Fall 2012		

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Avoiding Plagiarism – Introduction

Incorporating Borrowed Material: Quoting, Paraphrasing, Summarizing, and Signal Phrases (Attributive Tags)

In many of your courses, you are asked to write papers that include material from outside sources—material from books, articles, films, online sources, and so on. In doing so, you need to avoid plagiarism—that is, using someone else's writing or ideas without giving credit to the author. The "Avoiding Plagiarism" workshop focuses on quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing your sources, and using signal phrases to introduce the passages that you borrow. This activity will help you become a stronger student and a better writer by giving you additional instruction and practice in citing your sources. By the end of this activity, you will be able to do the following:

- Define "plagiarism"
- List the consequences of intentional and unintentional plagiarism
- Define and distinguish quoting, summary, and paraphrase
- Create signal phrases (attributive tags) to integrate borrowed material effectively

In this activity, you will do the following:

- 1. You will view a brief slide presentation on avoiding plagiarism.
- 2. You will complete an exercise in which you apply the information presented in the PowerPoint as you quote, paraphrase, and summarize the source material provided in the "Avoiding Plagiarism" exercise, and create signal phrases (attributive tags) to introduce those sources.
- 3. You will complete a brief quiz on the concepts presented in the PowerPoint slides.
- **4.** You will briefly reflect on what you have learned in this workshop.

A. Signal Phrases to Introduce Quotations

Readers need to move from your own words to the words of a source without feeling a jolt. Avoid dropping quotations into the text without warning. Instead, provide clear signal phrases, usually including the author's name, to prepare readers for a quotation.

Dropped Quotation: California law prevents the killing of mountain lions except for specific lions that have been proved to be a threat to humans or livestock. "Fish and Game is even blocked from keeping mountain lions from killing the endangered desert bighorn sheep" (Perry).

Quotation with Signal Phrase: California law prevents the killing of mountain lions except for specific lions that have been proved to be a threat to humans or livestock. Tony Perry points out that, ironically, "Fish and Game is even blocked from keeping mountain lions from killing the endangered desert bighorn sheep."

Varying Signal Phrases: To avoid monotony, try to vary both the language and the placement of your signal phrases. When your signal phrase includes a verb, choose one that is appropriate in the context. Is your source arguing a point, making an observation, reporting a fact, drawing a conclusion, refuting an argument, or stating a belief? By choosing the appropriate verb, you can make your source's stance clear.

B. Verbs for Signal Phrases

Author is neutral			Author argues		
adds comments describes explains illustrates	records relates reports says sees	notes observes points out thinks writes	alleges asserts believes claims	defends disagrees holds contends	insists declares maintains
Author infers or suggests			Author agrees		
analyzes asks assesses concludes considers	proposes reveals shows speculates	finds predicts supposes suggests	acknowledges admits grants	concedes confirms	concurs agrees
Author is uneasy or disparaging					
belittles bemoans complains condemns	deprecates derides disputes	deplores warns laments			

Adapted from Deirdre Spicer, Orange County School of the Arts https://sharepoint.ocsarts.net/student/academic/deidre_spicer/lit_comp_II_honors/Shared%20Documents/Signal%20Phrases%20to%20Introdu.doc

Avoiding Plagiarism - College Policy

Statement on Academic Integrity at College of the Canyons

Students are expected to do their own work as assigned. At College of the Canyons, we believe that academic integrity and honesty are some of the most important qualities college students need to develop and maintain. To facilitate a culture of academic integrity, College of the Canyons has defined plagiarism and academic dishonesty. Due process procedures have been established when plagiarism or academic dishonesty is suspected.

At COC, we define plagiarism as follows: Plagiarism is the submission of someone else's work or ideas as one's own, without adequate attribution. When a student submits work for a class assignment that includes the words, ideas or data of others, without acknowledging the source of the information through complete, accurate, and specific references, plagiarism is involved. This may include dual submissions of a similar work for credit for more than one class, without the current instructor's knowledge and approval.

To be specific, below are some of the situations that will be considered plagiarism at COC:

- Use information from any source, online or in print, in one's own writing without acknowledging the source in the content <u>and</u> in the reference page of the assignment;
- Simply list the sources in the reference page, without parenthetical citations in the body of the essay;
- Take more than one printed line of words consecutively from the source without putting
 quotation marks around them, even though the student has put the author's name in the
 parentheses or in the reference page;
- Turn in work done for other classes, regardless how big or small the assignment may be, without the current instructor's approval—this is considered "self-plagiarism," which is a form of academic dishonesty; or,
- Turn in work by another student, even by accident.

In addition, COC has strict rules against using electronic devices during exams without the instructor's approval. To be specific, absolutely no cell phones or any electronic devices can be on the desk or in sight during test or exam without the instructor's approval. The presence of electronic devices in sight during exams may be considered as intention to cheat and will be processed as a form of academic dishonesty.

Cases of alleged academic dishonesty, such as plagiarism or cheating, will be referred to the Dean of Student Services for investigation. See your syllabus for course specific policies, rules, and guidelines on plagiarism and academic dishonesty.

Evaluating Online Sources – Five Criteria for Evaluating Web Pages

	Evaluation of web documents	How to interpret the basics
1.	 Accuracy of Web documents Who wrote the page and can you contact him or her? What is the purpose of the document and why was it produced? Is this person qualified to write this document? 	 Accuracy Make sure author provides e-mail or a contact address/phone number. Know the distinction between author and Webmaster.
2.	 Authority of web documents What is the domain of the document and what institution publishes this document? Is the publisher separate from the "Webmaster"? Does the publisher list his or her qualifications? 	 Authority What credentials are listed for the author(s)? Where is the document published? Check URL domain.
3.	 Objectivity of web documents Check the "About Us" or "Mission" pages on the website: what are the stated values and goals of the organization? Who is on the board of directors for this website? Would these individuals have a political bias? What goals/objectives does this page meet? How detailed is the information? What opinions (if any) are expressed by the author? 	 Objectivity Determine if page is a mask for advertising; if so, information might be biased. View any web page as you would an infomercial on television. Ask yourself, why was this written and for whom?
4.	Currency of web documentsWhen was it produced?When was it updated?How up-to-date are the links (if any)?	 Currency How many dead links are on the page? Are the links current or updated regularly? Is the information on the page outdated?
5.	 Coverage of the web documents Are the links (if any) evaluated and do they complement the documents' theme? Is it all images or a balance of text and images? Is the information cited correctly? 	 Coverage If page requires special software to view the information, how much are you missing if you don't have the software? Is it free or is there a fee to obtain the information? Is there a text-only option, or frames, or a suggested browser for better viewing?

Putting it all together

- Accuracy: If your page lists the author and institution that published the page and provides a way of contacting him/her and . . .
- **Authority:** If your page lists the author's credentials and its domain is preferred (.edu, .gov, .org, or .net), and . . .
- **Objectivity:** If your page provides accurate information with limited advertising and it is objective in presenting the information, and . . .
- **Currency:** If your page is current and updated regularly (as stated on the page) and the links (if any) are also up-to-date, and . . .
- **Coverage:** If you can view the information properly—not limited to fees, browser technology, or software requirement, then . . .

You may have a web page that could be of value to your research!

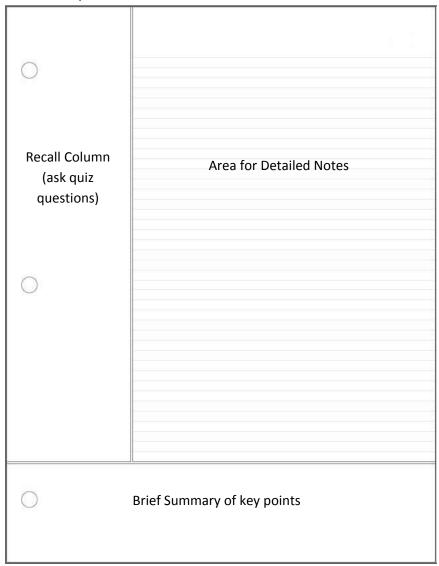
FROM: Kapoun, Jim. "Teaching undergrads WEB evaluation: A guide for library instruction." C&RL News (July/August 1998): 522-523. Reprinted with permission of the author.

