

APA Version

A Pocket Style Manual

Sixth Edition

Writing Papers in APA Style

Formatting Papers in APA Style

Documenting Sources in APA Style

Clarity

Grammar

Punctuation and Mechanics

Usage/Grammatical Terms

Diana Hacker
Nancy Sommers

Brief Contents

Writing Papers in APA Style	1
1 Writing college papers in APA style	2
a Research paper: Literature review	3
b Research paper: Original research	3
c Laboratory report	4
d Analytical essay	4
e Annotated bibliography	5
f Administrative report	5
g Case study	5
h Clinical paper	6
i Professional memo	6
j Reflective essay	6
2 Understanding APA conventions	7
3 Posing questions to start a paper	11
4 Finding appropriate sources	12
5 Evaluating sources	17
6 Managing information; avoiding plagiarism	22
7 Supporting a thesis	25
8 Avoiding plagiarism	29
9 Integrating sources	32
Formatting Papers in APA Style	38
10 Parts of a paper in APA style	39
11 APA manuscript format	45
12 Sample pages from papers in APA style	51
Documenting Sources in APA Style	100
13 APA in-text citations	101
14 APA reference list	106
15 APA footnotes	124
Clarity	126
16 Wordy sentences	127
17 Active verbs	128
18 Parallelism	130
19 Needed words	131
20 Shifts	133
21 Mixed constructions	134
22 Misplaced and dangling modifiers	135

23	Sentence variety	138
24	Appropriate voice	140

Grammar	143
----------------	------------

25	Subject-verb agreement	144
26	Other problems with verbs	148
27	Pronouns (agreement, reference, case)	154
28	Adjectives and adverbs	162
29	Sentence fragments	164
30	Run-on sentences	166
31	Grammar concerns for multilingual writers	169

Punctuation	178
--------------------	------------

32	The comma	179
33	The semicolon and the colon	186
34	The apostrophe	189
35	Quotation marks	191
36	Other marks	195

Mechanics	200
------------------	------------

37	Capitalization	201
38	Abbreviations	203
39	Numbers	206
40	Italics	207
41	Spelling	209
42	Hyphenation	211

Glossaries	214
-------------------	------------

43	Glossary of usage	215
44	Glossary of grammatical terms	226

Index 235

Documentation directories

Charts and lists for quick reference

List of sample pages from student papers

Visiting the writing center

Checklist for global revision

Revision symbols

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How to use this book

A Pocket Style Manual, APA Version, is a quick reference for writers and researchers who use the style guidelines of the American Psychological Association (APA). As a researcher, you can turn to it for details about finding, evaluating, and documenting sources and about writing papers in APA style. As a writer, you will find advice on revising sentences for clarity, grammar, punctuation, and mechanics.

Here are the book's key reference features.

Contents The brief table of contents inside the front cover identifies broad areas of coverage. To target specific sections, see the detailed contents inside the back cover.

Index If you're not sure which topic to choose from the tables of contents, check the index at the back of the book, which includes user-friendly terms like "*I vs. me*" to point to common problems like pronoun case.

Charts and checklists For quick advice on revising a draft or preparing for a writing center visit, you can find key strategies in the charts and checklists throughout the book and at the end of the book.

Writing and formatting APA-style papers Sections 1–12 provide advice about using APA conventions, supporting a thesis, avoiding plagiarism, and integrating sources when you write papers in APA style. The handbook includes sample pages from 11 types of student papers. Annotations on the sample pages point out appropriate writing as well as correct formatting of the parts of an APA-style paper .

Documenting sources in APA style Sections 13–15 provide models for APA-style in-text citations and reference list entries. Directories to documentation models are on pages 101 and 107–08 and in the back of the book.

Glossaries To check the correct use of commonly confused or misused words (such as *affect*, *effect*), see section 43 (glossary of usage). For brief definitions of grammatical terms such as *subordinate clause*, see section 44.

Web references The bottoms of pages give references to practice exercises and complete model papers online at hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa. See page vi for more about these free online resources.

How to use the companion Web site

Throughout *A Pocket Style Manual*, APA Version, you'll find references to models, practice exercises, and additional support at hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa. The resources listed here are free.

Exercises Practice online with more than one thousand interactive grammar and research exercise items, all with immediate feedback. Unique research exercises help you integrate and document sources and avoid plagiarism while writing in APA style.

Model student writing Twelve complete student papers (and one partial paper) represent 11 genres: administrative report, analytical essay, annotated bibliography, business report, clinical practice paper, lab report, professional memo, reflective essay, research paper (empirical research), research paper (literature review), and research paper (qualitative methodology). Annotations on the sample pages point out appropriate writing for each type of paper as well as correct formatting of the parts of an APA-style paper.

Research and Documentation Online Consult guidelines and models for finding and documenting sources in more than 30 academic disciplines.

Multilingual writers and ESL Check out charts, study help, sample papers, and exercises designed for writers who speak languages in addition to English.

Writing center resources Make the most of your writing center sessions with revision checklists and helpsheets for common writing, grammar, and research problems.

25a Words between subject and verb

Word groups often come between the subject and the verb. Such word groups, usually modifying the subject, may contain a noun that at first appears to be the subject. By mentally stripping away such modifiers, you can isolate the noun that is in fact the subject.

PRACTICE hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa

> Grammar > 25-1 to 25-3

The samples on the tray

► High levels of air poll

respiratory tract.

The subject is *levels*, not *pollution*.

► The slaughter of pandas for their pelts ^{has} have caused
the panda population to decline drastically.

The subject is *slaughter*, not *pandas or pelts*.

PRACTICE hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa
> Grammar > 25-1 to 25-3

Cross-references throughout the book point to related exercises and models online at hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa.



Writing Papers in APA Style

- 1 Writing college papers in APA style 2**
- 2 Understanding APA conventions 7**
- 3 Posing questions to start a paper 11**
- 4 Finding appropriate sources 12**
- 5 Evaluating sources 17**
- 6 Managing information; avoiding plagiarism 22**
- 7 Supporting a thesis 25**
- 8 Avoiding plagiarism 29**
- 9 Integrating sources 32**

1 Writing college papers in APA style

In most of your college courses, it's likely you will be asked to complete one or more writing assignments. Besides composition courses, a wide variety of college courses require writing. Many different types of writing—essays, laboratory reports, memos, and treatment plans, for example—are assigned in many types of courses, such as psychology, sociology, business, and nursing. Instructors in these courses typically ask their students to write in the style recommended by the American Psychological Association (APA).

APA style is a set of rules and guidelines for writers in the social sciences (psychology, sociology, criminal justice, anthropology, political science) and in business, education, and nursing. When you are assigned a paper for a particular class, you should think of that assignment as an opportunity to join a discourse community—a group of thinkers and writers in a field who share interests, ideas, and ways of communicating with one another. When you adhere to APA style, you satisfy your readers' expectations and allow them to focus attention on the substance of your writing without unnecessary distractions.

APA style may be used for many types of writing, or *genres*. The following are the most common types of papers assigned in APA style:

- research paper: literature review
- research paper: original empirical research
- laboratory report
- analytical essay
- annotated bibliography
- administrative report
- case study
- clinical paper
- professional memo
- reflective essay

Sections 1a–1j describe the requirements of these types of papers. Section 10 gives details about the typical parts of APA-style papers. And section 12 contains excerpts from several papers written in APA style.

1a Research paper: Literature review

The ideas, theories, and findings of scholars in academic journals or books contribute to what researchers call “the literature” on a topic.

A common research assignment in undergraduate classes is a literature review. When you write a literature review, you will formulate a research question and collect sources that have been written about your question. You will summarize and synthesize the sources, indicating how they relate to one another and what insights they contribute to your question. You can also suggest ways that future research might add clarity to the conversation.

For instance, you might have settled on the research question “Do cities that have high rates of poverty also experience high rates of property crime?” In answering this question, you might compare data from the U.S. Census Bureau about the incidence of poverty in a particular group of cities and data from the Uniform Crime Reports about the incidence of property crime in those cities to see if a statistically significant relationship exists.

A review of the literature may be incorporated in other types of papers, especially empirical research papers and laboratory reports. In an empirical research paper, the literature review part of the paper is typically more extensive and longer than in a laboratory report. (See also 1b and 1c.)

1b Research paper: Original empirical research

An empirical research paper is a report of an original study that you design and data that you collect, perhaps from interviews, experiments, surveys, or observations in the field. Such data are called *primary data*. A research paper may also include *secondary data*—results from studies by other researchers that are relevant to the design of your study and the analysis of your data.

In an empirical research paper, you will state a research question or a hypothesis, briefly describe the work of others on the topic, present the methods you used to collect your data, analyze the data you collected, summarize important findings, analyze others’ data in light of your own, and draw conclusions.

For example, to investigate the extent of and attitudes toward cheating on your campus, you might design a survey to give to students and then follow up the survey with one-on-one interviews. The data you collect from the survey and the interviews are your primary data. You would also briefly describe other researchers' work on the topic, giving an overview of the literature before presenting your own procedures and results. And you would use previous findings in your analysis of cheating on your campus.

1c Laboratory report

In the social sciences, a laboratory report provides details of an experiment or a study that you have conducted, usually with human participants in a controlled setting. For example, you might conduct an experiment in a psychology class that investigates how people respond to stress in competitive situations. Your lab report would include the main elements found in an empirical research paper: an introduction to your hypothesis and the problem studied, a brief discussion of the literature on the topic, a description of how you conducted the study (surveys, controlled experiments, interviews, observations, and so on), the key results of the study, and a discussion of the results (see also 1b). While an empirical research paper may be up to 30 pages long, a laboratory report is typically fewer than 10 pages.

1d Analytical essay

In an analytical essay, you will formulate a thesis statement that is open to debate and then use one or more texts to build an argument around that thesis. (See also section 7.)

Analytical essays are sometimes written about only one text. For example, in a political theory course, you may be asked to write an analytical paper on Machiavelli's *The Prince*. After carefully reading the text, you will formulate a thesis statement giving your analysis of the text or some aspect of it and then identify evidence from the text that can support that thesis.

An analytical essay can also make a larger argument using more than one source. In a business course, for instance, you may be asked to analyze the management practices of a company in light of a current theory, such

as stakeholder theory. In this case, you would make an argument applying the theory to the practices and use evidence to support your argument.

1e Annotated bibliography

An annotated bibliography contains two basic elements: a list of sources related to a particular topic and a brief summary and evaluation of the quality and relevance of each source. An annotated bibliography may be assigned as part of the process of writing an empirical research paper or a literature review. In that case, it is an opportunity for you to do preliminary research and to understand and describe how each source might work within your paper.

An annotated bibliography is organized and formatted like a reference list (see 11b). The annotations are typically three to seven sentences long.

1f Administrative report

An administrative report provides a brief but detailed description of a problem that is of concern to an organization, such as a corporation, school, or police department. Administrative reports are used daily by professionals in fields such as social work and criminal justice. Such reports are well researched and are accompanied by recommendations based on the research. The type of research used to write an administrative report will vary and may include internal material from documents or interviews as well as material such as articles and reports from outside sources.

Professionals working in many fields may provide administrative reports to their superiors. For example, a department head in a business may provide an expense report to the vice president for finance that explains the ways in which the department spent money. A teacher may report to an administrator about a student's progress.

1g Case study

The purpose of a case study is to gain a detailed understanding of a particular person, organization, event, or group of individuals. Case studies can vary by discipline, but most involve a deep analysis of a relatively narrow subject.

Some case studies require primary data—data that you collect. For an education class, you might study the

effectiveness of particular classroom management techniques. Your study might involve observing a classroom where those techniques are used and drawing conclusions based on your observations.

Or a case study might involve a detailed description and analysis of an event, such as federal or state response to a major natural disaster. A case study also can be used to study a single organization as an example of a larger issue, such as a company like Enron as an example of corporate mismanagement.

1h Clinical paper

Clinical papers are most often used by practitioners in the health professions to share information about clients. Clinical papers usually provide an overview of a client and his or her symptoms, review the relevant literature on the client's condition, and then provide details and recommendations about the course of treatment as well as actual and expected results.

1i Professional memo

Memos are widely used by members in a business or another organization to communicate with one another. Memos may identify a problem or concern within the organization, inform others about a policy or procedure, assign tasks to people, or solve a problem (or all of these things at once). Memos are often sent via e-mail.

Memos may cover a wide range of subjects and may be any length. A short memo might simply contain a task for the members of a committee. A longer memo might contain a proposal with data or ideas that are not your own.

When writing a memo, make sure that the content, language, and tone are appropriate for the intended audience (see also 2b and 2c). Memos usually provide ongoing documentation for a project and may be helpful to those doing similar projects in the future. So your audience may be broader than the initial recipients of the memo.

1j Reflective essay

A reflective essay is personal writing, usually to explore the ways in which an experience shaped your understanding of an issue or a topic in your discipline. For example, a reflective essay about your student teaching experience may include a description of how you came to view one

of the theories of learning you had studied in a different light once you were teaching your own class.

2

Understanding APA conventions

Writers and researchers in the social sciences and in business, education, and nursing follow APA standards, or *conventions*, a set of agreed-upon rules. You may be asked to use these conventions to guide your own practices as you search for and evaluate sources, draft your writing, and acknowledge the contributions of others. The APA conventions that you will be expected to follow in your writing are detailed in this section.

2a Privileging current sources

While recognizing that knowledge is based on ideas and findings that have emerged over time, APA style values the currency of research. *When* a person wrote a book or an article or conducted research is as important as *what* that person wrote or researched. The date of the research you cite in your paper is an indication to your readers that you are building your own work on the most recent work of others and that you understand the connection between your work and the work that has come before.

The author's name and the date figure prominently in citations of sources within a paper and in the reference list at the end of the paper. (For more details about citing and documenting sources in APA style, see sections 13–15.)

IN-TEXT CITATION

Gawande (2009) noted that technology "has added yet another element of complexity to the systems we depend on and given us entirely new kinds of failure to contend with" (p. 184).

REFERENCE LIST ENTRY

Gawande, A. (2009). *The checklist manifesto: How to get things right*. New York, NY: Metropolitan Books.

2b Using appropriate tone and language

APA style calls for writing that is direct, clear, concise, engaging, objective, and formal. The active voice is more direct and concise—and therefore usually more appropriate—than the passive voice (see section 17).

INAPPROPRIATE (PASSIVE VOICE)

Support for faster female response times was found in several studies (Barber, 2010; Lee, 2009; Sumner, 2011).

The idea that social meaning is largely constructed through the interactions people have with one another has been emphasized by symbolic-interaction theorists.

APPROPRIATE (ACTIVE VOICE)

Several studies (Barber, 2010; Lee, 2009; Sumner, 2011) supported faster female response times.

Symbolic-interaction theorists have emphasized that social meaning is largely constructed through the interactions people have with one another.

In general, prefer nouns and third-person pronouns (see 27c) whenever possible. But sometimes for clarity and to avoid the passive voice, the first person (*I* or *we*) is appropriate, especially in the abstract and the method section in research papers and laboratory reports when you are describing your own procedures. Also, in reflective essays and research involving observation in the field, the first person is appropriate to describe your own experiences or to relate your experiences to a larger issue or larger body of work.

INAPPROPRIATE (THIRD PERSON, PASSIVE VOICE)

Participants were selected with a random number generator.

The children's behavior toward their peers was observed both in the classroom and on the playground.

APPROPRIATE (FIRST PERSON, ACTIVE VOICE)

I selected the participants with a random number generator.

We observed the children's behavior toward their peers both in the classroom and on the playground.

NOTE: When writing in the first person, use the plural *we* only if you have coauthors; use *I* if you are the only author.

APA style requires the past tense (*explained*) or present perfect tense (*have written*) for describing the work of others or for your own results. (See 9b.) You may use the present tense to describe the applications or effects of your results (*the data indicate*).

2c Avoiding stereotypes, bias, and offensive language

Your writing must be respectful and free of stereotypical, biased, or other offensive language. Be especially careful when describing or labeling people in terms of their race, age, disability, gender, or sexual orientation.

Labels can become dated, and it is important to recognize when their continued use is not acceptable. When naming groups of people, choose labels that the groups currently use to describe themselves. For example, *Negro* is not an acceptable label for African Americans; instead of *Indian*, use *Native American* or, better, the name of the specific group (*Lakota, Sioux*).

Be as specific as possible when describing age groups (*women aged 24 to 30 years*, not *young women* or *twentysomethings*), and avoid terms such as *elderly* or *senior*, which can be vague and can also carry a negative connotation.

Do not identify a person by his or her condition or disability; refer to the person first, the condition or disability second. Use *men with epilepsy* rather than *epileptics* or *epileptic men*. The term *client* is preferred to *patient* in many fields.

Use gender-neutral language (*firefighter, legislator* instead of *fireman, congressman*) and plural pronouns rather than the singular *he, him, his*. (See also 24d on avoiding sexist language.) Currently acceptable terms for describing sexual orientation are *lesbian, gay, and bisexual* rather than *homosexual*.

It's a good idea to check with your instructor or someone else in the discipline about the currently acceptable terms for describing and labeling people.

2d Understanding intellectual property

The term *intellectual property* refers to published works, ideas, and images that have been created by an individual or a group. When you use the intellectual property of others in your own work—by quoting, summarizing, or paraphrasing—you must give credit to the source of the information. Failure to do so is a form of academic dishonesty called *plagiarism*. (See also section 8.)

Besides summarizing, paraphrasing, or quoting another's work without proper citation, it is considered plagiarism to submit the work of someone else as your own (such as purchasing a paper or hiring someone to write a paper for you).

Consistent and proper use of the APA system of citation—in the text of the paper and in the reference

list at the end of the paper—will ensure that you do not misrepresent the intellectual property of someone else as your own. (See sections 13–15 for details on the APA system of citation.)

2e Collecting and reporting data

For some types of papers, you may collect and report data yourself—from surveys you administer, from experiments you conduct, from audio or video interviews you record, from observations you make in the field, and so on. APA conventions require you to collect and report data in an ethical manner.

In collecting your data, you should be careful not to ignore groups of research participants whose responses you think may prove contrary to your research question. In reporting your findings, you must not ignore or downplay results that contradict other results or results you expected to find. If your research involves human participants, you must preserve confidentiality. And you must not falsify data or report it in a misleading way, such as manipulating images or creating graphs with only partial data.

A standard in the social sciences is that research must be replicable—that is, other researchers must be able to use the information provided in your paper to conduct a study of their own to try to reproduce your results. If you do not collect data objectively and honestly or if you report data in a misleading way, others will not be able to come close to replicating your findings, even if they use the same method.

2f Protecting research participants

Ethics codes in the social sciences are intended to protect research participants from physical or emotional harm and to prevent falsifying data, misrepresenting research findings, and plagiarizing. Whenever you plan to collect data through interviews, surveys, experiments, and observation, you should determine whether your research project needs the review and approval of your school's institutional review board (IRB).

IRBs require that participation in research is voluntary, that the research participants grant informed consent, that they may end their participation at any time without penalty, that they will not be harmed (either emotionally or physically), that confidentiality will be observed, and that the research will be conducted with integrity and has academic value.

Some kinds of research are exempt from IRB approval. If you analyze data that have been collected and published by someone else, those data generally are exempt from IRB review. In addition, most large data sets used in undergraduate research courses—such as the General Social Survey and the Uniform Crime Reports—are exempt, as are published data from studies conducted by organizations, commissions, government agencies, and the like.

If you are unsure whether your project needs IRB approval, ask your instructor.

3

Posing questions to start a paper

Most college assignments begin with a question worth exploring. The question might be posed in the wording of the assignment, or you might be required to come up with your own question. For a research paper, you might search for answers in books, articles, and Web sites; for a laboratory report, your answers might come from an experiment you design; for a business memo, you might conduct a customer survey. Your answers should guide your interpretation and lead to reasoned conclusions supported with valid and well-documented evidence.

Within the guidelines of your assignment, begin by asking questions that you are interested in exploring, that you feel would interest your audience, and that will contribute to an ongoing debate or to existing knowledge in the field.

For any type of assignment, you should make sure that your questions are narrow (not too broad), challenging (not too bland), and grounded (not too speculative).

3a Choosing a narrow question

If your initial question is too broad for the length you were assigned, look for ways to restrict your focus. Here, for example, is how two students narrowed their initial questions.

TOO BROAD

What are the hazards of fad diets?

What are the benefits of stricter auto emissions standards?

NARROWER

What are the hazards of low-carbohydrate diets?

How will stricter auto emissions standards create new, more competitive auto industry jobs?

3b Choosing a challenging question

Your paper will be more interesting to both you and your audience if you base it on an intellectually challenging line of inquiry. Try to draft questions that provoke thought or, if your purpose is to take a position, engage readers in a debate.

TOO BLAND

What is obsessive-compulsive disorder?

What were client S.R.'s symptoms?

CHALLENGING

Why is obsessive-compulsive disorder so difficult to treat?

How did the combined course of drug therapy and physical therapy reduce client S.R.'s symptoms?

You may need to address a bland question in the course of answering a more challenging one, but it would be a mistake to use the bland question as the focus for the whole paper.

3c Choosing a grounded question

Finally, you will want to make sure that your question is grounded, not too speculative. Although speculative questions—such as those that address morality or beliefs—are worth asking and may receive attention in some papers, they are inappropriate central questions. The central point of most papers should be grounded in facts.

TOO SPECULATIVE

Is it wrong to share pornographic personal photos by cell phone?

Do students have the right to listen to music during class?

GROUNDED

What role should the U.S. government play in regulating mobile content?

What effect does listening to music while studying have on adolescents' test performance?

4

Finding appropriate sources

Depending on your topic and your question, some sources will prove more useful than others. For example, if your question addresses whether a particular public policy has been effective, you might want to look at scholarly articles,

books, reference works, and government documents. If the policy issue is the subject of current debate, you might also want to use magazines and newspaper articles, Web sites, and documents from organizations that try to influence public policy (such as think tanks).

4a Locating reference works

For some topics, you may want to begin your search by consulting general or specialized reference works. General reference works include encyclopedias, almanacs, atlases, and biographical references. Many specialized reference works are available: *Encyclopedia of Bioethics*, *The Encyclopedia of Social Work*, *Almanac of American Politics*, and *The Historical and Cultural Atlas of African Americans*, to name a few. Reference works can help you learn about a topic, but you will need to consult more in-depth sources as you write.

4b Locating articles

Libraries subscribe to a variety of databases (sometimes called *periodical* or *article databases*) that give students access to articles and other materials without charge. Older works that have not been digitized will not be available in databases; you may need to consult a print index as well.

What databases offer Your library's databases can lead you to articles in newspapers, magazines, and scholarly or technical journals. General databases cover several subject areas; subject-specific databases cover one subject area in depth. Your library might subscribe to some of the following databases.

GENERAL DATABASES

Academic Search Premier. A database that indexes popular and scholarly journals.

Expanded Academic ASAP. A database that indexes the contents of magazines, newspapers, and scholarly journals.

JSTOR. A full-text archive of scholarly journals from many disciplines.

LexisNexis. A set of databases particularly strong in news, business, legal, and political topics.

ProQuest. A database of periodical articles.

SUBJECT-SPECIFIC DATABASES

Business Source Premier. An index of business abstracts and titles.

Criminal Justice Abstracts. A database for criminal justice research.

ERIC. An education database.

Health Source Nursing, Academic Version. A database for nursing topics.

PsycINFO. A database of psychology research.

PubMed. A database with abstracts of medical studies.

Many databases include the full text of at least some articles; others list only citations or citations with short summaries called *abstracts*. When the full text is not available, a citation will give you enough information to track down an article.

How to search a database To find articles on your topic in a database, start by searching with keywords, terms related to the information you need. If the first keyword you try results in no matches, try some synonyms. If your keyword search results in too many matches, narrow it by using one of the strategies in the chart on page 15.

4c Locating books

The books your library owns are listed along with other resources in its catalog. You can search the catalog by author, title, or subject.

If your search calls up too few results, try different keywords or search for books on broader topics. If your search gives you too many results, try the strategies in the chart on page 15.

Use a book's call number to find the book on the shelf. When you're retrieving the book, take time to scan other books in the area since they are likely to cover the same topic.

4d Locating other sources online

You can find a variety of reliable resources using online tools beyond those offered by your library. For example, government agencies post information on their Web sites,

Refining keyword searches in databases and search engines

Although command terms and characters vary among databases and Web search engines, some of the most common functions are listed here.

- Use quotation marks around words that are part of a phrase: “gateway drug”.
- Use AND to connect words that must appear in a document: hyperactivity AND children. Some search engines require a plus sign instead: hyperactivity+children.
- Use NOT in front of words that must not appear in a document: Persian Gulf NOT war. Some search engines require a minus sign (hyphen) instead: Persian Gulf -war.
- Use OR if only one of the terms must appear in a document: “mountain lion” OR cougar.
- Use an asterisk as a substitute for letters that might vary: “marine biolog*” (to find *marine biology* or *marine biologist*).
- Use parentheses to group a search expression and combine it with another: (standard OR student OR test*) AND reform.

NOTE: Many search engines and databases offer an advanced search option for refining your search with filters for phrases that should or should not appear, date restrictions, and so on.

and the sites of many organizations are filled with information about current issues. Museums and libraries often post digital versions of primary sources, such as photographs, political speeches, and classic texts.

Although the Internet can be a rich source of information, it lacks quality control. Anyone can publish to the Web, so you'll need to evaluate online sources with special care (see 5c).

This section describes the following Internet resources: search engines, directories, digital archives, government sites, news sites, blogs, and wikis.

Search engines When using a search engine, such as *Google Scholar* or *Yahoo!*, focus your search as narrowly as possible. You can sharpen your search by using the tips listed in the chart at the top of this page or by using a search engine's advanced search form.

Directories Unlike search engines, which hunt for Web pages automatically, directories are put together by information specialists who arrange reputable sites by topic: education, health, politics, and so on.

Try the following directories for scholarly research:

Internet Scout Project: <http://scout.wisc.edu/Archives>

Librarian's Internet Index: <http://lii.org>

Open Directory Project: <http://dmoz.org>

WWW Virtual Library: <http://vlib.org>

Digital archives Archives like the following can help you find primary resources such as the texts of books, poems, speeches, and historically significant documents; photographs; and political cartoons.

American Memory: <http://memory.loc.gov>

Avalon Project: <http://yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/avalon.htm>

Eurodocs: <http://eudocs.lib.byu.edu>

Google Books: <http://books.google.com>

Google Scholar: <http://scholar.google.com>

Online Books Page: <http://onlinebooks.library.upenn.edu>

Government sites For current topics, government sites can prove useful. Many government agencies at every level provide online information. Government-maintained sites include resources such as facts and statistics, legal texts, government reports, and searchable reference databases. Here are just a few government sites:

Census Bureau: <http://www.census.gov>

Fedstats: <http://www.fedstats.gov>

GPO Access: <http://www.gpoaccess.gov>

National Criminal Justice Reference Service: <https://www.ncjrs.gov>

United Nations: <http://www.un.org>

University of Michigan Documents Center: <http://www.lib.umich.edu/m/moagrp>

News sites Many news organizations offer up-to-date information online. Some sites require registration and may charge fees for some articles. (Find out if your library

subscribes to news sites that you can access at no charge.) The following news sites offer many free resources:

BBC: <http://www.bbc.co.uk>

Google News: <http://news.google.com>

Kidon Media-Link: <http://www.kidon.com/media-link>

New York Times: <http://nytimes.com>

Reuters: <http://www.reuters.com>

Blogs A blog is a site that contains text or multimedia entries usually written and maintained by one person, with comments contributed by readers. Though some blogs are personal or devoted to partisan politics, many journalists and academics maintain blogs that cover topics of interest to researchers. The following Web sites can lead you to a wide range of blogs:

Academic Blog Portal: <http://academicblogs.org>

Google Blog Search: <http://www.google.com/blogsearch>

Science Blogs: <http://scienceblogs.com>

Technorati: <http://technorati.com>

Wikis A wiki is a collaborative Web site with many contributors and with content that may change frequently. *Wikipedia*, a collaborative online encyclopedia, is one of the most frequently consulted wikis.

In general, *Wikipedia* may be helpful if you're checking for something that is common knowledge or looking for current information about a topic in contemporary culture. (For a discussion of common knowledge, see p. 30.) However, many scholars do not consider *Wikipedia* and wikis in general to be appropriate sources for college research. Authorship is not limited to experts; articles may be written or changed by anyone. When possible, locate and cite another, more reliable source for any useful information you find in a wiki.

5 Evaluating sources

You can often locate dozens or even hundreds of potential sources for your topic—far more than you will have time to read. Your challenge will be to determine what kinds of sources you need and to find a reasonable number of quality sources.

Later, once you have decided on sources worth consulting, your challenge will be to read them with an open mind and a critical eye.

5a Selecting sources

Determining how sources contribute to your writing

How you plan to use sources affects how you evaluate them. Sources can have various functions in a paper. You can use them to

- provide background information or context for your topic
- explain terms or concepts that your readers might not understand
- provide evidence for your main idea
- lend authority to your discussion
- offer counterevidence and alternative interpretations

For examples of how student writers use sources for a variety of purposes, see section 9.

Scanning search results The chart on page 15 shows how to refine your searches. This section explains how to scan through the results for the most useful and reliable sources.

Databases Most article databases (see p. 13) provide at least the following information to help you decide if a source is relevant, current, scholarly, and a suitable length.

Title and brief description (How relevant?)

Date (How current?)

Name of periodical (How scholarly?)

Length (How extensive in coverage?)

Book catalogs A book's title and date of publication are often your first clues about whether the book is worth consulting. If a title looks interesting, you can click on it for further information.

Search engines Because anyone can publish a Web site, legitimate sources and unreliable sources live side-by-side online. Look for the following clues about the probable

Determining if a source is scholarly

Many college assignments require you to use scholarly sources. Written by experts for a knowledgeable audience, these sources often go into more depth than books and articles written for a general audience. To determine if a source is scholarly, look for the following:

- Formal language and presentation
- Authors with academic or scientific credentials
- Footnotes or a bibliography documenting the works cited by the author in the source
- Original research and interpretation (rather than a summary of other people's work)
- Quotations from and analysis of primary sources
- A description of research methods or a review of related research

See pages 20–21 for a sample scholarly source and popular source.

relevance, currency, and reliability of a site—but be aware that the clues are by no means foolproof.

Title, keywords, and lead-in text (How relevant?)

A date (How current?)

An indication of the site's sponsor or purpose (How reliable?)

The URL, especially the domain name extension: for example, .com, .edu, .gov, or .org (How relevant? How reliable?)

5b Reading with an open mind and a critical eye

As you begin reading the sources you have chosen, keep an open mind. Do not let your personal beliefs prevent you from listening to new ideas and opposing viewpoints. Your question—not a snap judgment about the question—should guide your reading.

When you read critically, you are not necessarily judging an author's work harshly; you are simply examining its assumptions, assessing its evidence, and weighing its conclusions. For a checklist on evaluating sources, see page 22.

Common features of a scholarly source

- 1 Formal presentation with abstract and research methods
- 2 Includes review of previous research studies
- 3 Reports original research
- 4 Includes references
- 5 Multiple authors with academic credentials

FIRST PAGE OF ARTICLE



Cyberbullying: Using Virtual Scenarios to Educate and Raise Awareness

Vivian H. Wright, Joy J. Burnham, Christopher T. Inman, and **5**
Heather N. Ogorchock

1 Abstract

This study examined cyberbullying in three distinct phases to facilitate a multifaceted understanding of cyberbullying. The phases included (a) a quantitative survey, (b) a qualitative focus group, and (c) development of educational scenario simulations (within the Second Life virtual environment). Phase III was based on adolescent feedback about cyberbullying from Phases I and II of this study. In all three phases, adolescent reactions to cyberbullying were examined and reported to raise awareness and to educate others about cyberbullying. Results from scenario development indicate that simulations created in a virtual environment are engaging and have the potential to be powerful tools in helping schools address problems such as cyberbullying education and prevention. (Keywords: cyberbullying, virtual worlds, Second Life, teacher education, counselor education)

Introduction

Cyberbullying has gained attention and recognition in recent years (Beale & Hall, 2007; Carney, 2008; Casey-Canon, Hayward, & Gowen, 2001; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Li, 2007; Sharif, 2005). The increased interest and awareness of cyberbullying relates to such factors as the national media attention after several publicized cyberbullying tragedies (Maag, 2007; Stelter, 2008; Zifcak, 2006), the attenuation of communication boundaries between individuals and computer network connectivity, and the rapid technology use among youth. No longer and the access and popularity of youth, presently there remains a critical need to examine cyberbullying and its possible effects. Because cyberbullying has become more prevalent in various settings (i.e., home, school, and the community), it is necessary that parents, "school professionals" (Li, 2007, p. 1778), and mental health providers must not only be made aware of cyberbullying and its consequences, but must also have access to ways to deal with this growing concern.

Two years ago, cyberbullying was considered to be a "new territory" for exploration (Li, 2007, p. 1778) because there was limited information about bullying through "electronic means" (Li, p. 1780). In contrast, today studies on cyberbullying, including some descriptions of the worst cyberbullying incidences (Maag, 2007; Stelter, 2008; Zifcak, 2006), are becoming more prevalent (Beale & Hall, 2007; Carney, 2008; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Li, 2007). At this time, there is a need to raise awareness about the effects of cyberbullying and to create educational opportunities to serve multiple audiences (i.e., teachers, teacher educators, school administrators, school counselors, mental health professionals, students, parents) in the quest to identify and hopefully prevent cyberbullying in the future. Consequently, to facilitate a multifaceted understanding of

cyberbullying, this study sought to examine cyberbullying through three phases: (a) a quantitative survey, (b) a qualitative focus group, and (c) development of the educational scenarios/simulations (i.e., using virtual world avatars similar to those used in Linden Lab's (1995) Second Life (SL; <http://secondlife.com>) based on adolescent feedback from Phases I and II of this study. Adolescent reactions to cyberbullying in all three phases of this study were examined and reported with two aims in mind: (a) to raise awareness of cyberbullying, and (b) to educate others about cyberbullying.

Defining Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying has been described as a traumatic experience that can lead to physical, cognitive, emotional, and social consequences (Carney, 2008; Casey-Canon et al., 2001; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006). Cyberbullying has been defined as "bullying through the e-mail, instant messaging, in a chat room, on a website, or through digital messages or images sent to a cell phone" (Kowalski & Limber, 2007, p. 822). There are numerous methods to engage in cyberbullying, including e-mail, instant messaging, online gaming, chat rooms, and text messaging (Beale & Hall, 2007; Li, 2007). In addition, cyberbullying appears in different forms than traditional bullying. For example, Beale and Hall (2007), Mason (2007), and Willard (2008) found that at least seven different types of cyberbullying exist, including:

• **Creating or spreading negative rumors or gossiping**
Excluding: excluding someone purposefully

Research suggests that cyberbullying has distinct gender and age differences. According to the literature, girls are more likely to be online and to cyberbully (Beale & Hall, 2007; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Li, 2006, 2007). This finding is "opposite of what happens off-line," where boys are more likely to bully than girls (Beale & Hall, p. 8). Age also appears to be a factor in cyberbullying. Cyberbullying increases in the elementary years, peaks during the middle school years, and declines in the high school years (Beale & Hall). Based on the literature, cyberbullying is a growing concern among middle school-aged children (Beale & Hall; Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; Li, 2007; Pellegrini & Bartini, 2000; Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, & Tippett, 2006; Williams & Guerra, 2007). Of the middle school grades, 6th grade students are usually the

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EXCERPTS FROM OTHER PAGES

3 Table 2: Percentage of Students Who Experienced Cyberbullying through Various Methods

	E-mail	Facebook	MySpace	Cell Phone	Online Video	Chat Rooms
Victim	35.3%	11.8%	52.9%	50%	14.7%	11.8%
Bully	17.6%	0%	70.6%	47.1%	11.8%	5.9%

4 References

Bainbridge, W. S. (2007, July). The scientific research potential of virtual worlds. *Science*, 317, 472–476.

Beale, A., & Hall, K. (2007, September/October). Cyberbullying:

What **5** Vivian H. Wright is an associate professor of instructional technology at the University of Alabama. In addition to teaching in the graduate program, Dr. Wright works with teacher educators on innovative ways to infuse technology in the curriculum.

Wright, V. H., Burnham, J. J., Inman, C. T., & Ogorchock, H. N. (2009). Cyberbullying: Using virtual scenarios to educate and raise awareness. *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education*, 26(1), 35-42.

Common features of a popular source

- 1** Provocative title
 - 2** Written by a staff reporter, not an expert
 - 3** Presents anecdotes about the topic
 - 4** Presents a summary of research but no original research
 - 5** No consistent citation of sources

FIRST PAGE OF ARTICLE

Technology

1 The cyber-bullies are always with you...

The anonymity of the internet makes it easy for bullies to ruin the lives of their teenage victims

PHIL MCKENNA

RYAN HALLIGAN was taunted for months. Classmates spread rumours via instant messaging that the 13-year-old boy was gay. A popular female classmate pretended to like him and chatted with him online only to copy their personal exchanges and share them with her friends. Unable to cope, Halligan, from Essex Junction, Vermont, killed himself.

Gail Jones, a 17-year-old from Tranmere near Liverpool in the UK took her life after receiving, at one point, 30 silent calls on her cellphone every 30 minutes. Her father, Glyn, suspects a final call in the middle of the night pushed her over the edge.

These are extreme but far from unique examples of the devastation wrought by cyberbullying. Since Halligan died in 2003 and Jones in 2000, more children are logging on to the internet, so it's likely the online bullying, including sending threatening messages, displaying private messages and posting embarrassing video and photographs, will continue to grow.

A study last month by the Pew Internet & American Life Project based in Washington DC found that one-third of US teenage internet users have been targets of cyber-bullying (*New Scientist*, 7 July, p 23). Meanwhile, as online communication evolves from instant messaging and chatrooms

2 The anonymity of the internet makes it easy to ruin the lives of their teenage victims

PHIL MCKENNA

RYAN HALLIGAN was taunted for months. Classmates spread rumours via instant messaging that the 13-year-old boy was gay. A popular female classmate pretended to like him and chatted with him online only to copy their personal exchanges and share them with her friends. Unable to cope, Halligan, from Essex Junction, Vermont, killed himself.

physical bullying.

One reason for this is the sheer number of people who can view and comment on your posts online. "It would be bad enough if one or two people could see your video by chance," says Richard Sloan, a psychologist at City University in London, co-author of the bo-

I was a kid, playground bullying stopped when the bell rang and you went back inside or where you were home at the end of the day."

A study last month by the Pew

3 A study last month by the Pew Internet & American Life Project based in Washington DC found that one-third of US teenage internet users have been targets

In how they communicate." A 2007 Pew study found that 93 per cent of US teens use the internet and 65 per cent go online daily.

The internet doesn't just amplify the effect of bullying, however. The many options to remain anonymous when online, by using pseudonyms for instant messaging, *say*, means people can do things they would not dare to do if their true identity was known.

Anonymity was at the heart of a 2002 incident when a student at an elite high school in New York City set up a web page that let students vote anonymously on who they felt was their most

ONLINE BULLIES ATTACK ADULTS TOO

Karen bent at a podium facing teens, cyber-bullying affects adults too. Inhabitants of virtual worlds, from film stars to teachers have all been victims.

Second Life is designed for adults and to access most locations you are supposed to be at least 18 years old. Yet nearly 2000 abuse reports are filed each day, says Linda Labo of San Francisco, who created Second Life. "It's adults attacking other adults," says Thomas Chowney of the University of Nottingham, UK, who studies Second Life, gaming, swearing and shooting there.

Chowney and colleagues recently set

up an office in Second Life where they interviewed more than 100 inhabitants about bullying. Chowney says that because many people come to Second Life with a background in gaming, they bring preexisting notions of violence and aggression with them. "They're playing games like *World of Warcraft* – where the aim is to kill everybody – and they take that attitude into Second Life," he says. "It's not about doxing or threatening, it's about people beyond hating one another, but not something given all we know about workplace bullying."

Teachers have also been victims.

Tired of insults from students on websites such as RateMyTeachers.co.uk, the UK Association of Teachers and Lecturers said earlier this year that it is ready to go to court in support of teachers who have been libelled online. The union would target publishers of websites directly, not the children who post disparaging comments.

In the United States, celebrities have been the high-profile victims of anonymous cyber-bullying attacks, reportedly including TV star Jeong Bo-Rin and pop singer Yurii, who both later committed suicide.

www.newscientist.com

EXCERPT FROM ANOTHER PAGE

"The lack of face-to-face contact might tempt bullies to new levels of cruelty"

McKenna, P. (2007, July 21). The cyber-bullies are always with you. . . .
New Scientist, 195(2613), 26-27.

Evaluating all sources

Checking for signs of bias

- Does the author or publisher endorse political or religious views that could affect objectivity?
- Is the author or publisher associated with a special-interest group, such as Greenpeace or the National Rifle Association, that might present a narrow view of an issue?
- How fairly does the author treat opposing views?
- Does the author's language show signs of bias?

Assessing an argument

- What is the author's central claim or thesis?
- How does the author support this claim—with relevant and sufficient evidence or with anecdotes or emotional examples?
- Are statistics accurate and used fairly? Does the author explain where the statistics come from?
- Are any of the author's assumptions questionable?
- Does the author consider opposing arguments and refute them persuasively?

5c Assessing Web sources with special care

Web sources can provide valuable information, but verifying their credibility may take time. Even sites that appear to be professional and fair-minded may contain questionable information. Before using a Web source in your paper, make sure you know who created the material and for what purpose. The chart on page 23 provides a checklist for evaluating Web sources.

6 Managing information; avoiding plagiarism

Whether you decide to record information about your sources on paper or on your computer—or both—you will need methods for managing that information: maintaining a working bibliography, keeping track of source

Evaluating Web sources

Authorship

- Is there an author? You may need to do some clicking and scrolling to find the author's name. Check the home page or an "about this site" link.
- Can you tell whether an author is knowledgeable and credible? If the author's qualifications aren't listed on the site, look for links to the author's home page, which may provide evidence of his or her expertise.

Sponsorship

- Who, if anyone, sponsors the site? The sponsor of a site is often named and described on the home page.
- What does the URL tell you? The domain name extension often indicates the type of group hosting the site: commercial (.com), educational (.edu), nonprofit (.org), governmental (.gov), military (.mil), or network (.net). URLs may also indicate a country of origin: .uk (United Kingdom) or .jp (Japan), for instance.

Purpose and audience

- Why was the site created: To argue a position? To sell a product? To inform readers?
- Who is the site's intended audience?

Currency

- How current is the site? Check for the date of publication or the latest update.
- How current are the site's links? If many of the links no longer work, the site may be outdated for your purposes.

materials, and taking notes without plagiarizing your sources. (For more on avoiding plagiarism, see section 8.)

6a Maintaining a working bibliography

Keep a record of any sources you decide to consult. This record, called a *working bibliography*, will help you compile the list of sources at the end of your paper. (For more details about documenting sources, see section 14.)

Once you have created a working bibliography, you can annotate it. Writing several brief sentences summarizing

MODELS hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa

> Model papers > APA annotated bibliography:
Niemeyer; Haddad

the key points of a source in your own words will help you identify how the source relates to your argument and to your other sources. Clarifying the source's ideas at this stage will help you separate them from your own ideas and avoid plagiarizing them later.

SAMPLE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ENTRY

International Monetary Fund, Western Hemisphere Department.

(2010). *United States: 2010 article IV consultation* (Country 1 Report No. 10/249). Retrieved from <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/scr/2010/cr10249.pdf>

The International Monetary Fund publishes an annual report on each member country's economic status within the global economy. The report outlines the country's efforts in creating international and domestic economic stability while offering recommendations to address the country's economic challenges. The 2010 report on the United States provides important statistics showing the United States' decrease in imports and exports during the current economic crisis and the effect of this contracting trade on the international community. The report also lists specific challenges that face the United States as it continues to recover from the crisis. The report helps me put recent U.S. macroeconomic policy trends, as well as several of my other sources, in context; it also gives me a basis for evaluating the effects of these policies in both the short and the long term. I can use the report to draw conclusions about the effectiveness of these largely Keynesian policies as well as predict future policy revisions.

- 1 Use APA reference list format for each entry.
- 2 Summarize the source.
- 3 Annotations should be three to seven sentences long.
- 4 Evaluate the source for relevance and describe how it relates to other sources you might use in the paper.
- 5 Evaluate how the source might contribute to your paper.

6b Keeping track of source materials

Save a copy of each source either electronically or in print. Many databases will allow you to e-mail, save, or print citations, abstracts, or full texts of articles, and you can easily

download, copy, print, or take screen shots of information from Web sites.

Working with saved files or printouts—as opposed to relying on memory or hastily written notes—lets you highlight key passages and make notes in the margins of the source as you read. You also reduce the chances of unintentional plagiarism because you will be able to compare your use of a source in your paper with the actual source, not just with your notes.

NOTE: It's especially important to keep print or electronic copies of Web sources, which may change or even become inaccessible over time. Make sure that your copy includes the site's URL and your date of access.

6c Avoiding unintentional plagiarism as you take notes

When you take notes, be very careful to identify borrowed words and phrases as quotations. Even if you half-copy the author's sentences—either by mixing the author's phrases with your own without using quotation marks or by plugging your synonyms into the author's sentence structure—you are committing plagiarism, a serious academic offense.

Summarizing and paraphrasing ideas and quoting exact language are three ways of taking notes. Be sure to include exact page references for all three types of notes; you will need the page numbers later if you use the information in your paper. (See the chart on pp. 26–27 for advice about avoiding plagiarism.)

7 Supporting a thesis

For assignments that call for research—literature reviews, empirical research papers, analytical essays, annotated bibliographies, among others—you will form a research question that will lead to a thesis statement or a statement of your central idea (see section 3 on posing questions). You will usually present your thesis in the introduction, the first few paragraphs of the paper. The rest of the paper will draw on the sources you use to support your thesis.

Integrating and citing sources to avoid plagiarism

Source text

Our language is constantly changing. Like the Mississippi, it keeps forging new channels and abandoning old ones, picking up debris, depositing unwanted silt, and frequently bursting its banks. In every generation there are people who deplore changes in the language and many who wish to stop its flow. But if our language stopped changing it would mean that American society had ceased to be dynamic, innovative, pulsing with life — that the great river had frozen up.

— Robert MacNeil and William Cran,
Do You Speak American? (2005), p. 1

NOTE: For details on integrating sources, see section 9. For citing sources in the text of the paper, see section 13.

If you are using an exact sentence from a source, with no changes . . .

→ . . . put quotation marks around the sentence. Use a signal phrase and include a page number in parentheses.

MacNeil and Cran (2005) have written, “Our language is constantly changing” (p. 1).

If you are using a few exact words from the source but not an entire sentence . . .

→ . . . put quotation marks around the exact words that you have used from the source. Use a signal phrase and include a page number in parentheses.

Some people, according to MacNeil and Cran (2005), “deplore changes in the language” (p. 1).

If you are using near-exact words from the source but changing some word forms (*I* to *she*, *walk* to *walked*) or adding words to clarify and make the quotation flow with your own text . . .

→ . . . put quotation marks around the quoted words and put brackets around the changes you have introduced. Include a signal phrase and follow the quotation with the page number in parentheses.

MacNeil and Cran (2005) compared the English language to the Mississippi River, which “forg[es] new channels and abandon[s] old ones” (p. 1).

MacNeil and Cran (2005) have written, “In every generation there are people who deplore changes in the [English] language and many who wish to stop its flow” (p. 1).

If you are paraphrasing or summarizing the source, using the author’s ideas but not any of the author’s exact words . . .

→ . . . introduce the ideas with a signal phrase and put the page number at the end of your sentence. Do not use quotation marks. (See 8c.)

MacNeil and Cran (2005) argued that changes in the English language are natural and that they represent cultural progress (p. 1).

If you have used the source’s sentence structure but substituted a few synonyms for the author’s words . . .

→ STOP! This is a form of plagiarism even if you use a signal phrase and a page number. Change your sentence by using one of the techniques given in this chart or in section 9.

PLAGIARIZED

MacNeil and Cran (2005) claimed that, like a river, English creates new waterways and discards old ones (p. 1).

INTEGRATED AND CITED CORRECTLY

MacNeil and Cran (2005) claimed, “Like the Mississippi, [English] keeps forging new channels and abandoning old ones” (p. 1).

You face three main challenges when writing a paper that draws on sources: (1) supporting a thesis, (2) citing your sources and avoiding plagiarism (see section 8), and (3) integrating quotations and other source material (see section 9).

7a Forming a thesis

You will read articles and other sources related to your central research question. Your thesis will express a reasoned and informed answer to that question, given the state of research in the field. Here are some examples.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Is medication the right treatment for the escalating problem of childhood obesity?

POSSIBLE THESIS

Understanding the limitations of medical treatments for children highlights the complexity of the childhood obesity problem in the United States and underscores the need for physicians, advocacy groups, and policymakers to search for other solutions.

RESEARCH QUESTION

How can a business improve employee motivation?

POSSIBLE THESIS

Setting clear expectations, sharing information in a timely fashion, and publicly offering appreciation to specific employees can help align individual motivation with corporate goals.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Why are boys diagnosed with ADHD more often than girls?

POSSIBLE THESIS

Recent studies have suggested that ADHD is diagnosed more often in boys than in girls because of personality differences between boys and girls as well as gender bias in referring adults, but an overlooked cause is that ADHD often coexists with other behavior disorders that exaggerate or mask gender differences.

Each of these thesis statements expresses a view based on the sources the writer consulted or the original research the writer conducted. The writers will need to show readers how their evidence supports their thesis.

7b Organizing your ideas

APA encourages the use of headings to help readers follow the organization of a paper. For empirical research papers and laboratory reports, the major headings are “Method,” “Results,” and “Discussion.” In other papers, the headings will vary, depending on the type of paper and the topic. (See also 10i.)

