each includes four parts: (a) author or main contributor; (b) date of publication; (c) title of the source; and (d) publication information. Notice also that *each part begins with a capital letter and ends with a period* (except for online retrieval info). The chart on the following page explains how to format further the information that goes into each element in the templates.

Note that you will need further instruction to learn extra details sometimes required for specialized and non-traditional sources. As noted above, the subsections below arrange this added instruction according to the medium by which you accessed the source. Keep in mind, finally, that the templates and examples in the later subsections cannot possibly cover all the variations to the basic templates above, but they do provide guidance on the most commonly seen sources.

BASIC FORMATTING RULES FOR REFERENCE-LIST ITEMS

BASIC ELEMENTS OF EACH ENTRY	EXAMPLES
Authors: List all authors *last-name-first* in the order they appear on the byline of the source. Instead of full first names, provide only initials. Multiple authors' names are separated by commas (even when only two) with the last preceded by an ampersand (*&*). When more than seven authors appear, list the first six, an ellipses (…), then the last.	Nightingale, F. *Date, etc. . . .* Wordsworth, W., & Coleridge, S. T. . . . Varela, F., Thompson, E. T., & Rosch, E. Writer, A,. Writer, B., Writer, C., Writer, D.,Writer, E., Writer, F., . . . Writer, Z.
Other contributors: Alongside or in place of "authors," you will *sometimes* list other contributors. A movie might be credited to a director and a producer; a song, to a composer; etc. When given primary credit, list them as you would traditional authors, but also insert a parenthetical note describing their contribution(s). Consulting authors appear in parentheses after the main author, preceded by *with*.	Perry, K. (Performer). Tarantino, Q. (Writer/Director). *. . .* Ginsberg, A. (Writer), & Drooker, E. (Animator). *Date, etc. . . .* Osbourne, O. (with C. Ayers).
Publication date: In parentheses after the authors, you will always put the year of publication. When listing multiple sources for the same author in the same year, differentiate each with lowercase letters. For some sources (newspaper articles and Web postings, for instance), you will also provide a month and day (see more below). When no publication date is identifiable, put *n.d.* within the parentheses. A period *follows* the closing parentheses.	Adams, J. **(2000).** . . . Collins, M. **(1991a).** . . . Collins, M. **(1991b).** . . . Michaels, B. **(2009, March).** . . . Smith, J. **(2010, January 4).** . . . Williams, V. **(n.d.).** . . .
Titles: Capitalize only the first word and proper nouns. Titles for major works, such as books, periodicals, and movies, are italicized. Titles of shorter works need no extra formatting. Subtitles appear after the main title, followed by a colon. A period goes after the title and any parenthetical/bracketed details (e.g., edition, format, etc.), which are not italicized.	**Longer works** *The social network* [Motion picture]. *Principles of information security* (2nd ed.). **Shorter works** Facebook, fad or phenomenon. About (Face)book [Editorial].
Publication information for books and recorded media: List the city of publication followed by a comma and a full country name or standard U.S. state abbreviation. After the city, put a colon and the name of the publisher or production company. When no place is given for the source, put the abbreviation *N.p.* where you would list the city.	New York, NY: Longman. London, England: W. W. Norton. Columbus, OH: Author. Washington, DC: The Government Printing Office.
Publication information for periodical articles: List the name of the periodical in italics after the article's title, capitalizing each word (except articles and short prepositions). If not a newspaper, insert a comma and the volume (also italicized), followed by the issue (in parentheses, no italics). Next, insert another comma followed by the pages where the article appears. When listing no volume or issue, precede the pages with *p.* (a single page) or *pp.* (multiple pages) as appropriate.	*The New York Times*, pp. A5-A6. *Fortune, 45*, 10. *Journal of Business Ethics, 5*, 99-107. *The Star-Ledger* (Newark, NJ), pp. 1, 5.

◊ **Listing retrieval information for online sources:** Not listed in the Quick Reference table on the previous page are guidelines for presenting the online retrieval information appearing at the end of entries for online sources. This information about online publication typically replaces the traditional publication details appearing for print and recorded media. However, as will be discussed and demonstrated in Section 2.3.3., some listings of online sources, particularly articles from research databases, require that you list original print information as well, which can be useful for any source originally produced in one medium, but then later digitized to an online site.

Each listing for online sources ends with a *retrieval statement*, which begins with the phrase *Retrieved from* and includes, in its simplest form, a Uniform Resource Locator (URL) for the source. Two other pieces of information might be inserted before the URL (or, more commonly, *web address*): (a) a *date of most recent retrieval* for sources that are expected to be updated regularly; and (b) the *name of the website* housing the source (capitalized but no italics) followed by a colon, when not clear from other information in the entry. While Sections 2.3.3-6 provide plenty of examples for review, here are some basic guidelines for listing retrieval statements:

- *Do not* present URLs that include session-specific query information; instead, list a search or home page for the site, or a direct "permalink" to the source itself.
- *Do not* list a retrieval date for sources that are not expected to change.
- *Do not* put a period after the URL or include hyperlink formatting (i.e., underlining, etc.)
- When a URL extends beyond the length of the line, insert a space *before* slashes or periods at appropriate places in the URL to force the word processor to create a line break.

◊ **Formatting differences between reference-list entries and in-text notes:** Before coming to the more detailed reference-list guidelines, it is worthwhile to recall that in-text notes should refer directly to specific entries on the References page. While in-text notes essentially repeat the key information of corresponding entries on the References page, for the benefit of readability, those details have slightly different formatting when appearing in the body of the text. Here is a quick summary of how the same information appears differently formatted in the body of the paper versus in the reference-list entries covered below.

- **Authors' initials** are omitted in in-text citations unless necessary for distinguishing between two authors with the same last name. However, when the authors are introduced in the main flow of the sentence, you can always put initials or full first names (if you find it helps your purposes). When mentioning more than one author in the main flow of the sentence, use the full word *and* before the last author, rather than just an ampersand (&).
- The **year** alone appears in in-text notes, no matter whether the full date is listed on the References page. Be sure, however, to provide distinguishing lowercase letters that have been attached to year to distinguish multiple entries by the same author in the same year (see example I. among the in-text notes above).
- **Titles** are required in in-text notes for unsigned sources only, but you can list the title in the main flow of the sentence if you feel it helps you better position and introduce an important source. No matter where you list titles in the body of the paper, capitalize all major words, instead of just the first word and proper nouns (as is expected on the References page). Also, in the body of the paper, titles that are not italicized, should appear within quotation marks; italicized titles appear as such on both the References page and in the paper itself.

§ 2.3.1. Listing books and other non-periodical print publications

Books, brochures, reports, and so on are non-periodical print publications familiar to most anyone, even though their necessity for research writing has diminished somewhat since the increase of accessible online publication channels. For the purposes of citation, you will need to pay extra attention to publication details easily overlooked when not used for documentation.

◊ **What information to record:** As you read through sources, be sure to record the important information you will need for citation. Besides the specific pages containing material you reference, record these key details, which are usually found on the title page or copyright page for the source:

- The **authors** of the source, including first and middle initials listed on the title page.
- The latest copyright and original printing **date**, or other indication of the printing date (usually on the copyright page, which appears on the reverse side of the inside title page).
- Any indications of special **edition** or **version** (usually a number, but sometimes a name).
- **Special contributors** listed on the title page, such as illustrators, editors, or translators.
- The names of **chapter or article contributors** (authors, translators, etc.) listed in the bylines of specific book chapters or articles you reference in the body of the papers. (This is common for anthologies and other edited collections.)
- The **place of publication**. (When multiple locations are listed, record the first city.)
- The **publisher** or, if not available, the printer or printing organization.

As you record the key details listed above, ask these questions to make sure you are recording all the relevant information and formatting the citation correctly:

◊ **Is the author of the source an organization or corporation?** If so, list the name of the organization fully spelled at the beginning of the entry, in place of a personal author name. If the organization is also the publisher, after the place of publication, simply put the word *Author*.