Converted to HTML by Paul McMillin, September 18, 1998

Olin and Uris Libraries, Cornell University, Ithaca NY 14853 Information and reference: 607-255-4144, okuref@cornell.edu Circulation: (Olin) 607-255-4245, (Uris) 607-255-3537, olincirc@cornell.edu

Note-Taking - The Cornell Method

The Cornell system is a way to format your page when you take notes. It includes an area for notes, a recall column and a summary section.



Area for Notes: In this column, write what the instructors says, skipping a space when the instructor moves to a new topic. You can also create an outline of the lecture in this area or map out the concepts that are covered in the lecture.

Recall Column: In this column, write questions about the key concepts. These study questions will help you prepare for the exam.

Summary Area: Use this space to sum up the notes in bulleted key points.

Online Research — Library Databases

This handout lists and describes some key online databases available to you through the COC library. If you have any questions, ask your workshop instructor, or call the library during open hours at 661-362-3362, or 661-362-3358.

- ProQuest Direct** (contains citations, abstracts and in many cases full-text articles and graphics from more than 10,000 magazines, journals and newspapers). You can find information on almost any topic in magazine and journal articles. This database will be helpful for most research projects.
- Biography Resource Center** (features biographical information on more than 165,000 individuals, covering broad historical periods and subject areas)
- Contemporary Authors** (provides complete biographical and bibliographical information and references on more than 120,000 U.S. and international authors)
- CountryWatch** (contains up-to-date economic, political and social data about every country on the globe)
- CQ Researcher** (the online version of the highly-respected current-events resource on topics ranging from social and teen issues to education, environment, and science)
- Daily Life Through History** (a comprehensive, cross-disciplinary resource that supports history, social studies, English, and language students; gives life to history and context to current events)
- Encyclopedia Britannica** (the famed encyclopedia with additional full-length articles on many topics and links to relevant websites)
- Issues & Controversies** (includes articles, editorials, historical documents, graphics and statistics on controversial issues; covers over 250 topics)
- LearningExpress Library** (offers information, practice tests, skills improvement, etc. for college preparation, GED, job search, U.S. citizenship)
- NetLibrary** (COC's collection of electronic books, eBooks, from NetLibrary; currently 5834 titles)
- Scribner Writers Series** (includes fifteen- to twenty-page signed essays on more than 1,600 authors and literary genres drawn from thirteen Scribner print series)
- Twayne's Authors Series** (contains full-text of 200 Twayne's Literary Masters books on individual World, U.S. or English authors, for a total of 600 full-text titles)

These databases are accessible free of charge from any networked computers on campus.

Most databases allow the user to print, email, or save to a flash drive articles and information found during a database search.

Databases with asterisks () are also accessible from **off-campus** by students, faculty and staff of College of the Canyons but **require passwords**. Contact the reference desk at 661-362-3358 or 661-362-3362 for off-campus access to these databases.

Online Research — Key Vocabulary and Terms

- **Subject**—a broad or expansive area of interest, such as biology, education, sports, etc. A subject is usually too broad to be an appropriate focus for a research paper.
- **Topic**—a focused area of interest. A good research topic may involve answering a specific question that the researcher has (which may be written as a thesis statement). Example: Subject—Biology; Topic: The effect of global warming on the arctic biosphere.
- Search Engine—a website designed to gather and report information available on the Internet.
- **Googling**—Using the Google search engine to obtain information about something on the World Wide Web.
- Wikipedia—a Web site featuring "encyclopedia" articles submitted and edited by its readers.
- **Database**—a collection of data arranged for ease and speed of search and retrieval.
- **Key Word**—a significant or descriptive word. A word used as a reference point for finding other words or information. Example: keywords related to the topic "global warming" might be a) ozone, b) polar ice-cap, c) climate change.
- **Controlled Vocabulary**—a carefully selected list of words and phrases, which are used to tag units of information in a document or web page so that they may be more easily retrieved by a search. Examples: subject headings in a library catalog or online database such as ProQuest.

Outlining Readings – Introduction

Introduction

Outlining while reading will help you stay engaged with the content of your text, article, or any other form of reading assignment.

What is an outline?

An outline is a type of note-taking that reduces a reading to its core components, organizing them by importance, from main points, to secondary points, and so on until you get to supporting details such as data and examples.

Let's look at an example. Read the following paragraph and then compare it with the outline. (This is the first paragraph of the sample text students will be working on later.)

PARAGRAPH:

In 1907 a severe financial panic jolted Wall Street and forced several banks into failure. This panic, however, did not trigger a broader economic collapse. Yet, the simultaneous occurrence of general prosperity with a crisis in the nation's financial centers did persuade many Americans that their banking structure was sadly out of date and in need of major reform.

OUTLINE:

- 1907 financial panic
 - banks fail but no broad economic collapse
 - contrast: prosperity/banks failing > demand for reform $\quad \Leftrightarrow \quad$ Note use of symbols to condense information

Note how the ideas are organized from left to right. Start at the left with the main topic or idea, and then indent any secondary ideas or supporting information, creating steps of relevance. Also note how you can use symbols to condense the information. Symbols allow you to pack a lot of information in a very small space. They also let you represent relationships between ideas in a visual fashion.

How do we arrange information in an outline?

Imagine that an outline is like a flight of stairs. The main idea is at the top, and then you have steps going down, with ideas that have less importance, until you get to details and examples at the very bottom. They all support the main idea (you need to take these steps to get to the top, that is, to the main idea) but they are not equally important.

- A. Main Point/Idea - B. Support point/idea "A" - C. Support for point/idea "B" D. Support for point/idea "C"

Each indentation is a step indicating a smaller point or idea in support of the previous one. All steps support each other and lead to the main point or idea.

Once you get familiar with this layout, you can expand it by having smaller steps inside major ones. Here is an example:

I. MAIN IDEA

A. Secondary idea or supporting idea to I

B. Secondary idea or supporting idea to I

1. Secondary/supporting idea to B

2. Secondary/supporting idea to B

a) Secondary/supporting idea to 2

b) Secondary/supporting idea to 2

 $\ \, \mbox{$\hookleftarrow$}$ This step stops here. It has no further supporting ideas.

⇔ This step goes on to have other supporting steps.

← This step is only in support of point B

← This step is also only in support of point B

□ This step only supports point 2

□ This step is also only in support of point 2

Why do we indent ideas in an outline?

Indenting is a way to show relationships between ideas in visual form. Rather than having long explanations showing how each part of a topic relates to another, indenting simply arranges the parts into groups and shows where each one connects with another.

- When you indent, it's easier to find information.
- When you indent, it's easier to see how everything fits together and get the big picture.

Of course, a note-taking system that makes it easier for you to find information and get the big picture is a system that will help you do well in your classes. Outlines are particularly useful to prepare for tests.

What should I include in an outline?

The outline should be used as a way to create a study guide and quick reference for your reading material.

What should you include in an outline?

- Vocabulary and their definitions
- Dates and events
- People and what they are known for
- Processes
- Formulas
- Anything you think is relevant to the topics your instructor expects you to know about.

If you want your outlines to be really good, you need to be consistent in the way you organize the material. Let's go online for a moment to the Purdue University learning resources page, and read about the four main components of effective outlines. Please go to:

http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/544/01/

What symbols can I use to condense information in an outline?

Outlines are about packing a lot of information into a small space, showing how ideas are related. In order to put as much information as possible into an outline, you may want to incorporate symbols into your notes. You can create your own symbol system or adopt commonly used ones.

Examples of note-taking symbols

	·
Symbol	Meaning
+	and
>	more than
<	less than
w/	with
i.e.	that is
e.g.	for example
etc.	et cetera
b/c	because
vs	versus
C.	circa, around

Symbol	Meaning
,	question
Α	answer
diff	difference
lk	like
@	at
~	approximately
#	number
Irn	learn
\rightarrow	leads to, results in
←	Comes from

You can find many more symbols online by searching for "note taking symbols."

Scanning a Reading

You will find that chapters and articles are already organized into clearly identified sections that you can use to build your outline. When outlining, it is important to become familiar with the layout of the text you are working with. Scan over it first to get the lay of the land.