7c Using sources to inform and support your argument

Sources can play several different roles as you develop your points.

Providing background information or context You can use facts and statistics to support generalizations or to establish the importance of your topic.

Explaining terms or concepts Explain words, phrases, or ideas that might be unfamiliar to your readers. Quoting or paraphrasing a source can help you define terms and concepts in accessible language.

Supporting your claims Back up your assertions with facts, examples, and other evidence from your research.

Lending authority to your argument Expert opinion can give weight to your argument or discussion. But don't rely on experts to make your points for you. Express your ideas in your own words and cite authorities in the field to support your position.

Anticipating and countering other interpretations Do not ignore sources that seem contrary to your thesis or that offer interpretations different from your own. Instead, use them to give voice to opposing ideas and interpretations before you counter them.

8 Avoiding plagiarism

A paper that relies on research is a collaboration between you and your sources. To be fair and ethical, you must acknowledge your debt to the writers of those sources. When you acknowledge your sources, you avoid plagiarism, a serious academic offense.

Three different acts are considered plagiarism: (1) failing to cite quotations and borrowed ideas, (2) failing to enclose borrowed language in quotation marks, and (3) failing to put summaries and paraphrases in your own words. (See also 2d.)

8a Citing quotations and borrowed ideas

When you cite sources, you give credit to writers from whom you've borrowed words and ideas. You also let your readers know where your information comes from, so that they can evaluate the original source.

You must cite anything you borrow from a source, including direct quotations; statistics and other specific facts; visuals such as cartoons, graphs, and diagrams; and any ideas you present in a summary or a paraphrase.

The only exception is common knowledge—information that your readers may know or could easily locate in general sources. For example, most general encyclopedias will tell readers that Sigmund Freud wrote *The Interpretation of Dreams* and that chimpanzees can learn American Sign Language. When you have seen certain information repeatedly in your reading, you don't need to cite it. However, when information has appeared in only a few sources, when it is highly specific (as with statistics or data from government agencies), or when it is controversial, you should cite the source.

APA recommends an author-date style of citations. Here, briefly, is how the author-date system usually works. See sections 13–15 for a detailed discussion of variations.

1. The source is introduced by a signal phrase that includes the last name of the author followed by the date of publication in parentheses.
2. The material being cited is followed by a page number in parentheses.
3. At the end of the paper, an alphabetized list of references gives publication information for the source.

IN-TEXT CITATION

As researchers Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) have explained, obesity was once considered “either a moral failing or evidence of underlying psychopathology” (p. 592).

ENTRY IN THE LIST OF REFERENCES

Yanovski, S. Z., & Yanovski, J. A. (2002). Drug therapy: Obesity. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 346, 591-602.

8b Enclosing borrowed language in quotation marks

To show that you are using a source's exact phrases or sentences, you must enclose them in quotation marks. To omit the quotation marks is to claim—falsely—that the language is your own. Such an omission is plagiarism even if you have cited the source.

ORIGINAL SOURCE

In an effort to seek the causes of this disturbing trend, experts have pointed to a range of important potential contributors to the rise in childhood obesity that are unrelated to media.

—Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, “The Role of Media in Childhood Obesity” (2004), p. 1

PLAGIARISM

According to the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004), experts have pointed to a range of important potential contributors to the rise in childhood obesity that are unrelated to media (p. 1).

BORROWED LANGUAGE IN QUOTATION MARKS

According to the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004), “experts have pointed to a range of important potential contributors to the rise in childhood obesity that are unrelated to media” (p. 1).

NOTE: When quoted sentences are set off from the text by indenting, quotation marks are not needed (see p. 34).

8c Putting summaries and paraphrases in your own words

A summary condenses information; a paraphrase conveys information in about the same number of words as in the original source. When you summarize or paraphrase, you must name the source and restate the source’s meaning in your own words. You commit plagiarism if you half-copy the author’s sentences—either by mixing the author’s phrases with your own without using quotation marks or by plugging your own synonyms into the author’s sentence structure. The following paraphrases are plagiarized—even though the source is cited—because their language and structure are too close to those of the source.

ORIGINAL SOURCE

In an effort to seek the causes of this disturbing trend, experts have pointed to a range of important potential contributors to the rise in childhood obesity that are unrelated to media.

—Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, “The Role of Media in Childhood Obesity” (2004), p. 1

PLAGIARISM: UNACCEPTABLE BORROWING OF PHRASES

According to the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004), experts have indicated a range of significant potential contributors to the rise in childhood obesity that are not linked to media (p. 1).

PLAGIARISM: UNACCEPTABLE BORROWING OF STRUCTURE

According to the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004), experts have identified a variety of significant factors causing a rise in childhood obesity, factors that are not linked to media (p. 1).

To avoid plagiarizing an author's language, don't look at the source while you are summarizing or paraphrasing. After you've restated the author's ideas in your own words, return to the source and check that you haven't used the author's language or sentence structure or misrepresented the author's ideas.

ACCEPTABLE PARAPHRASE

A report by the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004) described sources other than media for the childhood obesity crisis (p. 1).

NOTE: APA recommends using a page number after a summary or a paraphrase to help readers locate the passage in the source.

9 Integrating sources

Quotations, summaries, paraphrases, and facts will help you develop your ideas, but they cannot speak for you. You can use several strategies to integrate information from sources into your paper while maintaining your own voice.

9a Using quotations appropriately

Limiting your use of quotations In your writing, keep the emphasis on your own words. Do not quote excessively. It is not always necessary to quote full sentences from a source. Often you can integrate words or phrases from a source into your own sentence structure.

As researchers continue to face a number of unknowns about obesity, it may be helpful to envision treating the disorder, as Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) suggested, “in the same manner as any other chronic disease” (p. 592).

Using the ellipsis mark To condense a quoted passage, you can use the ellipsis mark (three periods, with spaces between) to indicate that you have omitted words. What remains must be grammatically complete.

Roman (2003) reported that “social factors are nearly as significant as individual metabolism in the formation of . . . dietary habits of adolescents” (p. 345).

The writer has omitted the words *both healthy and unhealthy* from the source.

When you want to omit a full sentence or more, use a period before the three ellipsis dots.

According to Sothern and Gordon (2003), “Environmental factors may contribute as much as 80% to the causes of childhood obesity. . . . Research suggests that obese children demonstrate decreased levels of physical activity and increased psychosocial problems” (p. 104).

Ordinarily, do not use an ellipsis mark at the beginning or at the end of a quotation. Readers will understand that the quoted material is taken from a longer passage. The only exception occurs when you feel it necessary, for clarity, to indicate that your quotation begins or ends in the middle of a sentence.

Using brackets Brackets allow you to insert your own words into quoted material to clarify a confusing reference or to make the quoted words fit grammatically into the context of your writing.

The cost of treating obesity currently totals \$117 billion per year—a price, according to the surgeon general, “second only to the cost of [treating] tobacco use” (Carmona, 2004).

To indicate an error such as a misspelling in a quotation, insert *[sic]*, italicized and with brackets around it, right after the error.

NOTE: It is not necessary to use brackets in a quotation to indicate that you have changed a lowercase letter to capital or vice versa to fit the sense of your sentence.

Setting off long quotations When you quote 40 or more words, set off the quotation by indenting it one-half inch from the left margin. Use the normal right margin and do not single-space.

Long quotations should be introduced by an informative sentence, usually followed by a colon. Quotation marks are unnecessary because the indented format tells readers that the passage is taken from the source.

Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) have traced the history of treatments for obesity:

For many years, obesity was approached as if it were either a moral failing or evidence of underlying psychopathology.

With the advent of behavioral treatments for obesity in the 1960s, hope arose that modification of maladaptive eating and exercise habits would lead to sustained weight loss, and that time-limited programs would produce permanent changes in weight. (p. 592)

At the end of the indented quotation, the parenthetical citation goes outside the final punctuation mark.

9b Using signal phrases

Whenever you include a direct quotation, a paraphrase, or a summary in your paper, prepare readers for it with a signal phrase. A signal phrase usually names the author of the source, gives the publication date in parentheses, and often provides some context. It is acceptable in APA style to call authors by their last name only, even on first mention. If your paper refers to two authors with the same last name, use their initials as well.

See the chart on page 35 for a list of verbs commonly used in signal phrases.

NOTE: Use the past tense or present perfect tense to introduce quotations, other source material, and your own results: *Davis (2009) noted . . . , Manning (2010) has claimed . . . , men performed better than women. . . .* Use the present tense to discuss the applications or effects of your own results or knowledge that has clearly been established: *the data suggest . . . , researchers agree. . . .*

Marking boundaries Avoid dropping quotations into your text without warning. Provide clear signal phrases, including at least the author's name and the date of

publication. Signal phrases mark the boundaries between source material and your own words and ideas.

DROPPED QUOTATION

Obesity was once considered in a very different light. “For many years, obesity was approached as if it were either a moral failing or evidence of underlying psychopathology” (Yanovski & Yanovski, 2002, p. 592).

QUOTATION WITH SIGNAL PHRASE

As researchers Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) have explained, obesity was once considered “either a moral failing or evidence of underlying psychopathology” (p. 592).

Using signal phrases in APA papers

To avoid monotony, try to vary both the language and the placement of your signal phrases.

Model signal phrases

In the words of Carmona (2004), “. . .”

As Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) have noted, “. . .”

Hoppin and Taveras (2004), medical researchers, pointed out that “. . .”

“. . .,” claimed Critser (2003).

“. . .,” wrote Duenwald (2004), “. . .”

Researchers McDuffie et al. (2003) have offered a compelling argument for this view: “. . .”

Hilts (2002) answered these objections with the following analysis: “. . .”

Verbs in signal phrases

Are you providing background, explaining a concept, supporting a claim, lending authority, or refuting a belief?

Choose a verb that is appropriate for the way you are using the source.

admitted	contended	reasoned
agreed	declared	refuted
argued	denied	rejected
asserted	emphasized	reported
believed	insisted	responded
claimed	noted	suggested
compared	observed	thought
confirmed	pointed out	wrote

Integrating statistics and other facts When you are citing a statistic or another specific fact, a signal phrase is often not necessary. In most cases, readers will understand that the citation refers to the statistic or fact (not the whole paragraph).

In purely financial terms, the drugs cost more than \$3 a day on average (Duenwald, 2004).

There is nothing wrong, however, with using a signal phrase.

Duenwald (2004) pointed out that in purely financial terms, the drugs cost more than \$3 a day on average.

Putting source material in context Provide context for any source material that appears in your paper. A signal phrase can help you connect your own ideas with those of another writer by clarifying how the source will contribute to your paper. It's a good idea to embed source material, especially long quotations, between sentences of your own that interpret the source and link the source to your own ideas.

QUOTATION WITH EFFECTIVE CONTEXT

A report by the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004) outlined trends that may have contributed to the childhood obesity crisis, including food advertising for children as well as

a reduction in physical education classes . . . , an increase in the availability of sodas and snacks in public schools, the growth in the number of fast-food outlets . . . , and the increasing number of highly processed high-calorie and high-fat grocery products. (p. 1)

Addressing each of these areas requires more than a doctor armed with a prescription pad; it requires a broad mobilization not just of doctors and concerned parents but of educators, food industry executives, advertisers, and media representatives.

9c Synthesizing sources

When you synthesize multiple sources in a research or an analytical paper (or any other paper that involves sources), you create a conversation about your topic. You show readers how the ideas of one source relate to those of another by connecting and analyzing the ideas in the context of your argument or discussion. Keep the emphasis on your own writing. The thread of your ideas should

be easy to identify and to understand, with or without your sources.

In the following sample synthesis, Luisa Mirano uses her own analysis to shape the conversation among her sources. She does not simply string quotations together or allow sources to overwhelm her writing. In the final sentence, she explains to readers how her sources support and extend her argument.

SAMPLE SYNTHESIS (DRAFT)

- 1 Medical treatments have clear costs for individual patients, including unpleasant side effects, little information about long-term use, and uncertainty that they will yield significant weight loss. The financial burden is heavy as well; the drugs cost more than \$3 a day on average (Duenwald, 2004). In each of the clinical trials, use of medication was accompanied by expensive behavioral therapies, including counseling, nutrition education, fitness advising, and monitoring. As Critser (2003) noted in his book *Fat Land*, use of weight-loss drugs is unlikely to have an effect without the proper “support system”—one that includes doctors, facilities, time, and money (p. 3). For many families, this level of care is prohibitively expensive.
- Both medical experts and policymakers recognize that solutions might come not only from a laboratory but also from policy, education, and advocacy. A handbook designed to educate doctors on obesity called for “major changes in some aspects of western culture” (Hoppin & Taveras, 2004, Conclusion section, para. 1). Solving the childhood obesity problem will require broad mobilization of doctors and concerned parents and also of educators, food industry executives, advertisers, and media representatives.

Student writer

Source 1

Student writer

Source 2

Student writer

Source 3

Student writer

- 1 Student writer Luisa Mirano begins with a claim that needs support.
- 2 Signal phrases indicate how sources contribute to Mirano’s paper and show that the ideas that follow are not her own.
- 3 Mirano interprets and connects sources. Each paragraph ends with her own thoughts.



Formatting Papers in APA Style

- 10 Parts of a paper in APA style 39**
- 11 APA manuscript format 45**
- 12 Sample pages from papers
in APA style 51**

10 Parts of a paper in APA style

This section describes the different parts of papers typically written in APA style. Not all of the parts described in this section are used in every genre, or type of paper. For example, method and results sections are used in research papers but not in annotated bibliographies, professional memos, or reflective essays.

The chart on page 41 provides a quick overview of the parts that are typically used in each genre. If you have any doubt about which parts to include in a particular paper, check your assignment or ask your instructor.

10a Title page

A title page is used in nearly all types of APA-style papers. It is always the first page and generally includes a running head, the title of the paper, the name of the author, and an author's note.

The title should briefly and accurately describe the purpose of the paper. The title should be concise yet specific and should not include unnecessary words such as "A Report on" or "A Paper About." Abbreviations should not be used in titles.

For papers submitted for coursework, the author's note may include a few sentences that contain the title of the course, the name of the professor teaching the course, and any acknowledgments or thanks for assistance. Papers submitted for publication or for presentation at professional meetings may include additional information such as sources of grant money used to support the research and contact information for the author.

- ▶ Formatting the title page: p. 45
- ▶ Sample title pages: 12a–12d, 12f–12j

10b Abstract

An abstract is a short (150-to-250-word) summary of the content of the paper; it is generally used in literature reviews, empirical research papers, laboratory reports, and case studies. An abstract is always on the second page by itself. The purpose of the abstract is to provide an overview of the most important ideas of the paper, including the

research question or hypothesis, methods, and key findings. In a paper prepared for publication, it is helpful to include key terms at the end of the abstract so that readers can find the paper online or in a database using a keyword search.

Even though it appears at the beginning of the paper, some writers find it effective to write the abstract after an entire draft is finished rather than before they begin writing. One way to approach writing the abstract is to ask yourself, “If someone read only the abstract of my paper, would the reader have a good understanding of the purpose of my paper and my most important findings and ideas?”

- ▶ Formatting the abstract: [p. 49](#)
- ▶ Sample abstracts: [pp. 53, 59, 65, 79, 96](#)

10c Introduction

Most genres using APA style have an introduction, which begins on a new page following the abstract (or the title page for a paper without an abstract). The introduction is the first few paragraphs of the paper and typically contains a thesis statement or research question. In most papers, the introduction answers the questions “What is my paper about?” and “Why is it important?”

The introduction can frame the research question or thesis statement in relation to the work of others, in which case it answers the question “What have others written about my topic?” In an empirical research paper, the introduction briefly describes how you conducted your study. Finally, the introduction lays the foundation for the rest of the paper by giving readers a sense of what to expect and what conclusions you will draw. You should reserve a full discussion of the implications of your research for the discussion section (see 10f).

As with abstracts, some writers prefer to write the introduction after drafting the entire paper.

- ▶ Formatting the introduction: [p. 49](#)
- ▶ Sample introductions: [pp. 54, 60, 80, 87, 97, 99](#)

10d Method

The method section is used in empirical research papers, laboratory reports, and case studies and sometimes in clinical

Required sections in different types of papers

Type of paper	Title page	Abstract	Introduction	Method	Results	Discussion (Conclusion)	References	Footnotes	Headings	Appendices	Visuals
Literature review	●	●	●			●	●	◐	●	◐	◐
Empirical research	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	◐	●	◐	●
Analytical essay	●	◐	●			◐	●	◐	◐	◐	◐
Annotated bibliography	◐						●				
Laboratory report	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	◐	●	◐	●
Administrative report	◐	◐	●			◐	◐	◐	●	◐	◐
Clinical practice paper	●	◐	●	◐	◐	◐	◐	◐	●	◐	◐
Reflective essay	●		●			◐	◐	◐	◐		
Professional memo			●			◐	◐	◐	◐		◐
Case study	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	◐	●	◐	◐

● required in most papers

◐ required in some papers

papers. It describes the details of the research design—how you conducted your study. Each discipline has its own methods of investigation, so the particular contents of the method section will vary depending on the discipline in which you are writing.

Anyone interested in replicating your study will rely on the method section to conduct his or her own research, so it is important that you include all relevant details of the research design. A good method section fully answers

the question “How did I design my research and conduct my investigation?”

Writers often use subsections, labeled with subheadings, to organize the information in the method section. Subsections might include the procedures used to generate a sample of a population and specific information about participants or materials.

Some details should not be included in the method section. If you collected data using a survey, for example, you might discuss general characteristics of the survey in the method section and include the survey questions as an appendix (see 10j).

- ▶ Formatting the method section: **p. 49**
- ▶ Sample method sections: **pp. 61, 66, 81**

10e Results

Empirical research papers, laboratory reports, and case studies must include a results section, which contains an analysis of the data. Clinical papers sometimes include a results section. The method used in the study will determine the type of analysis you present in the results section.

Studies that have generated numerical data frequently use statistical analysis to determine whether statistically significant relationships exist between independent and dependent variables. Social and behavioral scientists refer to this type of study as *quantitative*. Observational field studies in sociology, anthropology, and education are examples of *qualitative* research. The nature of the research question will determine whether quantitative or qualitative methods are preferred.

The results section answers the question “What significant relationships exist between the important variables in my study?” The results section focuses on the data and on any statistical or other analysis you have performed. You should present the results as clearly and succinctly as possible; tables or other visuals can be a helpful way to display results. Interpretation of the findings should be saved for the discussion section (see 10f).

Like the method section, the results section may include subsections to describe the data, the procedures used to analyze the data, and important findings. The section often includes charts, tables, figures, or other visuals that concisely present important data (see 10k). In the results section, you must acknowledge all relevant findings, even

those that do not support your hypothesis, your research question, or the results you expected to find (see 2e).

- ▶ Formatting the results section: **p. 49**
- ▶ Sample results sections: **pp. 63, 81**

10f Discussion

A discussion section is used in empirical research papers, laboratory reports, and case studies. It is frequently used in literature reviews, clinical papers, memos, reflective essays, and administrative reports; in these genres, it may be labeled “Conclusion.”

In a paper involving research or an experiment, the purpose of the discussion section is to interpret the results in light of your research question or hypothesis. The discussion section attempts to answer the question “What do the findings or the data in my study mean?” In answering this question, you should reflect critically on the study as a whole, making connections between your study and previous studies and noting any ways in which your study may be improved. You should also discuss any unanticipated findings and, where appropriate, offer explanations for them. The following are other questions commonly addressed in the discussion section: “Was my sample adequate?” “Were my measures precise and appropriate?” “Were there any problems in my research design? If so, how might someone design a better study?” “Can the results of my study be generalized to larger (or other) populations?” “Given the findings of my study and the relevant literature, do any important questions remain unanswered?”

In other genres, the discussion section or conclusion is used to highlight important points, to summarize key ideas, or to make connections. In a literature review, the discussion or conclusion section provides an opportunity to critically assess the findings of other studies and to draw conclusions in relation to your research question.

- ▶ Formatting the discussion section: **p. 49**
- ▶ Sample discussion (conclusion) sections: **p. 82**

10g References

The reference section provides full bibliographic information for each source used in the paper so that an interested reader can locate the source. The reference section

begins on a new page following the end of the body of the paper. Any paper that uses outside sources must include a reference list.

- ▶ Formatting the reference list: **pp. 50–51**
- ▶ Sample reference lists: **pp. 57, 75, 85**

10h Footnotes

Footnotes are used for additional information that is too long or complicated to include in the main text (see 15a). Footnotes should be used sparingly; in-text citations are the primary method of citing source material (see section 13). Footnotes are also used in tables and figures (see 15b).

- ▶ Formatting footnotes: **p. 48**
- ▶ Sample footnote in text: **pp. 54, 72**
- ▶ Sample footnotes in tables: **pp. 56, 61, 88, 92**

10i Headings

Headings are used in APA papers to provide structure and organization. Headings can be used in any genre. Like an outline, the heading structure of a paper gives readers a sense of how the ideas of the paper are organized. In empirical research papers and laboratory reports, three first-level headings in the body of the paper remain constant: “Method,” “Results,” and “Discussion.” Each of these first-level headings may have second- or third-level subheadings.

- ▶ Formatting headings: **p. 49**
- ▶ Sample headings: **12a–12b, 12f–12h, 12j–12k**

10j Appendices

In almost any genre using APA style, some information may be important but too distracting to include in the main text of the paper and too long for a footnote. Such material can be placed in an appendix at the end of the paper following the reference list. For example, if you developed a long survey to collect the data used in your study, you could include a copy of the survey questions, without any responses, as an appendix.

- ▶ Formatting the appendices: **p. 69**
- ▶ Sample appendices: **pp. 69, 70**

10k Visuals

Visuals include tables, figures, graphs, charts, images, or any other nontext content included in a paper. While visuals are not required in any genre, they are often a good way to summarize data or other results. For example, it is common to create tables that display the results of statistical analysis such as correlation and multiple regression. Other commonly used visuals in some fields are diagrams that show the anticipated and actual relationships between independent and dependent variables. The chart on pages 46–47 shows various types of visuals and suggests how they might be used in a paper.

While visuals provide a snapshot of important information, you should include a written description or interpretation of the information contained in any visual.

- ▶ Formatting visuals: **p. 49–50**
- ▶ Sample visuals: **pp. 56, 61, 63, 83, 88, 92, 98**

11 APA manuscript format

The American Psychological Association makes a number of recommendations for formatting a paper and preparing a list of references. The guidelines in this section are consistent with advice given in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th ed. (Washington, DC: APA, 2010).

The explanations and examples in 11a and 11b for formatting the text and the reference list are consistent with APA's guidelines for papers prepared for publication and with typical requirements for undergraduate papers in the social sciences, business, education, and nursing.

11a Formatting the paper

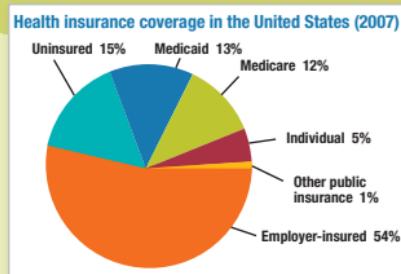
Title page Begin at the top left with the words “Running head,” followed by a colon and the title of your paper (shortened to no more than 50 characters) in all capital letters. Put the page number 1 flush with the right margin.

About halfway down the page, on separate lines, center the full title of your paper, your name, and your school's name. At the bottom of the page, you may add the heading “Author Note,” centered, followed by a brief

Choosing visuals to suit your purpose

Pie chart

Pie charts compare a part or parts to the whole. Segments of the pie represent percentages of the whole (and always total 100 percent).



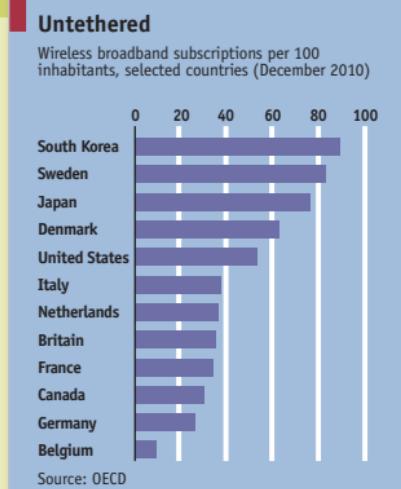
Line graph

Line graphs highlight trends over a period of time or compare numerical data.



Bar graph

Bar graphs, like line graphs, show trends or comparisons at a glance.



Table

Tables display numbers and words in columns and rows. They can be used to organize complicated numerical information into an easily understood format.

Sources [top to bottom]: Kaiser Foundation; Federal Highway Administration; OECD; UNAIDS.

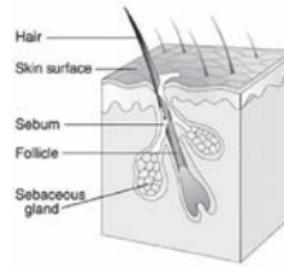
Prices of daily doses of AIDS drugs (\$US)

Drug	Brazil	Ouganda	Côte d'Ivoire	US
3TC (Lamivudine)	1.56	3.28	2.95	8.70
ddC (Zalcitabine)	0.24	4.17	3.75	8.80
Didanosine	2.04	6.26	3.48	7.25
Efavirenz	6.96	n/a	6.49	13.13
Indinavir	10.32	12.79	9.07	14.93
Neftinavir	4.14	4.45	4.39	6.47
Nevirapine	5.04	n/a	n/a	8.48
Saquinavir	6.24	7.37	5.52	6.50
Stavudine	0.56	6.19	4.10	9.07
ZDV/3TC	1.44	7.34	n/a	15.78
Zidovudine	1.05	4.34	2.43	10.12

Source: UNAIDS, 2000

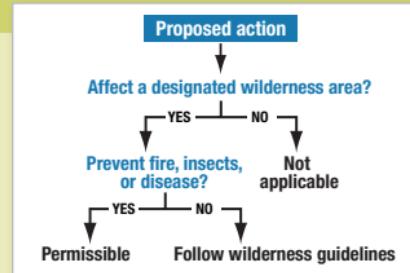
Diagram

Diagrams, useful in scientific and technical writing, concisely illustrate processes, structures, or interactions.



Flowchart

Flowcharts show structures or steps in a process and their relation to one another.



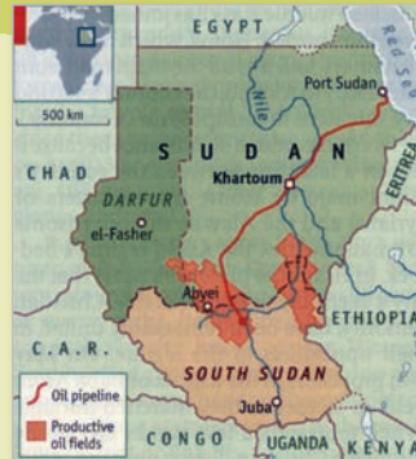
Photograph

Photographs can be used to vividly depict people, scenes, or objects discussed in a text.



Map

Maps illustrate geographic, historical, or political information. They can pinpoint the features of a place, emphasize a relationship among regions, or describe a situation or an event. Symbols and varied colors show significant features and points of interest.



Sources [top to bottom]: NIAMS; Arizona Board of Regents; Fred Zwicky; *Economist*.

paragraph that lists specific information about the course or department or provides acknowledgments or contact information. (See section 12 for sample title pages.)

Page numbers and running head Number all pages with arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, and so on) in the upper right corner about one-half inch from the top of the page. Flush with the left margin and on the same line as the page number, type a running head consisting of the title of the paper (shortened to no more than 50 characters) in all capital letters. On the title page only, include the words “Running head” followed by a colon before the title. (See section 12 for examples of running heads and page numbers.)

Margins and line spacing Use margins of one inch on all sides of the page. Left-align the text. Double-space throughout the paper.

Capitalization, italics, and quotation marks Capitalize all words of four letters or more (and all nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs of any length) in titles of works in the text of the paper. Capitalize the first word following a colon in a title or a heading. Capitalize the first word after a colon if the word begins a complete sentence.

Italicize the titles of books, periodicals, and other long works, such as Web sites. Use quotation marks for titles of periodical articles, short stories, and other short works.

NOTE: APA has different requirements for titles in the reference list. See page 51.

Long quotations When a quotation is 40 or more words, set it off from the text by indenting it one-half inch from the left margin. Double-space the quotation. Do not use quotation marks around it. (See p. 74 for an example. See also p. 34 for more information about integrating long quotations.)

Footnotes If you insert a footnote number in the text of your paper, place the number immediately following any mark of punctuation except a dash. At the bottom of the page, begin the note with a one-half-inch indent and the superscript number corresponding to the number in the text. Insert an extra double-spaced line between the last line of text on the page and the footnote. Double-space the footnote. (See p. 54 for an example. See also section 15 for more details about footnotes.)

Abstract If your paper requires one, include an abstract after the title page. Center the word “Abstract” (in regular font, not boldface) one inch from the top of the page. Double-space the abstract and do not indent the first line.

For a paper prepared for publication, a list of keywords follows the abstract. Leave one line of space after the abstract and begin with the word “Keywords,” italicized, followed by a colon. Then list important words related to your paper. Check with your instructor for requirements in your course. (See section 12 for sample abstract pages.)

Introduction On a new page following the abstract, center the complete title of the paper one inch below the top of the page. The introduction immediately follows the title, with no heading. Begin the first paragraph of the introduction with a one-half-inch indent. (See also 10c.)

Headings Major (first-level) headings are centered and boldface. In research papers and laboratory reports, the major headings are “Method,” “Results,” and “Discussion.” In other types of papers, the major headings should be informative and concise, conveying the structure of the paper. Second-level headings are flush left and boldface. Third-level headings are indented and boldface, followed by a period and the text on the same line.

In first- and second-level headings, capitalize the first and last words and all words of four or more letters (and nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs of any length). In third-level headings, capitalize only the first word, any proper nouns, and the first word after a colon.

First-Level Heading Centered

Second-Level Heading Flush Left

Third-level heading indented. Text immediately follows.

NOTE: Always type the title of the paper, the headings “Abstract” and “References,” and appendix titles in regular font, not boldface.

Visuals APA classifies visuals as tables and figures (figures include graphs, charts, drawings, and photographs).

Tables Label each table with an arabic numeral (Table 1, Table 2) and provide a clear title. The label and title should appear on separate lines above the table, flush left and double-spaced. Type the table number in regular font; italicize the table title.

Table 2*Effect of nifedipine (Procardia) on blood pressure in women*

If you have used data from an outside source or have taken or adapted the table from a source, give the source information in a note below the table. Begin with the word “Note,” italicized and followed by a period. If you use lettered footnotes to explain specific data in the table, those footnotes begin on a new line after the source information. Begin each footnote with the superscript letter corresponding to the letter in the table; do not indent the first line. (See also 15b. See pp. 56, 61, and 88 for examples of tables in papers.)

Figures Place the figure number and a caption below the figure, flush left and double-spaced. Begin with the word “Figure” and an arabic numeral, both italicized, followed by a period. Place the caption, not italicized, on the same line. If you have taken or adapted the figure from an outside source, give the source information immediately following the caption. Use the term “From” or “Adapted from” before the source information. (See also 15b. See pp. 63 and 83 for examples of figures in papers.)

11b Preparing the list of references

Begin your list of references on a new page at the end of the paper. Center the title “References” one inch from the top of the page. Double-space throughout. (See section 12 for sample reference lists.)

Indenting entries Type the first line of each entry flush left and indent any additional lines one-half inch.

Alphabetizing the list Alphabetize the reference list by the last names of the authors (or editors); when a work has no author or editor, alphabetize by the first word of the title other than *A*, *An*, or *The*.

If you list two or more works by the same author, arrange the entries by year, the earliest first. If you include two or more works by the same author in the same year, arrange them alphabetically by title. Add the letters “a,” “b,” and so on in the parentheses after the year. For journal articles, use only the year and the letter: (2011a). For articles in magazines and newspapers, use the full date and the letter in the reference list: (2011a, July 17); use only the year and the letter in in-text citations.

Authors' names Invert all authors' names and use initials instead of first names. Separate the names with commas. For two to seven authors, use an ampersand (&) before the last author's name (see item 2, p. 108). For eight or more authors, give the first six authors, three ellipsis dots, and the last author (see item 3, p. 109).

Titles of books and articles Italicize the titles and subtitles of books. Do not italicize or use quotation marks around the titles of articles. Capitalize only the first word of the title and subtitle (and all proper nouns). Capitalize names of periodicals as you would capitalize them normally (see 37c).

Abbreviations for page numbers Abbreviations for "page" and "pages" ("p." and "pp.") are used before page numbers of newspaper articles and articles in edited books (see item 11 on p. 112 and item 20 on p. 113) but not before page numbers of articles in magazines and scholarly journals (see items 8–10 on pp. 110–12).

Breaking a URL or DOI When a URL or a DOI (digital object identifier) must be divided, break it after a double slash or before any other mark of punctuation. Do not insert a hyphen, and do not add a period at the end.

12 Sample pages from papers in APA style

This section contains pages from 11 student papers from a range of social science and related disciplines—psychology, sociology, economics, criminology, nursing, education, and business. The pages show typical APA style for organization and formatting as well as proper APA style for in-text citations and the reference list. The samples may be helpful as you write different types of papers for your courses.

MODELS hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa

- > Model papers
- > Administrative report: Thompson
- > Analytical essay: Elwell
- > Annotated bibliography: Niemeyer; Haddad
- > Business report: Spencer
- > Clinical practice paper: Riss
- > Laboratory report: Johnson
- > Professional memo: Ratajczak
- > Reflective essay: Gibson
- > Research papers: Mirano; Conderman; Zopf; Charat

12a Research paper: Literature review (psychology)

Luisa Mirano, a student in an introductory psychology course, wrote a research paper reviewing the literature on treatments for childhood obesity. Her paper describes what researchers have written about effective treatments; she also draws conclusions based on her reading of the literature.

Research paper: Literature review

Title page

1 Running head: CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?

1 2

3 Can Medication Cure Obesity in Children?

A Review of the Literature

Luisa Mirano

Northwest-Shoals Community College

4 Author Note

This paper was prepared for Psychology 108, Section B, taught by Professor Kang.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words “Running head” and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer’s name and affiliation, centered.
- 4 Author’s note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate **APA-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Research paper: Literature review

Abstract

1 CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?

2 2

Abstract

3

In recent years, policymakers and medical experts have expressed alarm about the growing problem of childhood obesity in the United States. While most agree that the issue deserves attention, consensus dissolves around how to respond to the problem. This literature review examines one approach to treating childhood obesity: medication. The paper compares the effectiveness for adolescents of the only two drugs approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for long-term treatment of obesity, sibutramine and orlistat. This examination of pharmacological treatments for obesity points out the limitations of medication and suggests the need for a comprehensive solution that combines medical, social, behavioral, and political approaches to this complex problem.

4

Keywords: obesity, childhood, adolescence, medication, public policy

5

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left. 2 Page number, flush right. 3 Abstract appears on separate page; heading centered and not boldface. 4 Abstract is 150-to-250-word overview of paper. 5 Keywords (optional) help readers search for a paper online or in a database.

Research paper: Literature review**First text page****CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?**

3

1 Can Medication Cure Obesity in Children?**A Review of the Literature**

In March 2004, U.S. Surgeon General Richard Carmona called attention to a health problem in the United States that, until

2 recently, has been overlooked: childhood obesity. Carmona said that the “astounding” 15% child obesity rate constitutes an “epidemic.” Since the early 1980s, that rate has “doubled in children and tripled in adolescents.” Now more than nine million children are classified as obese.¹ This literature review considers whether the use of medication is a promising approach for solving the childhood obesity problem by responding to the following questions:

- 3**
1. What are the implications of childhood obesity?
 2. Is medication effective at treating childhood obesity?
 3. Is medication safe for children?
 4. Is medication the best solution?

4 Understanding the limitations of medical treatments for children highlights the complexity of the childhood obesity problem in the United States and underscores the need for physicians, advocacy groups, and policymakers to search for other solutions.

5 **What Are the Implications of Childhood Obesity?**

Obesity can be a devastating problem from both an individual and a societal perspective. Obesity puts children at risk for a number of medical complications, including Type 2 diabetes, hypertension, sleep apnea, and orthopedic problems (Henry J. Kaiser Family

6 ¹Obesity is measured in terms of body-mass index (BMI): weight in kilograms divided by square of height in meters. An adolescent with a BMI in the 95th percentile for his or her age and gender is considered obese.

1 Full title, centered and not boldface. **2** Introduction provides background on writer's topic. **3** Questions provide organization and are repeated as main headings of paper. **4** Paper's thesis. **5** First-level heading, centered and boldface. **6** Footnote defines essential term without interrupting text.

Research paper: Literature review

Text page

CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?

4

Foundation, 2004, p. 1). Researchers Hoppin and Taveras (2004) have noted that obesity is often associated with psychological issues such as depression, anxiety, and binge eating (Complications section, 1 Table 4).

Obesity also poses serious problems for a society struggling to cope with rising health care costs. The cost of treating obesity currently totals \$117 billion per year—a price, according to the surgeon general, “second only to the cost of [treating] tobacco use” (Carmona, 2004). 2 And as the number of children who suffer from obesity grows, long-term costs will only increase.

Is Medication Effective at Treating Childhood Obesity?

3

The widening scope of the obesity problem has prompted medical professionals to rethink old conceptions of the disorder and its causes. As researchers Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) have explained, obesity was once considered “either a moral failing or evidence of underlying psychopathology” (p. 592). But this view has shifted: Many medical professionals now consider obesity a biomedical rather than a moral condition, influenced by both genetic and environmental factors. Yanovski and Yanovski have further noted that the development of weight-loss medications in the early 1990s showed that “obesity should be treated in the same manner as any other chronic disease . . . through the long-term use of medication” (p. 592). 4 5

The search for the right long-term medication has been complicated. Many of the drugs authorized by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in the early 1990s proved to be a disappointment. Two of the medications—fenfluramine and dexfenfluramine—were withdrawn from the market because of severe side effects (Yanovski & Yanovski, 2002, p. 592), and several others were classified by the Drug Enforcement Administration as having the “potential for abuse” (Hoppin

1 Section title and table number in parentheses help readers locate information in online source with no page numbers.

2 Author (Carmona) is not named in signal phrase, so name and date appear in parentheses after quotation. 3 First-level heading, centered and boldface. 4 In signal phrase, “and” links names of two authors; date is given in parentheses; page number is given at end of quotation, before final period. 5 Ellipsis mark indicates omitted words in middle of sentence.

Research paper: Literature review

Table

CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?

6

1 Table 1**2** *Effectiveness of Sibutramine and Orlistat in Adolescents*

Medication	Subjects	Treatment ^a	Side effects	Average weight loss/gain
3 Sibutramine	Control	0-6 months: placebo	Months 6-12: increased blood pressure; increased pulse rate	After 6 months: loss of 3.2 kg (7 lb)
	Medicated	6-12 months: sibutramine		After 12 months: loss of 4.5 kg (9.9 lb)
Orlistat	Control	0-12 months: placebo		After 6 months: loss of 7.8 kg (17.2 lb)
	Medicated	0-12 months: orlistat	Increased blood pressure; increased pulse rate	After 12 months: loss of 7.0 kg (15.4 lb)

4 Note. The data on sibutramine are adapted from "Behavior Therapy and Sibutramine for the Treatment of Adolescent Obesity," by R. I. Berkowitz, T. A. Wadden, A. M. Tershakovec, & J. L. Cronquist, 2003, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 289, pp. 1807-1809. The data on orlistat are adapted from *Xenical (Orlistat) Capsules: Complete Product Information*, by Roche Laboratories, December 2003, retrieved from <http://www.rocheusa.com/products/xenical/pi.pdf>

5 ^aThe medication and/or placebo were combined with behavioral therapy in all groups over all time periods.

1 Table summarizes findings from two sources. **2** Table number and title on separate lines; title italic. **3** Abbreviations and numerals used throughout table to save space. **4** Note gives sources of data used in table. Format of note differs from format of reference list. **5** Content note explains data common to all subjects.

Research paper: Literature review

Reference list

CAN MEDICATION CURE OBESITY IN CHILDREN?

9

References

1

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- Roche Laboratories. (2003, December). *Xenical (orlistat) capsules: Complete product information*. Retrieved from <http://www>

1 List of references on new page; heading centered and not boldface. **2** List alphabetized by authors' last names, corporate names, or titles (for works with no authors). **3** Authors' names inverted, with initials for first name(s). **4** Double-spaced throughout. **5** First line of each entry flush left; subsequent lines indented $\frac{1}{2}$ ". **6** For a work with up to seven authors, all authors' names are listed; ampersand (&) precedes last author's name.

12b Research paper: Empirical research (psychology)

In a research methods course, Jessica Conderman conducted an experiment on taste sensitivity. Her paper reviews the literature on the topic and then reports on and analyzes her own results. Because her study involved human participants, she received approval from her school's institutional review board (IRB; see 2f).

Research paper: Empirical research

Title page

1 Running head: INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY

1 2

3 The Influence of Sex and Learning on Taste Sensitivity

Jessica S. Conderman

Carthage College

4 Author Note

Jessica S. Conderman, PSYC 471-01 Advanced Research Methods,
Dr. Leslie Cameron, Department of Psychology, Carthage College.

Thank you to the Department of Psychology and Quality of Life
Committee for funding support.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered. 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate **APA-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Research paper: Empirical research

Abstract

INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY

2 1

Abstract

2

Perceptual learning enhances a person's ability to detect specific stimuli after the person experiences exposure to the stimuli.

Perceptual learning has been observed in taste aversion, but it has not been extensively investigated in taste sensitivity. The current study examined the effect of perceptual learning in taste thresholds of females and males. I studied taste sensitivity longitudinally, testing every other day for 1 month, in 6 young adults (3 males, 3 females) between 19 and 21 years of age. Taste thresholds were determined using an electrogustometer at 4 tongue locations (front-left, front-right, back-left, back-right) corresponding to the chorda tympani and glossopharyngeal nerves. Results indicate that males and females demonstrated a perceptual learning effect—thresholds decreased with practice—and were consistent with previous research that females' thresholds were lower than males' for all tongue locations. In contrast to previous research in olfaction (Dalton, Doolittle, & Breslin, 2002), both males and females "learned." However, females overall performed better in the task, which is consistent with the previous literature on the chemical senses.

3

Keywords: perceptual learning, taste aversion, taste sensitivity, sex differences

5

- 1** Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Abstract appears on separate page; heading centered and not boldface. **3** Abstract is 150-to-250-word overview of paper. **4** Numerals used for all numbers in abstract, even those under 10. **5** Keywords (optional) help readers search for a paper online or in a database.

Research paper: Empirical research**First text page****INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY**

3

1 The Influence of Sex and Learning on Taste Sensitivity

The development of taste involves changes in taste preferences and aversions that are influenced by personal experiences. These can **2** vary among cultures, age groups, and sexes (Nakazato, Endo, Yoshimura, & Tomita, 2002; Tomita & Ikeda, 2002). Through various experiences with different taste stimuli, people develop taste acuity (Scahill & Mackintosh, 2004). Taste acuity allows people to distinguish between different flavors and determine their taste preferences and aversions (Tomita & Ikeda, 2002). Taste sensitivity allows people to detect the differences between various stimuli, such as electric or hot and cold, **3** through the nerves in the tongue (Nakazato et al., 2002). The detection and differentiation of taste stimuli determine how people perceive food and develop dietary habits.

4 The main purpose of this study was to determine if perceptual learning occurs in taste sensitivity by measuring taste thresholds in the tongue. An electrogustometer delivered electric stimuli to participants' tongues. (The threshold is the minimum amount of current required to discriminate between two short pulses of current.) Perceptual learning has been found in taste aversion research but, to my knowledge, has not been examined directly in taste sensitivity measured through electrogustometry. But Lobb, Elliffe, and Stillman (2000) did suspect learning when taste thresholds continued to decrease as testing progressed after the initial 10 sessions were omitted. Taste aversion studies have shown that participants demonstrated a learning effect as they gained exposure to electric stimuli (Bennett & Mackintosh, 1999; **5** Blair & Hall, 2003; Dwyer, Hodder, & Honey, 2004).

[Introduction continues with the writer's hypothesis and a review of the literature on various aspects of the writer's research.]

- 1** Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface. **2** First part of introduction provides background on writer's topic. **3** Second and subsequent citations to work with three to five authors use "et al." after first author's name. **4** Writer explains her purpose and establishes importance of her research in context of previous research. **5** Two or more sources in one parenthetical citation listed alphabetically and separated by semicolons.

Research paper: Empirical research**Text page****INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY**

7

model and determined that the electrogustometer had high test-retest reliability, but Lobb et al. (2000) found that electrogustometry test-retest reliability was questionable.

Method

1

Participants

2

Participants were recruited through the college resident assistant program. Each participant provided written consent prior to testing.

Taste sensitivity was studied in six young adults (three males, three females), ranging from 19 to 21 years of age, for one month with no more than one day separating sessions. There were a total of 15 testing sessions per participant. All participants were screened prior to testing and reported being nonsmokers with no current medication intake.

3

Materials

4

The Rion TR-06 electrogustometer with a 5-mm diameter stainless steel anode administered an electric stimulus directly to the tongue. The levels of electric current are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

5

Electrogustometry Currents for Testing Taste Sensitivity

6

dB	-6	-4	-2	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26
µA	4	5	6.4	8	10	13	16	20	25	32	44	50	64	80	100	136	170

Note. The electrogustometry currents are shown in dB on the dial of the Rion TR-06 electrogustometer. The corresponding µA levels are as given in Kuga, Ikeda, Suzuki, & Takeuchi (2002).

Procedure

7

Participants were instructed not to eat or drink anything besides water at least one hour prior to testing. During each trial, two low-level electric pulses were presented in quick succession to the same location

- 1** Method section begins with main heading, centered and boldface. **2** Second-level headings flush left and boldface. **3** All numbers under 10, including number of participants, spelled out. **4** Numbers for precise increments expressed in numerals with abbreviated units of measure. **5** Short table appears immediately following its mention in the text. **6** Table number and title appear above table; title italic. **7** Procedure section explains in detail how writer conducted the experiment.

Research paper: Empirical research**Text page****INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY**

8

on the tongue. One stimulus was a standard stimulus that remained constant at 4 µA, a very low current. The other stimulus was a test stimulus, which varied in intensity. All testing began with pulses at 4 µA and 13 µA. Participants responded by reporting which of the stimuli seemed stronger, generally through finger taps. Participants' tongues were tested on the four locations corresponding to the chorda tympani and glossopharyngeal nerves (front-left, front-right, back-left, back-right). Tongue locations were tested in the same sequence for every session, starting at the back-left and ending at the front-right. Stimulus duration was set at 0.5 s (Lobb et al., 2000). Sessions were held at approximately the same time of day for each participant throughout the study.

After participants reported five consecutive correct responses (identifying which stimulus seemed stronger), a "reversal" occurred—the test stimulus became higher or lower than the previous test stimulus. For all reversals after the first, the strength of the test stimulus increased after one inaccurate response and decreased after two accurate responses (Frank, Hettinger, Barry, Gent, & Doty, 2003;

- 1** Miller, Mirza, & Doty, 2002). Electric stimulation continued until seven **2** reversals occurred per location (Miller et al., 2002).

Statistical Analysis

Taste thresholds were calculated for each participant using the geometric mean of the last four reversals in each session (Ajdukovic, 1991). Two analyses of variance (ANOVA) for repeated measures were **3** used. The first $2 \times 2 \times 15$ design was used to determine the effect and interactions of tongue location (back-front), sex (male-female), and number of sessions. The second $2 \times 2 \times 15$ design was used to determine the effect and interaction of tongue location (back left-right), sex, and number of sessions.

- 1** For first reference to sources with three to five authors, all authors' names are given. **2** For subsequent references to sources with three to five authors, the first author's name is followed by "et al." **3** Writer uses familiar terminology in the field and standard notation ($2 \times 2 \times 15$) to describe experiment design.

Research paper: Empirical research

Text page

INFLUENCES ON TASTE SENSITIVITY

9

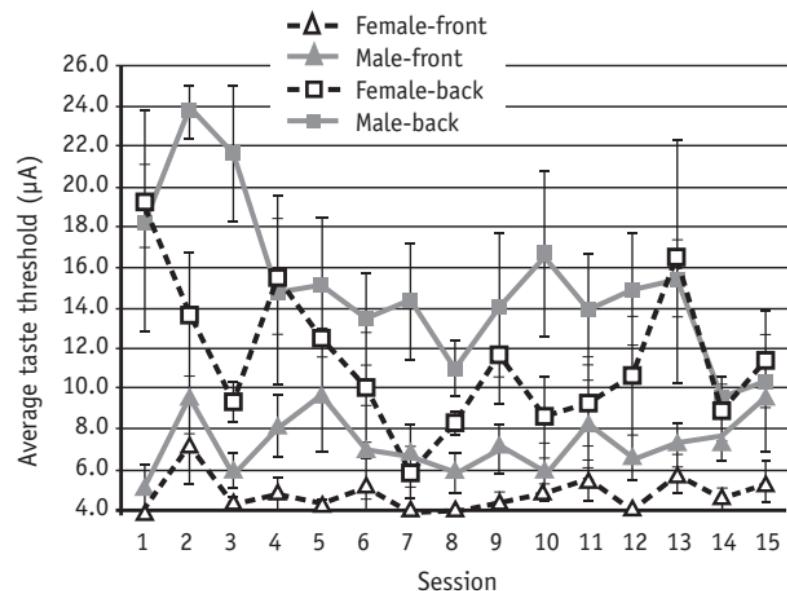


Figure 1. Perceptual learning in taste sensitivity in males and females, for front and back tongue locations. Error bars represent standard errors.

Results

The taste thresholds across trials for males and females in the back and front tongue locations are shown in Figure 1. Across sessions, taste thresholds (that is, the minimum current required to determine the difference between two pulses) decreased for males and females in the back tongue locations. A repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a main effect of session, $F(1, 14) = 4.603, p = 0.000$, and location, $F(1, 1) = 22.843, p = 0.009$. There was also an interaction between session and

[Paper continues with the discussion section, which interprets the results of the experiment in the context of previous research, and ends with a reference list.]