◊ **Is a special contributor given equal listing with the author?** If your source gives significant credit to a special kind of contributor, for instance, an illustrator, list the contributor's name alongside the author (ordering them as they appear on the title page), putting his or her special contribution in parentheses: for instance, *Smith, J. (Illustrator).*

◊ **Is the book you are using a revised or special version?** List the edition number or version title in parentheses immediately after the title, before the period that follows the title. Do not italicize this information. Note that other information (e.g., the volume) may also appear in the parentheses. Use commas to separate multiple extra details appearing in parentheses after the book's title.

◊ **Are you primarily referencing a specific chapter, rather than the whole book?** For the author(s) of the entry, list the chapter's writer(s), who may be different from those credited for the book itself. The main title for the listing should match the chapter's title (no italics). The book's title appears next in the listing, preceded by *In* and the names of those credited for the whole book. When those credited for the book are editors, put *Eds.* or *Ed.* in parentheses after their names*.* Finally, in parentheses after the book's title, list the pages for chapter, preceded by *pp.*

◊ **Is the book or chapter cited a translation?** List the name(s) of the translator(s) in parentheses (no italics) after the title of the translated source, followed by the abbreviation *Trans.*.

2.3.1. PRINTED BOOKS, BROCHURES, REPORTS, ETC.

TEMPLATES		
BOOK	Name, A. (YEAR). *Title of the book in italics*. Publication City, ST: Publisher.	
BOOK -Two authors - Foreign pub. City	Name, A., & Name, B. (YEAR). *Title of the book in italics*. Publication City, Country: Publisher.	
BOOK - Three authors - Revised edition	Name, A., Name, B., & Name, C. (YEAR). *Title of the book in italics* (NUM ed.). Publication City, ST: Publisher.	
BOOK CHAPTER - Article in edited book	Name, A. (YEAR). Title of chapter. In B. Name (Ed.), *Title of the book in italics* (pp. PAGES). Publication City, ST: Publisher.	
BROCHURE - Organizational author	Organization Name. (YEAR). *Title of the brochure in italics*. Publication City, ST: Printer.	

EXAMPLES	References
1. Book With subtitle	Ariely, D. (2008). *Predictably irrational: The hidden forces that shape our decisions*. New York, NY: Harper.
2. Brochure Org. author and publisher	College Board. (2006). *CLEP: Shorten your path to a college degree* [Brochure]. New York, NY: Author.
3. Book Translation	Fuentes, C. (1996). *A new time for Mexico* (M. Castaneda and author, Trans.). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press. (Original work published in 1994).
4. Book intro Not by author	Kennedy, G. A. (1991). Introduction. In Aristotle, *On rhetoric: A theory of civic discourse* (pp. 3-22). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
5. Book Graphic novel listing illustrator	Kudlow, J. T., & Neves, D. (Illustrator). (2011). *Justice League: Rise and fall*. Los Angeles, CA: DC Comics.
6. Book Two authors, a revised edition	Lunsford, A., & Ruszkiewicz, J. J. (2009). *Everything's an argument* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Bedford/St. Martin's.
7. Book chapter Three authors in an edited collection	Thompson, E., Lutz, A., & Cosmelli, D. (2005). Neurophenomenology: An introduction for neurophilosophers. In A. Brook & K. Akins (Eds.), *Cognition and the brain: The philosophy and neuroscience movement* (pp. 40-97). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

§ 2.3.2. Listing articles from printed journals, magazines, and newspapers

Periodical publications, such as journals, magazines, and newspapers, are regularly published sources focused on more or less specific topics of interest. You will often cite individual articles from such publications, especially if your research project requires more current perspectives within the field. To find perspectives from a variety of periodicals, most researchers use library research databases, which house digitized versions of articles from print publications. Consider also locating the websites for periodicals in your field. Such sites may actually be required for citation of articles acquired online, but they also may be useful for learning about the authority of the source. If you do choose to access periodical articles online, the listing on the References page will need to include online retrieval information, which is covered in the next section. No matter how you access the periodical article, though, you will need to consider the details discussed in this section.

◊ **What information to record:** Besides noting specific pages containing material you reference, record these key details from the byline of the article, cover of the issue, or its table of contents:

- The **authors** of the source, including first and middle initials listed on the article's byline.
- The publication **date** for the issue with the article, including month and day when available.
- The **title of the article**, including subtitles.
- The **type** of article (in particular, editorials, letters to the editor, and reviews).
- The **name of the periodical** and, for newspapers, the **place** where it is published.
- The **volume and/or issue** number (but not needed for newspapers).
- Any indications that the issue is a **special edition**.
- The **page or pages** where the article appears in the issue.

As you record the key details listed above and draft your reference-list entry, ask these questions to make sure you are recording all the relevant information and formatting the citation correctly:

◊ **Are you listing an article from a newspaper?** After the author (or title, if unsigned), list the full issue date, putting the year first, a comma, then month and day (if given). After the article's title (or date, if unsigned), list the periodical's name (italicized), a comma, *p.* or *pp.*, and the article's pages. If the periodical name does not indicate the publication city, list it in parentheses after the name.

◊ **Are you listing an article from a peer-reviewed journal?** After the author, provide *only the year* of the volume for the date. After the article's title (or date, if unsigned), list in italics the journal's name, a comma, then the volume (italicized), another comma, and page numbers for the article (no *p.* or *pp.* in this case). If the journal restarts pagination with each issue in the volume (or, *issue pagination*), identify the issue in parentheses (but no italics) immediately after the volume.

◊ **Are you listing a magazine article?** Always provide the full issue date. If no volume or issue is listed, then format the *rest of the entry* like a newspaper article; otherwise, like a journal article.

◊ **Is the article unsigned?** List the title of the article first, before the date. The periodical name goes immediately after the date, followed by the standard details about issue and pages.

◊ **Is the article a review, editorial, or other special genre?** Describe the genre in square brackets (*[. . .]*) after the article title. For reviews, include a reference to the title of the work being reviewed followed by the names of those given primary credit for the reviewed work.

2.3.2. ARTICLES IN PRINTED PERIODICALS

TEMPLATES

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE	Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the article. *Periodical Name (City)*, pp. PAGES.
MAGAZINE ARTICLE -Two authors - Weekly, issue #s	Name, A., & Name, B. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the article. *Periodical Name*, *ISSUE*, PAGES.
UNSIGNED ARTICLE - Monthly, no issue#	Title of the article. (YEAR, Month). *Periodical Name*, pp. RANGE.
JOURNAL ARTICLE - Four authors, paged by volume	Name, A., Name, B., Name, C., & Name, D. (YEAR). Title of the article. *Periodical Name*, *VOL*, PAGES.
REVIEW ARTICLE - In a newspaper, review of a book	Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of article [Review of the book *Title of book reviewed*, by B. Name]. *Periodical Name*, pp. PAGES.

EXAMPLES	References
8. Newspaper article Unsigned	An advocate for equal justice. (2010, March 10). *The New York Times*, p. 26.
9. Book review In journal paged by volume	Baumeister, R. F. (1993). Exposing the self-knowledge myth [Review of the book *The self knower: A hero under control*, by R. A. Wicklund & M. Eckert]. *Contemporary Psychology, 38*, 466-467.
10. Letter to editor In weekly magazine, no issue number	Bradford, B. (2000, November 19). Newt at rest [Letter to the editor]. *New York Times Magazine*, p. 28.
11. Journal article Three authors, in journal paged by vol.	Davis, J., Payne, G. T., & McMahan, G. (2007). A few bad apples? Scandalous behavior of mutual fund managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *76*, 319-334.
12. Journal article Four authors, in journal paged by issue	Nikbin, D., Ismail, I., Marimuthu, M., & Jalalkamali, M. (2010). Perceived justice in service recovery and recovery satisfaction: The moderating role of corporate image. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 2*(2), 47-56.
13. Magazine article In weekly, with issue numbers	O'Brien, D. (2004, August 21). Protecting computers against "evil" emails. *New Scientist, 2461*, 23.
14. Movie review Untitled review, in a newspaper	Puig, C. (2008, July 13). [Review of the movie *The incredible hulk*, written by Z. Penn & directed by L. Leterrier, 2008]. p. 05e.
15. Magazine editorial Signed, in bi-monthly, discontinuous paging	Sweeney, E. (2010, September/October). A collective intelligence [Editorial]. *American Jails, 24*(4), 5, 93.