Ask yourself questions while scanning:

- How is this text organized?
- Are there headings? If so, what questions do they raise?
- Is vocabulary identified in any way?
- Does the text utilize techniques to point out important details? (color, italics, bold, underline, etc...)
- Are things organized chronologically?
- Are there images? If so, what do they represent and what questions do you have about them?

Questions like these can help you navigate the text smoothly and get you prepared to outline with the goal of finding answers to those questions.

Outlining Your Essay – "Drinking Age" Fact Sheet

Facts Supporting Current Drinking Age

"One of the biggest advantages of the 21-year-old drinking age is that it's significantly harder for kids [under 21] to find alcohol and then to drive."

Across the country, <u>alcohol-related car crashes among drivers</u> aged <u>16 to 20 declined by 61% from 1982 to 1998</u>, according to the National Highway Transportation Safety Administration (NHTSA). The NHTSA estimates that more than <u>23,000 alcohol-related vehicular deaths in the U.S.</u> have been prevented since 1975, the year many states began raising their drinking ages.

Another reason why the <u>current minimum</u> drinking age <u>is a good idea has to do with the way the human body develops both mentally and physically</u>. Groups such as MADD say that there is scientific evidence that the <u>brain does not fully mature until a person reaches the age of 21, on average.</u> Excessive alcohol consumption before that age can lead to permanent brain damage, negatively affecting a person's memory, motor skills and test-taking ability for the rest of their lives, they say.

Defenders also point to the <u>declining teenage pregnancy rates in the U.S. as another positive</u> <u>side effect</u> of the raised minimum drinking age. <u>Underage alcohol consumption can sometimes</u> <u>lead to minors engaging in unprotected sex</u>, which in turn causes high teen pregnancy rates. Since 1990, teenage pregnancy has declined steadily and significantly.

Facts Opposing Current Drinking Age

Because it is illegal to purchase and drink alcohol, <u>teenagers often resort to doing their drinking in unsafe environments</u>, far outside the public eye, critics note. Instead of drinking in a controlled situation, going to a bar with a drink limit or something, they're doing it at keg parties in places that are harder to control.

Opponents of the current drinking age refer to the "forbidden fruit" theory. By making alcohol legally unattainable for those under 21, lawmakers have <u>inadvertently romanticized</u> it and <u>created a mystique around it</u>, causing teenagers to want to drink even more, critics maintain.

Nearly every other country in the world has a minimum drinking age of 18, and yet alcoholism is not a global epidemic. Many opponents of the U.S.'s current drinking laws point to minimum drinking ages in Europe, which range from 14 to 18. Yet Europe, responsible alcohol intake. In contrast to their American peers, Europeans are "very intolerant of their peers who become intoxicated," Hanson says. "They think it's stupid, unacceptable, and that's true throughout most of Europe."

Preparing for Finals – Five Steps to Finals Week Prep!

"The reason most people never reach their goals is that they don't define them, or ever seriously consider them as believable or achievable. Winners can tell you where they are going, what they plan to do along the way, and who will be sharing the adventure with them." --Denis Watley

What goals do YOU want to achieve by the end of finals week? Do you want...

- ✓ To pass all your classes?
- ✓ To get A's in all your classes?
- ✓ Or something in between?

Here's how to do it:

- **STEP 1:** Get the facts.
- STEP 2: Get your "to do" list in order.
- **STEP 3:** Make a plan.
- **STEP 4:** Ask for support.
- STEP 5: Follow your plan.

STEP 1 - Get the facts.

What exactly do you need to do before finals week if you want to achieve your goals?

Review your syllabus for each class:

- ✓ What percentage is each quiz, test, or project worth toward the final grade?
- ✓ What is left to do that I have not done?
- ✓ Have I forgotten anything?
- ✓ Is there a final exam, and how much is it worth?

Ask professors questions when the answers are not on the syllabus:

- ✓ What is my grade average so far?
- ✓ Will the final exam cover everything we learned from the first day of class, or only what we covered after the midterm?
- ✓ I still don't grasp the concept of _____. Is there something I can do to help me understand it better?
- ✓ Will you still accept late assignments, and until when?
- ✓ Can I rewrite a paper for a higher grade?
- ✓ Is there anything I can do for extra credit?
- ✓ Will the final exam have a study guide?
- ✓ How do you recommend I study for the final?

STEP 2 - Get your "to-do" list in order.

For the following exercises, rank the activities according to their importance. Decide if each task on the list is an *A*, *B*, or *C*.

- A Very important
- B Somewhat important
- C I can do this after finals week, OR ask somebody to do it for me.

The information on this page is adapted from "Time Management" PowerPoint presentation, Kathleen Riepe, Learning Assistance University of Wisconsin-Parkside.

EXERCISE 2B: Write a "to-do" list of everything you need to do in the next two weeks. (Note: Don't list eating, sleeping, and things you normally do on a routine basis). When you finish your list, mark each item *A*, *B*, or *C*, depending on its importance.

STEP 3 - Make a plan that manages time well.

Plan WHEN you are going to "work your A's off" on that "to-do" list (and a few B's if you have the time). You can always change your plan, but you have to have one first!

PLAN how you will spend study time.

- Review major points in the text (main headings)
- Review minor points in the text (subheadings)
- Create study questions to review
- Review lecture notes

PLAN how you will spend writing time. Don't stare at a blank computer screen!

- Reread the assignment
- Reread your sources
- Outline your paper
- · Warm up with freewriting
- Disconnect the Internet if it's distracting

PLAN ahead for successful final exams. Planning will help relieve test anxiety.

- · Get enough sleep the night before
- · Get everything you need ready the night before
- Dress in layers in case the room is too warm or too cold
- Get to class on time or a little early
- Eat something before the exam

STEP 4 - Ask for support.

Academic support

- Tutoring, Learning, and Computing Lab
- COC Library
- Professors
- Study groups with classmates

Personal support

- Show friends, family, and even your employer your **time management schedule**; explain its importance in helping you meet your goals.
- Ask friends, family, and even your employer to support you in your efforts.
 - ✓ By understanding that you will have less time for them, but more later after finals week.
 - ✓ By understanding they may need to rely on other people for support, instead of you.
 - ✓ By understanding how important success is to you.

STEP #5 - Follow your plan!

Reading Textbooks - Introduction

Reading is not a simple process. Readers don't just sound out (decode) words and then automatically comprehend what they are reading. Comprehending a text requires more than just recognizing the words. Decoding skills and knowledge of vocabulary are important but not sufficient when texts are challenging.

Reading is a complex process rather than a simple, straightforward process of lifting words off the page. Active reading engages a variety of problem-solving strategies. The reader comprehends a text not just by understanding the sentences but also by connecting those sentences to ideas, memories, and knowledge suggested by those words. It involves listening to the voice of the writer as well as one's own voice and those that the reader has previously encountered outside the text.

Proficient readers share some key characteristics. Good readers are...

- Mentally engaged
- Motivated to read and learn
- Socially active around reading tasks—that is, they receive support from other more competent readers who serve as mentors (such as parents) and they talk about their process and the texts
- Able to monitor their understanding of a text and make adjustments if necessary

Strategies used to comprehend difficult texts:

- 1. Preview the text to note title, headings, subheadings, and illustrations.
- 2. Make connections to the text with prior knowledge and experience.
- 3. Create a list, image, or picture of the text, either mentally or on paper.
- 4. Confront unfamiliar vocabulary using context clues and root words.
- 5. Bring self back to text when drifting.
- 6. Tolerate ambiguity. (Be willing to read on even if text isn't perfectly clear yet.)
- 7. Reread sections to clear up confusion. (Know when to reread or when to move on.)
- 8. Predict what is to come in the text.
- 9. Question the author.
- 10. Summarize or paraphrase material in own words.

This workshop activity will help to make visible the invisible process that the mind goes through as it is comprehending a text. This exercise is called a "think aloud." It will help students become aware of their own reading process and the effective techniques of other readers.

Students will view a video showing two readers reading a text. The readers in the video will be "thinking aloud" to allow others to see what is happening in their minds as they read the text. Students should notice what each is saying and how she is making sense of the text. As they listen, they will take notes about the different reading strategies that each is using. They will write down what the reader is saying as she speaks. Next, students will refer to the list of strategies and identify which strategies they heard the reader using. Students will share their observations with the whole class for each "read aloud."