1 Figure presents data graphically for part of experiment.

2 Figure number and caption appear below figure. 3 Results section analyzes the data and uses figures to present the data graphically. 4 Writer uses standard notation to analyze data.

12c Research paper: Qualitative methodology (sociology)

Bradley Zopf undertook a qualitative study for a sociology seminar. His methods included observing young African American males and interviewing them about their clothing choices. Because his research involved human participants, he received approval from his school's institutional review board (IRB; see 2f).

Research paper: Qualitative methodology

Title page

1 Running head: AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS

1 2

3 African American Males' Perceptions of Urban
and Hip-Hop Styles of Dress
Bradley J. Zopf
University of Chicago

4 Author Note

Bradley Zopf, SOCI 31600, Seminar: Social Stratification, Professor Edward Laumann, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago.
Faculty adviser: Edward Laumann; preceptor: Kim Babon.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered.
- 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate **APA-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Research paper: Qualitative methodology

Abstract

AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS

2 1

Abstract

2

African American males are often stereotyped as rebellious because of the clothing they wear. Because these stereotypes are often held by authority figures (teachers, parents, police), there is little research about how African American males perceive their choice of clothing styles. Therefore, the question "Is the urban wear or hip-hop style of clothing a result of an African American oppositional culture or a result of purchasing choices?" has yet to be answered from the perspective of African American males themselves. Research suggesting that African Americans form a distinct collective identity, or oppositional culture, has argued that African Americans formulate a conscious resistance to conforming to white standards of conduct, dress, and behavior. However, in interviews with 20 African American males, I found that respondents reported that their clothing styles are a matter of personal preference, a desire to look presentable, and a way to express their unique sense of style.

3

Keywords: African American males, clothing, stereotypes, oppositional culture, urban culture, hip-hop style

4

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Abstract appears on separate page; heading centered and not boldface. **3** Abstract is 150-to-250-word overview of paper. **4** Keywords (optional) help readers search for a paper online or in a database.

Research paper: Qualitative methodology**Method****AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS**

8

[The paper begins with a review of the literature, followed by the method section.]

Method

- 1 For this research, I conducted 20 interviews with African American males between the ages of 18 and 35, with the average age being 27, in downtown Chicago, IL. I asked African American males about their views on clothing styles, specifically if they considered themselves to have a style and how they perceive hip-hop or urban wear styles. Questions concerning their clothing styles during their teenage years were a means to understand if, how, and why older males changed their preferred clothing styles. Since the focus of the research was to analyze how hip-hop and urban styles are or are not forms of oppositional behavior, African American males were the target group. Because this group is the most likely demographic to wear such clothing and therefore experience the stereotypes that are attached to these styles, it was important to understand how African American males themselves thought of their own styles, the hip-hop and urban styles in general, and the stereotypes.
- 2 I conducted the interviews in person on State Street in downtown and tape-recorded 19 of 20 to ensure accuracy. I selected subjects through an informal screening process attempting to diversify the subjects' styles. In other words, I attempted to interview both those I perceived as wearing hip-hop or urban-style clothing as well as those wearing conventional business casual and business formal attire.
- 3 The sample, therefore, was a convenience sample purposely biased to select subjects wearing a wide range of dress styles. While this type of sampling does not yield a random sample, the goal was to find exploratory information that will allow for a future project concerning consumption, clothing styles, and African Americans.

- 1 Method section describes writer's research design—the sample and the setting where interviews took place. 2 First person and active voice (*I conducted*) used when appropriate rather than third person and passive (*Subjects were selected*). 3 Writer uses terminology from the discipline (such as *convenience sample*) and explains his choice of method.

Research paper: Qualitative methodology**Method****AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS**

9

All interviews were conducted between March and June of 2006 in downtown Chicago. Most interviews lasted around 10 minutes, but a few were longer. I approached potential participants and identified myself as a student at the University of Chicago completing a study on clothing styles and fashion. Informed consent was obtained verbally and recorded on tape.

With the convenience sample, a few problems did arise. 1 Specifically, most interviews were conducted on weekdays because the streets on the weekends were so busy and crowded that few people were willing to stop and talk. Most interviews took place between 9:00 a.m. and 6:00 p.m.; therefore, the late evening and night crowds were not interviewed. Location was also somewhat problematic as South State Street is dominated by DePaul University, so an overrepresentation of DePaul students and workers may have confounded my sample. I attempted to correct for this by conducting several interviews on North State Street, but most of the interviews did come from the southern location.

Other potential issues were that I often did not approach people in groups, people wearing headphones, and people using cell phones. These people, when approached, were less likely to consent to being interviewed. Other self-selection biases were also present because potential participants could choose to participate or not.

Also, the memory of older participants about what they wore in high school could have been affected by the passage of time. Many of the older participants may have suffered from memory bias; however, most of the 20 respondents provided clear and descriptive information about their high school clothing styles and why they chose them.

Finally, the interviewer himself being a Caucasian male might have caused some respondents to withhold certain comments directed at

1 Writer acknowledges limitations of his method.

Research paper: Qualitative methodology**Method****AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS**

10

white society or white people in general. While this did not seem to be the case, as most participants seemed to talk freely, there is the possibility that respondents chose not to characterize their style as oppositional because the interviewer was white.

1 The face-to-face interview method, however, was most appropriate for this type of research. It gave me the ability to draw out answers from participants as well as to ask them to describe their answers in greater detail. For example, when participants talked about casual clothing, hip-hop clothing, or urban wear, I could ask them to further describe what they meant by their answers as well as why they gave those answers. This research focused on the African American males' perspective on clothing styles, and the interview technique was most appropriate because it allowed the participants to explain responses at a broader and more descriptive level.

[The paper continues with a results section, a discussion section, and a reference list, ending with the two appendices shown on pages 69–70.]

1 After discussing limitations of his method, writer explains why method was appropriate and effective.

Research paper: Qualitative methodology

Appendix

AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS

18

Appendix A

Interview Questions

1. Do you consider yourself to have a particular style of clothing?
Please describe.
2. When you were in high school, did you have a similar or different style?
3. Why do you think it has changed or not changed?
4. Are you familiar with urban wear or hip-hop styles of clothing?
5. Do you consider the two styles to be similar or different? Why?
6. Could you please describe what the urban wear style is?
Hip-hop style?
7. What types of clothes are they?
8. Who typically wears these types of clothing?
9. Do you think that people who wear these types of clothing are stereotyped? If so, how and why?
10. What is the most important aspect of a person's style? Why is it important to have a style, or is it not important?

Additional follow-up questions were asked on the basis of interviewee responses.

1 Appendices provide information relevant to the study that is not appropriate in body of paper. **2** Each appendix starts on new page. The letters "A," "B," and so on are used to label appendices. Label and title centered, not boldface.

Research paper: Qualitative methodology**Appendix**

AFRICAN AMERICAN MALES' PERCEPTIONS OF DRESS

19

Appendix B

Participant Characteristics

Number of respondents: 20

Range of ages of respondents: 18-35

Average age of respondents: 27

1 Descriptions of Interviews**Interview 1, April 5, 2006**

African American male, 25

Wearing fitted jeans, dark khaki jacket, polo shirt, casual black dress shoes, earring in left ear, and no sunglasses or hat

Interview 2, April 5, 2006

African American male, 18

Wearing oversized red and black Sean John jacket, zipped and visible gold chain, fitted NY Yankees hat, black Timberland boots, and black baggy jeans

Interview 3, April 12, 2006

African American male, 30

Wearing white long-sleeve cotton shirt, baggy jeans, and white tennis shoes

Interview 4, April 12, 2006

African American male, 34

Wearing saggy jeans, baseball cap, gold necklace, Bulls jacket, and multiple T-shirts

Interview 5, April 21, 2006

African American male, 22

Wearing casual dress shoes, fitted jeans, and a white T-shirt

Interview 6, April 21, 2006

African American male, 35

Wearing long-sleeve white T-shirt, jeans, and Timberland construction boots

1 Appendix presents relevant observations about each participant.

12d Analytical essay (sociology)

For a course in sociological theory, Hannah Elwell's assignment was to write an essay using several of Karl Marx's concepts and ideas to explain Walmart's economic success. Elwell's analysis draws on Marx's theories of exploitation of waged labor and fetishism of commodities.

Analytical essay

Title page

1 Running head: SECRET OF WALMART'S SUCCESS: A MARXIAN ANALYSIS 1 2

The Secret of Walmart's Success: A Marxian Analysis

3

Hannah Elwell

University of Southern Maine

Author Note

4

This paper was prepared for SOC 300, Sociological Theory, taught by Professor Cheryl Laz.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered. 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate APA-style formatting and effective writing.)

Analytical essay

First text page

1 SECRET OF WALMART'S SUCCESS: A MARXIAN ANALYSIS 2**2** The Secret of Walmart's Success: A Marxian Analysis**3** What do big-screen TVs, bar soap, plastic building blocks, and strawberry toaster pastries have in common? All of these seemingly**4** disparate items—along with many more—can be found on the shelves of your local Walmart. The retail chain offers a stunning variety of consumer goods and groceries all under one roof, from electronics to apparel to cleaning supplies to frozen food. Walmart also offers certain services along with its products. A number of stores contain their own hair salons, photography studios, auto centers, or pharmacies, and some even provide health care, boasting walk-in clinics and vision centers where customers can receive eye examinations and other routine clinical services from independent health care professionals.

In every sense, Walmart is a massive corporation. The buildings that house the shelves full of consumer goods are colossal, with the average Walmart Supercenter measuring 185,000 square feet ("About

5 Us," n.d.). Walmart stores are large not just in size but also in number: There are more than nine thousand stores across 15 different countries, and they collectively employ 2.1 million people ("Walmart Stores," 2011). As the world's largest company, Walmart is enormously successful and powerful. Writer Charles Fishman (2007) noted in his article "The Wal-Mart You Don't Know"¹ that the retailer "does more business than Target, Sears, Kmart, J.C. Penney, Safeway, and Kroger combined."

So what is the secret to its economic success? Although Walmart is a modern phenomenon, the answer to this question can be found in the nineteenth-century teachings of one of modern economics' most influential thinkers, Karl Marx. From a Marxian perspective, Walmart can be seen as the epitome of capitalism. Its success is born from the

6 ¹In 2008, Wal-Mart changed the name of its stores to Walmart.**1** Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface.**3** Short analytical essay often does not require an abstract or headings. **4** Writer begins with engaging description. **5** Source with no author cited in text with first word or two of title; "n.d." for source with no date. **6** Footnote provides important explanation without interrupting text.

Analytical essay

Text page

SECRET OF WALMART'S SUCCESS: A MARXIAN ANALYSIS

3

exploitation of waged labor and the fetishism of commodities—two defining aspects of our modern capitalist, consumer culture.

1

The capitalist system is marked by a concentration of wealth and resources—instead of being equally divided among all members of society, wealth and resources end up in the hands of a select few (the bourgeoisie), who then gain control over those with little or no resources (the proletariat), thus creating class antagonism between the two. In *The Communist Manifesto*, Marx (1848/2011) noted that industrial society was characterized by a “distinct feature: it has simplified class antagonisms: Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other: bourgeoisie and proletariat” (p. 53).

2

It is important to note that as a corporation and not a group of people, Walmart does not have any actual class interests of its own. However, those who stand to make a profit from Walmart's capitalist enterprises are certainly members of the bourgeoisie and thus are representatives of that class. Similarly, those who work for Walmart are members of the proletariat. Thus, Walmart becomes a perfect example of the class antagonism that Marx described in *The Communist Manifesto*.

3

An examination of the ways in which these two classes work against each other is key to understanding how Walmart is so profitable. In *Capital*, Marx (1867/2011) explained the difference between the ways in which the owners (the bourgeoisie) and the workers (the proletariat) relate to capital when he noted that “the circulation of commodities is the starting-point of capital” (p. 73). However, for the bourgeoisie and the proletariat, the form that this circulation takes is markedly different. For the proletariat, it can be illustrated by the formula C-M-C: exchanging a commodity (C) for money (M) and then exchanging that money for another commodity (C). For the bourgeoisie,

1 Thesis sets up organization around two Marxian concepts.

2 For republished work, date of original publication is given before date of publication of current source. **3** Topic sentence provides transition to fuller explanation of “class antagonism.”

Analytical essay

Text page

SECRET OF WALMART'S SUCCESS: A MARXIAN ANALYSIS

4

the formula changes to M-C-M', or exchanging money for a commodity that is then exchanged for more money (M'). Marx elaborated on this distinction:

- 1 The circuit C-M-C starts with one commodity, and finishes with another, which falls out of circulation and into consumption. Consumption, the satisfaction of wants, in one word, use-value, is its end and aim. The circuit M-C-M, on the contrary, commences with money and ends with money. Its leading motive, and the
 - 2 goal that attracts it, is therefore mere exchange-value. (p. 74)
- Of course, the bourgeoisie is not simply exchanging one sum of money for the same sum of money, but rather for a greater sum. In the case of the M-C-M' circuit, in Marx's words, "More money is withdrawn from circulation at the finish than was thrown into it at the start. . . .
- 3 The . . . process is therefore M-C-M' . . . the original sum advanced, plus an increment. This increment or excess over the original value I call 'surplus-value'" (p. 74).

This surplus-value is how Walmart makes its profit—spending money to get commodities and then selling the commodities for a higher price. The secret to this formula is production. Producers, or suppliers, do not simply buy a commodity and then somehow sell that same commodity back at a higher price. Rather, they buy commodities—for example, cloth, thread, and cotton stuffing—and with them produce a new commodity—perhaps a throw pillow—that they can then sell for a new, higher price. As a retailer, Walmart does not produce its own commodities, so it does in fact buy and then sell the same commodities (the throw pillows, for example) at a profit. It counts on its suppliers for the actual production work. Walmart also counts on its suppliers (or rather, pressures them very strongly) to keep the cost of their production work low so that Walmart can make a profit from the

1 Quotation of 40 or more words indented without quotation marks. **2** Page number in parentheses after the final period.
3 Ellipsis mark indicates words omitted from source.

Analytical essay**Reference list**

SECRET OF WALMART'S SUCCESS: A MARXIAN ANALYSIS	8
References	1
About us. (n.d.). <i>Walmart corporate</i> . Retrieved from http://walmartstores.com/AboutUs/7606.aspx	2
Fishman, C. (2007, December 19). The Wal-Mart you don't know. <i>Fast Company</i> . Retrieved from http://www.fastcompany.com/magazine/77/walmart.html	3
Marx, K. (2011). <i>Capital</i> . In S. Appelrouth & L. D. Edles, <i>Classical and contemporary sociological theory</i> (pp. 63-76). Los Angeles, CA: Pine Forge Press. (Original work published 1867)	4
Marx, K. (2011). <i>The Communist manifesto</i> . In S. Appelrouth & L. D. Edles, <i>Classical and contemporary sociological theory</i> (pp. 50-63). Los Angeles, CA: Pine Forge Press. (Original work published 1848)	5
Marx, K. (2011). <i>Economic and philosophic manuscripts of 1844</i> . In S. Appelrouth & L. D. Edles, <i>Classical and contemporary sociological theory</i> (pp. 41-50). Los Angeles, CA: Pine Forge Press. (Original work published 1844)	6
Walmart Stores, Inc. data sheet: Worldwide unit details. (2011, April). <i>Walmart corporate</i> . Retrieved from http://walmartstores.com/pressroom/news/10594.aspx	

- 1** List of references on new page; heading centered and not boldface. **2** Abbreviation “n.d.” used for source with no date of publication or update. **3** List alphabetized by authors’ last names or titles (for works with no authors). First line of each entry flush left; subsequent lines indented $\frac{1}{2}$ ”. Double-spaced throughout. **4** Authors’ names inverted, with initials for first name(s). **5** For older work contained in recent work, date of original publication given in parentheses at end of entry. **6** Two or more works by one author in same year alphabetized by title.

12e Annotated bibliography (economics)

Katie Niemeyer, a student in an intermediate macroeconomics course, prepared a reference list for a paper on the implications of Keynesian policy for the U.S. economy. She annotated each reference list entry by summarizing the source and then evaluating how it would apply to the topic of her paper.

Annotated bibliography

First page

1 Running head: KEYNESIAN POLICY: IMPLICATIONS FOR U.S. CRISIS 1 2

3 Katie Niemeyer

Professor Brent McClintock

2520 Intermediate Macroeconomics

4 Keynesian Policy: Implications for the Current U.S. Economic Crisis

5 Auerbach, A. J., Gale, W. G., & Harris, B. H. (2010). Activist fiscal policy.

Journal of Economic Perspectives, 24(4), 141-164.

6 This article provides a historical review of U.S. fiscal policy in the last 30 years, including the activist policy decisions made by the Obama administration in the economic crisis starting in 2008. The authors chart the government's economic tactics through time—from previous government policies of fiscal restraint to the current activist policy that supports the private sector. The article provides specific information about President Obama's American Recovery and Restoration Act and the Making Work Pay Credit. It addresses the concerns and support for such policy decisions by fiscally conservative classical economists as well as proponents of Keynesian activist policies.

Bergsten, C. F. (2005). *The United States and the world economy*.

Washington, DC: Institute for International Economics.

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on first page only.

2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Writer's name, instructor, and course title, flush left. 4 Full title, centered and not boldface.

5 Each entry begins at left margin; subsequent lines indented $\frac{1}{2}$ ".

6 Entire annotation indented $\frac{1}{2}$ "; first line indented additional $\frac{1}{2}$ ".

(Annotations indicate APA-style formatting and effective writing.)

Annotated bibliography**Text page****KEYNESIAN POLICY: IMPLICATIONS FOR U.S. CRISIS**

2 1

Bergsten's book offers figures and graphs that will support my points about the productivity boom of the 1990s and the expansion of U.S. participation in the world economy. Figure 2 demonstrates the positive role the microprocessor played in U.S. economic expansion in the 1990s by showing the contribution of information technology to GDP. Figure 3 demonstrates the incredible increase in U.S. trade since 1960 owing to productivity growth and economic deregulation of the global market. It graphically shows that the U.S. trade/GDP ratio tripled from the 1960s to 2003.

Courtois, R. (2009, April). *What we do and don't know about discretionary fiscal policy* (Report No. EB09-04). Retrieved from the Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond website: http://www.richmondfed.org/publications/research/economic_brief/2009/pdf/eb_09-04.pdf

This economic brief published by the Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond outlines the United States' expansive use of discretionary fiscal policy in the current economic crisis, while at the same time explaining why classical economists disagree with such measures. Supporting the nondiscretionary tendencies of classical theorists, Courtois (2009) wrote, "The current recession was not identified as such by the National Bureau of Economic Research until December 2008, a full year after it began" (p. 3). The discussion of specific concerns with the Obama administration's stimulus packages and discretionary fiscal policy, in both the long and the short run, can help me present multiple viewpoints in my paper.

[Writer continues with five more annotated sources.]

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right on all pages. **2** Writer assesses how source will be useful in her paper. **3** Double-spaced throughout.

4 Quotation captures major point of report; writer includes page number for direct quotation.

12f Laboratory report (psychology)

Allison Leigh Johnson conducted a cognition experiment for a laboratory assignment in a psychology course. Her experiment focused on participants' reaction times in detecting objects in a variety of situations. Because this experiment was conducted in a classroom setting, Johnson did not have to seek approval from an institutional review board (IRB; see 2f).

Laboratory report	Title page
-------------------	------------

- 1 Running head: REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS 1 2

3 Reaction Times for Detection of Objects in Two Visual Search Tasks

Allison Leigh Johnson

Carthage College

4 Author Note

Allison Leigh Johnson, Department of Psychology, Carthage College. This research was conducted for Psychology 2300, Cognition: Theories and Application, taught by Professor Leslie Cameron.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered. 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate **APA-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Laboratory report

Abstract

REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS

2 1

Abstract

2

Visual detection of an object can be automatic or can require attention. The reaction time varies depending on the type of search task being performed. In this visual search experiment, 3 independent variables were tested: type of search, number of distractors, and presence or absence of a target. A feature search contains distractors notably different from the target, while a conjunctive search contains distractors with features similar to the target. For this experiment, 14 Carthage College students participated in a setting of their choice. A green circle was the target. During the feature search, reaction times were similar regardless of the number of distractors and the presence or absence of the target. In the conjunctive search, the number of distractors and the presence or absence of the target affected reaction times. This visual search experiment supports the idea that feature searches are automatic and conjunctive searches require attention from the viewer.

3

4

Keywords: visual search, cognition, feature search, conjunctive search

5

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. 2 Abstract appears on separate page; heading centered and not boldface. 3 Numerals used for all numbers in abstract, even those under 10. 4 Abstract is 150-to-250-word overview of paper. 5 Keywords (optional) help readers search for a paper online or in a database.

Laboratory report**First text page****REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS**

3

- 1** Reaction Times for Detection of Objects in Two Visual Search Tasks
- 2** Vision is one of the five senses, and it is the sense trusted most by humans (Reisberg, 2010). We use our vision for everything. We are always looking for things, whether it is where we are going or finding a friend at a party. Our vision detects the object(s) we are looking for. Some objects
- 3** are easier to detect than others. Spotting your sister wearing a purple shirt in a crowd of boring white shirts is automatic and can be done with ease. However, if your sister was also wearing a white shirt, it would take much time and attention to spot her in that same crowd.

The “pop out effect” describes the quick identification of an object being searched for because of its salient features (Reeves, 2007). When you look for your sister wearing a purple shirt, for example, you use the pop out effect for quick identification. The pop out effect works when attention is drawn to a specific object that is different from the surrounding objects.

Two types of searches are used to scan an environment, the feature search and the conjunctive search (Reeves, 2007). The feature search is simply scanning the environment for the feature or features of a target. The conjunctive search is scanning for a combination of features (Reeves, 2007). Other objects that possess one of the features being searched for are called *distracters*. Distracters, as the name suggests, draw one’s attention away from the target. When one object is being searched for in a sea of repetitious different objects, the target is easily found because it is unique. As more distracters are added, the time to detect the target increases (Wolfe, 1998).

Treisman’s (1986) feature integration theory explained that single-feature searches are easy because they are automatic and that attention is required when more features are added because these items must be mentally constructed. This is demonstrated in visual

1 Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface. **2** Introduction briefly describes previous research on topic and provides background on writer’s experiment. **3** Writer uses second-person pronouns (*you, your*) in an everyday example to explain a complex concept.

Laboratory report**Text page****REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS**

4

search experiments. The purpose of a visual search experiment is for the participant to identify the target as fast as possible. In my visual search experiment, the target was a green circle. The hypothesis of the experiment was that the green circle would be easier to detect in a feature search than in a conjunctive search because, according to Treisman's theory, attention is needed for the latter task.

Method

2

Participants

3

Fourteen Carthage College undergraduates participated. Four were male. All were 19 to 21 years old.

Materials

4

The experiment was conducted in an environment of each participant's choice, typically in a classroom or library, using the ZAPS online psychology laboratory (2004).

Procedure

5

In the feature search, orange squares were the distracters, and a green circle was the target. The conjunctive search contained distracters of orange circles, green squares, and orange squares, with the green circle as the target. For every trial under both searches, either four, 16, or 64 stimuli were present on the screen. If the green circle was present, the participant pressed the *M* key, and if it was not present the *C* key. There were 24 trials for each search, and feedback was given by the online program after each.

Variables

6

The three independent variables were number of distracters present, type of search, and presence or absence of the target. The dependent variable was the reaction time.

Results

6

The reaction times in the feature search were constant regardless

1 Hypothesis at end of introduction. **2** Method heading (first-level heading) centered and boldface. **3** Method section presents details about how writer conducted her experiment.

4 Second-level headings flush left and boldface. **5** Numerals for all numbers greater than 10; numbers below 10 spelled out.

6 Results section describes data writer collected.

Laboratory report**Text page****REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS**

5

of the presence of the target and the number of distractors. The reaction times varied in the conjunctive search depending on the presence of the target and the number of distractors. Reaction times increased as the number of distractors increased, and reaction times

- 1** were longer when the target was not present. Figure 1 shows the reaction times based on the three independent variables.

2 Discussion

The way the three variables interacted greatly affected the times needed by participants to find the target. The data in Figure 1 show similar reaction times for the feature search and varying reaction times for the conjunctive search. In the feature search, the reaction times, regardless of the two variables, were constant. In the conjunctive search, the reaction times were higher when there were more distractors and even higher when the target was not present. Without the target, participants scanned most of the screen to try to detect the green circle, which is more time-consuming than when the target is present. Reaction times also increased as the number of distractors increased.

- 3** The results were primarily as expected. In Wolfe's (1998) study of visual search, the slope of the feature search graph was significantly lower than the slopes of the conjunctive search graphs. The slower reaction time shown in Figure 1 for the conjunctive search is consistent **4** with Wolfe's findings. The results of this visual search experiment provide more evidence of the difference between the two types of searches found in previous studies. The results support Treisman's (1986) feature integration theory. Detecting a target among distractors in the feature search is automatic—attention is not necessary. Treisman also stated that to detect a target among two or more distractors, attention is needed to piece together all of the features. This "mental

1 Writer explains results in text and presents numerical results graphically in figure. **2** Discussion section analyzes and interprets results of experiment. **3** Writer analyzes data in context of her hypothesis and other researchers' results. **4** When author is cited two (or more) times in text of one paragraph, date is not included in parentheses in subsequent citations.

Laboratory report**Text page****REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS**

6

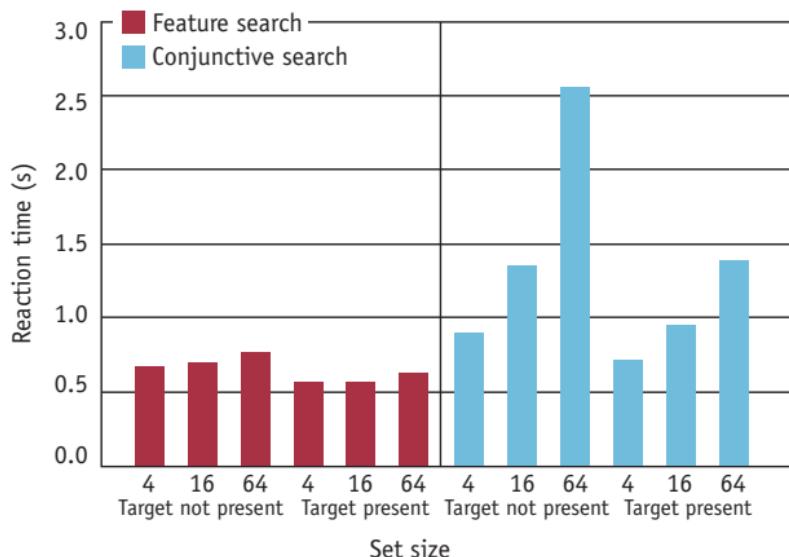


Figure 1. Reaction time based on the type of search, number of distractors (set size), and presence or absence of the target. Total experiments: 14; collected trials: 702.

2

3

gluing" of features requires attention, which in turn takes time. This is also shown in Figure 1. The reaction times, as predicted by Treisman's theory, increased when the number of distracters increased. Visual search explains why searching for clothes, people, cars, and so on takes various amounts of time depending on the target. It takes less time, because of automaticity, to detect a target with a single, standout feature than it would to detect a target with a number of features.

My study, however, does not account for the position of the target and the distracters on the screen. The position of the target could alter the reaction times if, for example, the target was always near the top where a person would most likely start scanning the environment. More

4

1 Figure presents experiment data in bar graph. **2** Figure title and caption below figure. **3** Figure caption includes brief description of source of data. **4** Writer discusses limitations of her experiment and suggests other variables that might be investigated.

Laboratory report**Text page****REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS**

7

visual search experiments could include more distracters or even change distracters to see how the reaction times differ. This experiment covered only two varying objects and shapes, a fairly simple environment.

- 1** More complex visual search experiments could further investigate the theory Treisman (1986) believed applies to all searches. My experiment did not account for the difference between eye movement and head movement to search for the stimulus, a factor that could change the reaction times. Future experiments could explore these factors to test whether Treisman's theory applies in all situations.

- 1** Writer suggests directions for future research.

Laboratory report**Reference list**

REACTION TIMES IN TWO VISUAL SEARCH TASKS

8

References

1

Reeves, R. (2007). *The Norton psychology labs workbook*. New York, NY: Norton.

2

Reisberg, D. (2010). *Cognition: Exploring the science of the mind*. New York, NY: Norton.

Treisman, A. (1986). Features and objects in visual processing. *Scientific American*, 255, 114-125.

3

Wolfe, J. M. (1998). What do 1,000,000 trials tell us about visual search? *Psychological Science*, 9, 33-39.

4

ZAPS: *The Norton psychology labs*. (2004). Retrieved from
<http://wwwnorton.com/ZAPS/>

5

- 1** List of references on new page; heading centered and not boldface. **2** List alphabetized by authors' last names, corporate names, or titles (for works with no authors). **3** Authors' names inverted, with initials for first name(s). **4** First line of each entry flush left; subsequent lines indented $\frac{1}{2}$ ". **5** Double-spaced throughout.

12g Administrative report (criminology/criminal justice)

For a course on crime and crime policy, Chris Thompson was asked to write a report on crime in his hometown, as if he were briefing a new chief of police. Thompson's report presents and analyzes local crime statistics and compares the town's data to federal crime statistics.

Administrative report

Title page

1 Running head: CRIME IN LEESBURG, VIRGINIA

1 2

3 Crime in Leesburg, Virginia
Chris Thompson
George Mason University

4 Author Note

This paper was prepared for Administration of Justice 305: Crime Policy, taught by Professor Devon Johnson.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered.
- 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate **APA-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Administrative report**First text page****CRIME IN LEESBURG, VIRGINIA**

2 1

Crime in Leesburg, Virginia

2

This report reviews crime statistics in Leesburg, Virginia, to familiarize the new police chief with the town and offer some suggestions about where to focus law enforcement resources. It analyzes local and national statistics from the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) for the United States and for Leesburg and offers a basic assessment of the town's needs to provide a useful snapshot for the chief of police.

3

Description of Leesburg, Virginia

4

Leesburg, Virginia, is a suburb of Washington, DC, 40 miles to the northwest. In 2008, its population was 39,899 (U.S. Department of Justice, 2009, Table 8). Like many northern Virginia and southern Maryland communities, it serves as a suburban bedroom community to those employed in the nation's capital. The town has grown significantly in the last three decades.

5

Leesburg's population is predominantly middle and upper middle class, with a median household income 75% higher than the national average (Town of Leesburg, Virginia, 2009a). Leesburg is populated by young (median age 32.3), well-educated (about 50% with a bachelor's degree, about 17% with an advanced degree) citizens; half are white-collar professionals (Town of Leesburg, Virginia, 2009a).

The Leesburg Police Department has 77 sworn officers, operates 24 hours a day, and uses numerous special teams and modern law enforcement techniques. The department has divided the city into three patrol areas to address the specific needs of each zone (Town of Leesburg, Virginia, 2009b).

Nature and Extent of Crime in Leesburg, Virginia

6

Tables 1 and 2 show the FBI's UCR statistics for 2008. Table 1 contains statistics for Leesburg and the United States, and Table 2

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface. **3** Introduction gives purpose of report and acknowledges audience. **4** Main headings (first level headings), centered and boldface, define major sections of report. **5** Demographic information provides background for statistics in next section. **6** Writer refers in text to data tables.

Administrative report**Text page****CRIME IN LEESBURG, VIRGINIA**

3

1 Table 1

Crime Rates, by Crime, in Leesburg, Virginia, and in the United States, 2008

2 Offense type	Leesburg		United States	
	No. reported offenses	Rate per 100,000 inhabitants	No. reported offenses	Rate per 100,000 inhabitants
Violent crime				
Forcible rape	7	17.5	89,000	29.3
Murder and nonnegligent manslaughter	1	2.5	16,272	5.4
Robbery	22	55.1	441,855	145.3
Aggravated assault	29	72.7	834,885	274.6
Total violent crime	59	147.8	1,382,012	454.5
Property crime				
Larceny theft	715	1,792	6,588,873	2,167
Burglary	62	155.4	2,222,196	730.8
Vehicle theft	25	62.7	956,846	314.7
Total property crime	802	2,010	9,767,915	3,212.5

Note. The data for Leesburg, Virginia, are from U.S. Department of Justice (2009), Table 8. The data for the United States are from U.S. Department of Justice (2009), Table 1.

presents the crime rate in Leesburg as a percentage of the national average. A discussion of the accuracy of the UCR is on page 5.

3 Crime Rates in Leesburg Compared With the National Average

The following list of index crimes compares their rates in Leesburg, Virginia (first value), with the national average (second value). In general, the crime rate in Leesburg is lower than it is across the country. This may be due in part to the demographics of the town's residents and the commuter-oriented suburban nature of the community.

1 Table number and title above table; table title italic. **2** Clearly labeled data categories reinforce writer's purpose. **3** Main section of report analyzes details from tables. Section is divided into subsections, with second-level headings (not shown), that discuss the specific crime statistics listed in Table 1.

12h Clinical practice paper (nursing)

Julie Riss, a student in a nursing class focused on clinical experience, wrote a practice paper in which she provides a detailed client history, her assessment of the client's condition, nursing diagnoses of the client's health issues, her own recommendations for interventions, and her rationales for the interventions.

Nursing practice paper

Title page

1 Running head: ALL AND HTN IN ONE CLIENT

1 2

Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia and Hypertension in One Client:

3

A Nursing Practice Paper

Julie Riss

George Mason University

Author Note

4

This paper was prepared for Nursing 451, taught by Professor Durham. The author wishes to thank the nursing staff of Milltown General Hospital for help in understanding client care and diagnosis.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words "Running head" and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer's name and affiliation, centered. 4 Author's note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate APA-style formatting and effective writing.)

Nursing practice paper**First text page****1 ALL AND HTN IN ONE CLIENT**

2

**2 Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia and Hypertension in One Client:
A Nursing Practice Paper****3 Historical and Physical Assessment****4 Physical History**

E.B. is a 16-year-old white male 5'10" tall weighing 190 lb. He was admitted to the hospital on April 14, 2006, due to decreased platelets and a need for a PRBC transfusion. He was diagnosed in October 2005 with T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), after a 2-week period

5 of decreased energy, decreased oral intake, easy bruising, and petechia. The client had experienced a 20-lb weight loss in the previous 6 months. At the time of diagnosis, his CBC showed a WBC count of 32, an H & H of 13/38, and a platelet count of 34,000. He began induction chemotherapy on October 12, 2005, receiving vincristine, 6-mercaptopurine, doxorubicin, intrathecal methotrexate, and then high-dose methotrexate per protocol. During his hospital stay he required packed red cells and platelets on two different occasions. He was diagnosed with hypertension (HTN) due to systolic blood pressure readings consistently ranging between 130s and 150s and was started on nifedipine. E.B. has a history of mild ADHD, migraines, and deep vein thrombosis (DVT). He has tolerated the induction and consolidation phases of chemotherapy well and is now in the maintenance phase.

6 Psychosocial History

There is a possibility of a depressive episode a year previously when he would not attend school. He got into serious trouble and was sent to a shelter for 1 month. He currently lives with his mother, father, and 14-year-old sister.

Family History

Paternal: prostate cancer and hypertension in grandfather

Maternal: breast cancer and heart disease

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface.

3 First-level heading, boldface and centered. **4** Second-level heading, boldface and flush left. **5** Writer's summary of client's medical history. **6** Headings guide readers and define sections.

Nursing practice paper**Text page**

ALL AND HTN IN ONE CLIENT

3

Current Assessment

1

Client's physical exam reveals him to be alert and oriented to person, place, and time. He communicates, though not readily. His speech and vision are intact. He has an equal grip bilaterally and can move all extremities, though he is generally weak. Capillary refill is less than 2 s. His peripheral pulses are strong and equal, and he is positive for posterior tibial and dorsalis pedis bilaterally. His lungs are clear to auscultation, his respiratory rate is 16, and his oxygen saturation is 99% on room air. He has positive bowel sounds in all quadrants, and his abdomen is soft, round, and nontender. He is on a regular diet, but his appetite has been poor. Client is voiding appropriately, and his urine is clear and yellow. He appears pale and is unkempt. His skin is warm, dry, and intact. He has alopecia as a result of chemotherapy. His mediport site has no redness or inflammation. He appears somber and is slow to comply with nursing instructions.

[The writer includes two sections, not shown, describing the client's diagnoses.]

Rationale for Orders

3

Vital signs are monitored every four hours per unit standard. In addition, the client's hypertension is an indication for close monitoring of blood pressure. He has generalized weakness, so fall precautions should be implemented. Though he is weak, ambulation is important, especially considering the client's history of DVT. A regular diet is ordered—I'm not sure why the client is not on a low-sodium diet, given his hypertension. Intake and output monitoring is standard on the unit. His hematological status needs to be carefully monitored due to his anemia and thrombocytopenia; therefore he has a CBC with manual differential done each morning. In addition, his hematological status is checked posttransfusion to see if the blood and platelets he receives

1 Detailed assessment of client. **2** Writer uses neutral tone and appropriate medical terminology. **3** Physiology, prescribed treatments, and nursing practices are applied in this section.

Nursing practice paper**Text page**

ALL AND HTN IN ONE CLIENT

6

1 Pharmacological Interventions and Goals**2 Medications and Effects**

3 ondansetron hydrochloride (Zofran) 8 mg PO PRN	serotonin receptor antagonist, antiemetic—prevention of nausea and vomiting associated with chemotherapy
famotidine (Pepcid) 10 mg PO ac	H2 receptor antagonist, antiulcer agent—prevention of heartburn
nifedipine (Procardia) 30 mg PO bid	calcium channel blocker, antihypertensive—prevention of hypertension
enoxaparin sodium (Lovenox) 60 mg SQ bid	low-molecular-weight heparin derivative, anticoagulant— prevention of DVT
mercaptopurine (Purinethol) 100 mg PO qhs	antimetabolite, antineoplastic— treatment of ALL
PRBCs—2 units leukoreduced, irradiated ^a	to increase RBC count

^aBecause these products are dispensed by pharmacy, they are considered pharmacological interventions, even though technically not medications.

4 Laboratory Tests and Significance*Complete Blood Count (CBC)^a*

Result name	Result	Abnormal	Normal range
WBC	3.0	*	4.5-13.0
RBC	3.73	*	4.20-5.40
Hgb	11.5		11.1-15.7
Hct	32.4	*	34.0-46.0
MCV	86.8		78.0-95.0
MCH	30.7		26.0-32.0
MCHC	35.4		32.0-36.0
RDW	14.6		11.5-15.5
Platelet	98	*	140-400
MPV	8.3		7.4-10.4

^a*Rationale:* Client's ALL diagnosis and treatment necessitate frequent monitoring of his hematological status. WBC count, RBC, and hematocrit are decreased due to chemotherapy. The platelet count is low.

- 1** Main section heading, centered and boldface. **2** Short tables placed within text of paper; no table number necessary. **3** Two columns display client's medications and possible side effects. **4** Table presents client's lab reports.

12i Reflective essay (education)

For a service learning course exploring issues of diversity, power, and opportunity in school settings, Onnalee Gibson wrote about her experiences working with an 11th-grade student. She used professional sources to inform her ideas, but the essay is focused on her own reflections on the experience.

Reflective essay

Title page

1 Running head: SERVICE LEARNING: ERIC

1 2

A Reflection on Service Learning:
Working with Eric
Onnalee L. Gibson
Michigan State University

3

Author Note

4

This paper was prepared for Teacher Education 250, taught by Professor Carter. The author wishes to thank the guidance staff of Waverly High School for advice and assistance.

- 1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, in all capital letters on all pages; words “Running head” and colon on title page only.
- 2 Arabic page number on all pages. 3 Full title and writer’s name and affiliation, centered. 4 Author’s note (optional) for extra information.

(Annotations indicate APA-style formatting and effective writing.)

Reflective essay

First text page

1 SERVICE LEARNING: ERIC

2

2 A Reflection on Service Learning:
Working with Eric

3 The first time I saw the beautiful yet simple architecture of Waverly High School, I was enchanted. I remember driving by while exploring my new surroundings as a transfer student to Michigan State University and marveling at the long front wall of reflective windows, the shapely bushes, and the general cleanliness of the school grounds. When I was assigned to do a service learning project in a local school district, I hoped for the opportunity to find out what it would be like to work at a school like Waverly—a school where the attention to its students' needs was evident from the outside in.

4 Waverly High School, which currently enrolls about 1,100 students in grades nine through 12 and has a teaching staff of 63, is extremely diverse in several ways. Economically, students range from poverty level to affluent. Numerous ethnic and racial groups are represented. And in terms of achievement, the student body boasts an assortment of talents and abilities.

The school provides a curriculum that strives to meet the needs of each student and uses a unique grade reporting system that itemizes each aspect of a student's grade. The system allows both teachers and parents to see where academic achievement and academic problems surface. Unlike most schools, which evaluate students on subjects in one number or letter grade, Waverly has a report card that lists individual grades for tests, homework, exams, papers, projects, participation, community service, and attendance. Thus, if a student is doing every homework assignment and is still failing tests, this breakdown of the grades may effectively highlight how the student can be helped.

5 It was this unique way of evaluating students that led to my

1 Short title, no more than 50 characters, flush left; page number flush right. **2** Full title, repeated and centered, not boldface.

3 Writer begins with descriptive passages. **4** Background about school sets scene for personal experiences. **5** Transition from background to personal experiences.

12j Business report

Brian Spencer, a student in an introductory business course, wrote an investigative report on the problem of employee motivation at a small company. His report combines research from outside sources, facts about the company's situation, and information from interviews with employees and management. It concludes with his recommendations.

Business report

Title page

1
2

Positively Affecting Employee Motivation

3

Prepared by Brian Spencer

Report Distributed March 9, 2006

Prepared for OAISYS

4

- 1 Formatting of all pages of report consistent with typical style in business.
- 2 Title page counted in numbering, but no page number appears.
- 3 Title, writer's name, and date centered.
- 4 Company name centered at bottom of page.

(Annotations indicate **business-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)

Business report**Abstract**Employee Motivation 2 **1****2 Abstract**

Corporate goals, such as sales quotas or increases in market share, do not always take into account employee motivation. Motivating employees is thus a challenge and an opportunity for firms that want to outperform their competitors. For a firm to achieve its goals, its employees must be motivated to perform effectively.

3 Empirical research conducted with employees of a subject firm, OAISYS, echoed theories published by leading authorities in journals, books, and online reports. These theories argue that monetary incentives are not the primary drivers for employee motivation. Clear expectations, communication of progress toward goals, accountability, and public appreciation are common primary drivers. A firm aiming to achieve superior performance should focus on these activities.

1 Page formatted in typical business style. Short title and page number flush right. **2** Abstract on separate page; heading flush left and boldface. **3** Paragraphs separated by extra line of space; first line of paragraph not indented.

Business report**Text page****Employee Motivation 3****Introduction**

1

All firms strive to maximize performance. Such performance is typically defined by one or more tangible measurements such as total sales, earnings per share, return on assets, and so on. The performance of a firm is created and delivered by its employees. Employees, however, are not necessarily motivated to do their part to maximize a firm's performance. Factors that motivate employees can be much more complex than corporate goals. This report will define the problem of employee motivation in one company and examine potential solutions.

OAISYS is a small business based in Tempe, Arizona, that manufactures business call recording products. Currently OAISYS employs 27 people. The business has been notably successful, generating annual compound sales growth of over 20% during the last three years. The company's management and board of directors expect revenue growth to accelerate over the coming three years to an annual compound rate of over 35%. This ambitious corporate goal will require maximum productivity and effectiveness from all employees, both current and prospective. OAISYS's management requested an analysis of its current personnel structure focused on the alignment of individual employee motivation with its corporate goal.

Background on Current Human Resources Program

2

OAISYS is currently structured departmentally by function. It has teams for research and development, sales, marketing, operations, and administration. Every employee has access to the same employment

[Spencer uses the next section to present evidence from research studies and from interviews with employees.]

1 Introduction presents problem to be discussed and establishes scope of report. **2** Heading announces purpose of section.

Business report**Text page****Employee Motivation 5**

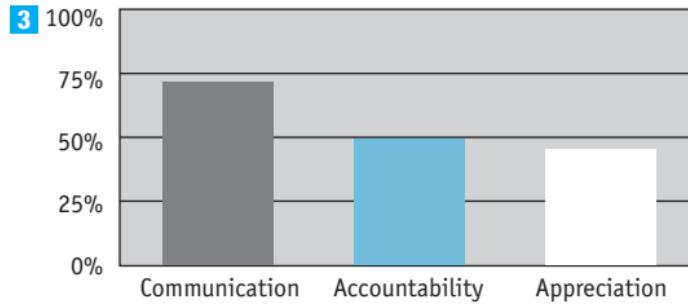
Doug Ames, manager of operations for OAISYS, noted that some of these issues keep the company from outperforming expectations: "Communication is not timely or uniform, expectations are not clear and consistent, and some employees do not contribute significantly yet nothing is done" (personal communication, February 28, 2006).

1 Recommendations

It appears that a combination of steps can be used to unlock greater performance for OAISYS. Most important, steps can be taken to strengthen the corporate culture in key areas such as communication, accountability, and appreciation. Employee feedback indicates that these are areas of weakness or motivators that can be improved. This

2 feedback is summarized in Figure 1.

A plan to use communication effectively to set expectations, share results in a timely fashion, and publicly offer appreciation to specific contributors will likely go a long way toward aligning individual motivation with corporate goals. Additionally, holding individuals accountable for results will bring parity to the workplace.



4 Figure 1. Areas of greatest need for improvements in motivation.

1 Writer presents recommendations based on his research and interviews. **2** Figure summarizes research findings. **3** Figure graphically illustrates support for key recommendation. **4** Figure number and caption appear below figure.

12k Professional memo (business)

For a course in business writing, Kelly Ratajczak wrote a proposal, in the form of a memorandum. Her purpose was to persuade her supervisor of the benefits of a wellness program for employees at the medium-size company where she was an intern.

Professional memo

First page

MEMORANDUM

To: Jay Crosson, Senior Vice President, Human Resources
From: Kelly Ratajczak, Intern, Purchasing Department
Subject: Proposal to Add a Wellness Program
Date: April 24, 2011

Health care costs are rising. In the long run, implementing a wellness program in our corporate culture will decrease the company's health care costs.

Research indicates that nearly 70% of health care costs are from common illnesses related to high blood pressure, overweight, lack of exercise, high cholesterol, stress, poor nutrition, and other preventable health issues (Hall, 2006). Health care costs are a major expense for most businesses, and they do not reflect costs due to the loss of productivity or absenteeism. A wellness program would address most, if not all, of these health care issues and related costs.

Benefits of Healthier Employees

Not only would a wellness program substantially reduce costs associated with employee health care, but our company would prosper through

- 1 Formatting consistent with typical style for business memo.
- 2 Title page counted in numbering, but no page number appears.
- 3 Clear point in first paragraph. 4 Paragraphs separated by extra line of space; first line of paragraph not indented.
- 5 Introduction provides background information. 6 Headings, flush left and boldface, define sections.

(Annotations indicate **business-style formatting** and **effective writing**.)



Documenting Sources in APA Style

- 13 APA in-text citations 101**
**Directory to APA in-text citation
models 101**
- 14 APA reference list 106**
**Directory to APA reference list
models 107**
- 15 APA footnotes 124**

Directory to APA in-text citation models

1. A quotation	101
2. A summary or a paraphrase	102
3. Two authors	102
4. Three to five authors	102
5. Six or more authors	103
6. Unknown author	103
7. Organization as author	103
8. Authors with the same last name	104
9. Two or more works by the same author in the same year	104
10. Two or more works in the same parentheses	104
11. Multiple citations to the same work in one paragraph	104
12. Personal communication	104
13. Electronic source	105
14. Indirect source (source quoted in another source)	106

The APA system for documenting sources is set forth in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th ed. (Washington, DC: APA, 2010).

13 APA in-text citations

APA's in-text citations provide the author's last name and the year of publication, usually before the cited material, and a page number in parentheses directly after the cited material. In the following models, the elements of the in-text citation are highlighted.

NOTE: Use the past tense or the present perfect tense in signal phrases introducing cited material: *Smith (2005) reported, Smith (2005) has argued*. (See also p. 34.)

■ **1. A quotation** Ordinarily, introduce the quotation with a signal phrase that includes the author's last name followed by the year of publication in parentheses. Put the page number preceded by "p." (or "pp." for more than one page) in parentheses after the quotation.

Critser (2003) noted that many health care providers still "remain either in ignorance or outright denial about the health danger to the poor and the young" (p. 5).

If the author is not named in the signal phrase, place the author's name, the year, and the page number in parentheses after the quotation: (Critser, 2003, p. 5). (See item 13 on p. 105 for citing electronic sources that lack authors, dates, or page numbers.)

NOTE: Do not include a month, even if the entry in the reference list includes the month.

■ **2. A summary or a paraphrase** As for a quotation (item 1), include the author's last name and the year of publication in a signal phrase introducing the material or in parentheses following it. Use a page number, if one is available, following the cited material to help readers find the passage in the work. For electronic sources without page numbers, see "No page numbers" in item 13 on page 105.

Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) explained that sibutramine suppresses appetite by blocking the reuptake of the neurotransmitters serotonin and norepinephrine in the brain (p. 594).

Sibutramine suppresses appetite by blocking the reuptake of the neurotransmitters serotonin and norepinephrine in the brain (Yanovski & Yanovski, 2002, p. 594).

■ **3. Two authors** Name both authors in the signal phrase or in parentheses each time you cite the work. In the parentheses, use "&" between the authors' names; in the signal phrase, use "and."