§ 2.3.3. Listing periodical articles from databases and periodical websites

What distinguishes an "online article" from other Web pages (discussed in Section 2.3.4) is the presumption that the source is not intended to be updated, but is rather written as a short, "fixed" piece of writing, like articles appearing in print periodicals. In fact, articles appearing in library databases or on periodical websites are often digitized versions of articles also appearing in print. The publisher of the online article may make minor corrections, but online articles, once published, are generally expected to remain unchanged. Consequently, most of the information for online articles is the same as that listed for printed articles, especially when the corresponding print details are listed with an online version. There are, however, key differences discussed below.

◊ **What information to record:** There are many places to find articles online: library databases, periodical websites, and a variety of third-party sites. Wherever you locate an article, look for the standard details for print articles, including periodical name, volume and issue numbering, and page listings where the article also appears in print (see Section 2.3.3. above). But also pay attention to special online publication details, including the URLs for the periodical's website and the article itself. Either of these Web addresses may be necessary for the retrieval statement at the end of the reference-list entry, which is an added requirement at the end of listings for online sources (see above). One other detail is important to look for. The latest APA guidelines ask for Digital Object Identifiers, which, when available, replace all other online retrieval information in the listing.

◊ **Locating Digital Object Identifiers (DOIs)**: A DOI is "a unique alpha-numeric string assigned . . . to identify content and provide a persistent link to its location on the Internet" (APA, 2010, p. 189). Since a DOI is unique and permanent for each official electronic version of a source, it is preferred by the APA to URL references, which can frequently change. Unfortunately, not all sources have been assigned DOIs. Here are three strategies for locating a source's DOI (if it exists):

(a) Look at the research database's bibliographic information for the article. Often, the DOI can be found on the database search or results page where you first located the article. For example:

1. Exploring academic misconduct: Some insights into student behaviour.
   By: Perry, Bob. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, Jul2010, Vol. 11 Issue 2, p97-108, 12p; DOI: 10.1177/1469787410365657
   Subjects: STUDENT etiquette; STUDENTS -- Psychology; COLLUSION; PLAGIARISM; BUSINESS schools; COLLEGE freshmen; BUSINESS students; Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools; Business and Secretarial Schools

   Database: Academic Search Complete

 (b) Look at the electronic version of the article itself. The DOI is often located on the first page of an article, near the copyright notice or in the footer of the first page. To the right, you will find an image of the first page of a PDF version of an article with a DOI.

(active) learning
in higher education

Article

Active Learning in Higher Education
11(2) 97–108
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co.uk/journalsPermissions.nav
DOI: 10.1177/1469787410365657
http://alh.sagepub.com
SAGE

Exploring academic misconduct: Some insights into student behaviour

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Abstract
Academic research and newspaper stories suggest that academic misconduct, including plagiarism, is on the increase. This apparent increase coupled with new internet enterprises selling 'pass' papers and customized

(c) Use a DOI cross-referencing site: If you cannot locate the DOI on the first page of the article, go to < http://www.crossref.org/guestquery>. This site and others like it allow you to search for DOIs based on other details you should also have about the source, including title, periodical, and author.

◊ **Using DOIs in the reference-list entry**. If you successfully locate the DOI for a source, place the identifier (preceded by *doi:*) at the end of the entry (no period after); no other retrieval information is needed when DOIs are listed. For the article above, the entry looks like this:

> REFERENCE-LIST ENTRY FOR A SOURCE WITH A DOI
>
> Perry, B. (2010). Exploring academic misconduct: Some insights into student behaviour.
>
> *Active Learning in Higher Education, 11*(2), 97-108. doi: 10.1177/146978741036565

◊ **Retrieval statements when no DOI is available:** In the next section, you will learn more about how to cite a wide variety of online sources, which often include a date of access in their retrieval statements. As with all elements in the basic reference-list templates, however, there are key variations. For online articles, first of all, no retrieval date is listed, because the source is assumed to remain unchanged. Online articles also have special requirements for listing the URL for the source. *When no DOI is available*, ask these questions to determine which URL to provide:

• *Did you locate the article on the periodical's website?* Your retrieval statement should at the very least include the URL for the periodical's home page. However, if the article is reliably retrieved on the periodical site through a URL linking directly to it, you should provide this fuller URL. Do not provide full URLs, though, when access to the article requires a login or when the only direct URL is excessively long. Some sites will actually provide a "permanent link" suitable for citation.

• *Did you locate the article in a research database?* Never list the full, direct URL for articles accessed through research databases, since those Web addresses are often cryptic, overly long, and session-specific. The latest APA guidelines ask you instead to do a standard Web search (e.g., in *Google*) for the periodical's website, listing the URL for the homepage of the periodical's website. Once you locate the periodical's website, you can follow the guidelines in the previous paragraph.

The expectation to locate the periodical's website may seem strange for articles from databases, but there is some reason behind it. Databases often change their offerings, so later readers can more reliably use a periodical's own online archives than the full-text offerings in a third-party database. One can understand the APA's concern about reliable access over time, once one considers that the APA guidelines above are primarily framed for use by academic publishers offering books and papers intended to serve as lasting records of research.

For class assignments, however, other guidelines may be more appropriate. In particular, instructors may ask you to list the database name (e.g., *LexisNexis Academic*, *Academic Search Premiere*, *Business Source Complete*, etc.) instead of the periodical's URL, indicating where you actually found the article within library research databases. Instructors, then, can easily locate the article themselves for reference. (See the Harley example on the following page.) As with other modifications to APA's official recommendations, follow the expectations set by your instructor.

2.3.3. PERIODICAL ARTICLES IN DATABASES, ON PERIODICAL SITES

TEMPLATES		
	ONLINE ARTICLE - Digitized to newspaper's site	Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the article. *Periodical Name*, pp. PAGES. Retrieved from http://periodicalsite/home.html
	ONLINE ARTICLE - Digitized from journal into database	Name, A., Name, B., Name, C., & Name, D. (YEAR). Title of the article. *Periodical Name*, *VOL*(ISSUE), PAGES. Retrieved from http://journalsite/home.html
	ONLINE ARTICLE - DOI available	Name, A., & Name, B. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the article. *Periodical Name*, *VOL*(ISSUE), PAGES. doi: DOI.NUMBER
	ONLINE ARTICLE - Available only on periodical site	Name, A. (YEAR). Title of the article. *Periodical Site*. Retrieved from http://journalsite/article.html