Reading Textbooks - Texts for Partner Reading

Text #1 for partner work

Geology 2nd edition by William Putnam and Ann Bradley Bassett

Igneous Rocks

These are rocks that have solidified from a silicate melt to which the name of *magma* (to knead) is given. A comparatively familiar variety of such materials is *lava*, and most of us have seen photographs of this material in the craters of volcanoes or issuing as fluid streams from their flanks. Because of the high temperatures and accompanying lurid scenes associated with volcanic activity in the minds of most people, the word igneous, from the Latin *igneus*, having to do with fire, is used for rocks crystallized from the cooling lava. We use the same root in everyday language when we speak of the ignition system of a car. The varieties of igneous rocks that crystallize at or near the surface of the earth from lava when it solidifies are commonly called *volcanic rocks*.

Text #2 for partner work

Introduction to Motor-Behavior: A Neuropsychological Approach 2nd edition by George H. Sage **Development of Depth Perception**

Whether depth perception exists as an inherent ability of the individual or whether it is developed through learning experiences has interested scholars for many years. Although there is evidence on both sides of this question, there is mounting evidence that some depth perceptual ability is inherited. Fantz (1981) reported that one-month-old infants could discriminate between solid and flat objects, even when the objects were viewed monocularly. We have already reported (in Chapter11) on experiments by Gibson and Walk (1990) with a "visual cliff" which show that the young of several species, including humans, display depth perception. These investigators demonstrated that human infants can discriminate depth as soon as they can crawl. Bower (1992) found that infants even younger have some perception of depth. He reported that infants as young as 6-8 weeks responded accurately to differences in size and distance of cubes placed before them. Thus, the infants were able to make gross distinctions between objects that were nearer versus those that were farther away from them.

Reading Textbooks – Transcripts for Think Aloud Models

(You may use this handout as you complete the video activity.)

Transcript of Think Aloud Model #1

"Plop, Plop, Fizz, Fizz" by James Twitchell

We live in the age of advertising, and in the spirit of the endeavor I call this new culture Adcult. I don't intend to defend it (well, maybe just a little) but to explain how American—and increasingly, world—culture is carried on through the boom-box noise and strobe lights of commercialism. Much of what we share, and what we know, and what we treasure is carried to us each second in a plasma of electrons, pixels, and ink created by multinational agencies dedicated to attracting our attention for entirely non-altruistic reasons.

Once they gain our attention, they essentially rent it to other companies for the dubious purpose of selling us something we've longed for all our lives although we've not hear of it before. The condition of modern selling is not so much information trading, as it was in the nineteenth century, as it is information glutting. Adcult is there when we blink, it's there when we listen, it's there when we touch, it's even there to be smelled in scented strips when we open a magazine. If we have no attention span, as academic Cassandras claim, it may be because by adolescence most of us are exhausted.

Transcript of Think Aloud Model #2

Textbook of Anatomy and Physiology by The Mosby Company (Cytoplasm paragraph)

Cytoplasm

Cytoplasm is the part of a cell between its membrane and its nucleus. In other words, it is all of a cell's protoplasm except its nucleus. Far from being the homogeneous substance once thought, it contains a half dozen or more different kinds of small structures. In many cells, some of these number in the thousands. Collectively, they are known as *organelles*—that is, the "little organs" of the cells. Each organelle consists of molecules arranged or organized in such a way that they can perform some function essential for maintenance of the cell's life or for its reproduction. Membranes form the walls of four kinds of organelles: the endoplasmic reticulum, the Golgi apparatus, mitochondria, and lysosomes. We shall discuss these membranous cell structures first and then consider organelles that do not have membranous walls—that is, the ribosomes and the centrosome.

Remembering What You Read – Active Reading Techniques and Strategies

1. Keep a pencil, pen, or highlighter in your hand as you read.

Make marks on the page to indicate main ideas, important points, and unfamiliar vocabulary words. You might underline, highlight, or make notes in the margin. The point is to create a written record of what appeared to be important to you in the text as you read. Also, most people who do this while they read find that even the physical act of holding the pen or pencil and writing on the page seems to keep them more alert and attentive than if they did not do this. All these ways of marking the page are called *annotation*.

2. Try to connect with the text by asking yourself these four questions immediately after you read it:

- ✓ What one fact, idea, or opinion in this text surprised me, and why?
- ✓ What one fact, idea, or opinion in this text was I already familiar with before I read this, and where and how had I learned it before?
- ✓ What one idea or opinion in this text bothers or disturbs me? What one idea or opinion do I disagree with?
- ✓ Assuming that five years from now I will remember one fact, idea, or opinion from this text, what will it be, and why?

3. Discuss the text with others.

This is such a beneficial strategy that teachers often devote considerable classroom time to small group discussions in which students decide what the main ideas of the text are as well as share their reactions to the text. This is not wasted time. By hearing what other students think about a text, you are in a better position to determine if you have comprehended it accurately. You will also be able to develop more ideas about the text after you've expressed your own views and listened to the views of others. In fact, discussions with other students about the text can even become a form of pre-writing for an essay on the text.

4. Ask the author questions.

Imagine that you will have the ability to ask the author of the text questions. Write out a list of questions you would like to ask him or her. Focus on questions that ask for clarification or further explanation of points that you don't quite understand yet or that you find provocative or challenging in some way. Here are some questions written by students responding to Daniel Quinn's essay "The New Renaissance":

- ✓ What was your goal in writing this?
- ✓ Where did you find your facts?
- ✓ Why are you concerned about this?
- ✓ How do you want readers to respond to your point?
- ✓ Why did you select this title?
- ✓ What persuasive strategies did you use to influence your reader?

Test-Taking Skills – Strategies

I. General Test-Taking Strategies

First, know your strengths and find a balance:

- Are you cautious, thorough, and attentive to facts and details? OR
- Do you work quickly, get impressions, and focus on concepts and connections?

Find a balance—use some of each to maximize your test-taking skills!

How to find test answers:

- Observe details Make sure you have the facts. Pay attention to the little things. Example: Find out if a test will have multiple-choice or essay questions.
- Analyze patterns Consider the system or the whole. Pay attention to connections. Example: Examine your notes for themes or emphasis on particular concepts.
- Develop strategies Collect different techniques for approaching problems. Example: Learn about the many ways to prepare for tests. Choose a few to try.
- Apply interventions Test selected strategies in a variety of situations. Example: Practice one or two new test-taking skills on each exam.
- Verify effectiveness Evaluate by analyzing what happened. Keep what works! Example: Did the new techniques improve your scores? If not, try other strategies.

(The following information was retrieved and adapted from the websites and textbooks listed at the end of this handout. These resources offer excellent strategies for a variety of study skills.)

What to do before the test:

- Do some detective work
- Get enough rest and exercise
- Arrive prepared

What to do during the test:

- Make sure you understand the directions
- Ignore distractions
- Work from simple to complex. Answer the questions you know first.
- Don't stay too long on any one question. Mark the hard questions and go back to them afterwards.
- Make educated guesses on your second time through if you don't know the exact answer.
- Avoid "reading into the question"
- Resist the impulse to change an answer unless you are sure you made a mistake.
- Use all the time you have and check your answers.
- Check your answer sheet for blank spaces and make sure you erased cleanly.