According to Sothern and Gordon (2003), "Environmental factors may contribute as much as 80% to the causes of childhood obesity" (p. 104).

Obese children often engage in limited physical activity (Sothern & Gordon, 2003, p. 104).

■ **4. Three to five authors** Identify all authors in the signal phrase or in parentheses the first time you cite the source.

In 2003, Berkowitz, Wadden, Tershakovec, and Cronquist concluded that sibutramine "must be carefully monitored . . . to control increases in [blood pressure] and pulse rate" (p. 1811).

In subsequent citations, use the first author's name followed by "et al." (Latin for "and others") in either the signal phrase or the parentheses.

As Berkowitz et al. (2003) advised, "Until more extensive safety and efficacy data are available, . . . weight-loss medications should be used only on an experimental basis for adolescents" (p. 1811).

■ **5. Six or more authors** Use the first author's name followed by "et al." in the signal phrase or in parentheses.

McDuffie et al. (2002) tested 20 adolescents, aged 12-16, over a three-month period and found that orlistat, combined with behavioral therapy, produced an average weight loss of 4.4 kg, or 9.7 pounds (p. 646).

■ **6. Unknown author** If the author is unknown, mention the work's title in the signal phrase or give the first word or two of the title in the parenthetical citation. Titles of short works such as articles and chapters are put in quotation marks; titles of long works such as books and reports are italicized.

Children struggling to control their weight must also struggle with the pressures of television advertising that, on the one hand, encourages the consumption of junk food and, on the other, celebrates thin celebrities ("Television," 2002).

NOTE: In the rare case when "Anonymous" is specified as the author, treat it as if it were a real name: (Anonymous, 2009). In the list of references, also use the name Anonymous as author.

■ **7. Organization as author** If the author is a government agency or another organization, name the organization in the signal phrase or in the parenthetical citation the first time you cite the source.

Obesity puts children at risk for a number of medical complications, including Type 2 diabetes, hypertension, sleep apnea, and orthopedic problems (Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, 2004, p. 1).

If the organization has a familiar abbreviation, you may include it in brackets the first time you cite the source and use the abbreviation alone in later citations.

FIRST CITATION	(National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2010)
LATER CITATIONS	(NIMH, 2010)

■ **8. Authors with the same last name** To avoid confusion, use initials with the last names if your reference list includes two or more authors with the same last name.

Research by E. Smith (1989) revealed that. . . .

■ **9. Two or more works by the same author in the same year** When your list of references includes more than one work by the same author in the same year, use lowercase letters ("a," "b," and so on) with the year to order the entries in the reference list. (See item 7 on p. 110.) Use those same letters with the year in the in-text citation.

Research by Durgin (2003b) has yielded new findings about the role of counseling in treating childhood obesity.

■ **10. Two or more works in the same parentheses** When your parenthetical citation names two or more works, put them in the same order that they appear in the reference list, separated with semicolons.

Researchers have indicated that studies of pharmacological treatments for childhood obesity are inconclusive (Berkowitz et al., 2003; McDuffie et al., 2002).

■ **11. Multiple citations to the same work in one paragraph** If you give the author's name in the text of your paper (not in parentheses) and you mention that source again in the text of the same paragraph, give only the author's name, not the date, in the later citation. If any subsequent reference in the same paragraph is parenthetical, you must include both the author and the date in the parentheses.

Principal Jean Patrice said, "You have to be able to reach students where they are instead of making them come to you. If you don't, you'll lose them" (personal communication, April 10, 2006). Patrice expressed her desire to see all students get something out of their educational experience. This feeling is common among members of Waverly's faculty. With such a positive view of student potential, it is no wonder that 97% of Waverly High School graduates go on to a four-year university (Patrice, 2006).

■ **12. Personal communication** Cite interviews, memos, letters, e-mail, and similar unpublished person-to-person communications in the text only, not in the reference list.

One of Atkinson's colleagues, who has studied the effect of the media on children's eating habits, has contended that advertisers for snack foods will need to design ads responsibly for their younger viewers (F. Johnson, personal communication, October 20, 2004).

■ **13. Electronic source** Cite electronic sources, including online sources, as you would any other sources, giving the author and the year when they are available.

Atkinson (2001) found that children who spent at least four hours a day watching TV were less likely to engage in adequate physical activity during the week.

Electronic sources may lack page numbers, authors' names, or dates. Here are APA's guidelines for handling sources without these details.

Unknown author

If no author is named in the source, mention the title of the source in a signal phrase or give the first word or two of the title in parentheses (see also item 6). (If an organization serves as the author, see item 7.)

The body's basal metabolic rate, or BMR, is a measure of its at-rest energy requirement ("Exercise," 2003).

Unknown date

When the date is unknown, use the abbreviation "n.d." (for "no date").

Attempts to establish a definitive link between television programming and children's eating habits have been problematic (Magnus, n.d.).

No page numbers

APA ordinarily requires page numbers for cited material. When an electronic source lacks stable numbered pages, include paragraph numbers or headings to help readers locate the passage being cited.

If the source has numbered paragraphs, use the paragraph number preceded by the abbreviation "para.": (Hall, 2009, para. 5). If the source has no numbered paragraphs but contains headings, cite the appropriate heading in parentheses; you may also indicate which paragraph under that heading you are referring to.

Hoppin and Taveras (2004) pointed out that several other medications were classified by the Drug Enforcement Administration as having the “potential for abuse” (Weight-Loss Drugs section, para. 6).

NOTE: For PDF documents that have stable page numbers, give the page number in the parenthetical citation.

■ **14. Indirect source (source quoted in another source)** If you use a source that was cited in another source (a secondary source), name the original source in your signal phrase. List the secondary source in your reference list and include it in your parenthetical citation, preceded by the words “as cited in.” In the following example, Satcher is the original source; Critser is the secondary source, given in the reference list.

Former surgeon general Dr. David Satcher described “a nation of young people seriously at risk of starting out obese and dooming themselves to the difficult task of overcoming a tough illness” (as cited in Critser, 2003, p. 4).

NOTE: It may be helpful to include the original date of publication in your citation as well: (2001, as cited in Critser, 2003, p. 4).

14 APA reference list

In APA style, the alphabetical list of works cited, which appears at the end of the paper, is titled “References.” For advice on preparing the list, see 11b. For sample reference lists, see pages 57, 75, and 85.

Alphabetize entries in the list of references by authors’ last names; if a work has no author, alphabetize it by its title. The first element of each entry is important because citations in the text of the paper refer to it and readers will be looking for it in the alphabetized list. The date of publication appears immediately after the first element of the citation.

In APA references, titles of books, periodicals, and other long works are italicized; titles of articles and other short works are neither italicized nor put in quotation marks. (For rules on capitalization of titles, see p. 51.)

Directory to APA reference list models

14a GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR LISTING AUTHORS (PRINT AND ONLINE)	
1. Single author	108
2. Two to seven authors	108
3. Eight or more authors	109
4. Organization as author	109
5. Unknown author	109
6. Two or more works by the same author	110
7. Two or more works by the same author in the same year	110
14b ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS (PRINT)	
8. Article in a journal paginated by volume	110
<i>Citation at a glance 111</i>	
9. Article in a journal paginated by issue	112
10. Article in a magazine	112
11. Article in a newspaper	112
12. Letter to the editor	112
13. Editorial or other unsigned article	112
14. Review	112
14c BOOKS (PRINT)	
15. Basic format for a book	113
<i>Citation at a glance 114</i>	
16. Book with an editor	113
17. Book with an author and an editor	113
18. Book with an author and a translator	113
19. Edition other than the first	113
20. Article or chapter in an edited book or an anthology	113
21. Multivolume work	115
22. Book with a title in its title	115
14d ONLINE SOURCES	
23. Article in an online journal	115
24. Article in an online magazine	116
25. Article in an online newspaper	116
26. Article from a database	116
<i>Citation at a glance 118</i>	
27. Online book or e-book	116
28. Chapter in an online book or e-book	117
29. Report or long document from a Web site	117
30. Section in a Web document	117
<i>Citation at a glance 120</i>	
31. Short work from a Web site	117
32. Podcast	119
33. Blog post	119

14d ONLINE SOURCES (CONTINUED)

- | | |
|--|-----|
| 34. Online audio or video file | 119 |
| 35. Entry in a wiki | 121 |
| 36. Data set or graphic representation | 122 |
| 37. E-mail | 122 |
| 38. Online posting | 122 |

14e OTHER SOURCES (INCLUDING ONLINE VERSIONS)

- | | |
|--|-----|
| 39. Dissertation from a database | 122 |
| 40. Government document | 122 |
| 41. Report from a private organization | 122 |
| 42. Conference proceedings | 123 |
| 43. Map, chart, or illustration | 123 |
| 44. Advertisement | 123 |
| 45. Lecture, speech, or address | 123 |
| 46. Brochure, pamphlet, or fact sheet | 123 |
| 47. Film or video (motion picture) | 123 |
| 48. Television program | 123 |
| 49. Computer software or video game | 123 |

14a General guidelines for listing authors (print and online)

In APA style, all authors' names are inverted (the last name comes first), and initials are used for all first and middle names.

NAME AND YEAR CITED IN TEXT

Duncan (2008) has reported that. . . .

BEGINNING OF ENTRY IN THE LIST OF REFERENCES

Duncan, B. (2008).

1. Single author

author: last name
 + initial(s) year title (book)

Egeland, J. (2008). *A billion lives: An eyewitness report from the frontlines of humanity*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

place of publication publisher

2. Two to seven authors List up to seven authors by last names followed by initials. Use an ampersand (&) before the name of the last author.

PRACTICE hackerhandbooks.com/pocketapa

> APA > 14–4 to 14–8

all authors:
last name + initial(s) year title (book)
Musick, M. A., & Wilson, J. (2007). *Volunteers: A social profile*.
place of publication publisher
Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

all authors:
last name + initial(s)
Diessner, R., Solom, R. C., Frost, N. K., Parsons, L., & Davidson, J.
year title (article)
(2008). Engagement with beauty: Appreciating natural,
journal title
artistic, and moral beauty. *The Journal of Psychology*,
volume page(s)
142, 303-329.

■ **3. Eight or more authors** List the first six authors followed by three ellipsis dots and the last author's name.

Mulvaney, S. A., Mudasiru, E., Schlundt, D. G., Baughman, C. L.,
Fleming, M., VanderWoude, A., . . . Rothman, R. (2008).
Self-management in Type 2 diabetes: The adolescent
perspective. *The Diabetes Educator*, 34, 118-127.

■ **4. Organization as author**

author:
organization name year title (book)
American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical
manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC:
organization as author edition number place of publication
and publisher
Author.

If the publisher is not the same as the author, give the publisher's name at the end as you would for any other source.

■ **5. Unknown author** Begin the entry with the work's title.

title (book) year place of publication publisher
New concise world atlas. (2007). New York, NY: Oxford University
Press.

■ **6. Two or more works by the same author** Use the author's name for all entries. List the entries by year, the earliest first.

Barry, P. (2007, December 8). Putting tumors on pause. *Science News*, 172, 365.

Barry, P. (2008, August 2). Finding the golden genes. *Science News*, 174, 16-21.

■ **7. Two or more works by the same author in the same year** List the works alphabetically by title. In the parentheses, following the year add "a," "b," and so on. Use these same letters when giving the year in the in-text citation. (See also p. 104.)

Elkind, D. (2008a, Spring). Can we play? *Greater Good*, 4(4), 14-17.

Elkind, D. (2008b, June 27). The price of hurrying children [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://blogs.psychologytoday.com/blog/digital-children>

14b Articles in periodicals (print)

Periodicals include journals, magazines, and newspapers. For a journal or a magazine, give only the volume number if the publication is paginated continuously throughout each volume; give the volume and issue numbers if each issue of the volume begins on page 1. Italicize the volume number and put the issue number, not italicized, in parentheses.

For all periodicals, when an article appears on consecutive pages, provide the range of pages. When an article does not appear on consecutive pages, list all pages on which the article appears: A1, A17.

Some print articles include a DOI (digital object identifier), often on the first page of the article. For such an article, give the DOI at the end of the reference list entry, following the print publication information. See item 8.

For an illustrated citation of an article in a print journal or magazine, see page 111.

■ **8. Article in a journal paginated by volume**

Holtug, N. (2010). Immigration and the politics of social cohesion. *Ethnicities*, 10, 435-451. doi:10.1177/1468796810378320

Citation at a glance

Article in a journal or magazine (APA)

To cite an article in a print journal or magazine in APA style, include the following elements:

- 1 Author
- 2 Year of publication for journal; complete date for magazine
- 3 Title and subtitle of article
- 4 Name of journal or magazine
- 5 Volume number; issue number, if required (see p. 110)
- 6 Page number(s) of article
- 7 DOI (digital object identifier), if there is one

The diagram illustrates the layout of an article from the Fall 2008 issue of *Education Next* to show how the seven citation elements are identified.

- Element 1 (Author):** David Whitman (labeled with a blue box containing the number 1).
- Element 2 (Year of publication for journal; complete date for magazine):** FALL 2008 / EDUCATION NEXT (labeled with a blue box containing the number 2).
- Element 3 (Title and subtitle of article):** An Appeal to Authority: The new paternalism in urban schools (labeled with a blue box containing the number 3).
- Element 4 (Name of journal or magazine):** EDUCATION next (labeled with a blue box containing the number 4).
- Element 5 (Volume number; issue number, if required):** VOLUME 8, NUMBER 4 (labeled with a blue box containing the number 5).
- Element 6 (Page number(s) of article):** 53-58 (labeled with a blue box containing the number 6).
- Element 7 (DOI):** Not explicitly shown in the diagram, but typically located online versions of the journal.

The diagram also shows the journal's masthead, table of contents, and other articles from the issue.

REFERENCE LIST ENTRY FOR AN ARTICLE IN A PRINT JOURNAL OR MAGAZINE

Whitman, D. (2008). An appeal to authority: The new paternalism in urban schools. *Education Next*, 8(4), 53-58.

For variations on citing articles in print journals or magazines in APA style, see pages 110 and 112.

■ 9. Article in a journal paginated by issue

Black, J. (2010). Big government: Good and bad. *The New Criterion*, 28(5), 24-27.

■ 10. Article in a magazine Give the year and the month for monthly magazines; add the day for weekly magazines.

McKibben, B. (2007, October). Carbon's new math. *National Geographic*, 212(4), 32-37.

■ 11. Article in a newspaper Use "p." (or "pp." for more than one page) before page numbers.

Svoboda, E. (2008, October 21). Deep in the rain forest, stalking the next pandemic. *The New York Times*, p. D5.

■ 12. Letter to the editor

Park, T. (2008, August). Defining the line [Letter to the editor]. *Scientific American*, 299(2), 10.

■ 13. Editorial or other unsigned article

The global justice movement [Editorial]. (2005). *Multinational Monitor*, 26(7/8), 6.

■ 14. Review If the review has no author or title, use the material in brackets as the title.

Applebaum, A. (2008, February 14). A movie that matters [Review of the motion picture *Katyn*, 2007]. *The New York Review of Books*, 55(2), 13-15.

Agents of change. (2008, February 2). [Review of the book *The power of unreasonable people: How social entrepreneurs create markets that change the world*, by J. Elkington & P. Hartigan]. *The Economist*, 386(8565), 94.

14c Books (print)

Give the city and the state (abbreviated) for all U.S. cities or the city and the country (not abbreviated) for all non-U.S. cities; also include the province (not abbreviated) for Canadian cities. Do not give a state if the publisher's name includes it (as in many university presses, for example). For an illustrated citation of a print book, see page 114.

■ **15. Basic format for a book**

McKenzie, F. R. (2008). *Theory and practice with adolescents: An applied approach*. Chicago, IL: Lyceum Books.

■ **16. Book with an editor** Use the abbreviation “Ed.” for one editor; use “Eds.” for more than one.

Aronson, J., & Aronson, E. (Eds.). (2008). *Readings about the social animal* (10th ed.). New York, NY: Worth.

■ **17. Book with an author and an editor** Use the abbreviation “Ed.” for one editor; use “Eds.” for more than one.

McLuhan, M. (2003). *Understanding me: Lectures and interviews* (S. McLuhan & D. Staine, Eds.). Toronto, Ontario, Canada: McClelland & Stewart.

■ **18. Book with an author and a translator** Use “Trans.” for one or more translators.

Steinberg, M. D. (2003). *Voices of revolution, 1917* (M. Schwartz, Trans.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press. (Original work published 2001)

■ **19. Edition other than the first** See also item 20 for a multivolume work in an edition other than the first.

O'Brien, J. A. (Ed.). (2006). *The production of reality: Essays and readings on social interaction* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

■ **20. Article or chapter in an edited book or an anthology**

Use the abbreviation “Ed.” for one editor; use “Eds.” for more than one.

Denton, N. A. (2006). Segregation and discrimination in housing.
In R. G. Bratt, M. E. Stone, & C. Hartman (Eds.), *A right to housing: Foundation of a new social agenda* (pp. 61-81). Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

If the article or chapter is in one volume of a multivolume work, and if the work is in an edition other than the first, cite the source as follows.

Lieberman, M. D. (2010). Social cognitive neuroscience. In S. T. Fiske, D. R. Gilbert, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 1, 5th ed., pp. 143-193). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

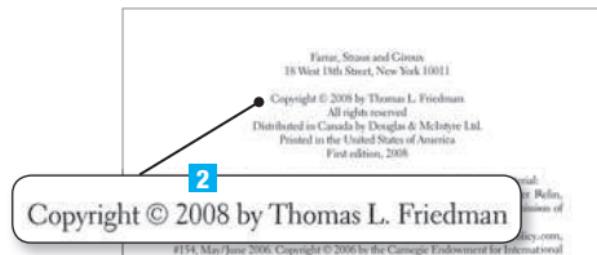
Citation at a glance

Book (APA)

To cite a print book in APA style, include the following elements:

- 1 Author
- 2 Year of publication
- 3 Title and subtitle
- 4 Place of publication
- 5 Publisher

COPYRIGHT PAGE



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#154, May/June 2006. Copyright © 2006 by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

TITLE PAGE

1 THOMAS L. FRIEDMAN

Hot, Flat, and Crowded

- 3 WHY WE NEED A GREEN REVOLUTION—
AND HOW IT CAN RENEW AMERICA

Library of Congress Control Number: 2006930599
ISBN-13: 9780374166854
ISBN-10: 0374166854

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on paper containing
recycled content.

5 FARRAR, STRAUS AND GIROUX

4 NEW YORK

FARRAR, STRAUS AND GIROUX
NEW YORK

REFERENCE LIST ENTRY FOR A PRINT BOOK

1 2 3 Friedman, T. L. (2008). *Hot, flat, and crowded: Why we need a green revolution—And how it can renew America.* 4 5 New York, NY: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

For more on citing print books in APA style, see pages 112–13 and 115.

■ 21. Multivolume work

Luo, J. (Ed.). (2005). *China today: An encyclopedia of life in the People's Republic* (Vols. 1-2). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

See also item 20 for a multivolume work in an edition other than the first.

■ 22. Book with a title in its title

If the book title contains another book title or an article title, neither italicize the internal title nor place it in quotation marks.

Marcus, L. (Ed.). (1999). *Sigmund Freud's The interpretation of dreams: New interdisciplinary essays*. Manchester, England: Manchester University Press.

14d Online sources

Online articles and books sometimes include a DOI (digital object identifier). APA uses the DOI, when available, in place of a URL and other retrieval information at the end of reference list entries.

If a source has no publication date, use "n.d." (for "no date"). Use a retrieval date for an online source only if the content is likely to change. Most of the examples in this section do not show a retrieval date because the content of the sources is stable; if you are unsure about whether to use a retrieval date, consult your instructor.

■ 23. Article in an online journal

author: last
name + initial(s) year article title
Whitmeyer, J. M. (2000). Power through appointment.
journal title volume page(s) DOI
Social Science Research, 29, 535-555. doi:10.1006
/ssre.2000.0680

If there is no DOI, include the URL for the journal's home page.

Ashe, D. D., & McCutcheon, L. E. (2001). Shyness, loneliness, and attitude toward celebrities. *Current Research in Social Psychology*, 6, 124-133. Retrieved from <http://www.uiowa.edu/~grpproc/crisp/crisp.html>

■ **24. Article in an online magazine** Include the URL for the magazine's home page.

- Shelburne, E. C. (2008, September). The great disruption. *The Atlantic*, 302(2). Retrieved from <http://www.theatlantic.com/>
- Rupley, S. (2010, February 26). The myth of the benign monopoly. *Salon*. Retrieved from <http://www.salon.com/>

■ **25. Article in an online newspaper** Include the URL for the newspaper's home page.

- Watson, P. (2008, October 19). Biofuel boom endangers orangutan habitat. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com/>

■ **26. Article from a database** If the database gives a DOI for the article, use the DOI at the end of the citation. For an illustrated citation of an article from a database, see pages 118–19.

all authors: last name + initial(s)	year	article title
Eskritt, M., & McLeod, K. (2008). Children's note taking as a mnemonic tool.		
journal title	volume	
<i>Journal of Experimental Child Psychology</i> , 101,		
page(s)	DOI	volume
52–74. doi:10.1016/j.jecp.2008.05.007		

If there is no DOI, include the URL for the home page of the journal (which you may find in the database listing or by searching on the Web). If the source cannot be easily found with a URL for the publication, you may use the URL for the home page of the database.

- Howard, K. R. (2007). Childhood overweight: Parental perceptions and readiness for change. *The Journal of School Nursing*, 23, 73–79. Retrieved from <http://jsn.sagepub.com/>

■ **27. Online book or e-book**

- Adams, B. (2004). *The theory of social revolutions*. Retrieved from http://www.gutenberg.org/catalog/world/readfile?fk_files=44092 (Original work published 1913)

- Davidson, P. (2009). *The Keynes solution: The path to global economic prosperity* [Nook version]. Retrieved from <http://www.barnesandnoble.com/>

■ 28. Chapter in an online book or e-book

Clinton, S. J. (1999). What can be done to prevent childhood obesity? In *Understanding childhood obesity* (pp. 81-98). Retrieved from <http://www.questia.com/>

Berlinski, M. (2011). Port-au-Prince: The moment. In E. Danticat (Ed.), *The Best American Essays 2011* [Nook version] (pp. 22-30). Retrieved from <http://www.barnesandnoble.com/>

■ 29. Report or long document from a Web site**Source with date**

all authors: last name + initial(s)	online publication date	document title
--	----------------------------	----------------

Cain, A., & Burris, M. (1999, April). *Investigation of the use of mobile phones while driving*. Retrieved from http://www.cutr.usf.edu/pdf/mobile_phone.PDF

Source with no date

Archer, D. (n.d.). *Exploring nonverbal communication*. Retrieved from <http://nonverbal.ucsc.edu>

■ 30. Section in a Web document

author (state agency)	date
-----------------------	------

Oregon Department of Administrative Services. (2010, August). *Social media categories and uses*. In *Social networking media*. Retrieved from http://www.oregon.gov/DAS/EISPD/EGOV/BOARD/docs/social_networking_guide_v2.pdf

For an illustrated citation, see pages 120–21.

■ 31. Short work from a Web site

NATO statement endangers patients in Afghanistan. (2010, March 11). *Médecins sans frontières/Doctors without borders*. Retrieved from <http://www.doctorswithoutborders.org/>

Smith, J. (n.d.). U.S. partners with Ethiopian ministry of health on Global Health Initiative. *U.S. Global Health Initiative*. Retrieved from <http://www.ghi.gov/newsroom/stories/ethiopia/166564.htm>

Citation at a glance

Article from a database (APA)

To cite an article from a database in APA style, include the following elements:

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1 Author(s)2 Date of publication3 Title of article4 Name of periodical5 Volume number; issue number, if required
(see p. 110) | <ol style="list-style-type: none">6 Page number(s)7 DOI (digital object identifier)8 URL for journal's home page (if there is no DOI) or URL for database home page (if there is neither DOI nor journal URL) |
|---|---|

ON-SCREEN VIEW OF DATABASE RECORD

The screenshot shows the EBSCOhost Business Source Premier search interface. At the top, there is a search bar with the placeholder "AN 27711104" and dropdown menus for "Select a Field (optional)". Below the search bar are buttons for "Search", "Clear", and a question mark icon. Further down, there are links for "Basic Search", "Advanced Search", "Visual Search", "Search History/Alerts", and "Preferences". The main content area displays a citation record. The citation details are as follows:

Title: 3 International Human Rights and Consumer Quality of Life: An Ethical Perspective.

Authors: Hill, Ronald Paul¹, Felice, William E.², Ainscough, Thomas³

Source: 4 Journal of Macromarketing; Dec2007, Vol. 27 Issue 4, p370-379, 10p, 2 charts

Document Type: Article

Subject Terms: *PRIMARY commodities, *MACROMARKETING

Blue numbered callouts (1 through 7) point to specific fields in the citation record:

- Callout 1 points to the title field.
- Callout 2 points to the first author's name.
- Callout 3 points to the second author's name.
- Callout 4 points to the source field.
- Callout 5 points to the document type field.
- Callout 6 points to the subject terms field.
- Callout 7 points to the DOI field at the bottom of the record.

END OF DATABASE RECORD

ISSN:	0276-1467
DOI:	10.1177/027614670307128

REFERENCE LIST ENTRY FOR AN ARTICLE FROM A DATABASE

Hill, R. P., Felice, W. F., & Ainscough, T. (2007). International
human rights and consumer quality of life: An ethical
perspective. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27, 370-379.
doi:10.1177/027614670307128

For more on citing articles from a database in APA style, see item 26.

■ 32. Podcast

organization as producer date of posting
National Academies (Producer). (2007, June 6). Progress in
podcast title
preventing childhood obesity: How do we measure up?
descriptive label series title
[Audio podcast]. *The sounds of science podcast.*
URL
Retrieved from <http://media.nap.edu/podcasts/>

writer/
presenter date of posting podcast title
Chesney, M. (2007, September 13). Gender differences in the use
of complementary and alternative medicine (No. 12827)
podcast number
descriptive label Web site hosting podcast
[Audio podcast]. Retrieved from University of California
URL
Television website: <http://www.ctv.tv/ondemand>

■ **33. Blog post** Give the writer's name, the date of the post, the subject, the label "Web log post" in brackets, and the URL. For a response to a post, use the label "Web log comment."

Kellermann, M. (2007, May 23). Disclosing clinical trials [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.iq.harvard.edu/blog/ssss/archives/2007/05>

■ 34. Online audio or video file

Chomsky, N. (n.d.). The new imperialism [Audio file]. Retrieved from <http://www.rhapsody.com/noamchomsky>

Citation at a glance

Section in a Web document (APA)

To cite a section in a Web document in APA style, include the following elements:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1 Author | 4 Title of document |
| 2 Date of publication or most recent update | 5 URL of section or of document |
| 3 Title of section | |

BROWSER PRINTOUT OF WEB SITE

2008 Minnesota Health Statistics Annual Summary – Minnesota Dept. of Health

1

Minnesota Department of Health
Protecting, maintaining and improving the health of all Minnesotans



4 2008 Minnesota Health Statistics Annual Summary

The Minnesota "Annual Summary" or "Minnesota Health Statistics" is a report published yearly. The most recent version of this report is **2008 Minnesota Health Statistics**, published January 2010. This report provides statistical data on the following subjects for the state of Minnesota.



To view the PDF files, you will need [Adobe Acrobat Reader](#).

2

published January 2010.

3

- [Introduction, Technical Notes, Definitions \(PDF: 42KB/7 pages\)](#)
- [Overview of 2008 Annual Summary \(PDF: 66KB/11 pages\)](#)
- [Live Births \(PDF: 196KB/21 pages\)](#)
- [Fertility \(PDF: 26KB/2 pages\)](#)
- [Infant Mortality and Fetal Deaths \(PDF: 188KB/15 pages\)](#)
- [General Mortality \(PDF: 333KB/40 pages\)](#)
- [Marriage/Dissolution of Marriage Divorce \(PDF: 25KB/2 pages\)](#)
- [Population \(PDF: 73KB/12 pages\)](#)

Note: Induced abortion statistics previously reported in this publication are now published separately.

See Report to the Legislature: [Induced Abortions in Minnesota](#)

See also [Minnesota Health Statistics Annual Summary Main Page](#)

For further information about the Annual Summary, please contact:

**Center for Health Statistics
Minnesota Department of Health
Golden Rule Building, 3rd Floor
85 East Seventh Place**

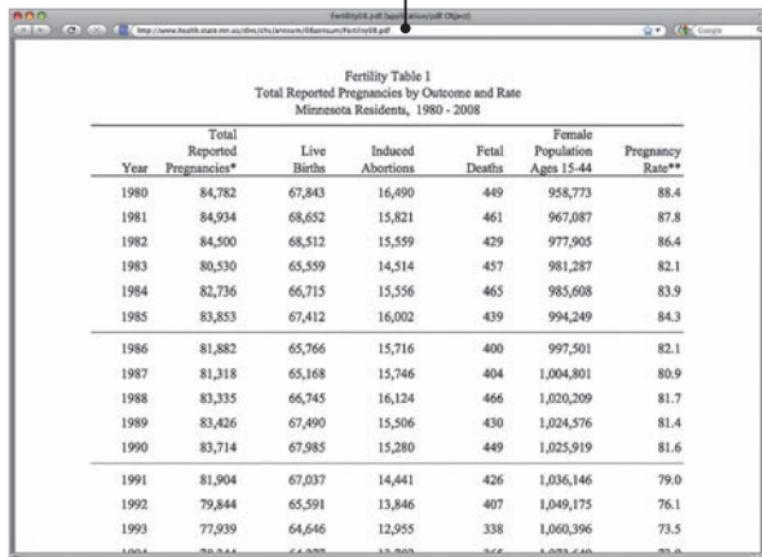
<http://www.health.state.mn.us/divs/chs/annsum/08annsum/index.html>

Page 1 of 2

5

 <http://www.health.state.mn.us/divs/chs/annsum/08annsum/Fertility08.pdf>

ON-SCREEN VIEW OF DOCUMENT



Fertility Table I Total Reported Pregnancies by Outcome and Rate Minnesota Residents, 1980 - 2008						
Year	Total Reported Pregnancies*	Live Births	Induced Abortions	Fetal Deaths	Female Population Ages 15-44	Pregnancy Rate**
1980	84,782	67,843	16,490	449	958,773	88.4
1981	84,934	68,652	15,821	461	967,087	87.8
1982	84,500	68,512	15,559	429	977,905	86.4
1983	80,530	65,559	14,514	457	981,287	82.1
1984	82,736	66,715	15,556	465	985,608	83.9
1985	83,853	67,412	16,002	439	994,249	84.3
1986	81,882	65,766	15,716	400	997,501	82.1
1987	81,318	65,168	15,746	404	1,004,801	80.9
1988	83,335	66,745	16,124	466	1,020,209	81.7
1989	83,426	67,490	15,506	430	1,024,576	81.4
1990	83,714	67,985	15,280	449	1,025,919	81.6
1991	81,904	67,037	14,441	426	1,036,146	79.0
1992	79,844	65,591	13,846	407	1,049,175	76.1
1993	77,939	64,646	12,955	338	1,060,396	73.5
1994	70,344	54,029	13,809	326	1,073,640	67.0

REFERENCE LIST ENTRY FOR A SECTION IN A WEB DOCUMENT

1 Minnesota Department of Health. (2010, January). Fertility.
 2 In 2008 Minnesota health statistics annual summary.
 3 Retrieved from <http://www.health.state.mn.us/divs/chs/annsum/08annsum/Fertility08.pdf>

For more on citing documents from Web sites in APA style, see page 117.

Zakaria, F. (Host), & McCullough, C. (Writer). (2007, March 6). In focus: American teens, Rwandan truths [Video file]. Retrieved from <http://www.pulitzercenter.org/showproject.cfm?id=26>

35. Entry in a wiki Include the date of retrieval; wiki content can change frequently. If an author or an editor is identified, include that name at the beginning of the entry.

Ethnomethodology. (n.d.). Retrieved June 18, 2010, from <http://stswiki.org/index.php?title/Ethnomethodology>

■ 36. Data set or graphic representation

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. (2009).

Eating and health module (ATUS): 2007 data [Data set].

Retrieved from <http://www.ers.usda.gov/Data/ATUS>

/Data/2007/2007data.htm

Gallup. (2008, October 23). *No increase in proportion of first-time voters* [Graphs]. Retrieved from <http://www.gallup.com/poll/111331/No-Increase-Proportion-First-Time-Voters.aspx>

■ 37. E-mail E-mail messages, letters, and other personal communications are not included in the list of references. (See item 12 on pp. 104–05 for citing these sources in the text of your paper.)

■ 38. Online posting

McKinney, J. (2006, December 19). Adult education-healthcare partnerships [Electronic mailing list message]. Retrieved from <http://www.nifl.gov/pipermail/healthliteracy/2006/000524.html>

14e Other sources (including online versions)

■ 39. Dissertation from a database

Hymel, K. M. (2009). *Essays in urban economics* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (AAT 3355930)

■ 40. Government document

U.S. Census Bureau. (2006). *Statistical abstract of the United States*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

U.S. Census Bureau, Bureau of Economic Analysis. (2008, August). *U.S. international trade in goods and services* (Report No. CB08-121, BEA08-37, FT-900). Retrieved from <http://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/Press-Release/2008pr/06/ftdpress.pdf>

■ 41. Report from a private organization If the report has a number, put it in parentheses following the title. (See also item 4 on p. 109.)

Ford Foundation. (n.d.). *Helping citizens to understand and influence state budgets*. Retrieved from http://www.fordfound.org/pdfs/impact/evaluations/state_fiscal_initiative.pdf

■ 42. Conference proceedings

Stahl, G. (Ed.). (2002). *Proceedings of CSCL '02: Computer support for collaborative learning*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

■ 43. Map, chart, or illustration

Ukraine [Map]. (2008). Retrieved from the University of Texas at Austin Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection website:
http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/cia08/ukraine_sm_2008.gif

■ 44. Advertisement

Xbox 360 [Advertisement]. (2007, February). *Wired*, 15(2), 71.

■ 45. Lecture, speech, or address

Fox, V. (2008, March 5). *Economic growth, poverty, and democracy in Latin America: A president's perspective*. Address at the Freeman Spogli Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA.

■ 46. Brochure, pamphlet, or fact sheet

National Council of State Boards of Nursing. (n.d.). *Professional boundaries* [Brochure]. Retrieved from https://www.ncsbn.org/Professional_Boundaries_2007_Web.pdf

World Health Organization. (2007, October). *Health of indigenous peoples* (No. 326) [Fact sheet]. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs326/en/index.html>

■ 47. Film or video (motion picture)

Guggenheim, D. (Director), & Bender, L. (Producer). (2006). *An inconvenient truth* [DVD]. United States: Paramount Home Entertainment.

Spurlock, M. (Director). (2004). *Super size me* [Motion picture]. Available from IDP Films, 1133 Broadway, Suite 926, New York, NY 10010

■ 48. Television program

Pratt, C. (Executive producer). (2008, October 5). *Face the nation* [Television broadcast]. Washington, DC: CBS News.

Smith, M. (Writer/producer). (2008). Heat [Television series episode]. In D. Fanning (Executive producer), *Frontline*. Boston, MA: WGBH.

■ 49. Computer software or video game

Sims 2 [Computer software]. (2005). New York, NY: Maxis.

15 APA footnotes

15a Footnotes in the text

Occasionally, you may use footnotes to provide additional material that is important but that might interrupt the flow of the paper. Notes should be brief and focused. Use notes sparingly; if the material will take more than a few sentences, you should consider integrating the information in the text or placing it in an appendix (see 10j).

In the text of your paper, use a superscript arabic numeral to indicate a note. At the bottom of the page, place the same superscript numeral and the text of the note. Number the notes consecutively throughout the paper. (See also “Footnotes” in 11a for more details.)

TEXT

Now more than nine million children are classified as obese.¹

FOOTNOTE

¹Obesity is measured in terms of body-mass index (BMI): weight in kilograms divided by square of height in meters. An adolescent with a BMI in the 95th percentile for his or her age and gender is considered obese.

15b Footnotes in tables and figures

Footnotes in tables A footnote at the bottom of a table can provide an explanation of terms used in the table, such as abbreviations and symbols. If your table contains data from an outside source or if you have taken or adapted the table from a source, give the source information directly following any explanation of terms.

If you need to explain specific information within the table, use lettered footnotes within the table and corresponding letters in the notes following the source information. (See also “Visuals” in 11a.)

TABLE FOOTNOTE

Note. The data on sibutramine are adapted from “Behavior Therapy and Sibutramine for the Treatment of Adolescent Obesity,” by R. I. Berkowitz, T. A. Wadden, A. M. Tershakovec, & J. L. Cronquist, 2003, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 289, pp. 1807–1809. The data on orlistat are adapted from *Xenical (Orlistat)*

Capsules: Complete Product Information, by Roche Laboratories, December 2003, retrieved from <http://www.rocheusa.com/products/xenical/pi.pdf>

^aThe medication and/or placebo were combined with behavioral therapy in all groups over all time periods.

Footnotes in figures Each figure should have a number and a caption, a brief explanation of the content of the figure, at the bottom of the figure. If you have taken or adapted the figure from an outside source, give the source information immediately following the caption. (See also “Visuals” in 11a.)

FIGURE FOOTNOTE

Figure 1. As countries engage in a currency war, the exchange rates against the dollar can fluctuate widely. Adapted from “Currencies Against the Dollar,” September 30, 2011, *The Economist*, retrieved from <http://www.economist.com/blogs/dailychart/2011/09/emerging-market-currencies>



Clarity

- 16 Wordy sentences 127**
- 17 Active verbs 128**
- 18 Parallelism 130**
- 19 Needed words 131**
- 20 Shifts 133**
- 21 Mixed constructions 134**
- 22 Misplaced and dangling modifiers 135**
- 23 Sentence variety 138**
- 24 Appropriate voice 140**

16 Tighten wordy sentences.

Long sentences are not necessarily wordy, nor are short sentences always concise. A sentence is wordy if it can be tightened without loss of meaning.

16a Redundancies

Redundancies such as *cooperate together*, *yellow in color*, and *basic essentials* are a common source of wordiness. There is no need to say the same thing twice.

- Daniel is ~~employed~~^{works} at a private rehabilitation center
 ^
~~working~~ as a physical therapist.

Modifiers are redundant when their meanings are suggested by other words in the sentence.

- Sylvia ~~very hurriedly~~ scribbled her name and phone number on the back of a greasy napkin.

16b Empty or inflated phrases

An empty word or phrase can be cut with little or no loss of meaning. An inflated phrase can be reduced to a word or two.

- In ~~my opinion~~^O, our current immigration policy is misguided.
- Funds are limited ~~at this point in time~~^{now.}

INFLATED

along the lines of
 at the present time
 because of the fact that
 by means of
 due to the fact that
 for the reason that
 in order to
 in spite of the fact that

CONCISE

like
 now, currently
 because
 by
 because
 because
 to
 although, though

INFLATED
in the event that
until such time as

CONCISE
if
until

16c Needlessly complex structures

In a rough draft, sentence structures are often more complex than they need to be.

- Researchers ~~were involved in examining~~ the effect
of classical music on unborn babies.
- It is imperative that ~~all~~ night managers follow strict
procedures when locking the safe.
- The analyst claimed that because of volatile market
conditions she could not ~~make an~~ estimate ~~of~~ the
company's future profits.

17 Prefer active verbs.

As a rule, active verbs express meaning more vigorously than their weaker counterparts — forms of the verb *be* or verbs in the passive voice. Forms of *be* (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*) lack vigor because they convey no action. Passive verbs lack strength because their subjects receive the action instead of doing it.

Forms of *be* and passive verbs have legitimate uses, but if an active verb can convey your meaning as effectively, use it.

BE VERB A surge of power *was responsible for* the destruction of the pumps.

PASSIVE The pumps *were destroyed* by a surge of power.

ACTIVE A surge of power *destroyed* the pumps.

17a When to replace *be* verbs

Not every *be* verb needs replacing. The forms of *be* (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*) work well when you want to link a subject to a noun that clearly renames it or to

a vivid adjective that describes it: *Orchard House was the home of Louisa May Alcott. The harvest will be bountiful after the summer rains.*

If a *be* verb makes a sentence needlessly wordy, however, consider replacing it. Often a phrase following the verb will contain a word (such as *violation* or *resistant*) that suggests a more vigorous, active verb (*violate*, *resisted*).

- Burying nuclear waste in Antarctica would ~~be in~~
~~violation of an international treaty.~~
- When the subject ~~was resistant to~~
~~investigator's instructions, the experiment was terminated.~~

NOTE: When used as helping verbs with present participles to express ongoing action, *be* verbs are fine: *She was swimming when the whistle blew.* (See 26b.)

17b When to replace passive verbs

In the active voice, the subject of the sentence does the action; in the passive, the subject receives the action.

ACTIVE The committee *reached* a decision.

PASSIVE A decision *was reached* by the committee.

In passive sentences, the actor (in this case, *committee*) frequently does not appear: *A decision was reached.*

Usually, you will want to emphasize the actor, so you should use the active voice. To replace a passive verb with an active one, make the actor the subject of the sentence.

- ~~The samples were collected daily from the~~
~~stagnant pond.~~
- ~~The land was stripped of timber before the settlers~~
~~realized the consequences of their actions.~~

The passive voice is appropriate when you wish to emphasize the receiver of the action or to minimize the

importance of the actor. In the following sentence, for example, the writer wished to focus on the tobacco plants, not on the people spraying them: *As the time for harvest approaches, the tobacco plants are sprayed with a chemical to retard the growth of suckers.* (See also 2b.)

18

Balance parallel ideas.

If two or more ideas are parallel, they should be expressed in parallel grammatical form.

A kiss can be a comma, a question mark, or an
exclamation point.

—Mistinguett

This novel is not to be tossed lightly aside, but to
be hurled with great force.

—Dorothy Parker

18a Items in a series

Balance all items in a series by presenting them in parallel grammatical form.

- Cross-training involves a variety of exercises, *lifting*, such as running, swimming, and weights.
- Children who study music also learn confidence, *creativity*, discipline, and ~~they are creative.~~
- Racing to work, Sam drove down the middle of the road, ran one red light, and two stop signs.

18b Paired ideas

When pairing ideas, underscore their connection by expressing them in similar grammatical form. Paired ideas are usually connected in one of three ways: (1) with a coordinating conjunction such as *and*, *but*, or *or*; (2) with

a pair of correlative conjunctions such as *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *not only . . . but also*, or *whether . . . or*; or (3) with a word introducing a comparison, usually *than* or *as*.

- Many states are reducing property taxes for home *extending* owners and extend financial aid in the form of tax credits to renters.

The coordinating conjunction *and* connects two -ing verb forms: *reducing . . . extending*.

- Thomas Edison was not only a prolific inventor but also was a successful entrepreneur.

The correlative conjunction *not only . . . but also* connects two noun phrases: *a prolific inventor* and *a successful entrepreneur*.

- It is easier to speak in abstractions than *grounding* one's thoughts in reality.

The comparative term *than* links two infinitive phrases: *to speak . . . to ground*.

NOTE: Repeating function words such as prepositions (*by*, *to*) and subordinating conjunctions (*that*, *because*) can make parallel ideas easier to grasp.

- Our study revealed that left-handed students were more likely to have trouble with classroom desks *that* and rearranging desks for exam periods was useful.

19

Add needed words.

Do not omit words necessary for grammatical or logical completeness. Readers need to see at a glance how the parts of a sentence are connected.

19a Words in compound structures

In compound structures, words are often omitted for economy: *Tom is a man who means what he says and [who]*

says what he means. Such omissions are acceptable as long as the omitted word is common to both parts of the compound structure.

If a sentence defies grammar or idiom because an omitted word is not common to both parts of the compound structure, the word must be put back in.

- Some of the regulars are acquaintances whom we
who
 see at work or live in our community.
^

The word *who* must be included because *whom live in our community* is not grammatically correct.

- Mayor Davidson never has and never will accept a
accepted
 bribe.
^

Has . . . accept is not grammatically correct.

- Many South Pacific tribes still believe and live by
in
 ancient laws.
^

Believe . . . by is not idiomatic English.

19b The word *that*

Add the word *that* if there is any danger of misreading without it.

- In his obedience experiments, psychologist Stanley
that
 Milgram discovered ordinary people were willing to
^
 inflict physical pain on strangers.

Milgram didn't discover people; he discovered that people were willing to inflict pain on strangers.

19c Words in comparisons

Comparisons should be between items that are alike. To compare unlike items is illogical and distracting.

- The forests of North America are much more
those of
 extensive than Europe.
^

Comparisons should be complete so that readers will understand what is being compared.

INCOMPLETE The mice have less energy.

COMPLETE The mice have less energy than the rats that were fed the same food.

Also, comparisons should leave no ambiguity about meaning. In the following sentence, two interpretations are possible.

AMBIGUOUS Kai helped me more than my roommate.

CLEAR Kai helped me more than *he helped* my roommate.

CLEAR Kai helped me more than my roommate *did*.

20 Eliminate confusing shifts.

20a Shifts in point of view

The point of view of a piece of writing is the perspective from which it is written: first person (*I* or *we*), second person (*you*), or third person (*he*, *she*, *it*, *one*, or *they*). The *I* (or *we*) point of view, which emphasizes the writer, is a good choice for writing based primarily on personal experience. The *you* point of view, which emphasizes the reader, works well for giving advice or explaining how to do something. The third-person point of view, which emphasizes the subject, is appropriate in most academic and professional writing.

Writers who are having difficulty settling on an appropriate point of view sometimes shift confusingly from one to another. The solution is to choose a suitable perspective and then stay with it. (See also 27a.)

- Our team created a new business plan. You were graded on your timeliness and thoroughness.
- Travelers need a signed passport for trips abroad. You should also fill out the emergency information page in the passport.

20b Shifts in tense

Consistent verb tenses clearly establish the time of the actions being described. When a passage begins in one tense and then shifts without warning and for no reason to another, readers are distracted and confused.

- There was no way I could get the class to settle down.

Just as I was becoming frustrated, another teacher
came *took*
comes in and takes control.
^ ^

Writers often shift verb tenses when writing about literature. The literary convention is to describe fictional events consistently in the present tense. (See p. 153.)

21 Untangle mixed constructions.

A mixed construction contains sentence parts that do not sensibly fit together. The mismatch may be a matter of grammar or of logic.

21a Mixed grammar

You should not begin with one grammatical plan and then switch without warning to another.

- M*
- For most drivers who have a blood alcohol level of .05% increase their risk of causing an accident.

The prepositional phrase beginning with *For* cannot serve as the subject of the verb *increase*. The revision makes *drivers* the subject.

- Although the United States is a wealthy nation, but more than 20% of our children live in poverty.

The coordinating conjunction *but* cannot link a subordinate clause (*Although . . .*) with an independent clause (*more than 20% . . .*).

21b Illogical connections

A sentence's subject and verb should make sense together.

- the double personal exemption for*
- Under the revised plan, the elderly/~~who now receive~~
a double personal exemption, will be abolished.

The exemption, not the elderly, will be abolished.

- Joe*
- The court decided that ~~Joe's welfare~~
safe living with his abusive parents.

Joe, not his welfare, would not be safe.

21c Is when, is where, and reason . . . is because constructions

In formal English, readers sometimes object to *is when*, *is where*, and *reason . . . is because* constructions on grammatical or logical grounds.

- a disorder suffered by people who*
- Anorexia nervosa *is where* people think they are too
fat and diet to the point of starvation.

Anorexia nervosa is a disorder, not a place.

- T*
- ~~The reason~~ *the experiment failed is because*
conditions in the lab were not sterile.

22 Repair misplaced and dangling modifiers.

Modifiers should point clearly to the words they modify. As a rule, related words should be kept together.

22a Misplaced words

The most commonly misplaced words are limiting modifiers such as *only*, *even*, *almost*, *nearly*, and *just*. They

should appear in front of a verb only if they modify the verb. If they limit the meaning of some other word in the sentence, they should be placed in front of that word.

- Lasers **only** destroy the target, leaving the
surrounding healthy tissue intact.
- I couldn't **even** save a dollar out of my paycheck.

When the limiting modifier *not* is misplaced, the sentence usually suggests a meaning that the writer did not intend.

- In the United States in 1860, all black southerners
were **not** slaves.

The original sentence means that no black southerners were slaves. The revision makes the writer's real meaning clear.

22b Misplaced phrases and clauses

Although phrases and clauses can appear at some distance from the words they modify, make sure your meaning is clear. When phrases or clauses are oddly placed, absurd misreadings can result.

- On the walls*
- There are many pictures of comedians who have
performed at Gavin's. **on the walls.**

The comedians weren't performing on the walls; the pictures were on the walls.

- 170-pound,*
- The robber was described as a six-foot-tall man
with a mustache. **weighing 170 pounds.**

The robber, not the mustache, weighed 170 pounds.

22c Dangling modifiers

A dangling modifier fails to refer logically to any word in the sentence. Dangling modifiers are usually introductory word groups (such as verbal phrases) that suggest but do not name an actor. When a sentence opens with such a

modifier, readers expect the subject of the next clause to name the actor. If it doesn't, the modifier dangles.

DANGLING Upon entering the doctor's office, a skeleton caught my attention.

This sentence suggests—absurdly—that the skeleton entered the doctor's office.

To repair a dangling modifier, you can revise the sentence in one of two ways:

1. Name the actor in the subject of the sentence.
2. Name the actor in the modifier.

- Upon entering the doctor's office, *I noticed* a skeleton.
~~caught my attention.~~
As I entered
► Upon *entering* the doctor's office, a skeleton
~~caught my attention.~~

You cannot repair a dangling modifier simply by moving it: *A skeleton caught my attention upon entering the doctor's office*. The sentence still suggests that the skeleton entered the doctor's office.

- Wanting to create checks and balances on power,
the framers of
the Constitution divided the government into three
branches.

The framers (not the Constitution itself) wanted to create checks and balances.