EXAMPLES	References
16. Journal article From non-subscription e-journal, no DOI	Ashe, D. D., & McCutcheon, L. E. (2001). Shyness, loneliness, and attitude toward celebrities. *Current Research in Social Psychology, 6*(9), 124–133. Retrieved from http://www.uiowa.edu/~grpproc/crisp/crisp.6.9.htm
17. Magazine article From a periodical site, no DOI listed	Campanelli, M. (2000, August). Spanning the globe: "Localizing" your Web site. *Entrepreneur*. Retrieved from http://www.entrepreneur.com/article/30718-4
18. Journal article From a database, paged by volume, more than seven authors, with DOI	Dehaene, S., Pegado, F., Braga, L. W., Ventura, P., Filho, G. N., Jobert, A., . . . Cohen, L. (2010). How learning to read changes the cortical networks for vision and language. *Science, 330*, 1359-1364. doi: 10.1126/science.1194140
19. Journal article From a database, paged by issue, three authors, no DOI	Dimofte, C. V., Johansson, J. K., & Ronkainen, I. A. (2008). Spanning the globe. *Marketing Management, 17*(5), 40-43. Retrieved from http://www .mmaglobal.org/publications/marketingmanagementjournal.html
20. Magazine article From database, no periodical website	Harley, B. (1995, December). Spanning the globe. *Database Magazine, 18*(6), 52-57. Retrieved from Health Source: Nursing/Academic Edition database.
21. Newspaper article From a database, two auths., no DOI	Swanson, M., & Paul-Johnson, E. (2010, July 6). Spanning the globe. *The Press Enterprise*. Retrieved from http://www.pe.com
22. Journal article Paged by volume, with DOI	Whitmeyer, J. M. (2000). Power through appointment. *Social Science Research, 29*, 535-555. doi:10.1006/ssre.2000.0680

§ 2.3.4. Listing Web pages, blogs, reader postings, and e-books

The World Wide Web offers so many kinds of sources delivered in so many different formats that citation systems have difficulty keeping up—not to mention students and instructors! Even so, there are some standard details you can look for to insure your citation does not omit important info. Many of the guidelines below also apply to rich-media and special-genre sources covered in Sections 2.3.5. and 2.3.6. Here we focus on generic Web pages, blogs, user postings, and e-books.

◊ **What information to record:** As you would for other sources, look for the key elements of the basic reference-list entry: author, date, title, and publication information. The lack of standards for publication can, however, make identifying some important details difficult. Here are suggestions:

- The **authors** for Web sources can be listed in many places, including in a byline at the top, in the footer of the page, or even on a separate page linked to the one you are referencing.
- The publication **date** for online sources is generally the posting date, which can appear in a variety of locations on the page; a copyright date for the site may be all that is available.
- The **titles** of online sources are also sometimes tricky, since most appear as part of the hierarchy within a larger site, so make sure to explore the overall site housing the source.
- **Original production information** is sometimes listed for the source (e.g., print date), etc.
- The last **date you retrieved the source** should be noted for pages updated regularly.
- A direct **URL (i.e., Web address)** can often be pared down to omit unnecessary query info.
- The **website** name and main **URL of the site** are also often used to cite sources.
- Remember, finally, to record **location references** (e.g., section numbers, headings, etc.) where material you reference appears. Note that some Web sources *do have page numbers*.

◊ **Are you citing a Web page or a node of Web pages?** Begin the entry as you would for a printed report, listing the author first (or title, if unsigned). Note that the author of some Web sources is assumed to be the same organization housing the source on its website (but *not* for online articles—see below). Next, list the posting date and title (italicized). Finally, put *Retrieved from*, a retrieval date (unless the source is assumed to remain unchanged) and the source's URL.

◊ **Are you citing a Web log—or *blog*—posting?** The title of the posting should not be italicized; insert *[Web log post]* after it. Be sure to list the full posting date, but omit the retrieval date.

◊ **Are you citing an online article from a *non-periodical* website?** Do not italicize titles for these sources; if the article does not name an author in the byline, put the title first (just as you would for periodical articles). If it is a special kind of article (e.g., a review), note it in brackets after the title.

◊ **Are you citing reader-contributed content, rather than an edited posting?** Describe the post in square brackets after the subject line (no italics): for example, *[Web log comment]* or *[Online forum comment]*. Be sure to provide the full date of the posting; the retrieval date can be omitted.

◊ **Is the identity of the website housing the source indicated clearly by other parts of the entry?** If not, list the name of the site (no italics) after the retrieval date, before the URL.

◊ **Are you citing an e-book or e-book chapter?** Start the entry like a similar print source. In brackets after the title, however, describe the file format. Replace the publication details with a retrieval statement listing the URL for the source or, if a direct URL is not reliable, the URL for the site providing the e-book. If a DOI is available, provide only the DOI (see Section 2.3.3).

2.3.4. WEB PAGES, ONLINE POSTINGS, AND E-BOOKS

TEMPLATES		
	WEB PAGE - By org. author - Updated regularly	**Organization Name. (YEAR, Month DAY).** *Title of the page italicized*. **Retrieved Month DAY, YEAR, from http://orgsite/page.html**
	BLOG ENTRY **-** Author given	**Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the blog entry [Web log posting]. Retrieved from http://blogsite/page.html**
	USER POSTING - Site clarified	**Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of post [Reader comment]. Retrieved from Name of Site website: http://website/page.html**
	E- BOOK, REPORT - Printed & digitized to d-base	**Name, A. (YEAR).** *Title of the book italicized* **[Format not italicized]. Retrieved from http://databasesite/page.html**

EXAMPLES	References
23. Web page/node Group author, no date posted	American Management Association. (n.d.). *Training options*. Retrieved July 1, 2010, from http://www.amanet.org/government/trainingoptions.aspx
24. E-book E-reader version, no DOI	Carnegie, D. (2009). *How to win friends and influence people* (Reissue ed.). [Kindle Edition version]. Retrieved from http://www.amazon.com (Original work published in 1937)
25. E-book Digitized to database, no DOI	Donogue, D. (2008). *On eloquence.* Retrieved from http://site.ebrary.com/lib /librarytitles/home.action
26. Online report Digitized to org. site, no DOI	Gill, K., Brooks, K., McDougall, J., Patel, P., & Kes, A. (2010). *Bridging the gender divide.* Retrieved from the International Center for Research on Women website: http://www.icrw.org/publications/bridging-gender-divide
27. Forum posting	Goodwin, A. (2009, June 12). Okay, I'll bite [Online forum posting]. Retrieved from http://forums.cnet.com/7723-7811_102-344788.html?messageId =3060623
28. Blog posting	Kiume, S. (2007, August 17). Loneliness isn't good [Web log message]. Retrieved from http://psychcentral.com/blog/archives/ 2007/08/17/loneliness-isnt-good/
29. Online article Unsigned, on news website (i.e., non-periodical site)	Ricky Gervais sends friend around world for series. (2011, January 7). Retrieved from http://www.cbsnews.com/stories/2011/01/06/ap/entertainment /main7220544.shtml
30. Web page/node Group author, copyright dated	World Wide Web Consortium. (2010). *The semantic web*. Retrieved January 1, 2011, from http://www.w3.org/standards/semanticweb

§ 2.3.5. Listing audio, video, and multimedia sources

Movies, radio broadcasts, television series, and other rich media content will often be used in research papers treating a variety of subjects, from studies of cultural trends to analyses of economic forecasts. In fact, these kinds of sources are used more than ever, since online access to them has improved so significantly. While such widespread access has enabled writers to draw on a larger pool of resources, the variations in *how* researchers access these kinds of sources creates some added complications for citation purposes. To best understand the guidelines below, you should review the guidelines to the previous sections, which cover more basic citation practices for both online and offline sources. The sources in this section require minor variations to those basics.

◊ **What information to record:** One of the most obvious *special requirements* for these sources involves the way authors are listed. While most mass-produced sources involve the contributions of multiple individuals besides the writers given credit on the title page or byline, the special contributions of those creating rich media sources are often more significant, so significant that the special contributors are usually presented *as the authors of the source.* A director, for instance, might be listed first for a movie, while a performer might be listed first for a musical recording— even though neither of these contributors might actually be the "author" of the script or lyrics. Here are some details to look for as you record information about these kinds of sources:

- The **contributors** who are given "top billing" for the source *and* those you feel are most relevant for your purpose in writing (e.g., performers whose work you are analyzing, etc.).
- The production **date** for the source, which may be a recording or original release date for musical recordings and movies or a broadcast date for television and radio, etc.
- The **title** of the sources, including both episode and series or program names.
- The **production location** and **company** for CDs, DVDs, and other recorded media,.
- For sources accessed online, the **format** of the source (see below), the **URL** of the source itself, and the **URL of the site** providing the source.