II. Specific Techniques for Multiple-Choice Questions:

Look at the stem of the question:

- Negative polarity words like not and except
- Priority words like *first* and *most*
- Answer the question before looking at the possible answers

Evaluate the *options* (answer choices):

- Absolutes (all, always, never)
- Opposite options
- Equally plausible or unique options
- Global options

Wise advice for multiple choice questions:

- Pay attention to what the question is asking don't add anything
- Eliminate the options you know are incorrect
- Read all the options before choosing one

III.Specific Techniques for Essay Questions:

Get a good start:

- Read directions carefully
- Read through all the questions quickly
- Figure the time you have for each question

Create a good product:

- Restate the question in your own words, and then reread it
- Outline or plan each answer
- Proofread and review at the end

Wise advice for essay questions:

- Keep answers clear and direct
- If you're not sure of a date, give an approximate date
- Leave space for more difficult questions and return to them

References/Resources:

http://www.txstate.edu/slac/subject-area/study-skills/test-prep/.html

http://sn.umdnj.edu/studentsonly/cas/ Test Taking 101

http://nursing.unc.edu/current/counseling/test_hints.html

http://www.studygs.net/tsttak4.htm

Dunham, K. S. (2004). How to survive and maybe even love nursing school! A guide for students by students (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

Nugent, P. M., & Vitale, B. A. (2004). *Test success: Test-taking techniques for beginning nursing students* (4th ed.). Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

Timed Writing – The Five Steps to Success

- **STEP 1:** Plan out the time you will need for organizing your essay, writing your essay, and proofreading your work.
- STEP 2: Identify all parts of the writing prompt by numbering each segment of the question; by underlining the verbs that indicate what you need to do (explain, discuss, identify, contrast, and so on); and by circling other words that indicate your purpose for writing (illustration, process, classification, argument, and so on).
- **STEP 3:** Create an outline that includes a thesis statement and supporting points that are based on the segments in the question or writing prompt. *Remember:* Your thesis is really an answer to the question—all parts of the question!

Sample Writing Prompt:

¹ <u>Define</u> economic depression and ² <u>discuss</u> two probable effects a depression would have on today's society.

Possible THESIS based on the two-part prompt:

"Economic depression," a term that refers to a sustained economic downturn, may have two negative effects on our society: an increase in crime and an increase in intolerance.

Notice that the first segment of the thesis, above, addresses the first part of the writing prompt, giving a <u>definition</u> of "economic depression." The rest of the thesis addresses the second part of the prompt by naming <u>two effects</u> of an economic depression.

Possible OUTLINE:

Notice that the outline supports the thesis and is organized to answer all parts of the writing prompt.

"Economic depression," a term that refers to a sustained economic downturn, may have two negative effects on our society: an increase in crime and an increase in intolerance.

The THESIS will appear at the end of the introductory paragraph.

- I. "Depression" as a sustained downturn in the economy
 - A. Key characteristics that define a "depression"
 - B. The difference between a "recession" and a "depression"

A and B can be discussed within a single paragraph, or in two separate paragraphs.

- II. Two negative effects on society
 - A. Increase in crime
 - B. Increase in intolerance

As above, A and B can be discussed within a single paragraph, or in two

- Write your essay. Use a separate paragraph for each main point in your outline, and provide a clear transition for each point. Support each point with specific, relevant evidence from the material you have studied.
- **STEP 5:** Proofread and edit your essay for content and sentence errors.

Remember the two tips offered in the slide presentation:

- Before the test, know the material well (your text and lecture notes).
- Know what your instructor expects from you.

Apostrophes - Guide

The Misunderstood Apostrophe

Of all the punctuation marks, the apostrophe is probably the most frequently misunderstood. But don't worry. Understanding the apostrophe isn't difficult.

The apostrophe has two main uses:

- 1. To create contractions
- 2. To show possession

Apostrophe Use #1: Contractions

A contraction is a word or words with letters omitted.

Notice how the apostrophe (') takes the place of the missing letters in the contractions below.

Common Contractions				
are not = aren't	cannot = can't	could have =	could not = couldn't	
		could've		
has not = hasn't	have not = haven't	he had = he'd	he has, he is = he's	
I am = I'm	I have = I've	I will = I'll	I would = I'd	
is not = $isn't$	let us = let's	she is, she has = she's	she will = she'll	
she would = $she'd$	should have =	should not =	they are = they're	
	should've	shouldn't		
they had = they'd	they have = they've	was not = wasn't	we are = we're	
we have = we've	were not = weren't	will not = won't*	would have =	
			would've	
would not =	you have = you've	you will = you'll	you would = you'd	
wouldn't				

^{*}This one is different from the others.

A few unique contractions:

Time: two of the clock = two o'clock

Years: 1999 = '99

Slang: rock and roll = rock 'n' roll; the neighborhood = the 'hood Notice that the apostrophe still takes the place of omitted letters.

Confusing Contractions			
CONTRACTION	POSSESSIVE		
it's	its		
It's = it is			
It's a great day to build a snowman!	The snowman lost <u>its</u> hat.		
you're	your		
you are = you're			
Mom said, "You're not having dessert until	Your mother is serious.		
you finish those vegetables."			
they're	their		
they are = they're			
They're cheering joyfully.	<u>Their</u> team just won.		
Who's	whose		
Who is = who's			
Who's going on the ski trip with us?	Whose skis are those?		

Apostrophe Use #2: Possession

<u>Apostrophes can be used to show possession or ownership</u>: When you possess something, you own it; it belongs to you.

Examples:

John's dog (The dog belongs to John.)
The dog's blanket (The blanket belongs to the dog.)
The blanket's color (The color belongs to the blanket.)

Henry's happiness (the happiness of Henry)
Mary's problems (the problems of Mary)
the paper's introduction (the introduction of the paper)
your money's worth (the worth of your money)
yesterday's weather (the weather of yesterday)

Singular versus Plural Possession: Pluralize nouns first before adding the apostrophe.

Singular: 's

The doctor's last patient was late. (one doctor)

Plural: s'

Three doctors' offices were painted over the weekend. (three doctors)

Irregular nouns: Pluralize nouns first before adding the apostrophe + s

Singular: Plural:

Her child's toy

The man's clothing

Her children's toys

A men's clothing store

<u>Singular words ending in "s" like Charles, Jesus</u>: If a name has two or more syllables, and would sound funny with an extra syllable, (like Charles's) just add the apostrophe:

Jesus' birth Moses' life Kansas' tornadoes Lexus' features

(Note that both Charles's and Charles' are technically acceptable.)

Don't let official company names confuse you.

McDonald's (Restaurant) Wendy's (Hamburgers)

BUT

Popeyes (Fried Chicken and Biscuits) Starbucks (Coffee Company)

Sometimes companies drop the apostrophe when customers get used to the shorter name.

Review:

The apostrophe has two main uses:

- 1. To create contractions
- 2. To show possession

<u>Special use</u>: The apostrophe also has a special use: to create plurals of a letter or symbol.

I got three A's on my report card.

Remember to put @'s in the email addresses.

(You will rarely use apostrophes this way, so if this special rule confuses you, forget it.)

When NOT to use the apostrophe: Except for those special cases, DO NOT USE APOSTROPHES TO MAKE SIMPLE PLURALS—EVER!

RIGHT WRONG

She ate three <u>pizzas.</u>
You make great <u>nachos.</u>
I was born in the <u>1990s.</u>
I sold two <u>condos.</u>
She bought two <u>PCs.</u>

She ate three <u>pizza's.</u>
You make great <u>nacho's.</u>
I was born in the <u>1990's</u>
I sold two <u>condo's.</u>
She bought two <u>PC's.</u>

ALSO, REMEMBER THIS! DO NOT ADD APOSTROPHES TO VERBS. IT MAKES NO SENSE!

RIGHT WRONG

He <u>works</u> at Pizza Hut. He <u>work's</u> at Pizza Hut. She <u>makes</u> great nachos. She <u>make's</u> great nachos.

Avoiding Run-On Sentences – Introduction

Independent Clauses:

A **clause** is a group of words that has a subject and a verb.

- o **Subject**—noun (person, place, thing, or idea) or pronoun (takes the place of a noun)
- **Verb**—action performed by the subject (action verb) or the state of being of the subject (verb of being)

An **independent clause** has a subject and a verb, and it expresses a **complete thought**. When there is only one independent clause, this is known as a simple sentence. Note these two simple sentences:

A <u>bolt</u> of lightning <u>struck</u> the transformer. Two <u>workers were</u> seriously <u>injured</u>. (subject) (verb) (verb) (verb)

Run-on Sentences:

Run-on sentences occur when two independent clauses are not separated from one another and so "run" together. Run-ons can also occur when clauses are separated by only a comma. This is called a comma splice. A comma by itself is not strong enough punctuation to end a sentence or separate two independent clauses!

Note the following run-on sentences.

Run-on: A bolt of lightning struck the transformer two workers were seriously injured. **Comma Splice:** A bolt of lightning struck the transformer, two workers were seriously injured.