- women were often denied
► After completing seminary training, *women's*
access to the priesthood. ~~was often denied.~~

The women (not their access to the priesthood) completed the training. The writer has revised the sentence by making *women* (not *women's access*) the subject.

22d Split infinitives

An infinitive consists of *to* plus a verb: *to think, to dance*. When a modifier appears between its two parts, an infinitive is said to be “split”: *to carefully balance*. If a split

infinitive is awkward, move the modifier to another position in the sentence.

- Cardiologists encourage their patients to *more carefully.*
~~more carefully~~ watch their cholesterol levels! 

Attempts to avoid split infinitives sometimes result in awkward sentences. When alternative phrasing sounds unnatural, most experts allow—and even encourage—splitting the infinitive. *We decided to actually enforce the law* is a natural construction in English. *We decided actually to enforce the law* is not.

23

Provide sentence variety.

When a rough draft is filled with too many same-sounding sentences, try to inject some variety—as long as you can do so without sacrificing clarity or ease of reading.

23a Combining choppy sentences

If a series of short sentences sounds choppy, consider combining sentences. Look for opportunities to tuck some of your ideas into subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause, which contains a subject and a verb, begins with a word such as *after, although, because, before, if, since, that, unless, until, when, where, which, or who*. (See p. 232.)

- We keep our use of insecticides to a minimum, *because we*
We are concerned about the environment. 

Also look for opportunities to tuck some of your ideas into phrases, word groups without subjects or verbs (or both).

- The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, *is a 184-mile*
waterway constructed in the 1800s, *It was a major*
source of transportation for goods during the
Civil War.

Enveloped

- Sister Consilio was enveloped in a black robe with only
her face and hands visible.^{Sister Consilio}, She was an imposing figure.

When short sentences contain ideas of equal importance, it is often effective to combine them with *and*, *but*, or *or*.

- Shore houses were flooded up to the first floor,^{and}
Brant's Lighthouse was swallowed by the sea.

23b Varying sentence openings

Most sentences in English begin with the subject, move to the verb, and continue to an object, with modifiers tucked in along the way or put at the end. For the most part, such sentences are fine. Put too many of them in a row, however, and they become monotonous.

Words, phrases, or clauses modifying the verb can often be inserted ahead of the subject.

Eventually a

- A few drops of sap eventually began to trickle into
the pail.
- Just as the sun was coming up, a
A pair of black ducks flew over the pond.^{just as the}
~~sun was coming up.~~

Participial phrases (beginning with verb forms such as *driving* or *exhausted*) can frequently be moved to the beginning of a sentence without loss of clarity.

- The committee, discouraged by the researchers'
^D
^{the committee} apparent lack of progress, nearly withdrew funding
for the prize-winning experiments.

NOTE: In a sentence that begins with a participial phrase, the subject of the sentence must name the person or thing being described. If it doesn't, the phrase dangles. (See 22c.)

24**Find an appropriate voice.**

An appropriate voice is one that suits your subject, engages your audience, and conforms to the conventions of the genre in which you are writing, such as analytical essays, lab reports, research papers, business memos, and so on. (See also 2b and 2c.)

In writing in the social sciences and related fields, certain language is generally considered inappropriate: jargon, clichés, slang, and sexist language.

24a Jargon

Jargon is specialized language used among members of a trade, profession, or group. Use jargon only when readers will be familiar with it; even then, use it only when plain English will not do as well.

- JARGON** We outsourced the work to an outfit in Ohio because we didn't have the bandwidth to tackle it in-house.
- REVISED** We hired a company in Ohio because we had too few employees to do the work.

Broadly defined, jargon includes puffed-up language designed more to impress readers than to inform them. The following are common examples from business, government, higher education, and the military, with plain English translations in parentheses.

commence (begin)	indicator (sign)
components (parts)	optimal (best)
endeavor (try)	parameters (boundaries, limits)
facilitate (help)	prior to (before)
finalize (finish)	utilize (use)
impact (v.) (affect)	viable (workable)

Sentences filled with jargon are hard to read and often wordy.

talk

- The CEO should **dialogue** with investors about **working** ^ **partnering** with clients to buy land in **economically** ^ **neighborhoods**. **deprived zones**. ^

- All employees functioning in the capacity of
must prove that they are
work-study students are required to give evidence of
currently enrolled. ^
current enrollment. ^

24b Clichés

The pioneer who first announced that he had “slept like a log” no doubt amused his companions with a fresh and unlikely comparison. Today, however, that comparison is a cliché, a saying that can no longer add emphasis or surprise. To see just how predictable clichés are, put your hand over the right-hand column below and then finish the phrases given on the left.

cool as a	cucumber
beat around the	bush
busy as a	bee, beaver
crystal	clear
light as a	feather
like a bull	in a china shop
playing with	fire
nutty as a	fruitcake
selling like	hotcakes
water under the	bridge
white as a	sheet, ghost
avoid clichés like the	plague

The solution for clichés is simple: Just delete them. Sometimes you can write around a cliché by adding an element of surprise. One student who had written that she had butterflies in her stomach revised her cliché like this:

If all of the action in my stomach is caused by butterflies, there must be a horde of them, with horseshoes on.

The image of butterflies wearing horseshoes is fresh and unlikely, not predictable like the original cliché.

24c Slang

Slang is an informal and sometimes private vocabulary that expresses the solidarity of a group such as teenagers, rock musicians, or sports fans. Although it does have a certain vitality, slang is a code that not everyone understands, and it is too informal for most written work.

we lost

- When the server crashed, three hours of unsaved data ~~went down the tubes.~~

24d Sexist language

Sexist language excludes, stereotypes, or demeans women or men and should be avoided.

In your writing, avoid referring to any one profession as exclusively male or exclusively female (teachers as women or engineers as men, for example). Also avoid using different conventions when identifying women and men.

spouses

- All executives' ~~wives~~ *spouses* are invited to the picnic.
- Boris Stotsky, attorney, and ~~Mrs.~~ *Cynthia Jones, graphic designer,* ~~mother of three,~~ *a* are running for city council.

Traditionally, *he*, *him*, and *his* were used to refer generically to persons of either sex: *A journalist is motivated by his deadline.* You can avoid such sexist usage in one of three ways: substitute a pair of pronouns (*he or she*, *his or her*); reword in the plural; or revise the sentence to avoid the problem. Note that the terms *he or she* and *his or her* are inclusive but wordy; fine in small doses, they can become awkward when repeated throughout a paper. The other two strategies are usually more effective.

or her

- A journalist is motivated by *his* *deadline.*
- *Journalists are* *their deadlines.*
- ~~A journalist is~~ *is* motivated by *his* *deadline.*
- A journalist is motivated by *his* *deadline.*

Like *he* and *his*, the nouns *man* and *men* and related words were once used generically to refer to persons of either sex. Use gender-neutral terms instead.

INAPPROPRIATE

chairman
congressman
fireman
mailman
mankind
to man
weatherman

APPROPRIATE

chairperson, chair
representative, legislator
firefighter
mail carrier, postal worker
people, humans
to operate, to staff
meteorologist, forecaster



Grammar

- 25** Subject-verb agreement 144
- 26** Other problems with verbs 148
- 27** Pronouns 154
- 28** Adjectives and adverbs 162
- 29** Sentence fragments 164
- 30** Run-on sentences 166
- 31** Grammar concerns for multilingual writers 169

25**Make subjects and verbs agree.**

In the present tense, verbs agree with their subjects in number (singular or plural) and in person (first, second, or third). The present-tense ending *-s* is used on a verb if its subject is third-person singular; otherwise the verb takes no ending. Consider, for example, the present-tense forms of the verb *give*:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERSON	I give	we give
SECOND PERSON	you give	you give
THIRD PERSON	he/she/it gives Yolanda gives	they give parents give

The verb *be* varies from this pattern; it has special forms in *both* the present and the past tense.

PRESENT-TENSE FORMS OF BE	PAST-TENSE FORMS OF BE
I am	I was
you are	you were
he/she/it is	he/she/it was

This section describes particular situations that can cause problems with subject-verb agreement.

25a Words between subject and verb

Word groups often come between the subject and the verb. Such word groups, usually modifying the subject, may contain a noun that at first appears to be the subject. By mentally stripping away such modifiers, you can isolate the noun that is in fact the subject.

The *samples* on the tray in the lab *need* testing.

- High levels of air pollution damage~~s~~ the respiratory tract.

The subject is *levels*, not *pollution*.

- The slaughter of pandas for their pelts have caused the panda population to decline drastically.

The subject is *slaughter*, not *pandas* or *pelts*.

NOTE: Phrases beginning with the prepositions *as well as, in addition to, accompanied by, together with, and along with* do not make a singular subject plural: *The governor as well as his aide was [not were] on the plane.*

25b Subjects joined with *and*

Compound subjects joined with *and* are nearly always plural.

- Bleach and ammonia creates/**a toxic gas when mixed.**

EXCEPTION: If the parts of the subject form a single unit, you may treat the subject as singular: *Bacon and eggs is always on the menu.*

25c Subjects joined with *or* or *nor*

With compound subjects joined with *or* or *nor*, make the verb agree with the part of the subject nearer to the verb.

- If an infant or a child **are** having difficulty breathing,
 is
 seek medical attention immediately.

- Neither the lab assistant nor the students **was able**
 were
 to download the program.

25d Indefinite pronouns such as *someone*

Indefinite pronouns refer to nonspecific persons or things. The following indefinite pronouns are singular: *anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, no one, somebody, someone, something.*

- Nobody who participated in the taste tests **were** paid.
 was

- Each of the essays **have** been graded.
 has

A few indefinite pronouns (*all, any, none, some*) may be singular or plural depending on the noun or pronoun they refer to: *Some of our luggage was lost. Some of the rocks were slippery. None of his advice makes sense. None of the eggs were broken.*

25e Collective nouns such as *jury*

Collective nouns such as *jury*, *committee*, *audience*, *crowd*, *class*, *family*, and *couple* name a class or a group. In American English, collective nouns are usually treated as singular: They emphasize the group as a unit.

- The board of trustees **meet** in Denver twice a year.

meets

▲

Occasionally, to draw attention to the individual members of the group, a collective noun may be treated as plural: *The class are debating among themselves*. Many writers prefer to add a clearly plural noun such as *members*: *The class members are debating among themselves*.

NOTE: In general, when fractions or units of measurement are used with a singular noun, treat them as singular; when they are used with a plural noun, treat them as plural: *Three-fourths of the pie has been eaten*. *One-fourth of the drivers were texting*.

25f Subject after verb

Verbs ordinarily follow subjects. When this normal order is reversed, it is easy to be confused.

- Of particular concern **is** penicillin and tetracycline,

are

▲

antibiotics used to make animals more resistant
to disease.

The subject, *penicillin and tetracycline*, is plural.

The subject always follows the verb in sentences beginning with *there is* or *there are* (or *there was* or *there were*).

- There **was** a turtle and a snake in the tank.

were

▲

The subject, *turtle and snake*, is plural, so the verb must be *were*.

25g Who, which, and that

Like most pronouns, the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* have antecedents, nouns or pronouns to which they refer. Relative pronouns used as subjects of subordinate clauses take verbs that agree with their antecedents.



Take a *train that arrives* before 6:00 p.m.

Constructions such as *one of the students who* (or *one of the things that*) may cause problems for writers. Do not assume that the antecedent must be *one*. Instead, consider the logic of the sentence.

- Our ability to use language is one of the things
 set
 that sets us apart from animals.
 ^

The antecedent of *that* is *things*, not *one*. Several things set us apart from animals.

When the phrase *the only* comes before *one*, you are safe in assuming that *one* is the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

- Carmen is the only one of my friends who live
 ^
 in my building.

The antecedent of *who* is *one*, not *friends*. Only one friend lives in the building.

25h Plural form, singular meaning

Words such as *athletics*, *economics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, *politics*, *statistics*, *measles*, and *news* are usually singular, despite their plural form.

- Politics are among my mother's favorite pastimes.
 ^

EXCEPTION: Occasionally some of these words, especially *economics*, *mathematics*, *politics*, and *statistics*, have plural meanings: *Office politics often affect decisions about hiring and promotion*. *The economics of the building plan are prohibitive*.

25i Titles, company names, and words mentioned as words

Titles, company names, and words mentioned as words are singular.

describes

- *Lost Cities* **describe** the discoveries of 50 ancient civilizations.

specializes

- Delmonico Brothers **specialize** in organic produce and additive-free meats.

is

- *Controlled substances* **are** a euphemism for illegal drugs.

26**Be alert to other problems with verbs.**

Section 25 deals with subject-verb agreement. This section describes a few other potential problems with verbs.

26a Irregular verbs

For all regular verbs, the past-tense and past-participle forms are the same, ending in *-ed* or *-d*, so there is no danger of confusion. This is not true, however, for irregular verbs, such as the following.

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
begin	began	begun
fly	flew	flown
ride	rode	ridden

The past-tense form, which never has a helping verb, expresses action that occurred entirely in the past. The past participle is used with a helping verb—either with *has*, *have*, or *had* to form one of the perfect tenses or with *be*, *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *being*, or *been* to form the passive voice.

PAST TENSE Last July, we *began* collecting our data.

PAST PARTICIPLE We have *begun* to collect our data.

When you aren't sure which verb form to choose (*went* or *gone*, *began* or *begun*, and so on), consult the list

that begins at the bottom of this page. Choose the past-tense form if your sentence doesn't have a helping verb; choose the past-participle form if it does.

saw

- Yesterday we **seen** a film about rain forests.

^

Because there is no helping verb, the past-tense form *saw* is required.

fallen

- By the end of the day, the stock market had **fell**

^

210 points.

Because of the helping verb *had*, the past-participle form *fallen* is required.

Distinguishing between *lie* and *lay* Writers often confuse the forms of *lie* (meaning "to recline or rest on a surface") with those of *lay* (meaning "to put or place something"). The intransitive verb *lie* does not take a direct object: *The tax forms lie on the table*. The transitive verb *lay* takes a direct object: *Please lay the tax forms on the table*.

In addition to confusing the meanings of *lie* and *lay*, writers are often unfamiliar with the standard English forms of these verbs.

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
lie	lay	lain	lying
lay	laid	laid	laying

Elizabeth was so exhausted that she *lay* down for a nap.
[Past tense of *lie*, meaning "to recline"]

The prosecutor *laid* the photograph on a table close to the jurors. [Past tense of *lay*, meaning "to place"]

Letters dating from the Civil War were *lying* in the corner of the chest. [Present participle of *lie*]

The patient had *lain* in an uncomfortable position all night. [Past participle of *lie*]

Common irregular verbs

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
be	was, were	been

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
beat	beat	beaten, beat
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dive	dived, dove	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten, got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang (suspend)	hung	hung
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay (put)	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
let (allow)	let	let
lie (recline)	lay	lain

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
prove	proved	proved, proven
read	read	read
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise (get up)	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
send	sent	sent
set (place)	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shoot	shot	shot
shrink	shrank	shrunk, shrunken
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit (be seated)	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck, stricken
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke, waked	waked, woken
wear	wore	worn
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

26b Tense

Tenses indicate the time of an action in relation to the time of the speaking or writing about that action. The most common problem with tenses—shifting from one tense to another—is discussed in 20b. Other problems with tenses are detailed in this section, after the following survey of tenses.

Survey of tenses Tenses are classified as present, past, and future, with simple, perfect, and progressive forms for each.

The simple tenses indicate relatively simple time relations. The *simple present* tense is used primarily for actions occurring at the time they are being discussed or for actions occurring regularly. The *simple past* tense is used for actions completed in the past. The *simple future* tense is used for actions that will occur in the future. In the following table, the simple tenses are given for the regular verb *walk*, the irregular verb *ride*, and the highly irregular verb *be*.

SIMPLE PRESENT
SINGULAR

I	walk, ride, am
you	walk, ride, are
he/she/it	walks, rides, is

PLURAL

we	walk, ride, are
you	walk, ride, are
they	walk, ride, are

SIMPLE PAST
SINGULAR

I	walked, rode, was
you	walked, rode, were
he/she/it	walked, rode, was

PLURAL

we	walked, rode, were
you	walked, rode, were
they	walked, rode, were

SIMPLE FUTURE

I, you, he/she/it, we, they	will walk, ride, be
-----------------------------	---------------------

A verb in one of the perfect tenses (a form of *have* plus the past participle) expresses an action that was or will be completed at the time of another action.

PRESENT PERFECT

I, you, we, they
he/she/it

have walked, ridden, been
has walked, ridden, been

PAST PERFECT

I, you, he/she/it, we, they

had walked, ridden, been

FUTURE PERFECT

I, you, he/she/it, we, they

will have walked, ridden, been

Each of the six tenses has a progressive form used to describe actions in progress. A progressive verb consists of a form of *be* followed by the present participle.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE

I
he/she/it
you, we, they

am walking, riding, being
is walking, riding, being
are walking, riding, being

PAST PROGRESSIVE

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE

- I, you, he/she/it, we, they will be walking, riding, being

PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| I, you, we, they | have been walking, riding,
being |
| he/she/it | has been walking, riding, being |

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

- I, you, he/she/it, we, they had been walking, riding, being

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

- I, you, he/she/it, we, they will have been walking,
riding, being

Special uses of the present tense Use the present tense for applications or effects of your own results and for describing established knowledge.

- Our data indicated that concentrated poverty increases increased the likelihood of property crimes.
^
 - Galileo taught that the earth revolves around the sun.
^

See also 9b and the next section for uses of the past and present perfect tenses.

Note that in the humanities the present tense is used for writing about literary works.

- The scarlet letter was a punishment placed on Hester's breast by the community, and yet it was an imaginative product of Hester's own needlework.

Special uses of the past and present perfect tenses

Especially in literature reviews and primary research papers, use the past tense or present perfect tense to discuss your own findings or the work of others. (See also 9b; see the previous section for uses of the present tense.)

- In "On Violence," Arendt (1970) explores the relationship between violence and power.

26c Mood

There are three moods in English: the *indicative*, used for facts, opinions, and questions; the *imperative*, used for orders or advice; and the *subjunctive*, used to express wishes, requests, or conditions contrary to fact. For many writers, the subjunctive is especially challenging.

For wishes and in *if* clauses expressing conditions contrary to fact, the subjunctive is the past-tense form of the verb; in the case of *be*, it is always *were* (not *was*), even if the subject is singular.

I wish that Jamal *drove* more slowly late at night.

If I *were* a member of Congress, I would vote for the bill.

TIP: Do not use the subjunctive mood in *if* clauses expressing conditions that exist or may exist: *If Danielle passes [not passed] the test, she will become a lifeguard.*

Use the subjunctive mood in *that* clauses following verbs such as *ask*, *insist*, *recommend*, and *request*. The subjunctive in such cases is the base form of the verb.

Dr. Chung insists that her students *be* on time.

We recommend that Dawson *file* form 1050 soon.

27 Use pronouns with care.

Pronouns are words that substitute for nouns: *he*, *it*, *them*, *her*, *me*, and so on. Pronoun errors are typically related to the four topics discussed in this section:

- pronoun-antecedent agreement (singular vs. plural)
- pronoun reference (clarity)
- pronoun case (personal pronouns such as *I* vs. *me*)
- pronoun case (*who* vs. *whom*)

27a Pronoun-antecedent agreement

The antecedent of a pronoun is the word the pronoun refers to. A pronoun and its antecedent agree when they are both singular or both plural.

SINGULAR The *doctor* finished *her* rounds.

PLURAL The *doctors* finished *their* rounds.

Indefinite pronouns Indefinite pronouns refer to non-specific persons or things. Even though some of the following indefinite pronouns may seem to have plural meanings, treat them as singular in formal English: *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *each*, *either*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*, *neither*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *somebody*, *someone*, *something*.

In this class *everyone* performs at *his or her* [not *their*] own fitness level.

When *they* or *their* refers mistakenly to a singular antecedent such as *everyone*, you will usually have three options for revision:

1. Replace *they* with *he or she* (or *their* with *his or her*).
2. Make the antecedent plural.
3. Rewrite the sentence to avoid the problem.

Because the *he or she* construction is wordy, often the second or third revision strategy is more effective.

- he or she*
- If anyone wants to audition, ~~they~~ should sign up.
^
 - If ~~anyone~~ *singers* want to audition, *they* should sign up.
^
 - *Anyone who* ~~wants~~ to audition / *they* should sign up.
^

NOTE: The traditional use of *he* (or *his* or *him*) to refer to persons of either sex is now widely considered sexist. (See p. 142.)

Generic nouns A generic noun represents a typical member of a group, such as a student, or any member of a group, such as any lawyer. Although generic nouns may seem to have plural meanings, they are singular.

Every *runner* must train rigorously if *he or she* wants [not *they* want] to excel.

When a plural pronoun refers mistakenly to a generic noun, you will usually have the same revision options as for indefinite pronouns.

- he or she wants*
- A medical student must study hard if ~~they want~~ to succeed.
- Medical students*
- ~~A medical student~~ must study hard if ~~they want~~ to succeed.
- A medical student must study hard if ~~they want~~ to succeed.

Collective nouns Collective nouns such as *jury*, *committee*, *audience*, *crowd*, *family*, and *team* name a group. In American English, collective nouns are usually singular because they emphasize the group functioning as a unit.

The planning *committee* granted *its* [not *their*] permission to build.

If the members of the group function individually, however, you may treat the noun as plural: *The family put their signatures on the document*. Or you might add a plural antecedent such as *members* to the sentence: *The family members put their signatures on the document*.

27b Pronoun reference

In the sentence *When Andrew got home, he went straight to bed*, the noun *Andrew* is the antecedent of the pronoun *he*. A pronoun should refer clearly to its antecedent.

Ambiguous reference Ambiguous reference occurs when the pronoun could refer to two possible antecedents.

- The cake collapsed when Jo put it*
- ~~When Jo put the cake on the table, it collapsed.~~
- “You are*
- ~~The manager told Arthur, that he was being promoted.”~~

What collapsed—the cake or the table? Who was being promoted—the manager or Arthur? The revisions eliminate the ambiguity.

nouns like audience, team • identifying what the pronoun refers to • unclear antecedent • they, it, you

Implied reference A pronoun must refer to a specific antecedent, not to a word that is implied but not actually stated.

- After braiding Ann's hair, Sue decorated them with ribbons.

Vague reference of *this*, *that*, or *which* The pronouns *this*, *that*, and *which* should ordinarily refer to specific antecedents rather than to whole ideas or sentences. When a pronoun's reference is too vague, either replace the pronoun with a noun or supply an antecedent to which the pronoun clearly refers.

- ▶ Television advertising has created new demands for *the ads* prescription drugs. People respond to this by asking for drugs they may not need.
 - ▶ Romeo and Juliet were both too young to have *a fact* acquired much wisdom, and that accounts for their rash actions.

Indefinite reference of *they*, *it*, or *you* The pronoun *they* should refer to a specific antecedent. Do not use *they* to refer indefinitely to persons who have not been specifically mentioned.

- The board*

 - They announced an increase in sports fees for all student athletes.

The word *it* should not be used indefinitely in constructions such as *In the article, it says that. . .*

- The In the encyclopedia it states that male moths can smell female moths from several miles away.

The pronoun *you* is appropriate only when the writer is addressing the reader directly: *Once you have kneaded the dough, let it rise in a warm place.* Except in informal contexts, however, *you* should not be used to mean “anyone in general.”

- The academic handbook stipulates that *students*
you must complete a senior thesis to graduate.
 ^

27c Case of personal pronouns (*I* vs. *me* etc.)

The personal pronouns in the following list change what is known as *case form* according to their grammatical function in a sentence. Pronouns functioning as subjects or subject complements appear in the *subjective case*; those functioning as objects appear in the *objective case*; and those showing ownership appear in the *possessive case*.

SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE	POSSESSIVE CASE
I	me	my
we	us	our
you	you	your
he/she/it	him/her/it	his/her/its
they	them	their

For the most part, you know how to use these forms correctly. The structures discussed in this section may tempt you to choose the wrong pronoun.

Compound word groups You may sometimes be confused when a subject or an object appears as part of a compound structure. To test for the correct pronoun, mentally strip away all of the compound structure except the pronoun in question.

- While diving for pearls, Ikiko and *she* found a
 sunken boat.
 ^

Ikiko and she is the subject of the verb *found*. Strip away the words *Ikiko and* to test for the correct pronoun: *she found* [not *her found*].

- The most traumatic experience for *her father and me*
 I occurred long after her operation.
 ^

Her father and me is the object of the preposition *for*. Strip away the words *her father and* to test for the correct pronoun: *for me* [not *for I*].

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- > Grammar > 27–7 and 27–8
- > 27–10 and 27–11 (pronoun case review)

When in doubt about the correct pronoun, some writers try to evade the choice by using a reflexive pronoun such as *myself*. Using a reflexive pronoun in such situations is nonstandard.

- The Indian cab driver gave my husband and **me** myself some good tips on traveling in New Delhi.
▲

My husband and me is the indirect object of the verb *gave*.

Appositives Appositives are noun phrases that rename nouns or pronouns. A pronoun used as an appositive has the same function (usually subject or object) as the word(s) it renames.

- The chief strategists, Dr. Bell and **me**, could not **I,**
agree on a plan.
▲

The appositive *Dr. Bell and I* renames the subject, *strategists*.

Test: *I could not agree on a plan* [not *me could not agree on a plan*].

- The reporter interviewed only two witnesses, the **me,**
shopkeeper and **I.**
▲

The appositive *the shopkeeper and me* renames the direct object, *witnesses*. Test: *interviewed me* [not *interviewed I*].

Subject complements Use subjective-case pronouns for subject complements, which rename or describe the subject and usually follow *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, or been*.

- During the Lindbergh trial, Bruno Hauptmann **he.**
repeatedly denied that the kidnapper was **him.**
▲

If *kidnapper was he* seems too stilted, rewrite the sentence: *During the Lindbergh trial, Bruno Hauptmann repeatedly denied that he was the kidnapper*.

We or us before a noun When deciding whether *we* or *us* should precede a noun, choose the pronoun that would be appropriate if the noun were omitted.

- **We**
Us tenants would rather fight than move.
▲

Test: *We would rather fight* [not *Us would rather fight*].

- Management is shortchanging ^{us} we tenants.

Test: *Management is shortchanging us* [not *Management is shortchanging we*].

Pronoun after than or as When a comparison begins with *than* or *as*, your choice of pronoun will depend on your meaning. To test for the correct pronoun, finish the sentence.

- My brother is six years older than ^{I.} me.

Test: *older than I* [am].

- We respected no other candidate for city council as ^{her.} much as ^{she.} her.

Test: *as much as* [we respected] her.

Pronoun before or after an infinitive An infinitive is the word *to* followed by a verb. Both subjects and objects of infinitives take the objective case.

- Ms. Wilson asked John and ^{me} I to drive the senator ^{her} and ^{she} her to the airport.

John and me is the subject and *senator and her* is the object of the infinitive *to drive*.

Pronoun or noun before a gerund If a pronoun modifies a gerund, use the possessive case: *my, our, your, his, her, its, their*. A gerund is a verb form ending in *-ing* that functions as a noun.

- The chances of ^{your} you being hit by lightning are about two million to one.

Nouns as well as pronouns may modify gerunds. To form the possessive case of a noun, use an apostrophe and *-s* (*victim's*) for a singular noun or just an apostrophe (*victims'*) for a plural noun. (See also 34a.)

- The old order in France paid a high price for the *aristocracy's*
aristocracy exploiting the lower classes.
^

27d Who or whom

Who, a subjective-case pronoun, is used for subjects and subject complements. *Whom*, an objective-case pronoun, is used for objects. The words *who* and *whom* appear primarily in subordinate clauses or in questions.

In subordinate clauses When deciding whether to use *who* or *whom* in a subordinate clause, check for the word's function within the clause.

- He tells that story to *whomever* will listen.
^
- Whoever* is the subject of *will listen*. The entire subordinate clause *whoever will listen* is the object of the preposition *to*.

- You will work with our senior engineers, *who* you
^
will meet later.

Whom is the direct object of the verb *will meet*. This becomes clear if you restructure the clause: *you will meet whom later*.

In questions When deciding whether to use *who* or *whom* in a question, check for the word's function within the question.

- *Who*
^
Whom was responsible for creating that computer
^
virus?

Who is the subject of the verb *was*.

- *Whom*
^
Who would you nominate for council president?
^
- Whom* is the direct object of the verb *would nominate*. This becomes clear if you restructure the question: *You would nominate whom?*

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- > Grammar > 27–9
> 27–10 and 27–11 (pronoun case review)

28**Use adjectives and adverbs appropriately.**

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives (*formal, formally*). But don't assume that all words ending in *-ly* are adverbs or that all adverbs end in *-ly*. Some adjectives end in *-ly* (*lovely, friendly*), and some adverbs don't (*always, here*). When in doubt, consult a dictionary.

28a Adjectives

Adjectives ordinarily precede the nouns they modify. But they can also function as subject complements following linking verbs (usually a form of *be*: *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*). When an adjective functions as a subject complement, it describes the subject.

Justice is blind.

Verbs such as *smell, taste, look, appear, grow, and feel* may also be linking. If the word following one of these verbs describes the subject, use an adjective; if the word modifies the verb, use an adverb.

ADJECTIVE The detective looked *cautious*.

ADVERB The detective looked *cautiously* for the fingerprints.

Linking verbs usually suggest states of being, not actions. For example, to look *cautious* suggests the state of being cautious, whereas to look *cautiously* is to perform an action in a cautious way.

- Lori looked *well* in her new raincoat.
good
 ^
- All of us on the debate team felt *badly* about our performance.
bad
 ^

The verbs *looked* and *felt* suggest states of being, not actions, so they should be followed by adjectives.

28b Adverbs

Use adverbs to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Adverbs usually answer one of these questions: When? Where? How? Why? Under what conditions? How often? To what degree?

Adjectives are often used incorrectly in place of adverbs in casual or nonstandard speech.

- **The manager must ensure that the office runs smoothly efficiently.**
smoothly *efficiently*.
 ^ ^
 smooth and **efficient**.
- **The chance of recovering any property lost in the really fire looks real slim.**
 ^
The incorrect use of the adjective *good* in place of the adverb *well* is especially common in casual or nonstandard speech.

- **We were delighted that Nomo had done so good well on the exam.**
 ^
The incorrect use of the adjective *good* in place of the adverb *well* is especially common in casual or nonstandard speech.

28c Comparatives and superlatives

Most adjectives and adverbs have three forms: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
soft	softer	softest
fast	faster	fastest
careful	more careful	most careful
bad	worse	worst
good	better	best

Comparative vs. superlative Use the comparative to compare two things, the superlative to compare three or more.

- Which of these two products is *best*?
 ^
 better?
- Hermos is the *more* qualified of the three applicants.
 ^

Form of comparatives and superlatives To form comparatives and superlatives of one-syllable adjectives, use the endings *-er* and *-est*: *smooth, smoother, smoothest*. For adjectives with three or more syllables, use *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*): *exciting, more exciting, most exciting*. Two-syllable adjectives form comparatives and superlatives in both ways: *lovely, lovelier, loveliest; helpful, more helpful, most helpful*.

Some one-syllable adverbs take the endings *-er* and *-est*: *fast, faster, fastest*. Longer adverbs and all of those ending in *-ly* use *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*): *quickly, more quickly, most quickly*.

Double comparatives or superlatives When you have added *-er* or *-est* to an adjective or an adverb, do not also use *more* or *most* (or *less* or *least*).

- All the polls indicated that Gore was more
likely
likelier to win than Bush.
▲

Absolute concepts Do not use comparatives or superlatives with absolute concepts such as *unique* or *perfect*. Either something is unique or it isn't. It is illogical to suggest that absolute concepts come in degrees.

- That butterfly was the most *unusual* unique specimen they
had ever encountered.
▲

29

Repair sentence fragments.

As a rule, do not treat a piece of a sentence as if it were a sentence. When you do, you create a fragment. To be a sentence, a word group must consist of at least one full independent clause. An independent clause has a subject and a verb, and it either stands alone as a sentence or could stand alone.

You can repair a fragment in one of two ways: Either pull the fragment into a nearby sentence, punctuating the new sentence correctly, or rewrite the fragment as a complete sentence.

29a Fragmented clauses

A subordinate clause is patterned like a sentence, with both a subject and a verb, but it begins with a word that tells readers it cannot stand alone—a word such as *after*, *although*, *because*, *before*, *if*, *so that*, *that*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, *when*, *where*, *who*, or *which*. (For a longer list, see p. 232.)

Most fragmented clauses beg to be pulled into a sentence nearby.

- We fear the West Nile virus/^{because} Because it is transmitted
by the common mosquito.

If a fragmented clause cannot be combined gracefully with a nearby sentence, try rewriting it. The simplest way to turn a fragmented clause into a sentence is to delete the opening word or words that mark it as subordinate.

- Uncontrolled development is taking a deadly toll on
^{In} the environment. So that in many parts of the world,
[^] fragile ecosystems are collapsing.

29b Fragmented phrases

Like subordinate clauses, certain phrases are sometimes mistaken for sentences. They are fragments if they lack a subject, a verb, or both. Frequently a fragmented phrase may simply be pulled into a nearby sentence.

- The archaeologists worked slowly/^{examining} Examining and
labeling hundreds of pottery shards.

The word group beginning with *Examining* is a verbal phrase, not a sentence.

- Many adults suffer silently from agoraphobia/^a A
fear of the outside world.

A fear of the outside world is an appositive phrase, not a sentence.

- It has been said that there are only three indigenous American art forms *jazz,* *Jazz,* musical comedy, and soap operas.

The list is not a sentence. Notice how easily a colon corrects the problem. (See 33b.)

If the fragmented phrase cannot be attached to a nearby sentence, turn the phrase into a sentence. You may need to add a subject, a verb, or both.

- Researchers have discovered additional strains of the virus. *They also learned* *Also* how these viruses are transmitted *^* and multiply.

The revision turns the fragmented phrase into a sentence by adding a subject and a verb.

29c Acceptable fragments

Skilled writers occasionally use sentence fragments for emphasis. Although fragments are sometimes appropriate, writers and readers do not always agree on when they are appropriate. Therefore, you will find it safer to write in complete sentences.

30

Revise run-on sentences.

Run-on sentences are independent clauses that have not been joined correctly. An independent clause is a word group that stands alone or could stand alone as a sentence. When two or more independent clauses appear in one sentence, they must be joined in one of these ways:

- with a comma and a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*)
- with a semicolon (or occasionally a colon or a dash)

There are two types of run-on sentences. When a writer puts no mark of punctuation and no coordinating conjunction between independent clauses, the result is a *fused sentence.*

FUSED

Air pollution poses risks to all humans it can be deadly for people with asthma.

A far more common type of run-on sentence is the *comma splice*—two or more independent clauses joined with a comma and no coordinating conjunction. In some comma splices, the comma appears alone.

COMMA SPLICE

Air pollution poses risks to all humans, it can be deadly for people with asthma.

In other comma splices, the comma is accompanied by a joining word, such as *however*, that is *not* a coordinating conjunction. (See 30b.)

COMMA SPLICE

Air pollution poses risks to all humans, however, it can be deadly for people with asthma.

To correct a run-on sentence, you have four choices:

1. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction.
2. Use a semicolon (or, if appropriate, a colon or a dash).
3. Make the clauses into separate sentences.
4. Restructure the sentence, perhaps by subordinating one of the clauses.

One of these revision techniques will usually work better than the others for a particular sentence. The fourth technique, the one requiring the most extensive revision, is often the most effective.

CORRECTED WITH COMMA AND COORDINATING CONJUNCTION

Air pollution poses risks to all humans, but it can be deadly for people with asthma.

CORRECTED WITH SEMICOLON

Air pollution poses risks to all humans; it can be deadly for people with asthma.

CORRECTED WITH SEPARATE SENTENCES

Air pollution poses risks to all humans. It can be deadly for people with asthma.

CORRECTED BY RESTRUCTURING

Although air pollution poses risks to all humans, it can be deadly for people with asthma.

30a Revision with a comma and a coordinating conjunction

When a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) joins independent clauses, it is usually preceded by a comma.

- Most of his friends had made plans for their *but* retirement, Tom had not.
^

30b Revision with a semicolon (or a colon or a dash)

When the independent clauses are closely related and their relation is clear without a coordinating conjunction, a semicolon is an acceptable method of revision.

- Tragedy depicts the individual confronted with the fact of death;
^ comedy depicts the adaptability of human society.

A semicolon is required between independent clauses that have been linked with a conjunctive adverb such as *however* or *therefore* or a transitional phrase such as *in fact* or *of course*. (See 33a for longer lists.)

- The timber wolf looks like a large German shepherd;
^ however, the wolf has longer legs, larger feet, and a wider head.

If the first independent clause introduces a quoted sentence, use a colon.

- Martin Luther King Jr. (1963) explained his presence in Birmingham this way:
^ “Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere.”

Either a colon or a dash may be appropriate when the second clause summarizes or explains the first. (See 33b and 36d.)

30c Revision by separating sentences

If both independent clauses are long—or if one is a question and the other is not—consider making them separate sentences.

- Why should we spend money on space exploration?
We
we have enough underfunded programs here on
Earth.

30d Revision by restructuring the sentence

For sentence variety, consider restructuring the run-on sentence, perhaps by turning one of the independent clauses into a subordinate clause or a phrase.

- One of the most famous advertising slogans is Wheaties cereal’s “Breakfast of Champions,” which was penned in 1933.
- Mary McLeod Bethune, was the 17th child of former slaves, she founded the National Council of Negro Women in 1935.

31

Review grammar concerns for multilingual writers.

31a Verbs

This section offers a brief review of English verb forms and tenses and the passive voice.

Verb forms Every main verb in English has five forms (except *be*, which has eight). These forms are used to create all of the verb tenses in standard English. The list on the following page shows these forms for the regular verb *help* and the irregular verbs *give* and *be*.

	REGULAR (HELP)	IRREGULAR (GIVE)	IRREGULAR (BE)*
BASE FORM	help	give	be
PAST TENSE	helped	gave	was, were
PAST PARTICIPLE	helped	given	been
PRESENT PARTICIPLE	helping	giving	being
-S FORM	helps	gives	is

*Be also has the forms *am* and *are*, which are used in the present tense. (See also p. 152.)

Verb tense Here are descriptions of the tenses and progressive forms in standard English. See also 26b.

The simple tenses show general facts, states of being, and actions that occur regularly.

Simple present tense (base form or -s form) expresses general facts, constant states, habitual or repetitive actions, or scheduled future events: *The sun rises in the east. The plane leaves tomorrow at 6:30 a.m.*

Simple past tense (base form + -ed or -d or irregular form) is used for actions that happened at a specific time or during a specific period in the past or for repetitive actions that have ended: *She drove to Montana three years ago. When I was young, I walked to school.*

Simple future tense (will + base form) expresses actions that will occur at some time in the future and promises or predictions of future events: *I will call you next week.*

The simple progressive forms show continuing action.

Present progressive (am, is, are + present participle) shows actions in progress that are not expected to remain constant or future actions (with verbs such as *go, come, move*): *We are building our house at the shore. They are moving tomorrow.*

Past progressive (was, were + present participle) shows actions in progress at a specific past time or a continuing action that was interrupted: *Roy was driving his new car yesterday. When she walked in, we were planning her party.*

Future progressive (will + be + present participle) expresses actions that will be in progress at a certain time in the future: *Nan will be flying home tomorrow.*

TIP: Certain verbs are not normally used in the progressive: *appear, believe, belong, contain, have, hear, know, like, need, see, seem, taste, think, understand, and want*. There are exceptions, however, that you must notice as you encounter them: *We are thinking of buying a summer home.*

The perfect tenses show actions that happened or will happen before another time.

Present perfect tense (have, has + past participle) expresses actions that began in the past and continue to the present or actions that happened at an unspecific time in the past: *She has not spoken of her grandfather in a long time. They have traveled to Africa twice.*

Past perfect tense (had + past participle) expresses an action that began or occurred before another time in the past: *By the time Hakan was 15, he had learned to drive. I had just finished my walk when my brother drove up.*

Future perfect tense (will + have + past participle) expresses actions that will be completed before or at a specific future time: *By the time I graduate, I will have taken five film study classes.*

The perfect progressive forms show continuous past actions before another time.

Present perfect progressive (have, has + been + present participle) expresses continuous actions that began in the past and continue to the present: *My sister has been living in Oregon since 2007.*

Past perfect progressive (had + been + present participle) conveys actions that began and continued in the past until some other past action: *By the time I moved to Georgia, I had been supporting myself for five years.*

Future perfect progressive (will + have + been + present participle) expresses actions that are or will be in progress before another specified time in the future: *By the time we reach the cashier, we will have been waiting in line for an hour.*

Modal verbs The nine modal verbs—*can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would*—are used with the base form of verbs to show certainty, necessity, or possibility. Modals do not change form to indicate tense.

- The art museum will launches its fundraising campaign next month.
^
 - We could speak Portuguese when we were young.
^

Passive voice When a sentence is written in the passive voice, the subject receives the action instead of doing it. To form the passive voice, use a form of *be*—*am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *being*, *be*, or *been*—followed by the past participle of the main verb. (For appropriate uses of the passive voice, see 17b.)

- *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*
written
was writing by Max Weber.
 ^ be
 - Senator Dixon will defeated.
 ^

NOTE: Verbs that do not take direct objects—such as *occur*, *happen*, *sleep*, *die*, and *fall*—do not form the passive voice.

31b Articles (*a, an, the*)

Articles and other noun markers Articles (*a, an, the*) are part of a category of words known as *noun markers* or *determiners*. Noun markers identify the nouns that follow them. Besides articles, noun markers include possessive nouns (*Elena's, child's*); possessive pronoun/adjectives (*my, your, their*); demonstrative pronoun/adjectives (*this, that*); quantifiers (*all, few, neither, some*); and numbers (*one, 26*).

ART N

Felix is reading a book about mythology

ART ADJ N

We took an exciting trip to Alaska last summer.

When to use a or an Use *a* or *an* with singular count nouns that refer to one unspecific item (not a whole category). *Count nouns* refer to persons, places, things, or ideas that can be counted: *one girl, two girls; one city, three cities; one goose, four geese.*

- My professor asked me to bring ^a dictionary to class.

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 > Grammar > 31–4 to 31–6

- We want to rent **an** apartment close to the lake.

When to use *the* Use *the* with most nouns that the reader can identify specifically. Usually the identity will be clear to the reader for one of the following reasons:

1. The noun has been previously mentioned.

- A truck cut in front of our van. When truck
skidded a few seconds later, we almost crashed
into it.

2. A phrase or clause following the noun restricts its identity.

- Bryce warned me that GPS in his car was not
working.

3. A superlative adjective such as *best* or *most intelligent* makes the noun's identity specific. (See also 28c.)

- Brita had best players on her team.

4. The noun describes a unique person, place, or thing.

- During an eclipse, viewers should not look directly
at sun.

5. The context or situation makes the noun's identity clear.

- Please don't slam door when you leave.

6. The noun is singular and refers to a class or category of items (most often animals, musical instruments, and inventions).

- *The tin* Tin whistle is common in traditional Irish music.

When not to use articles Do not use *a* or *an* with non-count nouns. *Noncount nouns* refer to things or abstract

ideas that cannot be counted or made plural: *salt, silver, air, furniture, patience, knowledge*. (See the chart at the bottom of this page.)

To express an approximate amount of a noncount noun, use a quantifier such as *some* or *more*: *some water, enough coffee, less violence*.

- Ava gave us **an** information about the Peace Corps.

some

- Claudia said she had **a** news that would surprise
her parents.

Do not use articles with nouns that refer to all of something or something in general.

Kindness

- The **kindness** is a virtue.
In some parts of the world, **the** rice is preferred to all other grains.

Commonly used noncount nouns

Food and drink

beef, bread, butter, candy, cereal, cheese, cream, meat, milk, pasta, rice, salt, sugar, wine

Nonfood substances

air, cement, coal, dirt, gasoline, gold, paper, petroleum, plastic, rain, silver, snow, soap, steel, wood, wool

Abstract nouns

advice, anger, beauty, confidence, courage, employment, fun, happiness, health, honesty, information, intelligence, knowledge, love, poverty, satisfaction, wealth

Other

biology (and other areas of study), clothing, equipment, furniture, homework, jewelry, luggage, machinery, mail, money, news, poetry, pollution, research, scenery, traffic, transportation, violence, weather, work

NOTE: A few noncount nouns can also be used as count nouns: *He had two loves: music and archery.*

When to use articles with proper nouns Do not use articles with most singular proper nouns: *Prime Minister Cameron, Jamaica, Lake Huron, Ivy Street, Mount Everest*. Use *the* with most plural proper nouns: *the McGregors, the Bahamas, the Finger Lakes, the United States*. Also use *the* with large regions, oceans, rivers, and mountain ranges: *the Sahara, the Indian Ocean, the Amazon River, the Rocky Mountains*.

There are, however, many exceptions, especially with geographic names. Note exceptions when you encounter them or consult a native speaker or an ESL dictionary.

31c Sentence structure

This section focuses on the major challenges that multilingual students face when writing sentences in English.

Omitted verbs Some languages do not use linking verbs (*am, is, are, was, were*) between subjects and complements (nouns or adjectives that rename or describe the subject). Every English sentence, however, must include a verb.

- Jim ^{is} intelligent.
 ^
- Many streets in San Francisco ^{are} very steep.
 ^

Omitted subjects Some languages do not require a subject in every sentence. Every English sentence, however, needs a subject.

- Your aunt ^{She seems} is very energetic. ^{Seems} young for her age.
 ^

EXCEPTION: In commands, the subject *you* is understood but not present in the sentence: *Give me the book*.

The word *it* is used as the subject of a sentence describing the weather or temperature, stating the time, indicating distance, or suggesting an environmental fact. Do not omit *it* in such sentences.

It is raining in the valley and snowing in the mountains.

It is 9:15 a.m.

It is 340 miles to Chicago.

In July, *it* is very hot in Arizona.

In some English sentences, the subject comes after the verb, and a placeholder (called an expletive)—*there* or *it*—comes before the verb.

EXP V [S]

[S] V

There are many people here today. (Many people are here today.)

EXP V

[S]

[S]

V

It is important to study daily. (To study daily is important.)

there are

- As you know, many religious sects in India.
 ^

Repeated subjects, objects, and adverbs English does not allow a subject to be repeated in its own clause.

- The doctor ~~she~~ advised me to cut down on salt.

Do not add a pronoun even when a word group comes between the subject and the verb.

- The car that had been stolen ~~it~~ was found.

Do not repeat an object or an adverb in an adjective clause. Adjective clauses begin with relative pronouns (*who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*) or relative adverbs (*when*, *where*). Relative pronouns usually serve as subjects or objects in the clauses they introduce; another word in the clause cannot serve the same function. Relative adverbs should not be repeated by other adverbs later in the clause.

- The cat ran under the car that ~~it~~ was parked on
the street.

The relative pronoun *that* is the subject of the adjective clause, so the pronoun *it* cannot be added as the subject.

If the clause begins with a relative adverb, do not use another adverb with the same meaning later in the clause.

- The office where I work ~~there~~ is close to home.

The adverb *there* cannot repeat the relative adverb *where*.

31d Prepositions showing time and place

The chart on this page is limited to three prepositions that show time and place: *at*, *on*, and *in*. Not every possible use is listed in the chart, so don't be surprised when you encounter exceptions and idiomatic uses that you must learn one at a time. For example, in English, we ride *in* a car but *on* a bus, plane, train, or subway.

At, on, and *in* to show time and place

Showing time

AT *at* a specific time: *at* 7:20, *at* dawn, *at* dinner

ON *on* a specific day or date: *on* Tuesday, *on* June 4

IN *in* a part of a day: *in* the afternoon, *in* the daytime [but *at* night]

in a year or month: *in* 1999, *in* July

in a period of time: finished *in* 13 hours

Showing place

AT *at* a meeting place or location: *at* home, *at* the club

at a specific address: living *at* 10 Oak Street

at the edge of something: sitting *at* the desk

at the corner of something: turning *at* the intersection

at a target: throwing the snowball *at* Lucy

ON *on* a surface: placed *on* the table, hanging *on* the wall

on a street: the house *on* Spring Street

on an electronic medium: *on* television, *on* the Internet

IN *in* an enclosed space: *in* the garage, *in* an envelope

in a geographic location: *in* San Diego, *in* Texas

in a print medium: *in* a book, *in* a magazine



Punctuation

- 32** The comma 179
- 33** The semicolon and the colon 186
- 34** The apostrophe 189
- 35** Quotation marks 191
- 36** Other marks 195

32 The comma

The comma was invented to help readers. Without it, sentence parts can collide into one another unexpectedly, causing misreadings.

CONFUSING If you cook Elmer will do the dishes.

CONFUSING While we were eating a skunk approached our campsite.

Add commas in the logical places (after *cook* and *eating*), and suddenly all is clear. No longer is Elmer being cooked, the skunk being eaten.

Various rules have evolved to prevent such misreadings and to guide readers through complex grammatical structures. According to most experts, you should use a comma in the situations described in this section.

32a Before a coordinating conjunction joining independent clauses

When a coordinating conjunction connects two or more independent clauses—word groups that could stand alone as separate sentences—a comma must precede the conjunction. There are seven coordinating conjunctions in English: *and, but, or, nor, for, so, and yet*.

A comma tells readers that one independent clause has come to a close and that another is about to begin.

► Respondents were given 5 minutes, but none
completed the survey.

EXCEPTION: If the two independent clauses are short and there is no danger of misreading, the comma may be omitted.

The plane took off and we were on our way.

TIP: Do *not* use a comma to separate compound elements that are not independent clauses. See 32j.

32b After an introductory word group

Use a comma after an introductory clause or phrase. A comma tells readers that the introductory word group has come to a close and that the main part of the sentence is about to begin. The most common introductory word

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> Punctuation > 32–1 to 32–5

groups are adverb clauses, prepositional phrases, and participial phrases.