As you record the key details listed above and draft your reference-list entry, ask these questions to make sure you are recording all the relevant information and formatting the citation correctly:

◊ **Are you citing recorded media, such as DVDs or CDs?** As noted above, you'll have a few options for listing the "authors" for the source, depending on how the source is credited (e.g., to the director, to the producer, to the performer, etc.). The date of production goes next and then the title of the source (italicized). Immediately after the title, list the media format in square brackets (no italics). Finally, close the entry with production city and company.

◊ **Are you citing a radio or television broadcast?** After listing the main contributors, provide the date for the specific broadcast you are citing. Then list the title of the program, putting the medium in square brackets after. If a title has been given to the particular episode you are citing, list it (no italics), then the format, a period, and the program name (preceded by *In*). The end of the entry should include the city where the broadcast was heard or viewed and the network or station.

◊ **Are you citing a video or audio download or podcast?** The first part of the entry will match similar sources on recorded or broadcast media. After the title, though, describe the format. In place of production information, provide standard retrieval information (no retrieval date is required).

2.3.5. VIDEO, AUDIO, AND OTHER RICH MEDIA SOURCES

TEMPLATES		
	DVD of film - Director given primary credit	**Name, A. (Writer), & Name, B. (Director). (YEAR).** *Title of the film* **[DVD]. Production City, ST: Production Company.**
	Radio broadcast - Host given primary credit	**Name, A (Host). (YEAR, Month DAY).** *Title of program* **[Radio program]. Broadcast City, ST: Station.**
	Podcast of video	**Name, A. (Contribution). (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of podcast [Video podcast]. Retrieved from http://podcastsite/page.xml**
	Television episode - Broadcast media - Multiple contributors	**Name, A (Contribution), & Name, B. (Contribution). (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of episode [Television series episode]. In** *Title of the series italicized.* **Broadcast City, ST: Station.**
	Downloaded Video - Post date given	**Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). Title of the video [Video file]. Retrieved from http://website/page.html**

EXAMPLES	References
31. Movie - theatrical release	Affleck, B. (Writer/Director), Iwanyk, B., & King, G. (Producers). (2010). *The town* [Motion picture]. United States: Warner Brothers.
32. Video Clip Download from database	Agoyen. (2007, February 22). Downtown Marquette dog sled races [Video file]. Retrieved from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gW3CNCGGgTY
33. Television broadcast	Cheap Trick (Performers). (2011, January 1). *Austin city limits* [Television series episode]. Austin, TX: KRLU.
34. Television episode On DVD	Coyne, S., Martin, B. (Writers), & McKinney, M. (Writer/Director). (2003). Madness in great ones [Television series episode]. In *Slings and arrows: The complete collection* [DVD]. Silver Spring, MD: Acorn Media.
35. Radio broadcast	Gross, T. (Host). (2010a, January 6). *Fresh air* [Radio program]. Columbus, OH: WCBE.
36. Podcast Of a radio program	Gross, T. (Host). (2010b, July 30). *Fresh air* [Audio podcast]. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/rss/podcast.php?id=13
37. CD liner notes Song lyrics, with original date	Young, N. (n.d.). After the gold rush [CD liner notes]. In *After the gold rush* [CD]. Burbank, CA: Warner Brothers. (Original work recorded in 1970)

§ 2.3.6. Listing reference articles, government documents, and other special genres

The sources listed on this page represent special genres that have more or less unique citation requirements. These sources can be found both online and in print, and their publication details should be listed accordingly. Be sure to review the guidelines in earlier sections so you understand how the basic citation requirements already covered are adjusted to fit these special genres.

◊ **Are you citing an entry from a reference work, such as an encyclopedia or dictionary?** If there is a byline for the entry, which sometimes occurs in highly specialized reference works, then list that author at the beginning of your citation. If no author is identified for the specific entry, begin with the title of the entry (no italics or quotation marks). Next, list the copyright year or, for online references, the most recent posting date for the entry (if provided). Next, provide the title of the overall reference work in italics, preceded by the word *In*. Provide any available edition or volume information in parentheses (no italics) after the title. Finally, list publication details as appropriate for the medium: either place and publisher or online retrieval information.

◊ **Are you citing a speech, lecture, or other presentation?** List like any other original work, beginning with the name of the presenter, date, and title (in italics). After the title, describe the presentation (e.g., *speech*, *lecture*, etc.), giving the name of the event, sponsoring organization, and location where the event took place. When using a transcript of a presentation, close the entry with the relevant publication information (i.e., as a book part, a periodical article, or Web source).

◊ **Are you citing an organization-sponsored report?** If using a printed copy, cite like a book; if using an online copy, cite like similar online sources (i.e., e-books or Web pages). In parentheses after the title, insert any identifying report numbers. Note that many reports are by organizational authors, but some credit specific individuals. The publisher is usually an organization, however.

◊ **Are you citing documents by government agencies?** These sources are generally cited like similar group-author sources in the same medium. When listing the authoring organization, however, be sure to begin with the overall government entity (e.g., *U.S.; Ohio*; *Franklin County; City of Columbus, OH*; etc.), narrowing down to the agency or office producing the document.

◊ **Are you citing official documents produced by the U.S. Congress?** There are conventional abbreviations used for documents produced by the U.S. Congress (see http://www.loc.gov). Begin the entry with an abbreviation indicating the government entity responsible for the source (e.g., *S.* for Senate, *H.R.* for House of Representatives, etc.). Then list official type of document (e.g., *Res.* for Resolution, *Rep.* for Report, etc.) along with any associated numeric identifier. Finally, list the number of the Congressional session and the year of publication.

◊ **Are you citing the Congressional Record?** After the numeric identifier for the document (see above), put a comma, the volume housing the materials, the abbreviation *Cong. Rec.*, and the page where the relevant materials begin in the *Congressional Record*, all before the publication date.

◊ **Are you citing a Congressional hearing or testimony?** Start with the title of the testimony or hearing, including the name of the relevant committee—all in italics. Next, put a comma, the number of the Congress, and the first page where the hearing begins in the official documentation.

2.3.6. REFERENCE ARTICLES, PRESENTATIONS, GOV. DOCS., ETC.

TEMPLATES

Reference Article	Reference article title. (YEAR, Month DAY). In *Title of reference italicized* (Xth ed., Vol. No., pp. PAGES). Pub. City, ST: Publisher
Online Report	Organization Name. (YEAR). *Title of report* (Report number). Retrieved from http://orgwebsite/page.html
Presentation	Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). *Title of presentation*. Description with name of Event, Organization, Presentation City, ST.
Online presentation materials	Name, A. (YEAR, Month DAY). *Title of presentation* [Format]. Retrieved from http://website/page.html
Congressional documents	Document Identifier, Congressional Session. (YEAR).