Run-on sentences can be corrected in five ways. In each option, the independent clauses are distinctly separated from one another.

Five Methods to Correct Run-on Sentences

• **Period** (Simply end the first clause with a period and start the new sentence with a capital letter.)

A bolt of lightning struck the transformer. Two workers were seriously injured.

• **Semicolon with transition** (End the first clause with a semicolon and follow with a transition such as *however*, *on the other hand*, *in addition*, *furthermore*, *likewise*, *therefore*, *for example*, *in fact*. Use a comma after the transition.)

A bolt of lightning struck the transformer; **unfortunately**, two workers were seriously injured.

• Semicolon by itself

I should have forgiven him; he would have forgiven me.

• Comma with coordinating conjunction (Clauses can be combined with a comma as long as the comma is followed by a coordinating conjunction—the "FANBOYS" for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)

A bolt of lightning struck the transformer, and two workers were seriously injured.

• **Subordinating conjunction** (One independent clause can be transformed into a dependent clause by adding a subordinating conjunction in front of it. These conjunctions include *when*, *if, since, because, although, as, while.* Note that one clause will now be dependent on the other. That is, it will not be able to stand alone because it is not a complete thought.)

Because a bolt of lightning struck the transformer, two workers were seriously injured.

Use the five techniques listed in the chart below to complete the "Avoiding Run-on Sentences - Sentence Strips Activity."

TE	ECHNIQUES	Combination/ Addition	Contrast	Result	Alternatives/ Possibilities
1.	Coordinating Conjunctions (use with a comma)	, and , nor	, but , yet	, so , for	, or
2.	Subordinating Conjunctions	after as as well as before when while	although even though	because since	if even if unless until
3.	Semi-colon only				
4.	Transition Words (use with a semi-colon)	; furthermore, ; in addition, ; moreover, ; also,	; however, ; instead, ; nevertheless, ; on the other hand,	; as a result, ; consequently, ; therefore,	; on the other hand, ; otherwise,
5.	Period with capital letter				

Commas and Quotations – Guide

Comma Sense and Quotations, Too: A Guide to Commas and **Quotation Marks**

COMMA USE #1: A JOINER	
Use a comma and a fanboys conjunction to join two sentences.	
The movie was a little silly. We loved it.	
The movie was a little silly, but we loved it.	
"But" is one of the fanboys conjunctions. What are the other fanboys conjuctions?	
For	
And	
Nor	
But	
Or	
Yet	
So	
FANBOYS is a little trick to help you remember the coordinating conjunctions.	
These conjunctions help connect two "equal" clauses.	
(Fanboys is also a 2008 movie about a group of nerdy Star Wars fans.)	
Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas belong?	
☐ Yoda said, "Do not judge me by my size for my ally is the force."	
□ Studio executives wanted Chewbacca to wear shorts but George Lucas vetoed the idea	
☐ My daughter was Princess Leia for Halloween and my son was Hans Solo.	
Margo never saw <i>Star Wars</i> in the theater nor had she ever rented the DVD.	
Either you take me to see <i>Star Wars</i> or I will go by myself!	
Star Wars made over 300 million dollars yet it only cost eight million to produce.	
☐ My cousin loved Star Wars so he saw it over 100 times.	
Use a comma and a fanboys conjunction to connect two sentences.	
My cousin loved Star Wars, so he saw it over 100 times.	
S V S V	
Don't use a comma if only the verb or subject is compound.	
My cousin <u>loved</u> Star Wars and <u>saw</u> it over 100 times. (compound verb)	
V V	
M 1 (C) 1 11 1'(1) (C) W 100 (1 1)	
My best <u>friend</u> and her little <u>sister</u> saw Star Wars over 100 times. (compound subject)	
S S	
The dreaded comma splice: NEVER use a comma alone to join two sentences.	
ALWAYS use a fanboys conjunction!	

WRONG: Studio executives wanted Chewbacca to wear shorts, George Lucas vetoed the idea. RIGHT: Studio executives wanted Chewbacca to wear shorts, but George Lucas vetoed the idea.

COMMA USE #2: AN INTRODUCER

The comma separates an introductory phrase from the subject and the verb. This makes the sentence easier to read.

From 2000 to 2002, the Lakers won three titles consecutively.

After losing both the 2004 and 2008 NBA Finals, the Lakers captured the championship for the 15th time in 2009.

Frankly, Keith could live without food before he could live without basketball.

Susan loves the Lakers. However, she rarely has time to watch their games.

Because Bill was a huge Lakers fan, he never missed a game.

Note that when the dependent clause comes second, a comma is unnecessary.

Bill never missed a game because he was a huge Lakers fan.

Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas belong?

- On the first day of basketball season Joan was so happy that she could not stop smiling.
- ☐ If Ron could find time to practice he would be a better player.
- □ Without jalapenos that guacamole will be bland.

COMMA USE #3: A LISTER

Use commas when listing three or more things in a series.

The Lakers won three titles consecutively with the help of Shaquille O'Neal, Kobe Bryant, and Hall of Fame coach Phil Jackson.

Susan, Tiffany, and Amber got together to watch the game on TV. They snacked on nachos, pizza, and cut-up carrots.

DO NOT use commas when you list only two things.

Susan and Amber snacked on nachos and salsa.

The Lakers won three titles consecutively with the help of Shaquille O'Neal and Kobe Bryant.

Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas belong?

- Both the Los Angeles Lakers and the Los Angeles Sparks wear purple and gold uniforms.
- ☐ The Sparks the Lakers and the Clippers all play at Staples Center.
- Jane is either watching the game with her friends enjoying it with her family at home or sitting in Staples Center with her boyfriend.

COMMA USE #4: AN INTERRUPTER

Use TWO commas with words or phrases that interrupt the flow of the sentence or add additional information.

- Persimmons, a delicious fruit, are available in the fall.
- The Staples Center, which is located in downtown Los Angeles, is current home to the Lakers.
- My friend gave me a DVD of *Toy Story*, one of my favorite movies, to cheer me up.

Note: Sometimes the "interrupter" comes at the end of the sentence.

The Lakers' current home is the Staples Center, which is located in downtown Los Angeles.

Exception: Don't use commas if the sentence loses important meaning when you take out the "interrupter."

The man who grabbed my wallet lived in my neighborhood.

The people who did the damage should pay for it.

Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas belong?

- □ My sister's apology which came a year too late did not change my mind about forgiving her.
- □ The professor taking pity on the class postponed the final paper for another week.
- ☐ Mrs. Jones my eighth grade teacher won third place in the Boston Marathon.

DO NOT use a comma to separate the subject from its verb.

WRONG: The man who looked just like Elvis, came into our store three times last week.

WRONG: The problem I kept having with my noisy muffler, suddenly went away by itself.

RIGHT: The man who looked just like Elvis came into our store three times last week.

RIGHT: The problem I kept having with my noisy muffler suddenly went away by itself.

COMMA USE #5: WITH ADJECTIVES

If you can switch the order of two adjectives without changing the meaning, you need to use a comma.

The butterfly is a magical, fascinating insect.

The butterfly is a fascinating, magical insect.

But if switching them changes the meaning, DO NOT use a comma.

Ten red balloons fell from the ceiling.

Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas belong?

- □ Fresh blueberry muffin
- □ Stale crumbly muffin
- Delicious nutritious muffin
- ☐ Hot delicious pepperoni pizza

OTHER WAYS TO USE THE COMMA

In dates: October 16, 1955
In place names: Memphis, Tennessee

1234 Ivy Lane, Memphis, TN

In titles: Amy Jones, MD, is a good doctor.

In numbers: I'd love to win \$1,000,000.

QUOTATION MARKS AND COMMAS

If you quote someone and use a signal phrase (such as he says, she claims, according to Lincoln), put a comma after the signal phrase.

Yogi Berra, the famous New York Yankees player, had a colorful way of expressing himself. He once said, "Always go to other people's funerals, or else they won't go to yours."

If the signal phrase comes last, put the comma after the quote, BEFORE the quotation mark.

"I'm not going to buy my kids an encyclopedia," Berra said. "Let them walk to school like I did."

Don't use a comma if the quote ends with a question mark or exclamation point.

"How can you think and hit at the same time?" asked Berra.