- When Karl Marx wrote *Capital*, many societies were in the early stages of industrialization.
- During the past 10 years of research, scientists have made important discoveries about how humans form memories.
- Buried under layers of younger rocks, the earth's oldest rocks contain no fossils.

EXCEPTION: The comma may be omitted after a short clause or phrase if there is no danger of misreading.

In no time we were at 2,800 feet.

32c Between items in a series

Use a comma between all items in a series, including the last two.

- Concentrated poverty, high rates of unemployment, high crimes rates, and social disorder are common in urban areas.

32d Between coordinate adjectives

Use a comma between coordinate adjectives, those that each modify a noun separately.

- Should patients with severe, irreversible brain damage be put on life support systems?

Adjectives are coordinate if they can be connected with *and*: *severe and irreversible*.

NOTE: Do not use a comma between cumulative adjectives, those that do not each modify the noun separately.

Three large gray shapes moved slowly toward us.

Cumulative adjectives cannot be joined with *and* (not *three and large and gray shapes*).

32e To set off a nonrestrictive element, but not a restrictive element

A *restrictive* element defines or limits the meaning of the word it modifies; it is therefore essential to the meaning of the sentence and is not set off with commas. A *nonrestrictive* element describes a word whose meaning already is clear. Because it is not essential to the meaning of the sentence, it is set off with commas.

RESTRICTIVE (NO COMMAS)

Adolescents need activities *that are positive*.

NONRESTRICTIVE (WITH COMMAS)

Adolescents need positive activities, *which do not have to be expensive*.

If you remove a restrictive element from a sentence, the meaning changes significantly, becoming more general than intended. The writer of the first sample sentence does not mean that adolescents need activities in general. The meaning is more restricted: Adolescents need *positive* activities.

If you remove a nonrestrictive element from a sentence, the meaning does not change significantly. Some meaning may be lost, but the defining characteristics of the person or thing described remain the same: Adolescents need *positive* activities, and the activities need not be expensive.

Elements that may be restrictive or nonrestrictive include adjective clauses, adjective phrases, and appositives.

Adjective clauses Adjective clauses, which usually follow the noun or pronoun they describe, begin with a relative pronoun (*who, whom, whose, which, that*) or a relative adverb (*when, where*). When an adjective clause is nonrestrictive, set it off with commas; when it is restrictive, omit the commas.

NONRESTRICTIVE CLAUSE (WITH COMMAS)

- The Kyoto Protocol, *which was adopted in 1997*,
aims to reduce greenhouse gases.

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE (NO COMMAS)

- A corporation/*that has government contracts*/*must*
maintain careful personnel records.



NOTE: Use *that* only with restrictive clauses and *which* only with nonrestrictive clauses.

that

- Some foods **which** are high in protein are difficult
to digest.

Adjective phrases Prepositional or verbal phrases functioning as adjectives may be restrictive or nonrestrictive. Nonrestrictive phrases are set off with commas; restrictive phrases are not.

NONRESTRICTIVE PHRASE (WITH COMMAS)

- The eight students, **with** their lab kits in hand, began
the experiment.

RESTRICTIVE PHRASE (NO COMMAS)

- One corner of the attic was filled with newspapers,
dating from the 1920s.

Appositives An appositive is a noun or pronoun that renames a nearby noun. Nonrestrictive appositives are set off with commas; restrictive appositives are not.

NONRESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE (WITH COMMAS)

- Darwin's most important book, ***On the Origin***
of Species, was the result of many years of
research.

RESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVE (NO COMMAS)

- Selections from the book ***Democracy and Education***,
were read aloud in class.

32f To set off transitional and parenthetical expressions, absolute phrases, and contrasted elements

Transitional expressions Transitional expressions serve as bridges between sentences or parts of sentences. They include conjunctive adverbs such as *however*, *therefore*, and *moreover* and transitional phrases such as *for example* and *as a matter of fact*. For longer lists, see pages 186 and 187.

When a transitional expression appears between independent clauses in a compound sentence, it is preceded by a semicolon and usually followed by a comma.

- Minh did not understand our language; moreover, he was unfamiliar with our customs.

When a transitional expression appears at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle of an independent clause, it is usually set off with commas.

- In fact, stock values rose after the company's press release.
 - Natural foods are not always salt-free; celery, for example, is high in sodium.

Parenthetical expressions Expressions that are distinctly parenthetical, interrupting the flow of a sentence, should be set off with commas.

- Evolution, so far as we know, doesn't work this way

Absolute phrases An absolute phrase consists of a noun followed by a participle or participial phrase. It modifies the whole sentence and should be set off with commas.



Our grant having been approved, we were at last able to begin the archaeological dig.

Contrasted elements Sharp contrasts beginning with words such as *not* and *unlike* are set off with commas.

- The Epicurean philosophers sought mental, not bodily, pleasures.

32g To set off nouns of direct address, the words *yes* and *no*, interrogative tags, and mild interjections

- ▶ Forgive me, Angela, for forgetting our meeting.
 ^ ^
 - ▶ Yes, the loan will probably be approved.



- The film was faithful to the book,[,] wasn't it?
- Well,[,] cases like this are difficult to decide.

32h To set off direct quotations introduced with expressions such as *he argued*

- Gladwell (2008) has asserted,[,] "Those who are successful . . . are most likely to be given the kinds of special opportunities that lead to further success" (p. 30).

32i With dates, addresses, and titles

Dates In dates, the year is set off from the rest of the sentence with commas.

- On December 12,[,] 1890,[,] orders were sent out for the arrest of Sitting Bull.

EXCEPTIONS: Commas are not needed if the date is inverted or if only the month and year are given: *The 15 April 2012 deadline is approaching. May 2009 was a surprisingly cold month.*

Addresses The elements of an address or a place name are separated by commas. A zip code, however, is not preceded by a comma.

- The teen group met at 1113 Peoria Street,[,] Washington,[,] IL 61571.

Titles If a title follows a name, set off the title with a pair of commas.

- Sandra Barnes,[,] MD,[,] was appointed to the board.

32j Misuses of the comma

Do not use commas unless you have good reasons for using them. In particular, avoid using commas in the following situations.

WITH A COORDINATING CONJUNCTION JOINING ONLY TWO ELEMENTS

- Marie Curie discovered radium/**/**and later applied her work on radioactivity to medicine.

TO SEPARATE A VERB FROM ITS SUBJECT

- Zoos large enough to give the animals freedom to roam/**/**are becoming more popular.

BETWEEN CUMULATIVE ADJECTIVES (See p. 180.)

- We found an old/**/**maroon hatbox.

TO SET OFF RESTRICTIVE ELEMENTS (See 32e.)

- Drivers/**/**who think they own the road/**/**make cycling a dangerous sport.
- Woody Guthrie's song/**/** “This Land Is Your Land/**/**” was added to the National Recording Registry in 2002.

AFTER A COORDINATING CONJUNCTION

- Occasionally TV talk shows are performed live, but/**/**more often they are taped.

AFTER *SUCH AS* OR *LIKE*

- Bacterial infections such as/**/**methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) have become a serious concern in hospitals.

BEFORE *THAN*

- Touring Crete was more interesting/**/**than visiting the Greek islands frequented by the rich.

BEFORE A PARENTHESIS

- At InterComm, Sylvia began at the bottom/**(**with only a cubicle and a swivel chair), but within three years she had been promoted to supervisor.

TO SET OFF AN INDIRECT (REPORTED) QUOTATION

- Samuel Goldwyn once said/**that a verbal contract isn't worth the paper it's written on.**

WITH A QUESTION MARK OR AN EXCLAMATION POINT

- “**Why don't you try it?/”** she coaxed.

33**The semicolon and the colon****33a The semicolon**

The semicolon is used between independent clauses not joined with a coordinating conjunction. It can also be used between items in a series containing internal punctuation.

The semicolon is never used between elements of unequal grammatical rank.

Between independent clauses When two independent clauses appear in one sentence, they are usually linked with a comma and a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*). The coordinating conjunction signals the relation between the clauses. If the relation is clear without a conjunction, a writer may choose to connect the clauses with a semicolon instead.

In film, a low-angle shot makes the subject look powerful; a high-angle shot does just the opposite.

A writer may also connect the clauses with a semicolon and a conjunctive adverb such as *however* or a transitional phrase such as *for example*.

Many corals grow very gradually; in fact, the creation of a coral reef can take centuries.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

accordingly, also, anyway, besides, certainly, consequently, conversely, finally, furthermore, hence, however, incidentally, indeed, instead, likewise, meanwhile, moreover, nevertheless, next, nonetheless, now, otherwise, similarly, specifically, still, subsequently, then, therefore, thus

TRANSITIONAL PHRASES

after all, as a matter of fact, as a result, at any rate, at the same time, even so, for example, for instance, in addition, in conclusion, in fact, in other words, in the first place, on the contrary

NOTE: A semicolon must be used whenever two independent clauses appear in the same sentence with no coordinating conjunction between them. To use merely a comma—or to use a comma and a conjunctive adverb or transitional expression—creates an error known as a *comma splice*. (See section 30.)

Between items in a series containing internal punctuation Items in a series are usually separated by commas. If one or more of the items contain internal punctuation, however, use semicolons between the items for clarity.

Classic science fiction sagas include *Star Trek*, with Captain Kirk, Dr. McCoy, and Mr. Spock; *Battlestar Galactica*, with its Cylons; and *Star Wars*, with Han Solo, Luke Skywalker, and Darth Vader.

Misuses of the semicolon Do not use a semicolon in the following situations.

BETWEEN AN INDEPENDENT CLAUSE AND A SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

- The media like to portray my generation as lazy,
although polls show that we work as hard as the
twentysomethings before us.

BETWEEN AN APPosITIVE AND THE WORD IT REFERS TO

- We were fascinated by the species *Argyroneta aquatica*, a spider that lives underwater.

TO INTRODUCE A LIST

- Some public-sector professions require specialized
training, teaching, law enforcement, and firefighting.

BETWEEN INDEPENDENT CLAUSES JOINED BY *AND*, *BUT*, *OR*, *NOR*, *FOR*, *SO*, OR *YET*

- Five of the applicants had used spreadsheets,
but only one was familiar with databases.

33b The colon

Main uses of the colon A colon can be used after an independent clause to direct readers' attention to a list, an appositive, or a quotation.

A LIST

The routine includes the following: 20 knee bends, 50 leg lifts, and 5 minutes of running in place.

AN APPOSITIVE

My roommate is guilty of two of the seven deadly sins: gluttony and sloth.

A QUOTATION

Consider the words of Benjamin Franklin: "There never was a good war or a bad peace."

For other ways of introducing quotations, see pages 193–94.

A colon may also be used between independent clauses if the second clause summarizes or explains the first clause.

Faith is like love: It cannot be forced.

The second independent clause should begin with a capital letter. (See 37f.)

Conventional uses Use a colon after the salutation in a formal letter, to indicate hours and minutes, to show proportions, between a title and a subtitle, to separate location and publisher in reference list entries, and between chapter and verse in citations of sacred texts.

Dear Sir or Madam:

5:30 p.m.

The ratio of women to men was 2:1.

Alvin Ailey: A Life in Dance

Boston, MA: Bedford/St. Martin's

Luke 2:14, Qur'an 67:3

Misuses of the colon A colon must be preceded by an independent clause. Therefore, avoid using it in the following situations.

BETWEEN A VERB AND ITS OBJECT OR COMPLEMENT

- Some important vitamins found in vegetables are/
vitamin A, thiamine, niacin, and vitamin C.

BETWEEN A PREPOSITION AND ITS OBJECT

- The heart's two pumps each consist of/an upper
chamber, or atrium, and a lower chamber, or ventricle.

AFTER SUCH AS, INCLUDING, OR FOR EXAMPLE

- The NCAA regulates college athletic teams,
including/basketball, baseball, softball, and football.

34 The apostrophe

The apostrophe indicates possession and marks contractions. In addition, it has a few conventional uses.

34a To indicate possession

The apostrophe is used to indicate that a noun or an indefinite pronoun is possessive. Possessives usually indicate ownership, as in *Tim's hat*, *the editor's desk*, or *someone's gloves*. Frequently, however, ownership is only loosely implied: *the tree's roots*, *a day's work*. If you are not sure whether a word is possessive, try turning it into an *of* phrase: *the roots of the tree*, *the work of a day*.

When to add -'s Add -'s if the noun does not end in -s or if the noun is singular and ends in -s or an s sound.

Luck often propels a rock musician's career.

Thank you for refunding the children's money.

Lois's sister spent last year in India.

Her article presents an overview of Marx's teachings.

EXCEPTION: If pronunciation would be awkward with an apostrophe and an -s, some writers use only the apostrophe: *Sophocles'*.

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> Punctuation > 34-1 and 34-2

When to add only an apostrophe If the noun is plural and ends in *-s*, add only an apostrophe.

Both diplomats' briefcases were searched by guards.

Joint possession To show joint possession, use *'s* (or *-s'*) with the last noun only; to show individual possession, make all nouns possessive.

Have you seen Joyce and Greg's new camper?

Hernando's and Maria's expectations were quite different.

Compound nouns If a noun is compound, use *'s* (or *-s'*) with the last element.

Her father-in-law's sculpture won first place.

Indefinite pronouns such as *someone* Use *'s* to indicate that an indefinite pronoun is possessive. Indefinite pronouns refer to no specific person or thing: *anyone*, *everyone*, *someone*, *no one*, and so on.

This diet will improve almost anyone's health.

NOTE: Possessive pronouns (*its*, *his*, and so on) do not use an apostrophe. (See 34d.)

34b To mark contractions

In a contraction, an apostrophe takes the place of missing letters.

It's unfortunate that many children can't get the services they need.

It's stands for *it is*, *can't* for *cannot*.

The apostrophe is also used to mark the omission of the first two digits of a year (*the class of '13*) or years (*the '60s generation*).

34c Conventional uses

An apostrophe typically is not used to pluralize numbers, abbreviations, letters, or words mentioned as words. Note the few exceptions and be consistent in your writing.

Plural numbers and abbreviations Do not use an apostrophe in the plural of any numbers (including decades) or of any abbreviations.

Peggy skated nearly perfect figure 8s.

We've paid only four IOUs out of six.

Plural letters Italicize the letter and use roman (regular) font style for the -s ending.

Two large *Js* [or *J's*] were painted on the door.

You may use an apostrophe to avoid misreading: *A's*.

Plural of words mentioned as words Italicize the word and use roman (regular) font style for the -s ending.

We've heard enough *maybes*.

34d Misuses of the apostrophe

Do not use an apostrophe in the following situations.

WITH NOUNS THAT ARE PLURAL BUT NOT POSSESSIVE

outpatients

- Some ~~outpatient's~~ have special parking permits.
 ^

IN THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS *ITS, WHOSE, HIS, HERS, OURS, YOURS, AND THEIRS*

its

- Each area has ~~it's~~ own conference room.
 ^

It's means "it is." The possessive pronoun *its* contains no apostrophe despite the fact that it is possessive.

35 Quotation marks

Quotation marks are used to enclose direct quotations. They are also used around some titles.

35a To enclose direct quotations

Direct quotations of a person's words, whether spoken or written, must be enclosed in quotation marks.

"The contract talks are stalled," the mediator told reporters, "but I'll work hard to bring both sides together."

NOTE: Do not use quotation marks around indirect quotations, which report what a person said without using the person's exact words.

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> Punctuation > 35-1 and 35-2

The mediator pledged to find a compromise even though negotiations had broken down.

Quotation within quotation Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

Marshall (2006) noted that Elizabeth Peabody wanted her school to focus on “not merely ‘teaching’ but ‘educating children morally and spiritually as well as intellectually from the first’” (p. 107).

Indented (block) quotations In an APA-style paper, when a long quotation (40 or more words) has been set off from the text by indenting, do not use quotation marks around the quotation. (See p. 34.) However, use double quotation marks around quoted words that appear within a block quotation.

A report by the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation (2004) outlined trends that may have contributed to the childhood obesity crisis:

a reduction in physical education classes and after-school athletic programs, an increase in the availability of sodas and snacks in public schools, the growth in the number of fast-food outlets . . . , the trend toward “super-sizing” food portions in restaurants, and the increasing number of highly processed high-calorie and high-fat grocery products. (p. 1)

35b Around titles of short works

In the text of a paper, use quotation marks around titles of short works such as journal and newspaper articles, poems, short stories, songs, episodes of television and radio programs, and chapters or subdivisions of books. (For titles of short works in the reference list, see 11b.)

The story “Pushcart Man” is by Langston Hughes.

NOTE: Titles of books, plays, Web sites, television and radio programs, films, journals, magazines, and newspapers are put in italics. (See 40a.)

35c Other punctuation with quotation marks

This section describes the conventions to observe in placing various marks of punctuation inside or outside quotation marks. It also explains how to punctuate when introducing quoted material.

Periods and commas Place periods and commas inside quotation marks.

“I’m here for my service-learning project,” I told the teacher. “I’d like to become a reading specialist.”

This rule applies to single and double quotation marks, and it applies to quotation marks around words, phrases, and clauses.

EXCEPTION: In parenthetical in-text citations, the period follows the citation in parentheses.

According to Cole (1999), “The instruments of science have vastly extended our senses” (p. 53).

Colons and semicolons Put colons and semicolons outside quotation marks.

Harold wrote, “I regret that I cannot attend the fund-raiser for AIDS research”; his letter, however, contained a contribution.

Question marks and exclamation points Put question marks and exclamation points inside quotation marks unless they apply to the whole sentence.

On the first day of class, the psychology professor always posed the question “What three goals do you have for the course this term?”

Have you heard the old proverb “Do not climb the hill until you reach it”?

In the first sentence, the question mark applies only to the quoted question. In the second sentence, the question mark applies to the whole sentence.

Introducing quoted material After a word group introducing a quotation, use a colon, a comma, or no punctuation at all, whichever is appropriate in context.

If a quotation is formally introduced, a colon is appropriate. A formal introduction is a full independent clause, not just an expression such as *he wrote* or *she argued*.

Lance Morrow (1985) viewed personal ads as an art form: “The personal ad is like a haiku of self-celebration, a brief solo played on one’s own horn” (p. 74).

If a quotation is preceded or followed by an expression such as *he wrote* or *she argued*, use a comma.

Phillips (1993) claimed, “The idea of the unconscious is, among other things, a way of describing the fact that there are things we didn’t know we could say” (p. 25).

“Unless another war is prevented it is likely to bring destruction on a scale never before held possible,” Einstein predicted (1947, p. 29).

When you blend a quotation into your own sentence, use either a comma or no punctuation, depending on the way the quotation fits into your sentence structure.

The champion could, as he put it, “float like a butterfly and sting like a bee.”

Virginia Woolf wrote in 1928 that “a woman must have money and a room of her own if she is to write fiction” (p. 4).

If a quotation appears at the beginning of a sentence, use a comma after it unless the quotation ends with a question mark or an exclamation point.

“I’ve always thought of myself as a reporter,” claimed American poet Gwendolyn Brooks (1987, p. 162).

“What is it?” I asked, bracing myself.

If a quoted sentence is interrupted by explanatory words, use commas to set off the explanatory words.

“With regard to air travel,” Stephen Ambrose (1997) noted, “Jefferson was a full century ahead of the curve” (p. 53).

If two successive quoted sentences from the same source are interrupted by explanatory words, use a comma before the explanatory words and a period after them.

“Everyone agrees journalists must tell the truth,” Kovach and Rosenstiel (2001) wrote. “Yet people are befuddled about what ‘the truth’ means” (p. 37).

35d Misuses of quotation marks

Avoid using quotation marks in the following situations.

FAMILIAR SLANG, TRITE EXPRESSIONS, OR HUMOR

- The economist emphasized that 5% was a */ballpark figure./*

INDIRECT QUOTATIONS

- After finishing the exam, Chuck said that *he was due for a coffee break.*

36 Other marks

36a The period

Use a period to end all sentences except direct questions or genuine exclamations.

Celia asked whether class would be canceled.

A period is conventionally used with personal titles, Latin abbreviations, and designations for time.

Mr.	i.e.	a.m.
Ms.	e.g.	p.m.
Dr.	etc.	

NOTE: If a sentence ends with a period marking an abbreviation, do not add a second period.

A period is not used for most other abbreviations (see also section 38).

CA	UNESCO	FCC	NATO	PhD	cm
NY	AFL-CIO	IRS	USA	BCE	min

36b The question mark

Use a question mark after a direct question.

Which economists have argued for free markets?

NOTE: Use a period, not a question mark, after an indirect question, one that is reported rather than asked directly.

He asked me who taught the engineering course.

36c The exclamation point

Use an exclamation point after a sentence that expresses exceptional feeling or deserves special emphasis.

We yelled to the attending physician, “He’s not drunk! He’s in diabetic shock!”

Do not overuse the exclamation point.

- In the fisherman’s memory, the fish lives on, increasing in length and weight each year, until it is big enough to shade a fishing boat! 

This sentence doesn’t need to be pumped up with an exclamation point. It is emphatic enough without it.

36d The dash

The dash may be used to set off parenthetical material that deserves special emphasis. When typing, use two hyphens to form a dash (--), with no spaces before or after them. If your word processing program has what is known as an “em-dash” (—), you may use it instead, with no space before or after it.

Use a dash to introduce a list, a restatement, an amplification, or a striking shift in tone or thought.

Along the wall are the bulk liquids—sesame seed oil, honey, safflower oil, and half-liquid peanut butter.

Peter decided to focus on his priorities—applying to graduate school, getting financial aid, and finding a roommate.

Kiere took a few steps back, came running full speed, kicked a mighty kick—and missed the ball.

In the first two examples, the writer could also use a colon. (See 33b.) The colon is more formal than the dash and not quite as dramatic.

Use a pair of dashes to set off parenthetical material that deserves special emphasis or to set off an appositive that contains commas.

Everything in the classroom—from the pencils on the desks to the books on the shelves—was in perfect order.

In my hometown, people’s basic needs—food, clothing, and shelter—are less costly than in Denver.

TIP: Unless you have a specific reason for using the dash, avoid it. Unnecessary dashes create a choppy effect.

36e Parentheses

Parentheses have several conventional uses.

Supplemental information Use parentheses to enclose supplemental material, minor digressions, and afterthoughts.

Nurses record patients' vital signs (temperature, pulse, and blood pressure) several times a day.

Abbreviations Use parentheses around an abbreviation following the spelled-out form the first time you mention it in your paper. You can use the abbreviation alone in subsequent references.

Data from the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) indicate that homicide rates have been declining. Because most murders are reported to the police, the data from the UCR are widely viewed as a valid indicator of homicide rates.

Technical notation Statistical values, degrees of freedom, and other technical expressions are enclosed in parentheses.

The relationship between these variables was statistically significant ($p = .021$).

$$t(80) = 2.22$$

$$F(2, 118) = 4.55$$

Series Use parentheses to enclose letters or numbers labeling items in a series.

Freudians recognize three parts to a person's psyche: (a) the unconscious id, where basic drives such as hunger reside; (b) the ego, which controls many of our conscious decisions; and (c) the superego, which regulates behavior according to internalized societal expectations.

Documentation Parentheses are used around dates and page numbers in in-text citations and around dates in reference list entries. (See sections 13 and 14.)

Inappropriate use Do not overuse parentheses. Often a sentence reads more gracefully without them.

- from*
- Research shows that 17 million (estimates run as
 ^
 to
 high-as 23 million) Americans have diabetes.
 ^

36f Brackets

Use brackets to enclose any words or phrases you have inserted into an otherwise word-for-word quotation.

As Simon (2007) has argued, “Perhaps the most important feature of this change has been an enormous expansion of power [for prosecutors] at the expense of judges, paroling authorities, and defense lawyers” (p. 35).

Simon’s book did not contain the words *for prosecutors* in the sentence quoted.

The Latin word *sic* in brackets indicates that an error in a quoted sentence appears in the original source.

According to the review, the book was “an important contribution to gender studies, succeeding [*sic*] where others have fallen short.”

36g The ellipsis mark

Use an ellipsis mark, three spaced periods, to indicate that you have deleted material from an otherwise word-for-word quotation.

Harmon (2011) noted, “During hibernation, heart rate would drop to nine beats per minute between breaths . . . and then speed up with each inhale.”

If you delete a full sentence or more in the middle of a quoted passage, use a period before the three ellipsis dots.

NOTE: Do not use the ellipsis mark at the beginning or end of a quotation unless it is important, for clarity, to indicate that the passage quoted is from the middle of a sentence.

36h The slash

Use the slash to separate two or three lines of poetry that have been run into your text. Add a space both before and after the slash.

In the opening lines of “Jordan,” George Herbert pokes fun at popular poems of his time: “Who says that fictions only and false hair / Become a verse? Is there in truth no beauty?”

A slash is used in an in-text citation for the dates of a republished work: (1867/2011).

Use the slash sparingly, if at all, to separate options: *pass/fail*, *producer/director*. Put no space around the slash. Avoid using expressions such as *he/she* and *his/her* and the awkward construction *and/or* (see also 24d).



Mechanics

- 37 Capitalization** 201
- 38 Abbreviations** 203
- 39 Numbers** 206
- 40 Italics** 207
- 41 Spelling** 209
- 42 Hyphenation** 211

37 Capitalization

In addition to the following guidelines, a good dictionary can tell you when to use capital letters.

37a Proper vs. common nouns

Proper nouns and words derived from them are capitalized; common nouns are not. Proper nouns name specific persons, places, and things. All other nouns are common nouns.

The following types of words are usually capitalized: names of deities, religions, religious followers, and sacred books; words of family relationships used as names; particular places; nationalities and their languages, races, and tribes; educational institutions, departments, particular courses; government departments, organizations, political parties; historical movements, periods, events, documents; specific electronic sources; and trade names.

PROPER NOUNS

God (used as a name)	a god
Book of Common Prayer	a sacred book
Uncle Pedro	my uncle
Father (used as a name)	my father
Lake Superior	a picturesque lake
the Capital Center	a center for the arts
the South	a southern state
Wrigley Field	a baseball stadium
Swedish	a nationality
Pinghua	a dialect
University of Wisconsin	a good university
Geology 101	a geology course
Veterans Administration	a federal agency
Phi Kappa Psi	a fraternity
the Democratic Party	a political party
the Enlightenment	the eighteenth century
the Great Depression	a recession
the Treaty of Versailles	a treaty
the World Wide Web, the Web	a home page
the Internet, the Net	a computer network
Xerox	a photocopy

COMMON NOUNS

Months, holidays, and days of the week are capitalized: *May, Labor Day, Monday*. The seasons and numbers of the days of the month are not: *summer, the fifth of June*.

Names of school subjects are capitalized only if they are names of languages: *English, French, geology, history*.

NOTE: Do not capitalize common nouns to make them seem important: *Our company is currently hiring technical support staff* [not *Company, Technical Support Staff*].

37b Titles with proper names

Capitalize a title when used as part of a proper name but usually not when used alone.

Prof. Margaret Burnes; Dr. Sinyee Sein; John Scott Williams Jr.; Anne Tilton, LLD

District Attorney Mill was ruled out of order.

The district attorney was elected for a two-year term.

Usage varies when the title of a public figure is used alone: *The president* [or *President*] *vetoed the bill*.

37c Titles of works

In titles and subtitles of works mentioned in the text of a paper, capitalize all major words (nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) as well as all words of four letters or more. Minor words of fewer than four characters (articles, prepositions, and coordinating conjunctions) are not capitalized unless they are the first or last word of a title or subtitle.

The Impossible Theater: A Manifesto

“The Truth About the National Debt”

A Guide to Working With Adolescents

37d Special terms

In the social sciences, the following terms are typically capitalized.

SPECIFIC TITLES OF TESTS Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

NOUNS FOLLOWED BY LETTERS OR NUMBERS Type 2 diabetes, Trial 5

TRADE NAMES OF DRUGS Advil, Benadryl

The following are typically lowercase.

GENERIC TITLES OF TESTS career preference test

NOUNS FOLLOWED BY VARIABLES type x, trial y

GENERIC NAMES OF DRUGS ibuprofen, diphenhydramine

NAMES OF THEORIES social disorganization theory, Marxian economics

NOTE: Terms (such as *Marxian*) derived from proper nouns are capitalized.

37e First word of a sentence or quoted sentence

The first word of a sentence should be capitalized. Capitalize the first word of a quoted sentence but not a quoted phrase.

Loveless (2011) wrote, “If failing schools are ever to be turned around, much more must be learned about how schools age as institutions” (p. 25).

Russell Baker (1967) has written that sports are “the opiate of the masses” (p. 46).

If a quoted sentence is interrupted by explanatory words, do not capitalize the first word after the interruption.

“When we all think alike,” he said, “no one is thinking.”

37f First word following a colon

Capitalize the first word after a colon if it begins an independent clause.

Suddenly the political climate changed: The voters rejected the previously popular governor.

37g Abbreviations

Capitalize abbreviations for departments and agencies of government, other organizations, corporations, and the call letters of radio and television stations.

EPA, FBI, DKNY, IBM, WCRB, KNBC-TV

38 Abbreviations

In the text of a paper, use abbreviations only when they are clearly appropriate and universally understood (such as *Dr.*, *mm*, *IQ*).

38a Before and after a name

Use standard abbreviations for titles immediately before and after proper names.

TITLES BEFORE PROPER NAMES

Ms. Nancy Linehan
Dr. Margaret Simmons
Rev. John Stone
St. Joan of Arc
Prof. James Russo

TITLES AFTER PROPER NAMES

Thomas Hines Jr.
Anita Lor, PhD
Robert Simkowski, MD
William Lyons, MA
Polly Stern, LPN

Do not abbreviate a title if it is not used with a proper name: *My criminology professor [not prof.] was an expert in constitutional law.*

38b Organizations, companies, countries

Familiar abbreviations for names of organizations, companies, and countries are generally acceptable: *CIA, FBI, NAACP, EPA, YMCA, NBC, USA*.

If you have any doubt about whether your readers will understand an abbreviation or whether the abbreviation is potentially unfamiliar or ambiguous, write the full name followed immediately by the abbreviation in parentheses the first time you mention it. Then you may use the abbreviation in the rest of the paper. *AMA*, for instance, could refer to the American Medical Association or the American Management Association.

38c Units of measurement and time

Use abbreviations for units of measurement and of time that are preceded by a number. Spell out units if they are used alone.

5 cm

20 A

10-km race

10:00 p.m.

Doses were specified in milliliters.

Results were measured in seconds.

The following are typical abbreviations for units of measurement. While most social science and related fields

use metric measures, you may have occasion to use U.S. standard units in some of your work.

m, cm, mm	km, kph	g, kg, mg, g	L, ml, dl
dB	ppm	Hz, kHz	W, kW
°C, °F	A, A	hr, min	s, ms, ns
lb	yd, ft, in.	mi, mph	

Use no periods after abbreviations for units of measurement or time (except the abbreviations *in.* for inch and *a.m.* and *p.m.*).

Do not abbreviate *day*, *week*, *month*, or *year*, even when preceded by a number.

38d Latin abbreviations

Although Latin abbreviations are appropriate in footnotes and reference lists, use the appropriate English phrases in the text of a paper.

- cf. (*confer*, “compare”)
- e.g. (*exempli gratia*, “for example”)
- et al. (*et alii*, “and others”)
- etc. (*et cetera*, “and so forth”)
- i.e. (*id est*, “that is”)
- N.B. (*nota bene*, “note well”)

38e Plural of abbreviations

For the plural of most abbreviations, add *-s* (do not use an apostrophe): *PhDs*, *RTs*, *EMTs*.

Do not add *-s* to indicate the plural of units of measurement.

- mm (*not mms*)
- L (*not Ls*)
- in. (*not ins.*)

38f Other uses of abbreviations

Other commonly accepted abbreviations include *BC*, *AD*, *No.*, and *\$. The abbreviation *BC* (“before Christ”) follows a date, and *AD* (“*anno Domini*”) precedes a date. Acceptable alternatives are *BCE* (“before the common era”) and *CE* (“common era”). Both follow a date.*

40 BC (or 40 BCE) No. 12 (or no. 12)

AD 44 (or 44 CE) \$150

Avoid using *No.* or *\$* when not accompanied by a specific figure.

38g Inappropriate abbreviations

In the text of a paper, abbreviations for the following are not commonly accepted.

PERSONAL NAME Charles (*not Chas.*)

DAYS OF THE WEEK Monday (*not Mon.*)

HOLIDAYS Christmas (*not Xmas*)

MONTHS January, February (*not Jan., Feb.*)

COURSES OF STUDY political science (*not poli. sci.*)

DIVISIONS OF WRITTEN WORKS chapter, page (*not ch., p.*)

STATES AND COUNTRIES Florida (*not FL or Fla.*)

PARTS OF A BUSINESS NAME Adams Lighting Company
(*not Adams Lighting Co.*)

NOTE: For use of abbreviations in documenting sources, see sections 13 and 14.

39 Numbers

In a paper, you may need to communicate statistics, survey results, or other data. In some cases, you will use numerals (15, for instance); in others, you will spell out the numbers (*eight*).

39a Using numerals

Use numerals to represent all numbers 10 and above and for all numbers that precede a unit of measurement. (See 39b for exceptions.)

12 mm, 4 cm

5-ft gap

Use numerals for all numbers in the abstract of a paper. The following are other acceptable uses of numerals.

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> Mechanics > 39-1

DATES July 4, 1776; 56 BC; AD 30

ADDRESSES 77 Latches Lane, 519 West 42nd Street

PERCENTAGES 5%

FRACTIONS, DECIMALS $\frac{1}{2}$, 0.047

SCORES 7 to 3, 21–18

AGES 5-year-old, average age 37

SURVEYS 4 out of 5

EXACT AMOUNTS OF MONEY \$105.37, \$0.05

DIVISIONS OF BOOKS volume 3, chapter 4, page 189

DIVISIONS OF PLAYS act 3, scene 3

TIME OF DAY 4:00 p.m., 1:30 a.m.

ORDINALS ABOVE 10 12th

39b Using words for numbers

Spell out the numbers one through nine (unless they are used in the ways noted in 39a).

Spell out numbers for approximate quantities: *about twelve weeks, almost thirty minutes*.

A number at the beginning of a sentence should be spelled out, but it is preferable to reword the sentence to avoid the number at the beginning.

NOTE: Numerals and spelled-out numbers may appear together in the same sentence or paragraph. Use the rules in 39a and 39b to determine whether each instance should be spelled out or expressed as a numeral.

Of 35 students taking the test, only three finished in the allotted time.

40 Italics

This section describes conventional uses for italics.

40a Titles of works

Titles of the following types of works are italicized.

TITLES OF BOOKS *The Invisible Line, Governing Through Crime, Freakonomics*

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> Mechanics > 40–1

JOURNALS AND MAGAZINES *Psychological Review, Journal of Social Work, American Journal of Political Science*

NEWSPAPERS the *Baltimore Sun, the Wall Street Journal*

PAMPHLETS *Common Sense, Facts About Marijuana*

PLAYS *King Lear, Wicked*

FILMS *A Beautiful Life, An Inconvenient Truth*

TELEVISION PROGRAMS *American Idol, Frontline*

RADIO PROGRAMS *All Things Considered*

MUSICAL COMPOSITIONS *Porgy and Bess*

WORKS OF VISUAL ART *American Gothic*

COMIC STRIPS *Dilbert*

WEB SITES *ZDNet, Google*

ELECTRONIC GAMES *Dragon Age, Call of Duty*

Titles of other works, such as journal or newspaper articles, short stories, essays, and songs, are enclosed in quotation marks in the text of a paper. (See also 35b.)

For guidelines on formatting titles in the reference list, see 11b.

NOTE: Do not use italics when referring to the Bible; titles of books in the Bible (Genesis, not *Genesis*); the titles of legal documents (the Constitution, not the *Constitution*); or the titles of your own papers.

40b Words as words and other uses

Italicize words and letters used in the following ways.

WORDS AS WORDS The 3-year-old could pronounce *know* but not *snow*.

LETTERS AS LETTERS Many children with dyslexia cannot distinguish *b* from *d*.

VARIABLES AND STATISTICAL NOTATION $F(1, 14), p = .04$

GENERA, SPECIES, VARIETIES *Alligator sinensis*

FIRST USE OF KEY TERM The process is called *photosynthesis*.

40c Ships, aircraft, spacecraft

Italicize names of specific ships, aircraft, and spacecraft.

Arbella, Spirit of St. Louis, Challenger

40d Foreign words

Italicize foreign words used in an English sentence.

Gemeinschaften are communities in which members are strongly attached to the values and beliefs of the group.

EXCEPTION: Do not italicize foreign words that have become part of the English language.

laissez-faire	per diem
fait accompli	modus operandi
et al.	per se

41 Spelling

A spell checker is a useful tool when you are working on a computer, but be aware of its limitations. A spell checker will not tell you how to spell words not listed in its dictionary; nor will it help you catch words commonly confused, such as *accept* and *except*, or common typographical errors, such as *own* for *won*. You will still need to proofread, and for some words you may need to turn to the dictionary.

NOTE: To check for correct use of commonly confused words (*accept* and *except*, *its* and *it's*, and so on), consult section 43, the glossary of usage.

41a Major spelling rules

If you need to improve your spelling, review the following rules and exceptions.

i* before *e In general, use *i* before *e* except after *c* and except when sounded like “ay,” as in *neighbor* and *weigh*.

I* BEFORE *E relieve, believe, sieve, niece, fierce, frieze

E* BEFORE *I receive, deceive, sleigh, freight, eight

EXCEPTIONS seize, either, weird, height, foreign, leisure

Adding suffixes Generally, drop a final silent *-e* when adding a suffix that begins with a vowel. Keep the final *-e* if the suffix begins with a consonant.

desire, desiring achieve, achievement

remove, removable care, careful

Words such as *changeable*, *judgment*, *argument*, and *truly* are exceptions.

If a final consonant is preceded by a single vowel *and* the consonant ends a one-syllable word or a stressed syllable, double the consonant when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.

bet, betting	occur, occurrence
commit, committed	

Adding -s and -ed When adding *-s* or *-ed* to words ending in *-y*, ordinarily change *-y* to *-i* when the *-y* is preceded by a consonant but not when it is preceded by a vowel.

comedy, comedies	monkey, monkeys
dry, dried	play, played

With proper names ending in *-y*, however, do not change the *-y* to *-i* even if it is preceded by a consonant: *the Dougherty family*, *the Doughertys*.

Plurals Add *-s* to form the plural of most nouns; add *-es* to singular nouns ending in *-s*, *-sh*, *-ch*, and *-x*.

table, tables	church, churches
paper, papers	dish, dishes
agenda, agendas	fox, foxes

Ordinarily add *-s* to nouns ending in *-o* when the *-o* is preceded by a vowel. Add *-es* when the *-o* is preceded by a consonant.

radio, radios	hero, heroes
video, videos	tomato, tomatoes

To form the plural of a hyphenated compound word, add the *-s* to the chief word even if it does not appear at the end.

mother-in-law, mothers-in-law

NOTE: English words derived from other languages such as Latin, Greek, or French sometimes form the plural as they would in their original language.

medium, media	chateau, chateaux
criterion, criteria	

41b Spelling variations

Following is a list of some common words spelled differently in American and British English. Consult a dictionary for others.

AMERICAN

canceled, traveled
color, humor
judgment
check
realize, apologize
defense
program
anemia, anesthetic
theater, center
fetus
mold, smolder
civilization
connection, inflection
licorice

BRITISH

cancelled, travelled
colour, humour
judgement
cheque
realise, apologise
defence
programme
anaemia, anaesthetic
theatre, centre
foetus
mould, smoulder
civilisation
connexion, inflexion
liquorice

42 Hyphenation

In addition to the following guidelines, a dictionary will help you make decisions about hyphenation.

42a Compound words

The dictionary will tell you whether to treat a compound word as a hyphenated compound (*water-repellent*), as one word (*waterproof*), or as two words (*water table*). If the compound word is not in the dictionary, treat it as two words.

The prosecutor did not cross-examine any witnesses.

The research committee considered the pros and cons of a crossover trial.

The sample represented a cross section of voters in the third district.

42b Words functioning together as an adjective

When two or more words function together as an adjective before a noun, connect them with a hyphen. Generally, do not use a hyphen when such compounds follow the noun.

- well-known candidate, candidate who is well known
- stress-inducing activity
- middle-school students
- low-impact agriculture
- 10th-grade assignments, sixth-grade teacher
- 1-mm tolerance
- three-fifths representation

Do not use a hyphen after an adverb ending in *-ly*; in a compound that includes a comparative or superlative; with chemical compounds; with foreign phrases; and with a compound ending in a number.

- rapidly growing bacteria
- longest running experiment
- sodium hydroxide production
- a priori condition
- Type 2 diabetes

NOTE: In a series, hyphens are suspended: *The test was administered to all second-, third-, and fourth-year students.*

42c Suffixes and prefixes

Most suffixes and prefixes do not require a hyphen.

PREFIXES

- antiwar
- interscholastic
- nonconsenting
- semicircle
- unsustainable

SUFFIXES

- human*like*
- search*able*

There are some exceptions. Hyphens are used with the prefixes *all-*, *ex-*, and *self-* and the suffix *-elect*; with prefixes before capitalized words or numbers; with prefixes of

more than two words; and with terms that would otherwise be confusing.

all-encompassing	un-American
ex-president	non-stress-inducing
self-effacing	re-create (create again)
senator-elect	re-sent (sent again)

A hyphen is usually used to avoid a double vowel, but most *pre-* and *re-* words and some other words that are well established do not use the hyphen in such a case.

anti-inflammatory	reenter
anti-intellectual	reemerge
co-opt	preexisting
co-owner	cooperate
intra-arterial	microorganism

42d Hyphenation at ends of lines

Set your word processing program to not hyphenate words at the end of a line of text. This setting ensures that only words that already contain a hyphen may be broken at the end of a line.

E-mail addresses, URLs, and other electronic addresses need special attention when they occur at the end of a line of text. Do not insert a hyphen to divide electronic addresses. Instead, break an e-mail address after the @ symbol or before a period. Break a URL after a double slash or before any other mark of punctuation.



Glossaries

43 Glossary of usage 215

44 Glossary of grammatical terms 226

43 Glossary of usage

This glossary includes words commonly confused, words commonly misused, and words that are nonstandard. It also lists colloquialisms that may be appropriate in informal speech but are inappropriate in formal writing.

a, an Use *an* before a vowel sound, *a* before a consonant sound: *an apple, a peach*. Problems sometimes arise with words beginning with *h* or *u*. If the *h* is silent, the word begins with a vowel sound, so use *an*: *an hour, an heir, an honest senator*. If the *h* is pronounced, the word begins with a consonant sound, so use *a*: *a hospital, a historian, a hotel*. Words such as *university* and *union* begin with a consonant sound, so use *a*: *a union*. Words such as *uncle* and *umbrella* begin with a vowel sound, so use *an*: *an underground well*. When an abbreviation or acronym begins with a vowel sound, use *an*: *an EKG, an MRI*.

accept, except *Accept* is a verb meaning “to receive.” *Except* is usually a preposition meaning “excluding.” *I will accept all the packages except that one.* *Except* is also a verb meaning “to exclude.” *Please except that item from the list.*

adapt, adopt *Adapt* means “to adjust or become accustomed”; it is usually followed by *to*. *Adopt* means “to take as one’s own.” *Our family adopted a Vietnamese child, who quickly adapted to his new life.*

adverse, averse *Adverse* means “unfavorable.” *Averse* means “opposed” or “reluctant”; it is usually followed by *to*. *I am averse to your proposal because it could have an adverse impact on the economy.*

advice, advise *Advice* is a noun, *advise* a verb. *We advise you to follow John’s advice.*

affect, effect *Affect* is usually a verb meaning “to influence.” *Effect* is usually a noun meaning “result.” *The drug did not affect the disease, and it had adverse side effects.* *Effect* can also be a verb meaning “to bring about.” *Only the president can effect such a change.*

all ready, already *All ready* means “completely prepared.” *Already* means “previously.” *Susan was all ready for the concert, but her friends had already left.*

all right *All right*, written as two words, is correct. *Alright* is nonstandard.

all together, altogether *All together* means “everyone gathered.” *Altogether* means “entirely.” *We were not altogether sure that we could bring the family all together for the reunion.*

allusion, illusion An *allusion* is an indirect reference; an *illusion* is a misconception or false impression. *Did you catch my allusion to Shakespeare? Mirrors give the room an illusion of depth.*

a lot A *lot* is two words. Do not write *alot*.

among, between Ordinarily, use *among* with three or more entities, *between* with two. *The prize was divided among several contestants. You have a choice between carrots and beans.*

amoral, immoral *Amoral* means “neither moral nor immoral”; it also means “not caring about moral judgments.” *Immoral* means “morally wrong.” *Many business courses are taught from an amoral perspective. Murder is immoral.*

amount, number Use *amount* with quantities that cannot be counted; use *number* with those that can. *This recipe calls for a large amount of sugar. We have a large number of toads in our garden.*

an See *a, an*.

and/or Avoid *and/or* except in technical or legal documents.

anxious *Anxious* means “worried” or “apprehensive.” In formal writing, avoid using *anxious* to mean “eager.” *We are eager (not anxious) to see your new house.*

anybody, anyone See 25d and 27a.

anyone, any one *Anyone*, an indefinite pronoun, means “any person at all.” *Any one* refers to a particular person or thing in a group. *Anyone in the class may choose any one of the books to read.*

anyways, anywhere *Anyways* and *anywheres* are nonstandard for *anyway* and *anywhere*.

as As is sometimes used to mean “because.” But do not use it if there is any chance of ambiguity. *We canceled the picnic because (not as) it began raining.* As here could mean “because” or “when.”

as, like See *like, as*.

averse See *adverse, averse*.

awful The adjective *awful* and the adverb *awfully* are too colloquial for formal writing.

awhile, a while *Awhile* is an adverb; it can modify a verb, but it cannot be the object of a preposition such as *for*. The two-word form *a while* is a noun preceded by an article and therefore can be the object of a preposition. *Stay awhile. Stay for a while.*

back up, backup *Back up* is a verb phrase. *Back up the car carefully.* *Be sure to back up your hard drive.* *Backup* is a noun often meaning “duplicate of electronically stored data.” *Keep your backup in a safe place.* *Backup* can also be used as an adjective. *I regularly create backup disks.*

bad, badly *Bad* is an adjective, *badly* an adverb. *They felt bad about being early and ruining the surprise.* *Her arm hurt badly after she slid into second.* See section 28.

being as, being that *Being as* and *being that* are non-standard expressions. Write *because* instead.

beside, besides *Beside* is a preposition meaning “at the side of” or “next to.” *Annie sleeps with a flashlight beside her bed.* *Besides* is a preposition meaning “except” or “in addition to.” *No one besides Terrie can have that ice cream.* *Besides* is also an adverb meaning “in addition.” *I'm not hungry; besides, I don't like ice cream.*

between See *among, between.*

bring, take Use *bring* when an object is being transported toward you, *take* when it is being moved away. *Please bring me a glass of water.* *Please take these magazines to Mr. Scott.*

can, may *Can* is traditionally reserved for ability, *may* for permission. *Can you speak French?* *May I help you?*

capital, capitol *Capital* refers to a city, *capitol* to a building where lawmakers meet. *The residents of the state capital protested the development plans.* *The capitol has undergone extensive renovations.* *Capital* also refers to wealth or resources.

censor, censure *Censor* means “to remove or suppress material considered objectionable.” *Censure* means “to criticize severely.” *The school's policy of censoring books has been censured by the media.*

cite, site *Cite* means “to quote as an authority or example.” *Site* is usually a noun meaning “a particular place.” *He cited the zoning law in his argument against the proposed site of the gas station.* Locations on the Internet are usually referred to as *sites*.

coarse, course *Coarse* means “crude” or “rough in texture.” *The hand-knit sweater had a coarse weave.* *Course* usually refers to a path, a playing field, or a unit of study. *I plan to take a course in car repair this summer.* The expression *of course* means “certainly.”

complement, compliment *Complement* is a verb meaning “to go with or complete” or a noun meaning “something

that completes." As a verb, *compliment* means "to flatter"; as a noun, it means "flattering remark." *Her skill at rushing the net complements his skill at volleying. Sheiying's music arrangements receive many compliments.*

comprise *Comprise* means "to include or encompass." It should not be used in the passive. *The housing development comprises (not is comprised of) single-family and multifamily homes.* Choose the verb *compose* or *make up* if you want to use the passive form. *The committee is composed of (or made up of) faculty, staff, and students.*

conscience, conscious *Conscience* is a noun meaning "moral principles"; *conscious* is an adjective meaning "aware or alert." *Let your conscience be your guide. Were you conscious of his love for you?*

continual, continuous *Continual* means "repeated regularly and frequently." *She grew weary of the continual telephone calls.* *Continuous* means "extended or prolonged without interruption." *The broken siren made a continuous wail.*

could care less *Could care less* is a nonstandard expression. Write *couldn't care less* instead.

could of *Could of* is nonstandard for *could have*.

council, counsel A *council* is a deliberative body, and a *councilor* is a member of such a body. *Counsel* usually means "advice" and can also mean "lawyer"; a *counselor* is one who gives advice or guidance. *The councilors met to draft the council's position paper. The pastor offered wise counsel to the troubled teenager.*

criteria *Criteria* is the plural of *criterion*, which means "a standard, rule, or test on which a judgment or decision can be based." *The only criterion for the scholarship is ability.*

data *Data* is a plural noun meaning "facts or results." But *data* is increasingly being accepted as a singular noun. *The new data suggest (or suggests) that our theory is correct.* (The singular *datum* is rarely used.)

different from, different than Ordinarily, write *different from*. *Your sense of style is different from Jim's.* However, *different than* is acceptable to avoid an awkward construction. *Please let me know if your plans are different than (to avoid from what) they were six weeks ago.*

don't *Don't* is the contraction for *do not*. *I don't want milk.* *Don't* should not be used as the contraction for *does not*, which is *doesn't*. *He doesn't (not don't) want milk.*

due to *Due to* is an adjective phrase and should not be used as a preposition meaning "because of." *The trip was canceled*

because of (not due to) lack of interest. Due to is acceptable as a subject complement and usually follows a form of the verb *be*. *His success was due to hard work.*

each See 25d and 27a.

effect See *affect, effect*.

either See 25d and 27a.

elicit, illicit *Elicit* is a verb meaning “to bring out” or “to evoke.” *Illicit* is an adjective meaning “unlawful.” *The reporter was unable to elicit any information from the police about illicit drug traffic.*

emigrate from, immigrate to *Emigrate* means “to leave one place to settle in another.” *My great-grandfather emigrated from Russia to escape the religious pogroms. Immigrate* means “to enter another place and reside there.” *Thousands of Bosnians immigrated to the United States in the 1990s.*

ensure, insure *Insure* means “to provide insurance for.” *The developer insured the property at double its market value.* In formal writing, use *ensure* to mean “to make certain or to guarantee.” *The large number of respondents ensured that the survey results were statistically valid.*

enthused As an adjective, *enthusiastic* is preferred. *The children were enthused (not enthused) about going to the circus.*

etc. Avoid ending a list with *etc.* It is more emphatic to end with an example, and usually readers will understand that the list is not exhaustive. When you don’t wish to end with an example, *and so on* is more graceful than *etc.*

everybody, everyone See 25d and 27a.

everyone, every one *Everyone* is an indefinite pronoun. *Everyone wanted to go. Every one*, the pronoun *one* preceded by the adjective *every*, means “each individual or thing in a particular group.” *Every one* is usually followed by *of*. *Every one of the missing books was found.*

except See *accept, except*.

farther, further *Farther* describes distances. *Further* suggests quantity or degree. *Detroit is farther from Miami than I thought. You extended the curfew further than necessary.*

fewer, less *Fewer* refers to items that can be counted; *less* refers to items that cannot be counted. *Fewer people are living in the city. Please put less sugar in my tea.*

firstly *Firstly* sounds pretentious, and it leads to the ungainly series *firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly*, and so on. Write *first, second, third* instead.

further See *farther, further*.

good, well See 28b.

graduate Both of the following uses of *graduate* are standard: *My sister was graduated from UCLA last year.* *My sister graduated from UCLA last year.* It is nonstandard to drop the word *from*: *My sister graduated UCLA last year.*

grow Phrases such as *to grow a business* are jargon. Usually the verb *grow* is intransitive (it does not take a direct object). *Our business has grown very quickly.* When *grow* is used in a transitive sense, with a direct object, it means “to cultivate” or “to allow to grow.” *We plan to grow tomatoes.* *John is growing a beard.* (See also pp. 228 and 232.)

hanged, hung *Hanged* is the past-tense and past-participle form of the verb *hang*, meaning “to execute.” *The prisoner was hanged at dawn.* *Hung* is the past-tense and past-participle form of the verb *hang*, meaning “to fasten or suspend.” *The stockings were hung by the chimney with care.*

hardly Avoid expressions such as *can't hardly* and *not hardly*, which are considered double negatives. *I can (not can't) hardly describe my elation at getting the job.*

he At one time *he* was used to mean “he or she.” Today such usage is inappropriate. See 24d and 27a for alternative constructions.

hissself *Hissself* is nonstandard. Use *himself*.

hopefully *Hopefully* means “in a hopeful manner.” *We looked hopefully to the future.* Some usage experts object to the use of *hopefully* as a sentence adverb, apparently on grounds of clarity. To be safe, avoid using *hopefully* in sentences such as the following: *Hopefully, your son will recover soon.* Instead, indicate who is doing the hoping: *I hope that your son will recover soon.*

however Some writers object to *however* at the beginning of a sentence, but experts advise placing the word according to the meaning and emphasis intended. Any of the following sentences is correct, depending on the intended contrast. *Pam decided, however, to attend the lecture.* *However, Pam decided to attend the lecture.* (She had been considering other activities.) *Pam, however, decided to attend the lecture.* (Unlike someone else, Pam opted for the lecture.)

hung See *hanged, hung*.

illusion See *allusion, illusion*.