EXAMPLES

	References
38. Annual report	Girl Scouts of the USA. (2010). *2009 annual report*. New York, NY: Author.
39. Presentation materials online Undated slides in PowerPoint format	Purdue Online Writing Lab. (n.d.). *Invention (prewriting)* [PowerPoint file]. Retrieved January 1, 2011, from http://owl.english.purdue.edu/media/ppt /20071017013746_695.ppt
40. Data set Owned by organization	Pew Research Center. (2010, November). *Paid content (omnibus)* [SPSS data file]. Retrieved from the Pew Internet and American Life website: http://www.pewinternet.org/Data-Tools/Download-Data/Data-Sets.aspx
41. Online ref. art. No posting date on wiki	Psychometrics. (n.d.). In *The psychology wiki*. Retrieved January 8, 2011, from http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Psychometrics
42. Class Handout	Stirm, A. (2005, Spring). The importance of strong introductions and conclusions. ENG 111: Bowling Green State University.
43. Online Report From government agency	U.S. National Endowment for the Arts. (2009). *2008 survey of public participation in the arts* (NEA Research Report #49). Retrieved from http://www.nea.gov/ research/2008-SPPA.pdf
44. Reference art. Edited reference work	Winfrey, Oprah. (2005). In C. H. Krismann (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of American women in business* (Vol. II, pp. 563-565). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
45. Online ref. art. No editors named	Zambia. (2010, December 28). In *The world factbook*. Retrieved January 6, 2011, from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/za.html

3. APA Document Formatting

The follow sections explain how to format a student paper in APA format. As mentioned earlier (Section 2), APA style is generally used for writers seeking to publish research in the social sciences. However, like other style conventions (most notably MLA), APA has also been adapted for the purposes of preparing formal papers for academic coursework. Many of the conventions used by researchers preparing manuscripts for professional peer reviewers (i.e., fellow experts in the field) match those expected by instructors for the purposes of peer review by classmates, not to mention commentary by instructors themselves. Specific instructors and course assignments may require variations on the following standard formatting. When no extra clarification is given, use the conventions discussed in this section.

3.1. Format Settings Applied to the Whole Document

The following settings should be applied to your whole word-processer document. On occasion, you may have sections or passages that require minor adjustments, such as tables and appendices. These are covered later in the section.

§ 3.1.1. Page layout settings

APA papers are laid out like most academic manuscripts, including ample margins for easy annotation, running page numbers for easy reference, and informative page headers.

◊ **Margins:** Set margins to one inch on all sides. Do not confuse the correct APA margins with the default page setup in Microsoft Word. Word 2007, for example, defaults to wider margins than desired on the left and right. Change the margin setup to one inch when you create your document.

◊ **Page header with page numbers:** A page header is an abbreviated version of your paper's title and the page number. Using your word processor's "header" command, insert in the upper left-hand corner of each page a short version of your paper's title (or the title itself if not too long). Tab on the same line to the right edge of the header, inserting an auto-incremented page number, which all word-processors provide (check the *Insert* menu). The title page is always page 1. *Note:* Your instructor may prefer that you list your last name instead of the short title for the paper.

§ 3.1.2. Paragraph and type settings

The following settings can be applied quickly to the whole paper using the "Select All" command (*Ctrl + A* in Windows).

◊ **Font:** Use an 11- or 12-point Serif font, Times New Roman or similar. Your instructor may have specific preferences.

◊ **Line spacing:** Double space throughout, including the title and References Pages. Do not add line breaks manually, and let Microsoft Word determine when the line ends.

◊ **Paragraph indentation and alignment:** Indent the first line of each paragraph by .5". Left align your paper; this means that the right-hand margin of the paper will be *ragged*—not all lines will end at the same spot, as in a newspaper. Also, make sure automatic hyphenation is turned *off*.

3.2. Standard Parts of an APA Paper

An APA paper includes a number of standard parts, although some projects do not require all the parts. Consult your assignment instructions or instructor for guidance on what is expected. Note also that each of the parts discussed below begins on a new page. Page numbering is continuous throughout, beginning with the title page. Usually only the body pages count, however, when determining whether a paper meets an assignment's required length in pages or word count.

§ 3.2.1. Title page

The title should be centered vertically and horizontally on the page and include the (a) title of your paper (or assignment name), (b) your name, (c) the course title, (d) professor's name, and (e) the date the draft was submitted (making sure to change this date when submitting the final draft). It should also be double spaced. ***Note:** Some professors may want students to also include course and section numbers with the course title.

SHORT TITLE   1

Title of the Paper

Student's Name

Course Title

Professor's Name

Date of draft

TITLE PAGE CHECKLIST:

Do
1. **Center vertically and horizontally on page.**
2. **Include the following information:**
   a. Title of Paper (or assignment name)
   b. Your name
   c. Course Title
   d. Professor's Name
   e. Date of draft
3. **Double space each item.**
4. **Use one-inch margins**.
5. **Use the same font and point size as the rest of the document**.

Do *Not*
1. Insert graphics or use special formatting.
2. Use the same date for first and final drafts.

§ 3.2.2. Abstract page

An abstract is a quick summary highlighting the key points of your paper. Abstracts are not the same as introductions, which generally introduce readers to the main thesis of the paper by providing an interesting and informative context. By contrast, an abstract will present a brief description of how the thesis or main claim is demonstrated in the body of the paper.

Not all writing assignments require abstracts, but they are often expected for longer papers. However, if you are required to include an abstract, begin on a new page, with the word Abstract at the top (no bold or quotation marks). The abstract should be 150-200 words (though your instructor may specify another length. Use all the standard formatting guidelines (double-spacing, etc.) discussed above—*but* do not indent the first line of the abstract, like you would most paragraphs. (The Latin text used for the examples comes from <http://www.thelatinlibrary.com>.)

<table>
<tr>
<td>

SHORT TITLE   1″   2

Abstract

Cogitanti mihi saepe numero et memoria vetera repetenti perbeati fuisse, Quinte frater, illi videri solent, qui in optima re publica, cum et honoribus et rerum gestarum gloria florerent, eum vitae cursum tenere potuerunt, ut vel in negotio sine periculo vel in otio cum dignitate esse possent; ac fuit cum mihi quoque initium requiescendi atque animum ad utriusque nostrum praeclara studia referendi fore iustum et prope ab omnibus concessum arbitrarer, si infinitus forensium rerum labor et ambitionis occupatio decursu honorum, etiam aetatis flexu constitisset.

1″   1″

1″

</td>
<td>

ABSTRACT CHECKLIST

Do
1. **Provide a heading for the page:** Center the word *Abstract* at the top (no bold, italics, or colon after).
2. **Left-align the paragraph, leaving a "ragged" right edge:** Use your word processor's *Paragraph* settings, omitting indentation for the first line.
3. **Use the same margins and spacing as the rest of the document:** Double space with 1-inch margins.
4. **Use the same running page header as the rest of the paper:** The Abstract will always be page 2.

Do *Not*
1. Insert blank lines after the page heading.
2. Indent the first line of the abstract.
3. Right-justify or hyphenate the document; instead, leave a "ragged" right edge for the text.
4. Exceed 200 words.

</td>
</tr>
</table>

§ 3.2.3. The body of the paper

While the settings discussed in 3.1 provide the basic guidelines for the body of the paper, keep in mind that some parts of the paper require special formatting, including changes in paragraph indentation, font, and alignment. In this section, we will cover the special formatting required for section headings. Here are the locations where other special formatting is covered in this manual:

- Block quotations are covered in Section 2.2.3. above.
- Figure and table formatting is covered in Section 3.6. below.
- List formatting is covered in 3.6. below.

APA section headings: APA document format encourages the use of section headings within longer papers. In fact, APA provides specific headings to use for empirical studies, which should have the following main sections: Introduction (not actually given a heading), Method, Results, Discussion, and Conclusion. Unless you are a psychology major, most of your papers will use other headings more appropriate for the paper you have been assigned. As you determine the

appropriate section labels, note the standard formatting for headings indicating new sections or subsections. The following diagram shows the appropriate format for section headings and subsections at various levels:

Top Level Headings are Centered and Bold with Major Words Capitalized

Second Level Headings are Left-Aligned and Bold with Major Words Capitalized

    Third level headings are left-aligned, indented, bold, and ending with a period.

    Fourth level headings are left-aligned, indented, italicized, bold, and ending with a period.

You probably will not have much need for third- and fourth-level headings, unless writing a paper more than 10 or 15 pages. Some instructors may ask that you avoid headings for particular assignments. When allowed, you are generally encouraged to take advantage of APA section headings for papers more than three or four pages. Be aware also that your instructor or the assignment itself may direct you to use specific headings reflecting the aims of the genre of paper you are writing. When you do not use those headings to arrange material in the body of your paper, you will likely have points deducted from the grade of the paper. *NOTE*: No extra line spacing appears before or after the headings.