A comma is not used if the quotation is introduced with that.

Yogi Berra once claimed that "a nickel ain't worth a dime anymore."

Mini-Quiz: Where do the commas AND quotation marks belong?

- ☐ Mark Twain said Cauliflower is nothing but cabbage with a college education.
- Be careful about reading health books Mark Twain said. You may die of a misprint.
- ☐ It's a home run! the commentator screamed.

MLA Style 1: Parenthetical Citations and Works Cited – Citation Style Sheet

There are two parts to MLA citation style: a Works Cited page (a list of resources, sometimes called a bibliography); and parenthetical citations (in-text citations). A parenthetical citation is placed in the body of your essay, giving the reader the information that is necessary to find the source on the Works Cited list. The Works Cited list appears at the end of your essay.

Section 1 - THE WORKS CITED PAGE

- **1.1** A Works Cited page is just what it says: a list of the sources (works) you used (cited) in your paper. It should follow the most recent conventions of MLA style. On your Works Cited page, you may list only the sources that you have actually cited in your essay.
- **1.2 An entry for a source** on the Works Cited list should identify, at minimum, the author's full name (last name first), title of source, and publication information. If the source is a print source, place the word Print at the end of the entry. If the source is an online source, place the word Web after the name of the source (see bulleted list below).
- **1.3 An entry for an online source** should include as much of the following information as possible.
 - Author's full name (last name first)
 - Title of the article (in quotation marks)
 - Title of the publication it first appeared in
 - Name of the online source (the website; or, if accessed through a library, the name of the library, such as College of the Canyons Library)
 - Sponsor of the website
 - Date the article first appeared in that publication, and page number; OR the copyright date of the web page, which is usually located at the bottom of the page (if no date is given, use n.d. instead)
 - Web (this word indicates an online source)
 - Date you found and printed out the article, followed by a period
- **1.4** Note that sometimes a website you are using will not have an author or an article title. For example, it may just have a list of statistics. In this case, cite the name or sponsor of the website, the date you accessed the article, and the URL of the site. These are the minimum requirements that you must include for every website.
- **1.5 –Study the model Works Cited page on the following page.** The first entry is a print source—an essay in an edited anthology, or collection of works. It happens to have more than one editor. The next two are online sources (one accessed on ProQuest): one with an individual author (Kathleen Kelleher) and one with a corporate author (Natural Resources Defense Council). Your Works Cited page should follow the general format of this sample, including punctuation, spacing, indentation, and alphabetizing (by first letter).

1.6 - SPECIAL NOTES:

- 1. Do not use numbers or bullets to list the sources on your Works Cited list.
- 2. Your last name and page number (of your essay) appears in the upper right-hand corner.
- 3. The title of the page is Works Cited. The entire page is double-spaced.
- 4. Do not include the URL (web address) in your Works Cited entries.

Works Cited

Carter, Phillip and Paul Glastris. "The Case for the Draft." Writing Arguments: A Rhetoric with Readings. Ed. John D. Ramage, John C. Bean, and June Johnson. New York: Longman, 2010. 530-540. Print.

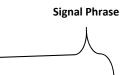
Kelleher, Kathleen. "Birds & Bees; Male Version of the Walkaway Wife." *Los Angeles Times* 22 Oct. 2001. *ProQuest.* Web. 9 Dec. 2003.

Natural Resources Defense Council. "Clean Energy and Climate Legislation." *NRDC.org.* n.d. Web. 10 May 2011.

Section 2 – CITING PRINT SOURCES (books, magazines, newspapers, journals)

2.1 - **Parenthetical citations** should be kept as simple as possible. A parenthetical citation *does* contain the **page number** of the specific material you are quoting or paraphrasing (unless you are citing an online source; see Section 3 for more information about citing online sources). To keep your parenthetical citations simple, try to include the author's name (and possibly the title of the book or journal) in the signal phrase (the "attributive tag") that introduces your quoted or paraphrased source material. The parenthetical citation is placed at the end of the sentence in which the quoted or paraphrased material appears, but *before the period*.

Example: (Note the page number at the end of the quote. Note, too, that the title of the book is in *italics*; in contrast, shorter works—like essays, articles, and poems—are enclosed in quotation marks, instead.)



According to Edward Finegan in his book, *Language: Its Structure and Use*, "Many Americans think English is the official language of the United States. In fact, though, the United States does *not* have an official language and never has had one" (3).

2.2 - **If, however,** your signal phrase does *not* mention the author, then include the author's name, with the page number, in the citation.

Example: (Note that there is no comma between the authors' names and the page.)

As stated in one college composition textbook, "Not too many years ago, most academic disciplines used footnotes or endnotes to document sources. Today, however, both the MLA (Modern Language Association) system, used primarily in the humanities, and the APA (American Psychological Association) system, used primarily in the social sciences, use parenthetical citations instead of footnotes or endnotes" (Ramage, Bean, and Johnson 376).

Section 3 – CITING ONLINE SOURCES

Please note that web addresses (URLs) are not used in parenthetical citations. Also, because web pages aren't numbered, it is impractical to try to indicate the page number in a parenthetical citation, so you should not include page numbers for online sources.

3.1 - When you are citing online sources, try to include the author and title of the article in your signal phrase. If you cite the author in the signal phrase, you do not need a parenthetical citation!

Example: (Note that there is no need for a parenthetical citation here.)

In his article, "Brazil to Buy 36 Fighter Jets from France," Los Angeles Times writer Chris Kraul states that "Dassault beat out Boeing and the Swedish aircraft company Saab in the closely watched bidding for one of the larger defense plums in recent years."

3.2 - If your signal phrase mentions the title of the online article, but not the author, then place the author's name in the parenthetical citation.

Example: (Note the author's name in the parenthetical citation.)

In the article, "Brazil to Buy 36 Fighter Jets from France," it is noted that "Dassault beat out Boeing and the Swedish aircraft company Saab in the closely watched bidding for one of the larger defense plums in recent years" (Kraul).

3.3 – When citing more than one work by the same author, if you cite the author's name in the signal phrase, cite only the title in quotation marks in the parenthetical citation. If you have not cited the author's name in the signal phrase, cite both the author's last name and the article title in the parenthetical citation.

Example: (Note: this article is one of two works by Chris Kraul. Cite the abbreviated title in quotation marks in the parenthetical citation.)

According to a *Los Angeles Times* writer, Chris Kraul, "Dassault beat out Boeing and the Swedish aircraft company Saab in the closely watched bidding for one of the larger defense plums in recent years" ("Brazil to Buy 36 Fighter Jets").

3.4 - If an article on a website has a corporate author, then introduce the corporate author in the signal phrase OR place the corporate author in the parenthetical citation.

Example: (Note that just the title appears inside the parentheses.)

According to the Natural Resources Defense Council, "The U.S. Supreme Court has ruled that the Environmental Protection Agency has the authority to regulate carbon pollution under the Clean Air Act."

<u>OR</u>

According to the article, "Clean Energy," "The U.S. Supreme Court has ruled that the Environmental Protection Agency has the authority to regulate carbon pollution under the Clean Air Act" (NRDC).

Section 4 – MORE ON INTRODUCING QUOTED MATERIAL WITH SIGNAL PHRASES

- **4.1 A quotation** uses the *exact* words of the person being quoted; it is enclosed in quotation marks. A quotation is introduced by a **signal phrase ("attributive tag")**, a group of words that usually provides the author's name and credentials. Here are some signal phrases that are useful in academic writing; note the various punctuation marks (comma, colon) at the end of these signal phrases—or the absence of punctuation (with the word "that").
 - According to Professor X of College of the Canyons, "We have . . .
 - Steve Lopez of the Los Angeles Times argues against the measure: "We have . . .
 - Professor X, author of College Students Today, suggests that "we have . . .
 - As Steve Lopez writes in his article, "Changing Times," "We have . . .

4.2 - Examples of signal phrases and parenthetical citations used with quotations:

Signal phrase including author:

 According to Sandy Banks, "You don't have to be a hater to need help dealing with diversity."

Signal phrase including author and title:

• In his book, *The Art of the Playwright*, William Packard lists some of the challenges writers face when drafting a script: "Dramatic writing has to have strong actions and visuals and stakes—as well as obstacles to get dramatic conflict started" (18).