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> Language Debates > Sexist language

> *however* at the beginning of a sentence

immigrate See *emigrate from, immigrate to*.

immoral See *amoral, immoral*.

imply, infer *Imply* means “to suggest or state indirectly”; *infer* means “to draw a conclusion.” *John implied that he knew the way home, but Susan inferred that John was lost.*

incidence, incidents *Incidence* is a singular noun meaning “frequency or rate of an occurrence.” *The incidence of lead poisoning in the state is 85% lower than a decade ago.* *Incidents* is the plural of the noun *incident*, which means “a single occurrence.” *Four incidents of breaking and entering were reported in our town last week.*

indexes, indices The plural of *index* is *indexes* in most uses. *Some large historical works have three indexes: for names, for places, and for significant events.* The plural *indices* is used mainly in mathematical or technical writing.

in, into *In* indicates location or condition; *into* indicates movement or a change in condition. *They found the lost letters in a box after moving into the house.*

in regards to Use either *in regard to* or *as regards*. *In regard to* (or *As regards*) *the contract, ignore the first clause.*

insure, ensure See *ensure, insure*.

irregardless *Irregardless* is nonstandard. Use *regardless*.

is when, is where See 21c.

its, it's *Its* is a possessive pronoun; *it's* is a contraction for *it is*. *It's always fun to watch a dog chase its tail.*

kind of, sort of Avoid using *kind of* or *sort of* to mean “somewhat.” *The movie was a little (not kind of) boring.* Do not put *a* after either phrase. *That kind of (not kind of a) salesclerk annoys me.*

lay, lie See page 149.

lead, led *Lead* is a metallic element; it is a noun. *Led* is the past tense of the verb *lead*. *He led me to the treasure.*

learn, teach *Learn* means “to gain knowledge”; *teach* means “to impart knowledge.” *I must teach (not learn) my sister to read.*

leave, let *Leave* means “to exit.” Avoid using it to mean “to permit.” *Let (not Leave) me help you with the dishes.*

led, lead See *lead, led*.

less See *fewer, less*.

let, leave See *leave, let*.

liable *Liable* means “obligated” or “responsible.” Do not use it to mean “likely.” *You're likely (not liable) to trip if you don't tie your shoelaces.*

lie, lay See page 149.

like, as *Like* is a preposition, not a subordinating conjunction. It should be followed only by a noun or a noun phrase. *As* is a subordinating conjunction that introduces a subordinate clause. In casual speech, you may say *She looks like she has not slept*. But in formal writing, use *as*. *She looks as if she has not slept*.

loose, lose *Loose* is an adjective meaning “not securely fastened.” *Lose* is a verb meaning “to misplace” or “to not win.” *Did you lose your only loose pair of work pants?*

may See *can, may*.

maybe, may be *Maybe* is an adverb meaning “possibly”; *may be* is a verb phrase. *Maybe the sun will shine tomorrow. Tomorrow may be a brighter day.*

may of, might of *May of* and *might of* are nonstandard for *may have* and *might have*.

media, medium *Media* is the plural of *medium*. *Of all the media that cover the Olympics, television is the medium that best captures the spectacle of the events.*

must of *Must of* is nonstandard for *must have*.

myself *Myself* is a reflexive or intensive pronoun. Reflexive: *I cut myself*. Intensive: *I will drive you myself*. Do not use *myself* in place of *I* or *me*: *He gave the plants to Melinda and me (not myself)*.

neither See 25d and 27a.

none See 25d.

nowheres *Nowheres* is nonstandard for *nowhere*.

number See *amount, number*.

off of *Off* is sufficient. Omit *of*.

passed, past *Passed* is the past tense of the verb *pass*. *Emily passed me a slice of cake.* *Past* usually means “belonging to a former time” or “beyond a time or place.” *Our past president spoke until past 10:00 p.m. The hotel is just past the station.*

patients, patience *Patients* is a plural noun referring to people receiving medical care. *The doctor advised her patients over age 70 to get a pneumonia vaccine.* *Patience* is a singular noun meaning “the capacity to be calm or to wait calmly.” *The power company asked for customers’ patience in dealing with service delays caused by the ice storm.*

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- > Language Debates > *lie* versus *lay*
- > *myself*
- > *none*

personal, personnel *Personal* is an adjective meaning “relating to an individual.” *The reading specialist provides personal attention to students needing extra help.* *Personnel* refers to a group of employees or others connected with an organization; it is usually used in the plural. *The startup software company required all personnel to sign a nondisclosure agreement when they were hired.* (See also 25e.)

plus *Plus* should not be used to join independent clauses. *This raincoat is dirty; moreover (not plus), it has a hole in it.*

precede, proceed *Precede* means “to come before.” *Proceed* means “to go forward.” *As we proceeded up the mountain, we saw evidence that some hikers had preceded us.*

principal, principle *Principal* is a noun meaning “the head of a school or an organization” or “a sum of money.” It is also an adjective meaning “most important.” *Principle* is a noun meaning “a basic truth or law.” *The principal expelled her for three principal reasons. We believe in the principle of equal justice for all.*

proceed, precede See *precede, proceed*.

quote, quotation *Quote* is a verb; *quotation* is a noun. Avoid using *quote* as a shortened form of *quotation*. *Her quotations (not quotes) from Shakespeare intrigued us.*

real, really *Real* is an adjective; *really* is an adverb. *Real* is sometimes used informally as an adverb, but avoid this use in formal writing. *She was really (not real) angry.* See also section 28.

reason . . . is because See 21c.

reason why The expression *reason why* is redundant. *The reason (not The reason why) Jones lost the election is clear.*

respectfully, respectively *Respectfully* means “showing or marked by respect.” *He respectfully submitted his opinion.* *Respectively* means “each in the order given.” *John, Tom, and Larry were a butcher, a baker, and a lawyer, respectively.*

sensual, sensuous *Sensual* means “gratifying the physical senses,” especially those associated with sexual pleasure. *Sensuous* means “pleasing to the senses,” especially involving art, music, and nature. *The sensuous music and balmy air led the dancers to more sensual movements.*

set, sit *Set* means “to put” or “to place”; *sit* means “to be seated.” *She set the dough in a warm corner of the kitchen. The cat sits in the warmest part of the room.*

should of *Should of* is nonstandard for *should have*.

since Do not use *since* to mean “because” if there is any chance of ambiguity. *Because* (not *Since*) we won the game, we have been celebrating with a pitcher of root beer. *Since* here could mean “because” or “from the time that.”

sit See *set, sit*.

site, cite See *cite, site*.

somebody, someone, something See 25d and 27a.

suppose to Write *supposed to*.

sure and *Sure and* is nonstandard for *sure to*. Be *sure to* (not *sure and*) bring a gift for the host.

take See *bring, take*.

tenet, tenant A *tenet* is a principle or belief. *Class struggle is a basic tenet of Marxism*. A *tenant* is a person who occupies a dwelling or other property. *All tenants must pay a security deposit when they sign their leases*.

than, then *Than* is a conjunction used in comparisons; *then* is an adverb denoting time. *That pizza is more than I can eat. Tom laughed, and then we recognized him*.

that See *who, which, that*.

that, which Many writers reserve *that* for restrictive clauses, *which* for nonrestrictive clauses. (See 32e.)

themselves *Theirselves* is nonstandard for *themselves*.

them The use of *them* in place of *those* is nonstandard. Please send *those* (not *them*) letters to the sponsors.

then See *than, then*.

there, their, they're *There* is an adverb specifying place; it is also an expletive (placeholder). Adverb: *Sylvia is sitting there patiently*. Expletive: *There are two plums left*. (See also p. 228.) *Their* is a possessive pronoun. *Fred and Jane finally washed their car*. *They're* is a contraction of *they are*. *They're late today*.

to, too, two *To* is a preposition; *too* is an adverb; *two* is a number. *Too many of your shots slice to the left, but the last two were right on the mark*.

toward, towards *Toward* and *towards* are generally interchangeable, although *toward* is preferred in American English.

try and *Try and* is nonstandard for *try to*. *I will try to (not try and) be better about writing to you*.

unique See page 164.

use to Write *used to*. *We used to live in an apartment.*

utilize *Utilize* is often a pretentious substitute for *use*; in most cases, *use* is sufficient. *I used (not utilized) the best workers to get the job done fast.*

wait for, wait on *Wait for* means “to be in readiness for” or “await.” *Wait on* means “to serve.” *We’re waiting for (not waiting on) Ruth before we can leave.*

ways *Ways* is colloquial when used in place of *way* to mean “distance.” *The city is a long way (not ways) from here.*

weather, whether The noun *weather* refers to the state of the atmosphere. *Whether* is a conjunction indicating a choice between alternatives. *We wondered whether the weather would clear up in time for our picnic.*

well, good See 28b.

where Do not use *where* in place of *that*. *I heard that (not where) the crime rate is increasing.*

which See *that, which* and *who, which, that*.

while Avoid using *while* to mean “although” or “whereas” if there is any chance of ambiguity. *Although (not While) Gloria lost money in the slot machine, Tom won it at roulette.* Here *While* could mean either “although” or “at the same time that.”

who, which, that Use *who*, not *which*, to refer to persons. Generally, use *that* to refer to things or, occasionally, to a group or class of people. *The player who (not that or which) made the basket at the buzzer was named MVP. The team that scores the most points in this game will win the tournament.*

who, whom See 27d.

who's, whose *Who's* is a contraction of *who is*; *whose* is a possessive pronoun. *Who's ready for more popcorn? Whose coat is this?*

would of *Would of* is nonstandard for *would have*.

you See pages 157–58.

your, you're *Your* is a possessive pronoun; *you're* is a contraction of *you are*. *Is that your bike? You're in the finals.*

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- > Language Debates > Absolute concepts such as *unique*
- > *who* versus *which* or *that*
- > *who* versus *whom*
- > *you*

44**Glossary of grammatical terms**

This glossary gives definitions for parts of speech, such as nouns; parts of sentences, such as subjects; and types of sentences, clauses, and phrases.

If you are looking up the name of an error (sentence fragment, for example), consult the index or the table of contents instead.

absolute phrase A word group that modifies a whole clause or sentence, usually consisting of a noun followed by a participle or participial phrase: *Her words echoing in the large arena*, the senator mesmerized the crowd. See also page 183.

active vs. passive voice When a verb is in the active voice, the subject of the sentence does the action: *Hernando caught* the ball. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action: The *ball was caught* by Hernando. Often the actor does not appear in a passive-voice sentence: The *ball was caught*. See also section 17.

adjective A word used to modify (describe) a noun or pronoun: the *frisky* horse, *rare old* stamps, *sixteen* candles. Adjectives usually answer one of these questions: Which one? What kind of? How many or how much? See also section 28.

adjective clause A subordinate clause that modifies a noun or pronoun. An adjective clause begins with a relative pronoun (*who, whom, whose, which, that*) or a relative adverb (*when, where*) and usually appears right after the word it modifies: The book *that goes unread* is a writer's worst nightmare.

adverb A word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb: rides *smoothly, unusually* attractive, *very* slowly. An adverb usually answers one of these questions: When? Where? How? Why? Under what conditions? To what degree? See also section 28.

adverb clause A subordinate clause that modifies a verb (or occasionally an adjective or adverb). An adverb clause begins with a subordinating conjunction such as *although, because, if, unless, or when* and usually appears at the beginning or the end of a sentence: *When the sun went down*, the hikers prepared their camp. See also *subordinate clause; subordinating conjunction*.

agreement See 25 and 27a.

antecedent A noun or pronoun to which a pronoun refers: When the *battery* wears down, we recharge *it*. The noun *battery* is the antecedent of the pronoun *it*.

appositive A noun or noun phrase that renames a nearby noun or pronoun: Bloggers, *conversationalists at heart*, are the online equivalent of talk show hosts. See also page 182.

article The word *a*, *an*, or *the*, used to mark a noun. See 31b.

case See 27c and 27d.

clause A word group containing a subject, a verb, and any objects, complements, or modifiers. See *independent clause*; *subordinate clause*.

collective noun See 25e and 27a.

common noun See 37a.

complement See *object complement*; *subject complement*.

complex sentence A sentence consisting of one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses. In the following example, the subordinate clause is italicized: We walked along the river *until we came to the bridge*.

compound-complex sentence A sentence consisting of at least two independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause: *Jan dictated a story*, and *the children wrote whatever he said*. In the preceding sentence, the subordinate clause is *whatever he said*. The two independent clauses are *Jan dictated a story* and *the children wrote whatever he said*.

compound sentence A sentence consisting of two independent clauses. The clauses are usually joined with a comma and a coordinating conjunction (*and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *for*, *so*, *yet*) or with a semicolon: *The car broke down, but a rescue van arrived within minutes*. *A shark was spotted near shore; people left the water immediately*.

conjunction A joining word. See *conjunctive adverb*; *coordinating conjunction*; *correlative conjunction*; *subordinating conjunction*.

conjunctive adverb An adverb that connects independent clauses; it is often used with a semicolon. The bus was stuck in traffic; *therefore*, the team was late for the game. The most common conjunctive adverbs are *consequently*, *furthermore*, *however*, *moreover*, *nevertheless*, *then*, *therefore*, and *thus*. See page 186 for a longer list.

coordinating conjunction One of the following words, used to join elements of equal grammatical rank: *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *for*, *so*, *yet*.

correlative conjunction A pair of conjunctions connecting grammatically equal elements: *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *whether . . . or*, *not only . . . but also*, and *both . . . and*. See also 18b.

count noun See pages 172–73.

demonstrative pronoun A pronoun used to identify or point to a noun: *this, that, these, those*. *This* is my favorite chair.

direct object A word or word group that receives the action of the verb: The hungry cat clawed *the bag of dry food*. The complete direct object is *the bag of dry food*. The simple direct object is always a noun or a pronoun, in this case *bag*.

expletive The word *there* or *it* when used at the beginning of a sentence to delay the subject: *There* are eight planes waiting to take off. *It* is healthy to eat breakfast every day. The delayed subjects are the noun *planes* and the infinitive phrase *to eat breakfast every day*.

gerund A verb form ending in *-ing* used as a noun: *Reading* aloud helps children appreciate language. The gerund *Reading* is used as the subject of the verb *helps*.

gerund phrase A gerund and its objects, complements, or modifiers. A gerund phrase always functions as a noun, usually as a subject, a subject complement, or a direct object. In the following example, the phrase functions as a direct object: We tried *planting tulips*.

helping verb One of the following words, when used with a main verb: *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been; has, have, had; do, does, did; can, will, shall, should, could, would, may, might, must*. Helping verbs always precede main verbs: *will work, is working, had worked*. See also *modal verb*.

indefinite pronoun A pronoun that refers to a nonspecific person or thing: *Something* is burning. The most common indefinite pronouns are *all, another, any, anybody, anyone, anything, both, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, neither, nobody, none, no one, nothing, one, some, somebody, someone, something*. See also 25d and 27a.

independent clause A word group containing a subject and a verb that can or does stand alone as a sentence. In addition to at least one independent clause, many sentences contain subordinate clauses that function as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns. See also *clause; subordinate clause*.

indirect object A noun or pronoun that names to whom or for whom the action of a sentence is done: We gave *her* some leftover yarn. An indirect object always precedes a direct object, in this case *some leftover yarn*.

infinitive The word *to* followed by the base form of a verb: *to think, to dream*.

infinitive phrase An infinitive and its objects, complements, or modifiers. An infinitive phrase can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Noun: *To live without health insurance* is risky. Adjective: The Nineteenth Amendment

gave women the right *to vote*. Adverb: Volunteers knocked on doors *to rescue people from the flood*.

intensive or reflexive pronoun A pronoun ending in *-self* (or *-selves*): *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*. An intensive pronoun emphasizes a noun or another pronoun: I *myself* don't have a job. A reflexive pronoun names a receiver of an action identical with the doer of the action: Did Paula cut *herself*?

interjection A word expressing surprise or emotion: *Oh! Wow! Hey! Hooray!*

interrogative pronoun A pronoun used to introduce a question: *who, whom, whose, which, what*. *What* does history teach us?

intransitive verb See *transitive and intransitive verbs*.

inverted sentence See *subject after verb*.

irregular verb See *regular and irregular verbs*. See also 26a.

linking verb A verb that links a subject to a subject complement, a word or word group that renames or describes the subject: The winner *was* a teacher. The cherries *taste* sour. The most common linking verbs are forms of *be*: *be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*. The following sometimes function as linking verbs: *appear, become, feel, grow, look, make, seem, smell, sound, taste*. See also *subject complement*.

modal verb A helping verb that cannot be used as a main verb. There are nine modals: *can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would*. *I must walk the dog. Ought to* is often classified as a modal. See also *helping verb*.

modifier A word, phrase, or clause that describes or qualifies the meaning of a word. Modifiers include adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, participial phrases, some infinitive phrases, and adjective and adverb clauses.

mood See 26c.

noncount noun See pages 173–74.

noun The name of a person, place, thing, or concept (*freedom*): The *lion* in the *cage* growled at the *zookeeper*.

noun clause A subordinate clause that functions as a noun, usually as a subject, a subject complement, or a direct object. In the following sentence, the italicized noun clause functions as the subject: *Whoever leaves the house last* must lock the door. Noun clauses usually begin with *how, who, whom, whoever, that, what, whatever, whether, or why*.

noun equivalent A word or word group that functions like a noun: a pronoun, a noun and its modifiers, a gerund phrase, some infinitive phrases, or a noun clause.

object See *direct object; indirect object*.

object complement A word or word group that renames or describes a direct object. It always appears after the direct object: The kiln makes clay *firm and strong*.

object of a preposition See *prepositional phrase*.

participial phrase A present or past participle and its objects, complements, or modifiers. A participial phrase always functions as an adjective describing a noun or pronoun. Usually it appears before or after the word it modifies: *Being a weight-bearing joint*, the knee is often injured. Plants *kept in moist soil* will thrive.

participle, past A verb form usually ending in *-d, -ed, -n, -en, or -t: asked, stolen, fought*. Past participles are used with helping verbs to form perfect tenses (*had spoken*) and the passive voice (*were required*). They are also used as adjectives (*the stolen car*).

participle, present A verb form ending in *-ing*. Present participles are used with helping verbs in progressive forms (*is rising, has been walking*). They are also used as adjectives (*the rising tide*).

parts of speech A system for classifying words. Many words can function as more than one part of speech. See *adjective; adverb; conjunction; interjection; noun; preposition; pronoun; verb*.

passive voice See *active vs. passive voice*.

personal pronoun One of the following pronouns, used to refer to a specific person or thing: *I, me, you, she, her, he, him, it, we, us, they, them*. After Julia won the award, *she* gave half of the prize money to a literacy program. See also *antecedent*.

phrase A word group that lacks a subject, a verb, or both. Most phrases function within sentences as adjectives, as adverbs, or as nouns. See *absolute phrase; appositive; gerund phrase; infinitive phrase; participial phrase; prepositional phrase*.

possessive case See 34a.

possessive pronoun A pronoun used to indicate ownership: *my, mine, your, yours, her, hers, his, its, our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs*. The guest made *his* own breakfast.

predicate A verb and any objects, complements, and modifiers that go with it: The horses *exercise in the corral every day*.

preposition A word placed before a noun or noun equivalent to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. The preposition indicates the relation between the

noun (or noun equivalent) and the word the phrase modifies. The most common prepositions are *about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beside, besides, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, onto, out, outside, over, past, since, than, through, to, toward, under, unlike, until, up, with, within, and without.*

prepositional phrase A phrase beginning with a preposition and ending with a noun or noun equivalent (called the *object of the preposition*). Most prepositional phrases function as adjectives or adverbs. Adjective phrases usually come right after the noun or pronoun they modify: The road *to the summit* was treacherous. Adverb phrases usually appear at the beginning or the end of the sentence: *To the hikers*, the brief shower was a welcome relief. The brief shower was a welcome relief *to the hikers*.

progressive verb forms See pages 152–53 and 170–71.

pronoun A word used in place of a noun. Usually the pronoun substitutes for a specific noun, known as the pronoun's *antecedent*. In the following example, *alarm* is the antecedent of the pronoun *it*: When the *alarm* rang, I reached over and turned *it* off. See also *demonstrative pronoun; indefinite pronoun; intensive or reflexive pronoun; interrogative pronoun; personal pronoun; possessive pronoun; relative pronoun*.

proper noun See 37a.

regular and irregular verbs When a verb is regular, both the past tense and the past participle are formed by adding *-ed* or *-d* to the base form of the verb: *walk, walked, walked*. The past tense and past participle of irregular verbs are formed in a variety of other ways: *ride, rode, ridden; begin, began, begun; go, went, gone*; and so on. See also 26a.

relative adverb The word *when* or *where*, when used to introduce an adjective clause. See also *adjective clause*.

relative pronoun One of the following words, when used to introduce an adjective clause: *who, whom, whose, which, that*. The writer *who* won the award refused to accept it.

sentence A word group consisting of at least one independent clause. See also *complex sentence; compound-complex sentence; compound sentence; simple sentence*.

simple sentence A sentence consisting of one independent clause and no subordinate clauses: *Without a passport, Eva could not visit her parents in Poland*.

subject A word or word group that names who or what the sentence is about. In the following example, the complete

subject (the simple subject and all of its modifiers) is italicized: *The devastating effects of famine* can last for many years. The simple subject is *effects*. Also see *subject after verb; understood subject*.

subject after verb Although the subject normally precedes the verb, sentences are sometimes inverted. In the following example, the subject *the sleepy child* comes after the verb *sat*: Under the table *sat the sleepy child*. When a sentence begins with the expletive *there* or *it*, the subject always follows the verb. See also *expletive*.

subject complement A word or word group that follows a linking verb and either renames or describes the subject of the sentence. If the subject complement renames the subject, it is a noun or a noun equivalent: That signature may be *a forgery*. If it describes the subject, it is an adjective: Love is *blind*.

subjunctive mood See 26c.

subordinate clause A word group containing a subject and a verb that cannot stand alone as a sentence. Subordinate clauses function within sentences as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns. They begin with subordinating conjunctions such as *although, because, if, and until* or with relative pronouns such as *who, which, and that*. See *adjective clause; adverb clause; independent clause; noun clause*.

subordinating conjunction A word that introduces a subordinate clause and indicates the relation of the clause to the rest of the sentence. The most common subordinating conjunctions are *after, although, as, as if, because, before, even though, if, since, so that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, where, whether, and while*. Note: The relative pronouns *who, whom, whose, which, and that* also introduce subordinate clauses.

tenses See 26b.

transitive and intransitive verbs Transitive verbs take direct objects, nouns or noun equivalents that receive the action. In the following example, the transitive verb *wrote* takes the direct object *a story*: Each student *wrote* a story. Intransitive verbs do not take direct objects: The audience *laughed*. If any words follow an intransitive verb, they are adverbs or word groups functioning as adverbs: The audience *laughed at* the talking parrot.

understood subject The subject *you* when it is understood but not actually present in the sentence. Understood subjects occur in sentences that issue commands or advice: [You] Put your clothes in the hamper.

verb A word that expresses action (*jump, think*) or being (*is, was*). A sentence's verb is composed of a main verb, possibly preceded by one or more helping verbs: The band *practiced* every day. The report *was completed* on schedule. Verbs have five forms: the base form, or dictionary form (*walk, ride*); the past-tense form (*walked, rode*); the past participle (*walked, ridden*); the present participle (*walking, riding*); and the *-s* form (*walks, rides*).

verbal phrase See *gerund phrase; infinitive phrase; participial phrase*.

Acknowledgments

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Index

A

- a, an*, 172–74, 215. *See also the Abbreviations*, 203–06
capitalizing, 203
Latin, 195, 205
not used on title pages, 39
parentheses with, 197
periods with, 195
plurals of, 190–91, 205
for titles with proper names, 204
- Absolute concepts (such as *unique*), 164
- Absolute phrases, 226
commas with, 183
- Abstracts
in databases, 14
in different types of papers, 41
formatting, 49
keywords in, 39–40
length of, 40
numbers in, 206–07
point of view in, 8
samples of, 53, 59, 65, 79, 96
writing, 39–40
- accept, except*, 215
- Active verbs, 128–30
- Active voice, 7–8, 129–30, 226
- adapt, adopt*, 215
- AD, BC (CE, BCE)*, 205–06
- Addresses. *See also URLs*
commas with, 184
e-mail, 213
numbers in, 207
- Adjective clauses
avoiding repetition in, 176
defined, 226
punctuation of, 181–82
- Adjective phrases, punctuation of, 182
- Adjectives
and adverbs, 162–63
commas with coordinate, 180
comparative forms (with *-er or more*), 163–64
defined, 226
- hyphens with, 212
after linking verbs (subject complements), 162
no commas with cumulative, 180
with prepositions (idioms), 177
punctuation of, 180
as subject complements, 162
- superlative forms (with *-est or most*), 163–64
- Administrative reports
abstract in, 39–40, 96
appendices in, 44
conclusion in, 43
headings in, 44
introduction in, 40, 97
references in, 43–44
required sections in, 41
sample pages, 86–88
writing, 5
- adopt*. *See adapt, adopt*, 215
- Adverb clauses, 226
- Adverbs
and adjectives, 162–63
comparative forms (with *-er or more*), 163–64
conjunctive, 186–87, 227
defined, 226
relative, 176, 231
superlative forms (with *-est or most*), 163–64
- adverse, averse*, 215
- advice, advise*, 215
- affect, effect*, 215
- Age groups, labels for, 9
- Agreement of pronoun and antecedent, 154–56
with collective nouns (*audience, family*, etc.), 156
with generic nouns, 155–56
with indefinite pronouns, 155
and sexist language, avoiding, 142, 155
- Agreement of subject and verb, 144–48
with collective nouns (*audience, family*, etc.), 146

- Agreement of subject and verb (*cont.*)
with indefinite pronouns, 145
with subject after verb, 146
with subjects joined with *and*, 145
with subjects joined with *or* or *nor*, 145
with *who*, *which*, *that*, 146–47
with words between subject and verb, 144–45
- Aircraft, italics for names of, 208
- all* (singular or plural), 145
- all ready*, *already*, 215
- all right* (not *alright*), 215
- all together*, *altogether*, 215
- allusion*, *illusion*, 216
- almost*, placement of, 135–36
- a lot* (not *alot*), 216
- already*. See *all ready*, *already*, 215
- alright* (nonstandard). See *all right*, 215
- altogether*. See *all together*, *altogether*, 215
- American Psychological Association. See APA style
- among*, *between*, 216
- amoral*, *immoral*, 216
- amount*, *number*, 216
- a.m.*, *p.m.*, 204–05
- am* vs. *is* or *are*, 144
- an*, *a*. See *a*, *an*
- Analysis. See Analytical essays; Case studies
- Analytical essays
- appendices in, 44
 - headings in, 44
 - introduction in, 40, 72–73
 - plagiarism in, avoiding, 29–32
 - references in, 43–44, 75
 - required sections in, 41
 - sample pages, 71–75
 - sources in, 28–29
 - thesis in, 25, 27–29
 - writing, 4–5
- and
- comma with, 179
 - as coordinating conjunction, 179, 227
 - no comma with, 185
- no semicolon with, 187
- parallelism and, 130–31
- and subject-verb agreement, 145
- and/or*, 199, 216
- Annotated bibliography
- references in, 43–44
 - required sections in, 41
 - samples of, 24, 76–77
 - thesis in, 25, 27–29
 - and working bibliography, 23–24
- writing, 5
- Anonymous. See Unknown author
- Antecedent
- agreement of pronoun and, 154–56
 - defined, 226
 - pronoun reference and, 156–58
 - of *who*, *which*, *that*, 146–47
- Anthology (collection), selection in, citing, 113
- anxious*, 216
- any* (singular or plural), 145
- anybody* (singular), 145, 155
- anyone* (singular), 145, 155
- anyone*, *any one*, 216
- anyways*, *anywheres* (non-standard), 216
- APA style. See also Papers, APA-style
- active vs. passive voice in, 7–8
 - appropriate language in, 7–8
 - audience and, 2
 - bias, avoiding, 9
 - citation at a glance
 - article from a database, 118–19
 - article in a journal or magazine, 111
 - book, 114
 - section in a Web document, 120–21
- conventions of, 7–11
- ethics and, 9–11
- explanation of, 2
- formatting
- of parts of papers in, 39–50
 - of reference list in, 50–51

- in-text citations
 directory to models
 for, 101
 models for, 101–06
manuscript format, 45, 48–51
numbers in, 204, 206–07
parts of papers in. *See Parts of papers*
plagiarism, avoiding, 9–10, 29–32
point of view in, 8
reference list, 106–23
 in different types of papers, 41
 directory to models
 for, 107–08
 formatting, 43–44, 50–51
 models for, 108–23
 sample, 57, 75, 85
sample pages, 52–99
signal phrases in, 34–36
tenses in, 8, 34, 101
tone in, 7–8
URLs (Web addresses) in, 51, 115
verb tense in, 8, 34, 101
Apostrophes, 189–91
Appendices
 in different types of papers, 41
 vs. footnotes, 44
 samples of, 69–70
 writing, 44
Appositives (nouns that rename other nouns)
 case of pronouns with, 159
 colon with, 188
 defined, 227
 punctuation with, 182, 196
 as sentence fragments, 165
Appropriate language
 (avoiding jargon, slang, etc.), 7–8, 140–42
Archives, digital, 16
are vs. *is*. *See Agreement of subject and verb*
Arguments, evaluating, 19, 22
Article from a database. *See also Articles (a, an, the)*, 172–75, 227. *See also a, an; the*
- Articles in periodicals. *See also Article from a database*
 capitalizing titles of, 48, 51, 202
 citation at a glance, 118–19
 citing in paper, 116
 finding, 13–15
 no italics for titles of, 51
 no quotation marks for titles of, in reference list, 51
 previewing, 18
 quotation marks for titles of, in text, 48, 106, 192
Artwork, italics for title of, 208
as
 ambiguous use of, 216
 parallelism and, 130–31
 pronoun after, 160
as, like. *See like, as*, 222
at, in idioms (common expressions), 177
audience. *See Collective nouns*
Audience (readers)
 appropriate voice for, 140
 evaluating, 23
 thesis and, 27–28
Author's note, 39, 45. *See also Title page*
 samples of, 52, 58, 64, 71, 78, 89, 93
Auxiliary verbs. *See Helping verbs*
averse. *See adverse, averse*, 215
awful, 216
awhile, a while, 216

B

- back up, backup*, 217
bad, badly, 162, 217
Base form of verb, 148, 169–70
 to form tenses, 169–71
 modal verbs (*can, might, etc.*) with, 171–72
BC, AD (CE, BCE), 205–06
be, forms of
 vs. active verbs, 128–29
 and agreement with subject, 144
in conditional sentences, 154
as helping verbs, 169–71
as irregular verbs, 149, 152

- be*, forms of (*cont.*)
 as linking verbs, 162, 229
 in passive voice, 172
 in progressive forms, 170,
 171
 and subjunctive mood, 154
 in tenses, 152–53
 as weak verbs, 128–29
- because*
 avoiding after *reason is*, 135
 not omitting, 131
- Beginning of sentences
 capitalizing words at, 203
 using numbers at, 207
 varying, 139
- being as, being that* (non-standard), 217
- beside, besides*, 217
- between, among*. *See among, between*, 216
- Bias, signs of, 22
- Biased language, avoiding, 9, 142
- Bible (sacred text)
 no italics for, 208
 punctuation between
 chapter and verse, 188
- Bibliography, working, 23–24.
See also Annotated bibliography; Reference list
- Block quotation. *See Quotations, long (indented)*
- Blog
 citing in paper, 119
 as source, 17
- Boldface, for headings, 49
- Book catalog, 14
- Books
 capitalizing titles of, 48, 51, 202
 citation at a glance, 114
 citing in reference list, 112–15
 e-book, citing in reference list, 116–17
 italics for titles of, 48, 51, 106, 207–08
 online, citing in reference list, 116–17
- Borrowed language and ideas.
See Citing sources;
 Plagiarism, avoiding
- Boundaries. *See Dropped quotations*, avoiding
- Brackets, 33, 198
- Bridges. *See Transitional expressions*
- bring, take*, 217
- Business report, sample pages from, 95–98. *See also* Administrative reports; Memos
- but*
 comma with, 179
 as coordinating conjunction, 179, 227
 no comma with, 185
 no semicolon with, 187
 parallelism and, 130–31
- by*, not omitting, 131

C

- Call numbers, in library, 14
- can*, as modal verb, 171–72
- can, may*, 217
- capital, capitol*, 217
- Capitalization, 201–03
 of abbreviations, 203
 after colon, 48, 188, 203
 of first word of sentence, 203
 in headings, 49
 in quotations, 33, 203
 of special terms, 202–03
 of titles of persons, 202
 of titles of works, 48, 51, 202
- capitol*. *See capital, capitol*, 217
- Captions. *See also* Labels, for
 visuals
 for figures, 50
 samples of, 63, 83, 98
- Case. *See* Pronoun case
- Case studies
 abstracts in, 39–40
 appendices in, 44
 discussion in, 43
 headings in, 44
 introduction in, 40
 method in, 40–42
 references in, 43–44
 required sections in, 41
 results in, 42–43
 writing, 5–6
- Catalog, library, 14
- censor, censure*, 217
- Central idea. *See Thesis cf.* (meaning “compare”), 205

- Charts. *See Visuals*
- Choppy sentences, 138–39
- Citation at a glance
- article from a database, 118–19
 - article in a journal or magazine, 111
 - book, 114
 - section in a Web document, 120–21
- Citations. *See* Citation at a glance; Citing sources; Documenting sources
- cited in*, for source quoted in another source, 106
- cite, site*, 217
- Citing sources. *See also* Documenting sources; Plagiarism, avoiding; Quotations
- APA style for, 29–32, 101–23
 - avoiding plagiarism and, 9–10, 25, 26–27
 - common knowledge, 30
 - general guidelines for, 26–27
 - for tables and figures, 124–25
- class*. *See* Collective nouns
- Clauses, 227. *See also* Independent clauses; Subordinate clauses
- Clichés, avoiding, 141
- Clinical papers
- appendices in, 44
 - conclusion in, 43
 - headings in, 44
 - introduction in, 40
 - method in, 40–42
 - references in, 43–44
 - required sections in, 41
 - results in, 42–43
 - sample pages, 89–92
 - writing, 6
- coarse, course*, 217
- Collective nouns (*audience, family, etc.*)
- agreement of pronouns with, 156
 - agreement of verbs with, 146
- Colons, 188–89
- capitalization after, 48, 49, 188, 203
 - to fix run-on sentences, 168
 - to introduce quotations, 193
- Combining sentences
- (coordination and subordination), 138–39
- Commands. *See* Imperative mood
- Commas, 179–86
- with absolute phrases, 183
 - in addresses, 184
 - with *and, but, etc.*, 179
 - with contrasted elements, 183
 - between coordinate adjectives, 180
 - before coordinating conjunctions, 179
 - in dates, 184
 - with interrogative tags, 183–84
 - with interruptions (*he argued etc.*), 182–83
 - after introductory elements, 179–80
 - with items in a series, 180
 - with mild interjections, 183–84
 - misuses of, 184–86
 - with nonrestrictive (nonessential) elements, 181–82
 - with nouns of direct address, 183
 - with parenthetical expressions, 183
 - to prevent confusion, 179
 - with quotation marks, 184, 193–94
 - with semicolons, 186–87
 - to set off words or phrases, 181–84
 - with titles following names, 184
 - with transitional expressions, 182–83
 - unnecessary, 181–82, 184–86
 - with *yes and no*, 183
- Comma splices. *See* Run-on sentences
- committee. *See* Collective nouns
- Common knowledge, 30
- Common nouns, 201–02
- Company names
- abbreviations in, 204, 206
 - agreement of verb with, 147–48

- Comparative form of adjectives and adverbs (with *-er* or *more*), 163–64
- Comparisons
with adjectives and adverbs, 163–64
needed words in, 132–33
parallel elements in, 130–31
with pronoun following *than* or *as*, 160
- complement, compliment*, 217–18
- Complements, object, 230
- Complements, subject. *See* Subject complements
- Complex sentences, 227
- compliment*. *See complement, compliment*, 217–18
- compose*. *See comprise*, 218
- Compound-complex sentences, 227
- Compound elements
case of pronoun in, 158–61
comma with, 179
hyphens with, 212
needed words in, 131–32
no comma with, 179, 185
parallelism and, 130–31
- Compound nouns. *See* Compound words
- Compound sentences
comma in, 179
defined, 227
semicolon in, 186–87
- Compound subjects, agreement of verb with, 145
- Compound words (*father-in-law, cross section*, etc.)
hyphens with, 211
plural of, 210
- comprise*, 218
- Conciseness, 127–28
- Conclusion. *See* Discussion section
- Conditional sentences. *See* Subjunctive mood
- Confidentiality, of research participants, 10
- Conjunctions, 227. *See also* Conjunctive adverbs; Coordinating conjunctions; Correlative conjunctions
- Conjunctive adverbs (*however, therefore*, etc.)
comma with, 182–83
- defined, 227
semicolon with, 186–87
- Connections. *See* Transitional expressions
- conscience, conscious*, 218
- Consent, informed, from research participants, 10
- Consistency. *See* Shifts, avoiding
- Context, establishing, 36
- continual, continuous*, 218
- Contractions (*can't, won't*, etc.), 190
- Contrary-to-fact clauses, 154
- Conventions, APA. *See* APA style
- Conversation among sources. *See* Synthesizing sources
- Coordinate adjectives, comma with, 180
- Coordinating conjunctions
comma with, 179
coordination and, 139
defined, 227
to fix run-on sentences, 167–68
no comma with, 185
no semicolon with, 187
parallelism and, 130–31
- Coordination, 139
- Correlative conjunctions
defined, 227
parallelism with, 130–31
- could*, as modal verb, 171–72
- could care less* (nonstandard), 218
- could of* (nonstandard), 218
- council, counsel*, 218
- Counting arguments, 29
- Count nouns, articles (*a, an, the*) with, 172–73
- couple*. *See* Collective nouns
- course*. *See* *coarse, course*, 217
- Criminology/criminal justice, sample writing in. *See* Administrative reports
- criteria*, 218
- Critical reading, 4–5, 19, 22–23
- crowd*. *See* Collective nouns
- Cumulative adjectives, no comma with, 180, 185
- Currency, of sources, 7. *See also* Evaluating sources

Cuts, in quotations. *See* Brackets; Ellipsis mark

D

-*d*, -*ed*, verb ending, 148
Dangling modifiers, 136–37
Dashes, 196
data, 218
Data, from research
 collecting and reporting, 10
 ethics and, 10
 and institutional review
 board (IRB) approval, 11
 primary and secondary, 3–4,
 5–6, 10–11

qualitative and quantitative, 42
in results section, 42
in visuals, 45, 49–50. *See also* Visuals

Database, article from. *See* Article from a database, citing in paper
Databases, for finding sources, 13–15. *See also* Indexes to periodicals, print
Dates
 abbreviations in, 205–06
 capitalization of, 201
 commas with, 184
 numbers in, 207

Definite article. *See the*
Degree. *See* Comparative form of adjectives and adverbs

Degrees of freedom, parentheses with, 197

Demonstrative pronouns, 228
Dependent clauses. *See* Subordinate clauses

Descriptive word groups. *See* Adjective clauses; Adjective phrases, punctuation of; Adverb clauses

Diagrams. *See* Visuals

Diction. *See* Words

different from, *different than*, 218

Digital archives, 16

Digital object identifier. *See* DOI (digital object identifier), in citations

Direct objects

 case of pronouns as, 158–61
 defined, 228

Directories, to documentation models

 in-text citations, 101
 reference list, 107–08

Directories, Web, 16

Disabilities, labels for, 9

Discourse community, 2.
See also Audience

Discussion section
 in different types of papers, 41
 heading for, 49
 sample pages, 82–84
 writing, 43

Division of words, 213

do
 as helping verb, 228
 irregular forms of, 150
 and subject-verb agreement, 144–48

Document design. *See* Format; Visuals

Documenting sources, 101–23.
See also Citing sources; Plagiarism, avoiding

does vs. *do*. *See* Agreement of subject and verb

DOI (digital object identifier), in citations, 51, 115, 116

don't vs. *doesn't*, 144–48, 218

Dots, ellipsis. *See* Ellipsis mark

Double negatives, avoiding.
See hardly, 220

Double subjects, avoiding, 176

Drawings. *See* Visuals

Dropped quotations, avoiding, 34–35

Drugs, capitalization of names of, 202
due to, 218–19

E

each (singular), 145, 155

E-book, citing in reference list, 116–17

Economics, writing in. *See* Annotated bibliography, samples of

-*ed*, verb ending, 148

Education, writing in. *See* Reflective essays

effect. *See* *affect*, *effect*, 215

- e.g. (meaning “for example”), 205
-ei, -ie, spelling rule, 209
either (singular), 145, 155
either . . . or, 130–31, 227
-elect, hyphen with, 212
Electronic sources. *See Online sources*
elicit, illicit, 219
Ellipsis mark, 33, 198
E-mail. *See Memos*
emigrate from, immigrate to, 219
Empirical research papers
abstracts in, 39–40, 59, 65
annotated bibliography for, 5
appendices in, 41, 44, 69–70
data in, 3–4, 5–6, 10–11
discussion in, 43
headings in, 44, 61–63
introduction in, 40, 60
vs. laboratory reports, 4
literature review in, 3
method in, 40–42, 61–62, 66–68
methodology for qualitative, 42, 64–70 quantitative, 42, 61–62
observations in the field, 3, 8, 10
plagiarism, avoiding, 29–32
point of view in, 8
references in, 43–44
required sections in, 41
results in, 42–43, 63
sample pages from, 58–63, 64–70
sources in, 28–29
thesis in, 25, 27–29
verb tense in, 153
writing, 3–4
Empty phrases, avoiding, 127–28
Endnotes. *See Footnotes*
End punctuation, 195–96
ensure, insure, 219
enthused, 219
-er ending (*faster, stronger*), 163–64
ESL (English as a second language). *See Multilingual grammar concerns*
-es, -s
spelling rules, for plurals, 210
as verb ending, 144
Essays. *See Analytical essays; Papers, APA-style; Reflective essays*
-est ending (*fastest, strongest*), 163–64
et al. (meaning “and others”), 102, 205
etc. (meaning “and so forth”), 205, 219
Ethics, and protecting research participants, 10–11
Ethnicity, labels for, 9
Evaluating sources, 17–23
even, placement of, 135–36
everybody, everyone, everything (singular), 145, 155
everyone, every one, 219
Evidence, 28–29
ex-, hyphen with, 212
except. *See accept, except*, 215
Exclamation point, 195–96
no comma with, 186
with quotation marks, 193
Exclamations. *See Interjections*
Experiments. *See Empirical research papers; Laboratory reports*
Expletives *there, it*, 228
and subject following verb, 176
and subject-verb agreement, 146
and wordy sentences, 128

F

- Facts
citing, 29–30
vs. common knowledge, 30
integrating, 36
scientific, and verb tense, 153
Fairness
in collecting and reporting data, 10
to research participants, 10–11
family. *See Collective nouns*
farther, further, 219
fewer, less, 219
Field observations, 3, 8, 10. *See also Empirical research papers*
Figures. *See Numbers; Visuals*

Files, managing, 24–25
Findings, reporting, 10
firstly, 219
First-person point of view, 8, 133
Flowcharts. *See* Visuals
Footnotes
 for additional information, 44, 124
 vs. appendices, 44
 in different types of papers, 41
 formatting, 48, 124
 vs. in-text citations, 44
 samples of, 54, 72
 for visuals, 50, 124–25
 samples of, 56, 62, 88, 92
for. *See* Coordinating conjunctions; Prepositions
Foreign words, italics for, 209
for example, no colon after, 188
Format. *See also* APA style;
 Papers, APA-style
 manuscript guidelines, 45, 48–51
 for parts of a paper, 39–45
 sample pages, 51–99
Fractions, numerals for, 207
Fragments, sentence, 164–66
further. *See* *farther, further*, 219
Fused sentences. *See* Run-on sentences
Future perfect tense, 152, 171
Future progressive forms, 153, 170–71
Future tense, 152, 170

G

Gender, and pronoun
 agreement, 142, 155–56
Gender-neutral language, 9, 142
Genera, italics for names of, 208
Generic drug names, lowercase for, 202
Generic *he* (nonstandard), 142, 220
Generic nouns, 155–56
Genres. *See* Papers, APA-style, types of
Geographic names, *the* with, 175

Gerund phrases, 228
Gerunds, 160–61, 228
Glossary of grammatical terms, 226–33
Glossary of usage, 215–25
good, well, 163
Government sites, as sources, 16
graduate, 220
Grammar, mixed. *See Mixed constructions*
Grammar, multilingual concerns with. *See Multilingual grammar concerns*
Grammatical terms, glossary of, 226–33
Graphs. *See* Visuals
grow, 220

H

hanged, hung, 220
hardly, 135–36, 220
has vs. *have*. *See* Agreement of subject and verb
have
 forming tenses with, 171
 irregular forms of, 150
 and perfect tenses, 152, 171
 and subject-verb agreement, 144–48
Headings
 in different types of papers, 41
 formatting, 49
 in method section, 42
 in results section, 42
 samples of, 54–55, 61–62, 87–88, 90–92, 97–98, 99
 writing, 44
he, him, his, sexist use of, 142, 155, 220
Helping verbs
 defined, 228
 and forming verb tenses, 152
 multilingual concerns with, 169–71
her vs. *she*, 158–61
he/she, his/her, avoiding, 199
he wrote, she argued, etc., comma with, 184, 193–94

he vs. *him*, 158–61
hissself (nonstandard), 220
hopefully, 220
however
 at beginning of sentence, 220
 comma with, 182–83
 semicolon with, 186–87
hung. See *hanged*, *hung*, 220
Hyphens, 211–13
 in compound words, 211
 not with *-ly* adverbs, 212
 with numerals, 206–07
 with suffixes and prefixes, 212
 in URLs (Web addresses), 51, 213
 in word divisions at ends of lines, 213
 with words functioning as adjectives, 212
Hypothesis
 in empirical research papers, 3, 60
 in laboratory reports, 4, 81