SHORT TITLE   1″   3

Full Paper Title

½″

Saepe et multum hoc mecum cogitavi, bonine an mali plus attulerit hominibus et civitatibus copia dicendi ac summum eloquentiae studium. Nam cum et nostrae rei publicae detrimenta considero et maximarum civitatum veteres animo calamitates colligo, non minimam video per disertissimos homines invectam partem incommodorum; cum autem res ab nostra memoria propter vetustatem remotas ex litterarum monumentis repetere instituo, multas urbes constitutas, plurima bella restincta, firmissimas societates, sanctissimas amicitias intellego cum animi ratione tum facilius eloquentia comparatas.

1″   1″

Major Section Heading

Ac me quidem diu cogitantem ratio ipsa in hanc potissimum sententiam ducit, ut existimem sapientiam sine eloquentia parum prodesse civitatibus, eloquentiam vero sine sapientia nimium obesse plerumque, prodesse numquam. Quare si quis omissis rectissimis atque honestissimis studiis rationis et officii consumit omnem operam in exercitatione dicendi, is inutilis sibi, perniciosus patriae civis alitur; qui vero ita sese armat eloquentia, ut non oppugnare commoda patriae, sed pro his propugnare

1″

MAIN BODY CHECKLIST

Do

1. **Left-align the body of the paper:** Use your word processor's *Paragraph* settings.
2. **Indent each paragraph a half inch:** Again, use the *Paragraph* settings of your word processor
3. **Use one-inch margins throughout:** This is usually achieved with the *Page Layout* options.
4. **Double space the entire document:** This is usually achieved with the *Paragraph* settings.
5. **Indent block quotations an extra half inch from the left margin:** This is also achieved with the *Paragraph* settings (see more in Section 2 above).
6. **Repeat the title of the paper at the top of the first page:** Center it.
7. **Insert a running page header with numbering:** Use the "Insert" options in MS Word.

Do *Not*

1. Put a heading before the introductory paragraphs.
2. Insert blank lines before or after paragraphs.
3. Right-justify or hyphenate the document; instead, leave a "ragged" right edge for the text.
4. Force page breaks or manual insert page headers.

§ 3.2.4. References page

Begin on a separate page. The word *References* should be centered at the top of the page (do not bold, italicize, underline, or use quotation marks). This page is still numbered, using the same page header appearing throughout the paper.

SHORT TITLE   1″   9

References

Brennan, T. (2006, December 27). Analyst: Housing bubble fears

     behind us. Retrieved from http://www.cnbc.com/id

     /16368271/Analyst_Housing_Bubble_Fears_Behind_Us

Chanos, J. (2003, May 15). [Prepared remarks]. In *Hedge fund*

     ½″ *strategies and market participation*. Panel conducted at the

     U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission Roundtable on

     Hedge Funds. Retrieved from http://www.sec.gov/spotlight

     /hedgefunds/hedge-chanos.htm

1″   Gray, K. R., Frieder, L. A., & Clark, G. W. (2007). Financial   1″

     bubbles and business scandals in history. *International*

     Journal of Public Administration, 30, 859-888. doi: 10.1080

     /01900690701227420

Krugman, P. (2006, October 30). Bursting bubble blues. *The New*

     York Times, late edition, p. 25.

Kudlow, L. (2006a, August 22). Greatest story never told. *New*

     York Sun. Retrieved from http://www.nysun.com/opinion

     /greatest-story-never-told/38330/

Kudlow, L. (2006b, March 11). Riding the right curve: Laffer

     days are here again. *National Review*. Retrieved from

                      1″

REFERENCES PAGE CHECKLIST

Do

1. **Provide a heading for the page:** Center the word *References* at the top (no bold, italics, or colon after). If the source listings spill onto another page, do not repeat this heading.
2. **Use hanging indentation:** When source information runs onto a second, third, or additional line, indent those lines by .5″ using the *Paragraph* settings.
3. **Use the same margins and spacing as the rest of the document:** Double-space with 1-inch margins.
4. **List sources alphabetically using the first word(s) of each entry (excluding *A*, *An* or *The*):** For multiple sources with same author(s), list them from earliest to latest years; if years match also, sort by title.

Do *Not*

1. Put a colon after the page heading.
2. Insert extra blank lines between entries.
3. List sources that you do not actually cite in the body of the paper.

§ 3.2.5. Appendices

Appendices can be used in papers for a variety of purposes, but their main function is to provide fuller information about some source or observation discussed in the body of the paper. The contents of appendices generally include either more detailed analyses or extra data, from graphs and tables to survey questions or interview transcripts. While you may never have cause to provide an appendix, some instructors may require them in order to document primary research, since such sources are not generally accessed through the type of information appearing on the References page. Start each appendix on a separate page. Use the same page header as the main body of the paper, including a short title and page numbers. The heading centered at the top of the first page of each appendix should include the word *Appendix*, and, when more than one is provided, a capital letter distinguishing each one (which should be used when referring to the appendix in the body of the paper). The appendix material itself should be formatted like similar material appearing in the body of the paper.

3.3. Formatting Tables, Figures, and Lists

While the document settings above will fulfill most of your formatting requirements, some parts of the body of the paper require added formatting or slight alterations to distinguish particular content from the rest of the paper.

§ 3.3.1. Lists

Lists are a common feature of all kinds of writings and can be formatted in a variety of ways, most of which are readily accommodated by word-processor commands. Use **numbered lists** for

"ordered" information (e.g., chronological order, priority, importance). Use **bullet points** for any other series (APA, 2010, p. 64). Most times, when using bullet points, capitalize and punctuate the list as if it were a complete sentence. However, if the list is within a sentence, "capitalize and punctuate throughout" (*APA Style Blog*, 2010), as you would for any sentence. Below is an example of using a bulleted list within a sentence.

BULLET LISTS

All students are expected to come to tutoring with

- a pencil or pen,
- class notes, and
- all assigned coursework.

Lists can also be presented in the main flow of a sentence or paragraph. In a paragraph or sentence with a list, use lowercase letters (rather than numbers) in parentheses to set off each item.

LIST PRESENTED IN THE MAIN FLOW OF THE SENTENCE

All students are expected to come to tutoring with (a) a pencil or pen, (b) class notes, and (c) all assigned coursework.

Commas or semicolons can be used to separate elements of bulleted lists and lists within parentheses. Commas separate individual items in the list, while semicolons are used to separate items that already contain commas.

LIST OF ITEMS SEPARATED BY SEMICOLONS

The tour is scheduled to stop in Venice, Italy; Madrid, Spain; and Marseille, France.

§ 3.3.2. Tables and figures

Tables and figures allow authors to report data efficiently and effectively for readers. Here is how these important visual features are generally defined:

- *Table:* numerical data or textual information arranged in columns and rows
- *Figure:* a chart, photo, drawing, graph, diagram, or other non-textual information

There are many places to find tables and figures produced by other authors. However, for tables, APA rarely recommends copying-and-pasting from outside sources. Authors are encouraged instead to recreate the tables using a word-processing program (like *MS Word*) or a spreadsheet program (like *MS Excel*). This process allows the author to isolate the data most pertinent to his or her key points. Borrowed tables often also include data extraneous to the current paper and so can be inefficient as forms of visual explanation. Note that recreated tables still need to cite the original.

◊ **Naming tables and figures:** As you create your table or figure, assign it an identifying number corresponding to its order in your paper (*Figure 1*, *Figure 2*, etc.). If you have an appendix with tables or figures, label them with a capital letter (corresponding to the appendix letter) and then a number (e.g., *Table A1* for the first table in *Appendix A*; *Figure D2* for the second figure in *Appendix D*). Then add the title after the number (see APA, 2010, p. 129). The title should be brief, clear, and help explain the basic content of the visual. When you refer to your table or figure in the body of your paper, use the identifying number: for example, *...as shown in Table 3, the responses were...* ; *Figure 1 shows . . . .* APA format does *not* refer to "the table above" or "figure below" or "the table on page X." In papers with multiple visuals, such referencing is likely to create confusion. Always refer to the table or figure number so that readers can more reliably identify the relevant visual.