I

vs. me, 158–61
 point of view, 8, 133
 shifts with *you*, *he*, or *she*, avoiding, 133
vs. we, 8
Idioms (common expressions), 177
i.e. (meaning “that is”), 205
-ie, *-ei*, spelling rule, 209
if clauses, 154
illicit. See *elicit*, *illicit*, 219
illusion. See *allusion*, *illusion*, 216
immigrate. See *emigrate from*, *immigrate to*, 219
immoral. See *amoral*, *immoral*, 216
Imperative mood, 154
imply, *infer*, 221
in, in idioms (common expressions), 177
incidence, *incidents*, 221
Incomplete comparison, 132–33
Incomplete construction, 131–32

Incomplete sentences. *See Fragments, sentence*
Indefinite articles. *See a, an*
Indefinite pronouns
 agreement of verb with, 145
 as antecedents, 155
 apostrophe with, 190
 defined, 228
Indenting
 of long quotations, 34, 48, 192
 in reference list, 50
Independent clauses
 colon between, 188
 and comma with coordinating conjunction, 179
 defined, 228
 and run-on sentences, 166–69
 semicolon between, 186–87
indexes, *indices*, 221
Indexes to periodicals, print, 13. *See also Databases, for finding sources*
Indicative mood, 154
indices. *See indexes, indices*, 221
Indirect objects, 159, 228
Indirect questions, 195
Indirect quotations, 191–92, 195
Indirect sources, 106
infer. *See imply, infer*, 221
Infinitive phrases, 228–29
Infinitives
 case of pronouns with, 160
 defined, 228
 split, 137–38
Inflated phrases, avoiding, 127–28
Information, for essay. *See also Sources*
 finding, 12–17
 managing, 22–27
 working bibliography, 23–24
Informed consent, 10
-ing verb ending. *See Gerunds; Present participles*
in, *into*, 221
in regards to, 221
Inserted material, in quotations. *See Brackets*
Institutional review board (IRB), 10–11

insure. See *ensure, insure*, 219
Integrating sources, 26–27, 32–37
Intellectual property, 9–10. *See also Plagiarism, avoiding*
Intensive pronouns, 229
Interjections (exclamations), 183–84, 229
Internet
 addresses. *See URLs*
 citation at a glance, 120–21
 citing in paper, 115–23
 evaluating sources from, 22, 23
 finding sources on, 14–17
 previewing sources on, 18–19
 searching, 15
Interrogative pronouns, 161, 229
Interviews. *See Primary data*
In-text citations, 101–06, 197.
 See also Citing sources; Footnotes; Integrating sources
into. *See in, into*, 221
Intransitive and transitive verbs, 172, 232
Introductions
 in different types of papers, 41
 formatting, 49
 samples of, 60, 72–73, 97
 writing, 40
Introductory word groups, comma with, 179–80
Inverted sentence order
 with expletives *there, it*, 146, 176
 and subject-verb agreement, 146
IRB (institutional review board), 10–11
irregardless, 221
Irregular verbs, 148–51, 169–70, 231. *See also Verbs*
is vs. are. *See Agreement of subject and verb*
is when, is where, avoiding, 135
it
 as expletive (placeholder), 176, 228
 indefinite use of, 157
 as subject of sentence, 175–76

Italics, 207–09
for foreign words, 209
for key terms, 208
not for titles of articles, 51
for titles of works, 48, 51, 103, 106, 207–08
for words as words, 208
its, it's, 190, 191, 221

J

Jargon, 140–41
Journal articles. *See Articles in periodicals*
Journals. *See Periodicals*
jury. *See Collective nouns*
just, placement of, 135–36

K

Key terms, italics for first use of, 208
Keywords. *See also Searching for information*
 in abstracts, 40, 49
 samples of, 53, 59, 65, 79
kind of, sort of, 221

L

Labels
 using for people, 9
 for visuals, 49–50, 124–25
 samples of, 56, 61, 63, 83, 88, 92, 98
Laboratory reports
 abstracts in, 39–40, 79
 appendices in, 44
 discussion in, 43, 82–84
 vs. empirical research
 papers, 4
 headings in, 44
 introduction in, 40
 literature review in, 3, 4
 method in, 40–42, 81
 point of view in, 8
 references in, 43–44, 85
 required sections in, 41
 results in, 42–43, 81–82
 sample paper, 78–85
 writing, 4

- Language
appropriate, 7–8, 140–42
biased, avoiding, 9, 142
borrowed. *See Citing sources; Plagiarism, avoiding*
clichés, avoiding, 141
direct, 127–28
idioms (common expressions), 177
jargon, 140–41
labels, for people, 9
offensive, avoiding, 9
plain, 127–28
sexist, avoiding, 9, 142
slang, 141–42
wordy, 127–28
- Latin abbreviations, 195, 205
lay, lie; laying, lying, 149
lead, led, 221
learn, teach, 221
leave, let, 221
led. *See lead, led*, 221
less. *See fewer, less*, 219
let. *See leave, let*, 221
- Letters of the alphabet
capitalizing, 201–03
as letters, italics for, 208
as letters, plural of, 191
liable, 221
- Library resources, 13–15. *See also Online sources*
- lie, lay*, 149
- like*, no comma after, 185
- like, as*, 222
- Limiting modifiers (*only, almost*, etc.), 135–36
- Line spacing, 48
- Linking verbs
adjectives after, 162
defined, 229
pronoun after, 159
- List of sources, in research papers. *See Annotated bibliography; Reference list; Working bibliography*
- Lists. *See also Series*
with colon, 188
with dash, 196
- Literary present tense, 133, 153
- Literature review
abstract in, 39–40, 53
annotated bibliography for, 5
- in clinical papers, 6
conclusion in, 43
in empirical research papers, 3, 4, 60, 66
headings in, 44, 54–55
introduction in, 40
in laboratory reports, 4
plagiarism, avoiding, 29–32
references in, 43–44, 57
required sections in, 41
sample pages from, 52–57
sources in, 28–29
thesis in, 25, 27–29
verb tense in, 153
writing, 3
- Long quotations, 34, 48, 192
- loose, lose*, 222
- ly* ending, on adverbs, 162
- lying* vs. *laying*, 149
- M
- Magazine articles. *See Articles in periodicals*
- Magazines. *See Periodicals*
- Main clauses. *See Independent clauses*
- Main point. *See Thesis*
- Main verbs, 169–70, 233.
See also Verbs
- man, mankind*, sexist use of, 142
- Manuscript format, 45, 48–51.
See also Format; Papers, APA-style
- Maps. *See Visuals*
- Margins, 48
- Mass nouns. *See Noncount nouns*
- mathematics* (singular), 147
- may*. *See can, may*, 217
- may*, as modal verb, 171–72
- maybe, may be*, 222
- may of, might of* (nonstandard), 222
- Measurement, abbreviations for units of, 204–05
- media, medium*, 222
- Memos
conclusion in, 43
headings in, 44

- introduction in, 40
required sections in, 41
sample, 99
writing, 6
- Methodology, research
qualitative, 42, 64–70
quantitative, 42, 58–63
- Method section
in different types of papers, 41
heading for, 49
point of view in, 8
sample pages, 61–62, 66–68, 81
writing, 40–42
- Metric measures, abbreviations for, 204–05
- me vs. I*, 158–61
- might*, as modal verb, 171–72
- might of* (nonstandard). See *may of, might of*, 222
- Minor ideas. *See Subordination*
- Minority groups, labels for, 9
- Misplaced modifiers, 135–38.
See also Modifiers
- Missing words. *See* Needed words
- Mixed constructions, 134–35
- Modal verbs, 171–72, 229. *See also* Helping verbs
- Modifiers
adjectives as, 162
adverbs as, 163–64
commas with, 180–82
dangling, 136–37
defined, 229
of gerunds, 160–61
limiting, 135–36
misplaced, 135–38
redundant, 127
restrictive (essential) and nonrestrictive (nonessential), 181–82
split infinitives, 137–38
squinting, 135–36
- Mood of verbs, 154
- more, most* (comparative and superlative), 163–64
- moreover*
comma with, 182–83
semicolon with, 186–87
- Multilingual grammar
concerns, 169–77
articles (*a, an, the*), 172–75
- idioms (common expressions), 177
- nouns, count and noncount, 172–74
- omitted subjects, expletives, or verbs, 175–76
- prepositions, 177
- repeated subjects, objects, or adverbs, 176
- verbs, 169–72
- must*, as modal verb, 171–72
- must of* (nonstandard), 222
- myself*, 159, 222

N

- Names, capitalization of.
See Titles of persons; Titles of works
- Name-year system, 7, 101
- Narrowing a subject, 11
- N.B.* (meaning “note well”), 205
- nearly*, placement of, 135–36
- Needed words, 131–32
articles (*a, an, the*), 172–75
in comparisons, 132–33
in compound structures, 131–32
it, 175–76
in parallel structures, 131
subjects, 175–76
that, 132
there, 176
verbs, 175
- Negatives, double. *See* *hardly*, 220
- neither* (singular), 145, 155
- neither . . . nor*, 130–31, 227
- nevertheless*
comma with, 182–83
semicolon with, 186–87
- news* (singular), 147
- Newspapers. *See* Periodicals
- News sites, 16–17
- nobody* (singular), 145, 155
- Noncount nouns, 173–74
- none* (singular or plural), 145
- Nonrestrictive (nonessential) elements, commas with, 181–82
- Nonexist language, 9, 142
- no one* (singular), 145, 155

- nor*
 comma with, 179
 as coordinating conjunction, 179, 227
 and parallel structure, 130–31
 and subject-verb agreement, 145
not, placement of, 135–36
 Notation, technical
 italics for, 208
 parentheses with, 197
 Notes. *See Author's note; Footnotes*
 Note taking, 25, 26–27
not only . . . but also, 130–31, 227
 Noun clauses, 229
 Noun equivalent, 229
 Noun markers, 172
 Nouns. *See also Nouns, types of*
 adjectives with, 162, 226
 articles with, 172–75
 capitalizing, 201–02
 defined, 229
 of direct address, comma with, 183
 plural of, 210
 renaming other nouns.
See Appositives
 shifts between singular and plural, avoiding, 133
 Nouns, types of. *See also*
 Nouns
 collective (*audience, family, etc.*), 146, 156
 common, 201–02
 count, 172–73
 generic, 155–56
 noncount, 173–74
 possessive, 189–90
 proper, 201–03
 Novels
 capitalizing titles of, 202
 italics for titles of, 207
*nowhere*s (nonstandard), 222
no, yes, commas with, 183
number. *See amount, number*, 216
 Number and person
 shifts in, avoiding, 133
 and subject-verb agreement, 144–48
 Numbering, of pages in papers, 48
 Numbers, 206–07
 capitalization of words before, 202
 numerals for, 206–07
 words for, 207
 Numbers mentioned as numbers, plural of, 190–91
 Numerical data. *See Data, from research*
 Nursing practice paper.
See Clinical papers

O

- Object complements, 230
 Objective case
 of personal pronouns, 158–61
whom, 161
 Objectivity
 in collecting and reporting data, 10
 in language, 7
 Objects
 direct, 158–61, 228
 indirect, 159, 228
 of infinitives, 160
 objective case for, 158
 of prepositions, 231
 pronouns as, 158
 repetition of, avoiding, 176
 Observation, field. *See Case studies; Empirical research papers*
 Offensive language, avoiding, 9
off of (nonstandard), 222
 Omission, indicated by apostrophe, 190
 ellipsis mark, 198
on, in idioms (common expressions), 177
one of the, 147
 Online sources. *See also*
 Internet
 archives, digital, 16
 avoiding plagiarism from, 24–25
 books, citing in reference list, 116–17
 citation at a glance, 120–21
 citing, 115–23
 databases, for periodical articles, 13–15
 e-books, citing in reference list, 116–17
 evaluating, 22, 23
 finding, 15–17
 in-text citations for, 105–06

library catalog, 14
previewing, 18–19
reference list entries for,
108–10, 115–23
saving copies of, 24–25
search engines for, 15
only, placement of, 135–36
only one of the, 147
or
 comma with, 179
 as coordinating conjunction, 179, 227
parallelism and, 130–31
and subject-verb agreement, 145
Organization, of papers, 28
Original research. *See* Empirical research papers
ought to, as modal verb, 171–72
Ownership. *See* Possessive case

P

Page numbers, in papers, 48
Paired ideas, parallelism and, 130–31
Papers, APA-style. *See also* APA style
 data in, 3–4, 5–6, 10
 evidence for, 28–29
 formatting, 38–51
 parts of. *See* Parts of papers
 plagiarism, avoiding, 9–10, 29–32
 questions for, 11–12
 researching, 11–17
 sample pages from, 52–99
 sources in
 citing, 29–32, 101–23
 currency of, 7
 finding, 12–17
 integrating, 32–37
 uses of, 28–29
thesis in, 25, 27–29
types of
 administrative report, 5, 86–88
 analytical essay, 4–5, 71–75
 annotated bibliography, 5, 76–77
 case study, 5–6
 clinical paper, 6, 89–92

empirical research, 3–4, 58–63, 64–70
laboratory report, 4, 78–85
literature review, 3, 52–57
professional memo, 6, 99
reflective essay, 6–7, 93–94
writing, 2–7
Parallelism, 130–31
Paraphrases
 avoiding plagiarism and, 9–10, 31–32
 integrating, 26–27, 34–36
no quotation marks for, 191–92
and note taking, 25, 26–27
Parentheses, 197
 no comma before, 185
Parenthetical citations.
 See In-text citations
Parenthetical elements
 commas with, 183
 dashes with, 196
Participants, research, 10–11.
 See also Institutional review board (IRB)
Participial phrases, 230. *See also* Past participles; Present participles
Participles. *See* Past participles; Present participles
Parts of papers
 abstracts, 39–40, 53, 59, 65, 79, 96
 appendices, 44, 69–70
 conclusion, 43
 in different types of papers (chart), 41
 discussion, 43
 footnotes, 44, 48, 54, 72, 124–25
 headings, 44, 54–55, 61–62, 87–88, 90–92, 97–98, 99
 introduction, 40, 60, 72–73, 97
 method, 40–42, 61–62, 66–68
 references, 43–44, 57, 75, 85
 results, 42–43, 63, 81–82
 title page, 39, 52, 58, 64, 71, 78, 86, 89, 93, 95
 visuals, 45, 46–47, 49–50

- Parts of speech, 230
adjectives, 226
adverbs, 226
conjunctions, 227
interjections (exclamations), 229
nouns, 229
prepositions, 230–31
pronouns, 231
verbs, 233
- passed, past*, 222
- Passive voice
vs. active voice, 7–8, 128–30, 226
appropriate uses of, 129–30
forming, 172
- past*. *See passed, past*, 222
- Past participles
defined, 230
of irregular verbs, 148–51
and passive voice, 172
and perfect tenses, 171
of regular verbs, 148
- Past perfect tense, 152, 153, 171
- Past progressive forms, 153, 170
- Past tense, 152
in APA style, 8, 34, 101, 153
and *-d*, *-ed* endings, 148
of irregular verbs, 148–51, 170
vs. past perfect, 171
of regular verbs, 148, 170
- patients, patience*, 222
- Peer-reviewed journals. *See Scholarly sources*
- Percentages, numerals for, 207
- Perfect tenses, 152–53, 171
- Periodicals. *See also Articles in periodicals*
capitalizing titles of, 48, 51, 202
italics for titles of, 48, 208
- Periods, 195
in abbreviations, 204–06
with ellipsis mark, 198
to end a sentence, 195
with quotation marks, 193
- personal, personnel*, 223
- Personal pronouns
case of, 158–61
defined, 230
- Personal titles. *See Titles of persons*
- Personal writing. *See Reflective essays*
- Person and number
shifts in, avoiding, 133
and subject-verb agreement, 144–48
- personnel*. *See personal, personnel*, 223
- Persons, names of. *See Nouns*
- Photographs. *See Visuals*
- Phrases, 230
absolute, 226
appositive, 227
empty or inflated, 127–28
fragmented, 165–66
gerund, 228
infinitive, 228–29
participial, 230
prepositional, 231
- physics* (singular), 147
- Pictures. *See Visuals*
- Places, names of. *See Nouns*
- Plagiarism, avoiding, 29–32
by integrating sources, 26–27
and intellectual property, 9–10
and Internet sources, 24–25
by keeping a working bibliography, 23–24
by taking notes, 25, 26–27
- Plays
capitalizing titles of, 202
italics for titles of, 208
- Plurals. *See also Agreement of pronoun and antecedent; Agreement of subject and verb; Singular vs. plural*
of abbreviations, 190–91, 205
of compound nouns (*father-in-law* etc.), 210
of letters used as letters, 191
of numbers used as numbers, 190–91
spelling of, 210
of words used as words, 191
- plus*, 223
- p.m., a.m.*, 204–05
- Podcast, citing in paper, 119
- Point, main. *See Thesis*
- Point of view, 8, 133
- politics* (singular), 147
- Popular sources, vs. scholarly, 20–21

- Possessive case
 apostrophe and, 189–90
 with gerund, 160–61
- Possessive pronouns
 defined, 230
 no apostrophe in, 191
- pre-, no hyphen with*, 213
- precede, proceed*, 223
- Predicate, 230
- Predicate adjective. *See* Subject complements
- Predicate noun. *See* Subject complements
- Prefixes, hyphen after, 212–13
- Prepositional phrases, 231
- Prepositions
 at, in, on, to show time and place, 177
 defined, 230–31
 in idioms (common expressions), 177
 repeating, for parallel structure, 131
- Present participles
 defined, 230
 and progressive verb forms, 170, 171
- Present perfect tense, 152, 171
 in APA style, 8, 34, 101
- Present progressive form, 152, 170
- Present tense, 152, 170
 in APA style, 8, 34
 subject-verb agreement in, 144–48
 in writing about literature, 153
 in writing about science, 153
- Pretentious language, 140–41
- Primary data
 analysis of, 42
 in case studies, 5–6
 collecting and reporting, 10
 in empirical research
 papers, 3–4
 visuals for, 45
- principal, principle*, 223
- Print indexes, of periodicals, 13.
 See also Databases, for finding sources
- proceed*. *See* *precede, proceed*, 223
- Professional memos. *See* Memos
- Progressive verb forms, 152–53, 170, 171
- Progress reports. *See* Administrative reports
- Pronoun/adjectives, 172
- Pronoun-antecedent agreement.
 See Agreement of pronoun and antecedent
- Pronoun case, 158–61
 I vs. me, etc., 158–61
 who vs. whom, 161
 you vs. your, etc., 160–61
- Pronoun reference, 156–58
- Pronouns
 agreement of verbs with, 144–48
 agreement with antecedent, 154–56
 as appositives, 159
 case (*I vs. me, etc.*), 158–61
 defined, 231
 as objects, 158
 reference of, 156–58
 shifts in person and number, avoiding, 133
 singular vs. plural, 154–56
 as subjects, 158
 who, whom, 161
- Proof. *See* Evidence
- Proper nouns
 capitalizing, 201–03
 the with, 175
- Psychology papers
 empirical research paper, 58–63
 laboratory report, 78–85
 literature review, 52–57
- Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 45, 101.
 See also APA style
- Punctuation, 178–99
 apostrophe, 189–91
 brackets, 33, 198
 colon. *See* Colons
 comma. *See* Commas
 dash, 196
 ellipsis mark, 33, 198
 exclamation point. *See* Exclamation point
 parentheses, 185, 197
 period, 193, 195, 198
 question mark. *See* Question mark

Punctuation (*cont.*)

quotation marks. *See*
Quotation marks
with quotation marks, 192–94
semicolon. *See* Semicolon
Purpose, evaluating, 23

Q

Qualitative and quantitative
research methods. *See*
Methodology, research

Quantifiers, with noncount
nouns, 174

Question mark, 195
no comma with, 186
with quotation marks, 193
Questions, research, 11–12
in discussion section, 43
for empirical research
papers, 3
for literature reviews, 3

Quotation marks, 191–95. *See*
also Quotations
to avoid plagiarism, 30–31
with direct quotations
(exact language), 191–92
misuses of, 194–95
not used with articles in
reference list, 51
not used with indented
(long) quotations, 34,
48, 192
not used with paraphrases
and summaries, 191–92
other punctuation with,
192–94
single, 192
with titles of works, 48, 103,
106, 192

quotation, quote. *See* *quote,*
quotation, 223
Quotations. *See also* Quotation
marks
accuracy of, 33
appropriate use of, 32–34
avoiding plagiarism when
using, 29–32
brackets with, 33, 198
capitalization in, 33, 203
citing. *See* Citing sources
context for, 36
direct and indirect, 191–92
documenting, 101–23

dropped, avoiding, 34–35
ellipsis mark to indicate
cuts in, 33, 198
embedding, 36
integrating, 26–27, 32–37
long (indented), 34, 48, 192
punctuation of, 192–94
quotation marks for, 30–31,
191–92
within quotations, 192
sic for errors in, 33, 198
with signal phrase, 34–36
synthesizing, 36–37
quoted in, for a source used
in another source.
See cited in
quote, quotation, 223
Quotes. *See* Quotations

R

Race, labels and, 9
Ratios, colon with, 188
re-, no hyphen with, 213
Reading
active and critical, 4–5,
19, 22–23
and analytical essays, 4–5
evaluating sources, 17–23
previewing sources, 18–19
real, really, 223
reason . . . is because (non-
standard), 135
reason why (nonstandard), 223
Redundancies, 127
Reference list, 106–23
directory to models for,
107–08
formatting, 43–44, 50–51
heading for, 49
models for, 108–23
parentheses in, 197
sample, 57, 75, 85
Reference of pronouns, 156–58
Reference works, 13
Reflective essays
conclusion in, 43
headings in, 44
introduction in, 40
point of view in, 8
references in, 43–44
required sections in, 41
sample pages, 93–94
writing, 6–7

- Reflexive pronouns, 229
Regular verbs, 148, 170, 231.
See also Verbs
Relative adverbs, 231
introducing adjective clauses, 176
Relative pronouns
agreement with verbs, 146–47
defined, 231
introducing adjective clauses, 176
who, whom, 161
Repetition
of function words, for parallel structure, 131
unnecessary, 127, 176
Replication, of research findings, 10
Report. *See* Administrative reports
Requests, subjunctive mood for, 154
Researched writing. *See* Empirical research papers; Papers, APA-style; Researching a topic
Researching a topic, 11–27.
See also Empirical research papers; Papers, APA-style
bibliography
annotated, 5, 24, 76–77
working, 23–24
catalog, library, 14
databases and indexes, 13–15
data collection, 10
evaluating sources, 17–23
finding sources, 12–17
getting started, 11–12
keeping records and copies of sources, 24–25
keyword searches, 14–15
library resources, 13–15
literature review. *See* Literature review
managing information, 22–27
and note taking, 25, 26–27
online resources, 14–17, 22, 23
original research. *See* Empirical research papers
primary and secondary data, 3–4, 5–6, 10–11
primary sources, 15, 16
qualitative methodology, 42, 64–70
quantitative methodology, 42, 58–63
reading critically, 19, 22–23
reference works, 13
research participants, protecting, 10–11
research questions, 3, 11–12
Research participants, 10–11
respectfully, respectively, 223
Restrictive (essential) elements, no commas with, 181–82, 185
Results section
in different types of papers, 41
heading for, 49
present tense in, 153
sample pages, 63, 81–82
writing, 42–43
Review of the literature. *See* Literature review
Run-on sentences, 166–69

S

- s
and apostrophe, 189–90
and plural of abbreviations, 205
and spelling, 210
as verb ending, 144
Scholarly sources. *See also* Literature review
identifying, 19, 20
vs. popular sources, 20–21
Scientific facts, and verb tense, 153
Scores, numerals for, 207
Searching for information. *See also* Researching a topic
in databases, 14, 15
keywords for, 15
in library catalog, 14
scanning results, 18–19
in search engines, 14, 15
Secondary data, 3–4, 45. *See also* Primary data
Second-person point of view, 133

- Semicolon, 186–87
with commas, 186–87
to fix run-on sentences, 167, 168
and independent clauses, 186–87
misuse of, 187
with quotation marks, 193
with series, 187
transitional expressions with, 186–87
sensual, sensuous, 223
Sentence fragments, 164–66
Sentences. *See also* Sentence types
choppy, coordination and subordination for, 138–39
defined, 231
fragments, 164–66
incomplete, 164–66
logical, 135
run-on, 166–69
variety in, 138–39
wordy, 127–28
Sentence structure
mixed constructions, 134–35
multilingual concerns with, 175–76
simplifying, 128
Sentence types
complex, 227
compound, 227
compound-complex, 227
simple, 231
Series
comma with, 180
parallelism and, 130
parentheses with, 197
semicolon with, 187
set, sit, 223
Sexist language, avoiding, 9, 142
Sexual orientation, labels and, 9
shall, as modal verb, 171–72
she, her, hers, sexist use of, 142
she said, he said, comma with, 184, 193–94
she vs. her, 158–61
Shifts, avoiding, 133
Short stories
capitalizing titles of, 48, 202
quotation marks for titles of, 48, 192
should, as modal verb, 171–72
should of (nonstandard), 223
sic, 33, 198
Signal phrases, 34–36
Simple sentences, 231
Simple tenses, 152, 170
since, 224
Singular vs. plural
antecedents, 154–56
nouns, 144–48
pronouns, 154–56
subjects, 144–48
sit. *See set, sit*, 223
site. *See cite, site*, 217
Slang, avoiding, 141–42
Slash, 198–99
so. *See* Coordinating conjunctions
Sociology papers
analytical essay, 71–75
empirical research (qualitative methodology), 64–70
Software. *See* Word processing programs
some (singular or plural), 145
somebody, someone, something (singular), 145, 155
Songs, quotation marks for titles of, 192
sort of. *See kind of, sort of*, 221
Sources. *See also* Internet; Online sources
citing. *See* Citing sources
currency of, 7
documenting. *See* Documenting sources
evaluating, 17–23
finding, 12–17
integrating, 26–27, 32–37
introducing. *See* Signal phrases
keeping records of, 24–25
list of. *See* Reference list
popular, 21
primary, 3–4, 5–6
quoted in another source, 106
review of. *See* Literature review
scholarly, 19, 20

- secondary, 3–4
synthesizing, 36–37
for tables and figures, 124–25
uses of, 18, 28–29
- Spacing. *See* Line spacing
- Species, italics for names of, 208
- Specific nouns, *the* with, 173
- Spelling, 209–11
- Split infinitives, 137–38
- Sponsor, of Web site, and evaluating sources, 23
- Squinting modifiers, 135–36.
See also Misplaced modifiers
- Standard units, U.S., abbreviations for, 204–05
- Standards, APA. *See* APA style
- Statements contrary to fact, 154
- statistics* (singular), 147
- Statistics. *See also* Data, from research
italics for notation of, 208
parentheses with, 197
visuals for, 45
- Stereotypes, avoiding, 9, 142
- Subject, grammatical
and agreement with verb, 144–48
case of, 158, 161
defined, 231–32
following verb, 176, 232
identifying, 144–45
of infinitive, 160
naming the actor (active voice), 129
naming the receiver (passive voice), 129–30, 172
pronoun as, 158
repeated, avoiding, 176
required in sentences, 175–76
separated from verb, 144–45
singular vs. plural, 144–48
understood (*you*), 175, 232
- Subject, of paper, narrowing, 11
- Subject complements
adjectives as, 162
case of pronouns as, 158, 159
defined, 232
with linking verbs, 232
- Subjective case, of pronouns, 158
who, 161
- Subject-verb agreement. *See* Agreement of subject and verb
- Subjunctive mood, 154
- Subordinate clauses
adjective (beginning with *who*, *that*, etc.), 226
adverb (beginning with *if*, *when*, etc.), 226
avoiding repeated elements in, 176
defined, 232
fragmented, 165
with independent clauses, 227
noun, 229
- Subordinating conjunctions, 232
- Subordination
for fixing sentence fragments, 164–66
for sentence variety, 138–39
- Subtitles of works. *See* Titles of works
such as
no colon after, 188–89
no comma after, 185
- Suffixes
hyphen with, 212
spelling and, 209–10
- Summary
in abstracts, 39–40
avoiding plagiarism and, 9–10, 31–32
integrating, 26–27
and note taking, 25, 26–27
- Superlative form of adjectives and adverbs, 163–64
- Support. *See* Evidence
suppose to (nonstandard), 224
sure and (nonstandard), 224
- Surveys. *See* Primary data
- Synthesizing sources, 36–37

T

- Tables. *See* Visuals
take. *See* *bring*, *take*, 217
teach. *See* *learn*, *teach*, 221

- Technical notation, parentheses with, 197
- team.* See Collective nouns
- tenet, tenant,* 224
- Tenses, verb, 151–53
- and agreement with subject, 144–48
 - in APA style, 8, 34, 101
 - in literature papers, 134, 153
 - multilingual concerns with, 170–71
 - in science papers, 153
 - shifts in, avoiding, 134
- Tests, capitalization for titles of (such as Scholastic Aptitude Test), 202
- Texts, analyzing. *See* Analytical essays
- than*
- in comparisons, 132–33
 - no comma before, 185
 - parallelism with, 130–31
 - pronoun after, 160
- then, then,* 224
- that*
- agreement of verb with, 146–47
 - needed word, 132
 - vague reference of, 157
 - vs. *which*, 182, 224, 225
 - vs. *who*, 225
- the*, multilingual concerns with, 172–75
- with geographic names, 175
 - omission of, 173–75
 - with proper nouns, 175
- their*
- misuse of, with singular antecedent, 154–56
 - vs. *there, they're,* 224
- themselves* (nonstandard), 224
- them* vs. *they,* 158–61
- them* vs. *those,* 224
- then, than.* *See than, then,* 224
- Theories, capitalization of names of, 203
- there,* as expletive (placeholder), 228
- and subject following verb, 146, 176
- therefore*
- comma with, 182–83
 - semicolon with, 186–87
- there, their, they're,* 224
- Thesis, 25, 27–29
- they*
- indefinite use of, 157
 - vs. *I or you,* 133
 - misuse of, with singular antecedent, 154–56
 - vs. *them,* 158–61
- they're.* *See there, their, they're,* 224
- Third-person point of view, 8, 133
- this*, vague reference of, 157
- Time
- abbreviations for, 204–05
 - colon with, 188
 - numerals for, 207
- Title page
- in different types of papers, 41
 - formatting, 39, 45, 48
 - samples of, 52, 58, 64, 71, 78, 86, 89, 93, 95
- Titles of persons
- abbreviations with names, 204
 - capitalizing, 202
 - comma with, 184
- Titles of tests (such as Scholastic Aptitude Test), capitalization of, 202
- Titles of works
- capitalizing, 48, 51, 202
 - in citations with unknown authors, 103, 105, 109
 - italics for, 48, 51, 103, 207–08
 - quotation marks for, 48, 51, 103, 192
 - treated as singular, 147–48
- Tone (voice), 7–8. *See also Language*
- to, too, two,* 224
- toward, towards,* 224
- Trade names (such as Motrin), capitalization of, 202
- Transitional expressions
- commas with, 182–83
 - list of, 187
 - semicolon with, 186–87
- Transitive verbs, 232
- Trite expressions. *See Clichés, avoiding*
- troop.* *See Collective nouns*
- try and* (nonstandard), 224
- two.* *See to, too, two,* 224
- Types of papers. *See Papers, APA-style, types of*

U

Underlining. *See Italics*
Understood subject (*you*), 175, 232
unique, 164
Units of measurement, abbreviations for, 204–05
Unknown author, citing in paper, 103, 105, 109
URLs (Web addresses) breaking, 51, 213
citing, 115
Usage, glossary of, 215–25
use to (nonstandard), 225
Using sources, 18, 28–29
U.S. standard units, 204–05
us vs. *we*, 158–61
utilize, 225

V

Vague reference of *this*, *that*, *which*, 157
Variables italics for, 208
lowercase for nouns before, 202
Variety in sentences, 138–39
in signal phrases, 35
Verbal phrases, 233
dangling, 136–37
Verbs. *See also Verbs, types of* active, 7–8, 128–30, 226
adverbs as modifiers of, 163
agreement with subjects, 144–48
be, forms of, vs. active, 128–29
in conditional sentences, 154, 171–72
-d, *-ed* ending on, 148
defined, 233
forms of, 169–70
mood of, 154
multilingual concerns with, 169–72

shifts in tense, avoiding, 134

in signal phrases, 35
with singular vs. plural subjects, 144–48
standard forms of, 148–49
strong, vs. *be* and passive verbs, 128–29
before subjects (inverted sentences), 146, 176
tenses of. *See Tenses, verb*
Verbs, types of. *See also Verbs*
irregular and regular, 148–51, 231
linking, 162, 229
modal (*can*, *might*, etc.), 171–72, 229
transitive and intransitive, 232

Video clip, online, citing in paper, 119, 121

Visuals citing sources for, 50, 124–25
in different types of papers, 41
ethics and, 10
footnotes with, 56, 61, 88, 92, 124–25
formatting, 49–50
labeling, 49–50
in results section, 42
types of, 46–47
bar graph, 46, 83, 98
diagram, 47
flowchart, 47
line graph, 46, 63
map, 47
photograph, 47
pie chart, 46
table, 46, 49–50, 56, 61, 88, 92
uses of, 45, 46–47
Voice active, 7–8, 128–30, 226
appropriate, in writing, 7–8
passive, 7–8, 128–30, 172, 226

W

wait for, *wait on*, 225
was vs. *were* and subject-verb agreement, 144
and subjunctive mood, 154

- ways, 225
- we
- vs. *I*, 8
 - point of view, 8, 133
 - vs. *us*, 158–61
 - vs. *you* or *they*, 133
- weather, whether, 225
- Web, World Wide. *See* Internet; Online sources
- Weblog. *See* Blog
- well, good, 163
- were vs. was. *See* was vs. were
- where vs. that, 225
- whether . . . or, 130–31, 227
- whether, weather. *See* weather, whether, 225
- which
- agreement of verb with, 146–47
 - vs. *that*, 182, 224, 225
 - vague reference of, 157
 - vs. *who*, 225
- while, 225
- who
- agreement of verb with, 146–47
 - omission of, 131–32
 - vs. *which* or *that*, 225
 - vs. *whom*, 161
- who's, whose, 225
- Wiki
- citing in paper, 121
 - as source, 17
- Wikipedia, 17
- will, as modal verb, 171–72
- Wishes, subjunctive mood for, 154
- Word groups. *See* Independent clauses; Phrases; Subordinate clauses
- Wordiness, 127–28
- Word processing programs
- and hyphenation, 213
 - and keeping track of files, 24–25
- Words
- compound, 210, 211
 - confused. *See* Glossary
 - of usage
 - division of, 213
 - foreign, italics for, 209
 - needed. *See* Needed words
 - spelling of, 209–11
 - unnecessary repetition of, 127–28, 176
- using your own. *See* Paraphrases; Summary
- Words as words
- italics for, 208
 - plural of, 191
 - treated as singular, 147–48
- Working bibliography, 23–24. *See also* Annotated bibliography; Reference list
- World Wide Web. *See* Internet; Online sources
- Worn-out expressions. *See* Clichés, avoiding
- would, as modal verb, 171–72
- would of (nonstandard), 225
- Writing, types of. *See* Papers, APA-style, types of

Y

- yes, no, commas with, 183
- yet. *See* Coordinating conjunctions
- you
- indefinite use of, 157–58
 - vs. *I* or *they*, 133
 - and shifts in point of view, avoiding, 133
 - understood, 175, 232
 - vs. *your*, 160–61
- your, you're, 225
- YouTube. *See* Video clip

Documentation Directories

Directory to APA in-text citation models

1. A quotation	101
2. A summary or a paraphrase	102
3. Two authors	102
4. Three to five authors	102
5. Six or more authors	103
6. Unknown author	103
7. Organization as author	103
8. Authors with the same last name	104
9. Two or more works by the same author in the same year	104
10. Two or more works in the same parentheses	104
11. Multiple citations to the same work in one paragraph	104
12. Personal communication	104
13. Electronic source	105
14. Indirect source (source quoted in another source)	106

Directory to APA reference list models

14a GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR LISTING AUTHORS (PRINT AND ONLINE)

1. Single author	108
2. Two to seven authors	108
3. Eight or more authors	109
4. Organization as author	109
5. Unknown author	109
6. Two or more works by the same author	110
7. Two or more works by the same author in the same year	110

14b ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS (PRINT)

8. Article in a journal paginated by volume	110
Citation at a glance 111	
9. Article in a journal paginated by issue	112
10. Article in a magazine	112
11. Article in a newspaper	112
12. Letter to the editor	112
13. Editorial or other unsigned article	112
14. Review	112

Continued >

Directory to APA reference list models

(Continued)

14c BOOKS (PRINT)

15. Basic format for a book	113
<i>Citation at a glance 114</i>	
16. Book with an editor	113
17. Book with an author and an editor	113
18. Book with an author and a translator	113
19. Edition other than the first	113
20. Article or chapter in an edited book or an anthology	113
21. Multivolume work	115
22. Book with a title in its title	115

14d ONLINE SOURCES

23. Article in an online journal	115
24. Article in an online magazine	116
25. Article in an online newspaper	116
26. Article from a database	116
<i>Citation at a glance 118</i>	
27. Online book or e-book	116
28. Chapter in an online book or e-book	117
29. Report or long document from a Web site	117
30. Section in a Web document	117
<i>Citation at a glance 120</i>	
31. Short work from a Web site	117
32. Podcast	119
33. Blog post	119
34. Online audio or video file	119
35. Entry in a wiki	121
36. Data set or graphic representation	122
37. E-mail	122
38. Online posting	122

14e OTHER SOURCES (INCLUDING ONLINE VERSIONS)

39. Dissertation from a database	122
40. Government document	122
41. Report from a private organization	122
42. Conference proceedings	123
43. Map, chart, or illustration	123
44. Advertisement	123
45. Lecture, speech, or address	123
46. Brochure, pamphlet, or fact sheet	123
47. Film or video (motion picture)	123
48. Television program	123
49. Computer software or video game	123

Charts and Lists for Quick Reference

Writing papers in APA style

- Refining keyword searches 15
- Determining if a source is scholarly 19
- Scholarly vs. popular sources 20–21
- Evaluating all sources 22
- Evaluating Web sources 23
- Integrating and citing sources to avoid plagiarism 26–27
- Using signal phrases in APA papers 35

Formatting papers in APA style

- Parts of papers, by genre 41
- Choosing visuals to suit your purpose 46–47

Documenting sources in APA style

- Citation at a glance: Article in a journal or magazine 111
- Citation at a glance: Book 114
- Citation at a glance: Article from a database 118–19
- Citation at a glance: Section in a Web document 120–21

Clarity

- Inflated vs. concise phrases 127–28
- Jargon with plain English translations 140
- Clichés 141
- Sexist language and appropriate alternatives 142

Grammar

- Common irregular verbs 149–51
- Commonly used noncount nouns 174
- At, on, and in* to show time and place 177

Punctuation

- Conjunctive adverbs and transitional phrases 186–87

Mechanics

- Proper vs. common nouns 201
- Italics for titles of works 207–08

List of Sample Pages from Student Papers

Research paper: Literature review (psychology) 52

“Can Medication Cure Obesity in Children? A Review of the Literature” by Luisa Mirano

title page • abstract • first text page • footnote • headings • table • reference list

Research paper: Empirical research (psychology) 58

“The Influence of Sex and Learning on Taste Sensitivity” by Jessica S. Conderman

title page • abstract • first text page • introduction • headings • method • table • figure • results

Research paper: Qualitative methodology (sociology) 64

“African American Males’ Perceptions of Urban and Hip-Hop Styles of Dress” by Bradley J. Zopf

title page • abstract • method • appendices

Analytical essay (sociology) 71

“The Secret of Walmart’s Success: A Marxian Analysis” by Hannah Elwell

title page • first text page • footnote • reference list

Annotated bibliography (economics) 76

“Keynesian Policy: Implications for the Current U.S. Economic Crisis” by Katie Niemeyer

first page • reference list

Laboratory report (psychology) 78

“Reaction Times for Detection of Objects in Two Visual Search Tasks” by Allison Leigh Johnson

title page • abstract • first text page • headings • introduction • method • results • figure • discussion • reference list

Administrative report (criminology/criminal justice) 86

“Crime in Leesburg, Virginia” by Chris Thompson

title page • first text page • headings • table

Clinical practice paper (nursing) 89

“Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia and Hypertension in One Client: A Nursing Practice Paper” by Julie Riss

title page • first text page • headings • tables

Reflective essay (education) 93

“A Reflection on Service Learning: Working with Eric” by Onnalee L. Gibson

title page • first text page

Business report 95

“Positively Affecting Employee Motivation” by Brian Spencer

title page • abstract • headings • figure

Professional memo (business) 99

“Proposal to Add a Wellness Program” by Kelly Ratajczak

first page • headings • memo format

Visiting the Writing Center

Step 1: Gather your materials.

- ▶ Gather materials your instructor has provided: the assignment, sample papers, your syllabus.
- ▶ Gather your own materials: a copy of your draft, copies of sources you have cited in your paper, notes and any data you have collected, previous papers with instructor comments.

Step 2: Organize your materials and prepare questions.

- ▶ Reread the assignment. If you are confused, ask your instructor to clarify the assignment before you visit the writing center.
- ▶ Look at previous papers with instructor comments. Can those comments help you think about your current paper?
- ▶ Create a list of specific questions to focus your writing center conversation.

Step 3: Visit the writing center.

- ▶ Be on time and treat your tutor or consultant with courtesy and respect.
- ▶ Participate actively: Ask questions and take notes.
- ▶ Understand the limitations of your visit. Be prepared to cover one or two major issues.
- ▶ Understand the purpose of your visit. Most writing center staff are trained to give you suggestions and feedback, not to write or edit your paper for you.

Step 4: Reflect on your visit.

- ▶ As soon as possible after your visit, make sure you understand your notes and add anything you didn't have time to write during your visit.
- ▶ As you revise, apply your notes to your entire paper. Don't focus only on the parts of your paper you looked at in the session.
- ▶ Do not feel obligated to follow advice that you disagree with. Writing center staff are trained to provide helpful feedback, but you are the author; you decide which changes will help you best express your meaning and achieve your purpose.
- ▶ As you revise, keep track of questions or goals for your next writing center visit.

Checklist for Global Revision

Focus

- Are the main point or points of your paper — the thesis or the hypothesis and results — clearly stated in the abstract or in the opening paragraph (if the paper does not have an abstract)?
- Does each part of the paper support and expand on the main points without adding unnecessary detail?

Organization

- Can readers easily follow the structure?
- Do you use headings appropriately for the genre in which you are writing, to help readers follow the flow of your ideas?
- Does each paragraph contain a new idea that clearly connects to ideas in surrounding paragraphs?
- Do you present ideas in a logical order?

Content

- Are your methods, data, results, and supporting ideas logical and persuasive?
- Do you acknowledge ideas contrary to your thesis or hypothesis? Do you suggest limitations of your own work and suggest directions for further research?
- Do you fully develop important ideas?
- Is the draft free of irrelevant or repetitious material?

Style

- Are your sentences clear, direct, objective, and formal?
- Do you avoid stereotypical, biased, or sexist language?

Use of sources

- Do you use sources to inform, support, or extend your points?
- Have you varied the function of sources — to provide background, explain concepts, lend authority, and counter objections? Do you introduce sources with signal phrases that indicate these functions?
- Is it clear how your sources relate to your main points?
- Is the draft free of plagiarism? Are summaries and paraphrases in your own words? Is quoted material enclosed in quotation marks or set off from the text?
- Have you documented source material that is not common knowledge?

Revision Symbols

abbr	abbreviation 38	" "	quotation marks 35
adj/adv	adjective or adverb 28	.	period 36a
add	add needed word 19	?	question mark 36b
agr	agreement 25, 27a	!	exclamation point 36c
appr	inappropriate language 24	—	dash 36d
art	article 31b	()	parentheses 36e
awk	awkward	[]	brackets 36f
cap	capital letter 37	...	ellipsis mark 36g
case	case 27c, 27d	/	slash 36h
cliché	cliché 24b	pass	ineffective passive 17b
cs	comma splice 30	pn agr	pronoun agreement 27a
dm	dangling modifier 22c	ref	pronoun reference 27b
-ed	-ed ending 26a	run-on	run-on sentence 30
ESL	English as a second language/multi-lingual writers 31	-s	-s ending on verb 25, 31a
frag	sentence fragment 29	sexist	sexist language 24d, 27a
fs	fused sentence 30	shift	confusing shift 20
hyph	hyphen 42	sl	slang 24c
irreg	irregular verb 26a	sp	misspelled word 41
ital	italics 40	sv agr	subject-verb agreement 25
jarg	jargon 24a	t	verb tense 26b
lc	use lowercase letter 37	usage	see glossary of usage 43
mix	mixed construction 21	v	voice 17
mm	misplaced modifier 22a-b, 22d	var	sentence variety 23
mood	mood 26c	vb	problem with verb 26, 31a
num	numbers 39	w	wordy 16
om	omitted word 19, 31c	//	faulty parallelism 18
p	punctuation	^	insert
,	comma 32a-i	x	obvious error
no ,	no comma 32j	#	insert space
;	semicolon 33a	○	close up space
:	colon 33b		
'	apostrophe 34		

Detailed Menu

Writing Papers in APA Style 1

1 Writing college papers in APA style 2

- a Research paper: Literature review
- b Research paper: Original research
- c Laboratory report
- d Analytical essay
- e Annotated bibliography
- f Administrative report
- g Case study
- h Clinical paper
- i Professional memo
- j Reflective essay

2 APA conventions 7

- a Current sources
- b Tone and language
- c Avoiding stereotypes, bias
- d Intellectual property
- e Collecting and reporting data
- f Protecting research participants

3 Posing questions 11

4 Finding appropriate sources 12

5 Evaluating sources 17

6 Managing information; avoiding plagiarism 22

7 Supporting a thesis 25

8 Avoiding plagiarism 29

9 Integrating sources 32

Formatting Papers in APA Style 38

10 Parts of a paper in APA style 39

- a Title page
- b Abstract
- c Introduction
- d Method
- e Results
- f Discussion
- g References
- h Footnotes
- i Headings
- j Appendices
- k Visuals

11 APA manuscript format 45

12 Sample pages from papers in APA style 51

- a Literature review (psychology)
- b Original research (psychology)
- c Research: Qualitative methodology (sociology)
- d Analytical essay (sociology)
- e Annotated bibliography (economics)
- f Laboratory report (psychology)
- g Administrative report (criminal justice)
- h Clinical practice paper (nursing)
- i Reflective essay (education)
- j Business report
- k Professional memo (business)

Documenting Sources in APA Style 100

13 APA in-text citations 101

14 APA reference list 106

15 APA footnotes 124

Clarity 126

16 Wordy sentences 127

17 Active verbs 128

18 Parallelism 130

19 Needed words 131

20 Shifts 133

- a Point of view
- b Tense

21 Mixed constructions 134

- a Mixed grammar
- b Illogical connections
- c *is when, is where, reason . . . is because*

22 Misplaced and dangling modifiers 135

- a Misplaced words
- b Misplaced phrases and clauses
- c Dangling modifiers
- d Split infinitives

23 Sentence variety 138

24 Appropriate voice 140

- a Jargon
- b Clichés
- c Slang
- d Sexist language

Grammar 143

- 25 Subject-verb agreement** 144
- a Words between subject and verb
 - b Subjects with *and*
 - c Subjects with *or, nor*
 - d Indefinite pronouns
 - e Collective nouns
 - f Subject after verb
 - g *who, which, that*
 - h Plural form, singular meaning
 - i Titles, company names

26 Other problems with verbs 148

- a Irregular verbs
- b Tense
- c Mood

27 Pronouns 154

- a Agreement
- b Reference
- c Case (*I vs. me* etc.)
- d *who or whom*

28 Adjectives and adverbs 162

29 Sentence fragments 164

30 Run-on sentences 166

- a Revision with comma and coordinating conjunction
- b With semicolon (or colon or dash)
- c By separating sentences
- d By restructuring

31 Grammar concerns for multilingual writers 169

- a Verbs
- b Articles (*a, an, the*)
- c Sentence structure
- d Prepositions *at, on, in*

Punctuation 178

32 The comma 179

- a Independent clauses
- b Introductory elements
- c Items in a series
- d Coordinate adjectives
- e Nonrestrictive elements
- f Transitions, parenthetical expressions
- g Direct address, yes and no, interrogative tags
- h *he argued* etc.
- i Dates, addresses, titles
- j Misuses

33 The semicolon and the colon 186

34 The apostrophe 189

35 Quotation marks 191

- a Direct quotations
- b Titles of short works
- c With other punctuation
- d Misuses

36 Other marks 195

- a Period
- b Question mark
- c Exclamation point
- d Dash
- e Parentheses
- f Brackets
- g Ellipsis mark
- h Slash

Mechanics 200

37 Capitalization 201

- a Proper vs. common nouns
- b Titles with proper names
- c Titles of works
- d Special terms
- e First word of a sentence
- f First word after a colon
- g Abbreviations

38 Abbreviations 203

- a Before and after a name
- b Organizations, companies, countries
- c Units of measurement and time
- d Latin abbreviations
- e Plural of abbreviations
- f Other abbreviations
- g Inappropriate abbreviations

39 Numbers 206

40 Italics 207

41 Spelling 209

42 Hyphenation 211

Glossaries 214

43 Glossary of usage 215

44 Glossary of grammatical terms 226

Index 235

Documentation directories

Charts and lists for quick reference