◊ **Formatting tables:** Be consistent in formatting tables; always use the same font and type size throughout your paper. Tables may be single or double spaced, but be consistent. When making the headings for columns in your table, be brief. Use abbreviations for known terms (e.g., *no.* for number and % for percent). When using a table from an outside source, you must give credit to the author or source. This citation is placed at the bottom of the table as a note using these templates:

> *Note.* Adapted from *Book title* (p. #), by A. Author, year: Place of pub: publisher.

> *Note.* Adapted from "Article Title," by A. Author and B. Author, year, *Pub title, vol.* p. #.

> *Note.* Adapted from "Web Page Title," by Author, year, Retrieved from http://www.

Sources used for tables must also be documented on the References page, although the formatting is different on the References page than how it appears under the figure or table.

EXAMPLE OF TABLE IN APA FORMAT

Table 3.

Rent as a percentage of home-for-lease sale prices (July, 2005)

Market	Mean Sale Price	Monthly Rent	Annual Rent Percent	Monthly 1st-Year Cash Flow
Orange County	801,210	2670	4.55	-2,698
Boston	570,342	2,216	4.89	-634
Chicago	467,422	2,135	6.09	-248
Dallas	166,940	1,157	9.30	92
Atlanta	170,146	1,280	9.46	367
Indianapolis	145,924	1,172	10.39	347

Note. Calculations assume a 20% down-payment and a 5.7 % mortgage rate. Adapted from "Bubble, Bubble, Where's the Housing Bubble," by M. H. Smith and G. Smith, 2006, *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity, 1*, p. 18.

◊ **Formatting figures:** Figures should have a recognizable connection to your paper, and should not be used just to take up space. Every figure appearing in your paper should be discussed within the main body of your paper, where you should explain the significance of the figure for demonstrating your main points. Below the figure, provide a figure number followed directly with the figure title (or *caption).* After the title, add any information needed to clarify the figure. When using a figure from an outside source, make sure the image is large enough to be legible. Underneath the figure, cite where the figure is from in the following format:

Note. Adapted from *Book title* (p. #), by A. Author, year: Place of pub: publisher.

Note. Adapted from "Article Title," by A. Author and B. Author, year, *Pub title, vol.* p. #.

Note. Adapted from "Web Page Title," by Author, year, Retrieved from http://www.

Sources used figures must also be documented on the References page, although the formatting is different on the References page than how it appears under the figure or table.
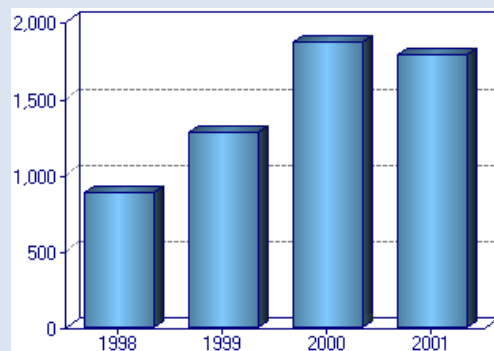
EXAMPLE OF FIGURE IN APA FORMAT

Figure 1. Number of Women Drinking Alcohol While Pregnant. Adapted from

"Decrease in Drinking after Education Campaign," by L. Jones, 2002, *JAMA, 32,* p. 119

4. APA Conventions for Grammar and Mechanics

The follow sections offer very brief guidelines for APA conventions on grammar, mechanics, and style. This part of the Franklin Style Manual is only intended to cover a few commonly mistaken basics. For more guidance on academic writing, consult the grammar handbooks required for your lower-division writing courses, consult the appropriate resources in the following section, or set up an appointment for special tutoring with the Student Learning Center.

4.1. Punctuation and Spacing

Use one space after ending punctuation (periods, exclamation points, and question marks). Note that official APA recommendations ask for two spaces after the punctuation at the end of a sentence (APA, 2010, p. 88)—this is *not* the standard at Franklin, where we recommend one space.

§ 4.1.1. Commas

APA specifies that commas should be used in specific instances, including:

- before a conjunction (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)* connecting independent clauses;
- to separate three or more items in a series *(cereal, milk, and butter);*
- after an introductory phrase at the beginning of the sentence (*After 2006, . . .*);
- before a comment or question tacked on to the end of a sentence;
- around phrases that interrupt the flow of the sentence (*however, moreover, therefore*); and
- around additional information NOT considered essential to the meaning of the sentence (*Jones, who is also a noted actor, wrote a song…*).

§ 4.1.2. Quotation marks

Quotation marks go around titles of shorter pieces: magazine and journal articles, book chapters, articles from edited collections, television episodes, and song titles (see below). Please review Section 2.2 above for further information on using quotation marks to set off original material.

4.2. Special Formatting

Use one space after ending punctuation marks (periods, exclamation points, and question marks), even though APA suggests using two spaces after the punctuation at the end of a sentence (APA, 2010, p. 88). Franklin's standard is to use one space only.

§ 4.2.1. Capitalization

- Capitalize proper nouns and formal names of tests, conditions, and groups when definite and specific (e.g., Stroop Color-Word Interference Test, Group A was the control group).
- Capitalize nouns before numbers, but not before variables (e.g., Trial 2, trial x).
- Capitalize specific course and department titles (e.g., GSU Department of Psychology, Psych 150), but do not capitalize when referring to generalities (any department, any course).

§ 4.2.2. Titles

In APA, titles have special rules for formatting, depending upon whether they appear in the body of the paper or on the References page. The formatting also depends on the nature of the work being listed. You will see many examples in the Section 2, "APA Documentation."

- *Article, chapter, or segment titles:* On the References page, capitalize the first word of the title, first word after a colon, and any proper nouns. In-text, capitalize all major words.
- *Journal, magazine, newspaper titles:* Capitalize all proper nouns and all major words.
- *Book and report titles:* On the References page, capitalize first word of title and all proper nouns. In-text, capitalize all major words.

§ 4.2.3. Italics

Italicize titles of books, newspapers, magazines, edited collections, movies, television series, documentaries, or albums. Italics should be used to introduce new, technical, or key terms. Once the word is used once, do not continue to italicize it (APA, 2010, pp. 104-105).

§ 4.2.4. Numbers

APA's general rule is to "use numerals to express numbers 10 and above and words to express numbers below 10" (APA, 2010, p. 111). Refer to the APA *Manual* for information on exceptions to this general rule.

5. Other Resources on Writing, Plagiarism, and APA Style

Here are additional resources covering various topics already discussed above.

◊ **Academic Integrity at Princeton:** Princeton University offers an overview on proper use of resources, including examples how to properly incorporate research into papers, cite sources, and ensure you are not plagiarizing:

> http://www.princeton.edu/pr/pub/integrity/index.html

◊ **Capital Community College Foundation**: This source provides resources for grammar, research, and writing at word, sentence, paragraph, and essay levels:

> http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/index.htm

◊ **Citation Style and Avoiding Plagiarism:** Indiana University includes pamphlets from Indiana University's Writing Tutorial Services:

> http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/pamphlets.shtml

◊ **Purdue University's Online Writing Lab:** One of the best online resources for the writing process, research and writing, APA format, documenting sources, grammar and mechanical help:

> http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01

◊ **University of Hong Kong Self Test:** Are you unwillingly plagiarizing? Test yourself here (note that writing examples here are not in APA format):

> http://www4.caes.hku.hk/plagiarism

◊ **The Official APA Website:** The official website for APA Style guidelines also offers valuable information regarding formatting, crediting sources, and many examples of reference components:

> http://apastyle.apa.org/