Signal phrase omitting the author:

 According to an article in the Los Angeles Times, "You don't have to be a hater to need help dealing with diversity" (Banks).

Signal phrase for an article without a stated author: (Note: The "Domestic Surveillance" article cited below is from the online database, *Issues and Controversies*.)

 According to the article, "Domestic Surveillance," "A government report released on July 10, 2009, found that warrantless wiretapping programs under Bush had not helped counterterrorism efforts significantly, and, in fact, could have hurt the prosecutions of suspected terrorists."

Signal phrase using just *part* of a quotation:

 According to Sandy Banks, a columnist for the Los Angeles Times, many of us "need help dealing with diversity."

Signal phrase and citation for someone who is quoted in an article but who did not write the article:

Some people feel that we should not worry too much about our civil liberties right now.
 According to Justice Robert Jackson, "The Constitution is not a suicide pact" (qtd. in Weinstein 1). [Jackson was quoted in the article but did not write the article; Weinstein is the author of the article.]

Section 5 –INTRODUCING PARAPHRASED OR SUMMARIZED MATERIAL WITH SIGNAL PHRASES

5.1 - **A paraphrase** is an idea taken from a source but stated *in your own* words. Even though you are not quoting a person's exact words, you must give him or her credit for the information you borrowed. A summary is a shorter version of an original text, written in your own words. Paraphrases and summaries are not enclosed in quotation marks. Use a signal phrase that smoothly links the paraphrase to your own writing.

5.2 - Signal phrases and parenthetical citations used with paraphrases and summaries:

Paraphrase with a signal phrase and citation:

 Henry Weinstein reports that law enforcement agencies now have greater latitude to engage in racial profiling (231). [Note there are no quotation marks because the exact words of the person are not being used; only his idea or information is being used.]

Paraphrase without a signal phrase: (Although it is preferable to use a signal phrase, it is also correct to present paraphrased information this way)

Law enforcement agencies now have greater latitude to engage in racial profiling (Weinstein 231). [Note since the author's name is not given in a signal phrase, it is placed in the parenthetical citation.]

MLA Style 2: Advanced Quoting and Citing Techniques – Introduction

(ellipsis / "qtd. in" / square brackets / integrated quotes / signal phrases / block format for lengthy quotes / quote-within-a-quote)

Once you have mastered the basics of MLA citation format—how to create parenthetical citations and a Works Cited page—you are ready to learn some advanced quoting and citing methods. This workshop will help you become a stronger student and a better writer by giving you additional instruction and practice in quoting and citing your sources. By the end of this activity, you will be able to do the following:

- Use ellipsis to indicate that you are omitting material from a passage you are quoting
- Use square brackets to insert your own words into a quote for purposes of clarification
- Use the "quoted in" citation to indicate that the comment you are quoting appeared as a quote in the original source
- Use signal phrases to present an author's credentials or to preview a passage you are quoting
- Smoothly integrate segments of source material into your own sentences
- Use block format for lengthy quotations
- Use single and double quotation marks for a quote-within-a-quote

In this workshop, you will do the following:

- 1. You will view a brief slide presentation on advanced quoting and citing techniques.
- 2. You will complete a sequence of exercises in which you use the techniques to solve problems in quoting and citing. A handout is provided so that you can review these techniques. (See next page.)
- 3. You will briefly reflect on what you have learned in this workshop.

On the following pages, you will find a summary of the key ideas covered in the lecture.

MLA Style 2: Advanced Quoting and Citing Techniques – Guide

(ellipsis / "qtd. in" / square brackets / integrated quotes / signal phrases / block format for lengthy quotes / quote-within-a-quote)

1. ELLIPSIS:

<u>Purpose</u>: To indicate that you have omitted material from a passage you have quoted.

<u>Format</u>: Use a sequence of three dots (periods) with a space between each dot. Put a space before the first dot and after the third dot.

Examples:

- (a) *Original passage* (from an article by Dr. Francis Pryor, published by the BBC): **Over the** millennia there were phases of extreme cold, when large areas of Britain were covered in ice, followed by warmer times.
- (b) Your quotation, with material omitted from the middle of the sentence:
 - "Over the millennia there were phases of extreme cold . . . followed by warmer times."
- (c) Your quotation, with material omitted at the end of the sentence:
 - "Over the millennia there were phases of extreme cold, when large areas of Britain were covered in ice"
 - (Notice that three dots comprise the ellipsis; the fourth dot is a period at the end of the sentence.)
- (d) Your quotation, with material omitted at the end of the sentence, followed by a parenthetical citation:
 - "Over the millennia there were phases of extreme cold, when large areas of Britain were covered in ice . . ." (Pryor).
 - (Notice that the period is now positioned after the parenthetical citation, leaving only three dots before the end of the quote.)

2. SQUARE BRACKETS:

<u>Purpose</u>: To insert your own words into a quote in order to clarify the author's remarks when you have taken them out of the original context. Your inserted word(s) usually replace a word or phrase in the original passage. You can also make small changes to the original text in order to complete your own sentence smoothly and grammatically.

<u>Format</u>: Enclose the inserted material in square brackets [like this].

Example:

- (a) *Original passage* (from an article by Dr. Francis Pryor, published by the BBC): **Like their** early ancestors they lived by hunting and gathering.
- (b) Your quotation, with your own words inserted to clarify the pronoun reference ("they"):

"Like their early ancestors [homo sapiens] lived by hunting and gathering."

(Note that the word "they" was clear in the original passage, but taken out of context it is unclear. Without the inserted words, your reader will not know who "they" are.)

Example:

- (c) Original passage (from an eyewitness account): Two men left the building and got into a blue sedan.
- (d) Your quotation, with changes made to the original sentence so that it works grammatically with your own sentence:

The eyewitness admitted that she had seen "[t]wo men [leave] the building and [get] into a blue sedan."

(Note that the capitalized "T" in the original needs to be converted to a lower case "t" because it no longer begins an independent sentence.)

3. "QUOTED IN" (qtd. in):

<u>Purpose</u>: To indicate, in a parenthetical citation, that the passage you have quoted also appeared in the original source as a quoted passage.

<u>Format</u>: Use parentheses to enclose an abbreviation of the words "quoted in," along with the author's name (if you know it) or the title of the source: (qtd. in Smith) or (qtd. in "Energy Conservation").

Example:

- (a) Original passage (from an article, "Huge Anglo-Saxon Gold Hoard Found," published by the BBC): Experts say the collection of 1,500 gold and silver pieces, which may date to the 7th Century, is unparalleled in size and worth "a seven-figure sum." It has been declared treasure by South Staffordshire coroner Andrew Haigh, meaning it belongs to the Crown. Terry Herbert, who found it on farmland using a metal detector, said it "was what metal detectorists dream of."
- (b) Your signal phrase, quotation, and citation:

Having discovered the gold in a farmer's field, Herbert said it "was what metal detectorists dream of" (qtd. in "Huge Anglo-Saxon Gold Hoard Found").

4. INTEGRATED QUOTES:

<u>Purpose</u>: To integrate a section of quoted source material into your own writing, while preserving the grammatical structure of your sentence.

<u>Format</u>: The section of quoted material completes your own sentence structure.

Example:

- (a) *Original passage* (from an article, "Huge Anglo-Saxon Gold Hoard Found," published by the BBC): A total of 1,345 items have been examined by experts, although the list includes 56 clods of earth which have been X-rayed and are known to contain further metal artefacts.
- (b) Your sentence, with a segment of the quote integrated into your own sentence structure:

 In the article, "Huge Anglo-Saxon Gold Hoard Found," the BBC reported that experts have removed over a thousand items from the ground, but additional artifacts remain embedded in "56 clods of earth."

5. SIGNAL PHRASES:

<u>Purpose</u>: To present an author's credentials and/or to preview the content of a passage you have quoted.

<u>Format</u>: (Format varies.)

Example:

- (a) Original passage (from an article, "Sumatra Quake Toll Mounts as Hospital Lies in Ruins" published by the Guardian): Between the broken blue and white concrete and twisted metal, signs that this was once a hospital, a place of sanctuary, are clear. A twisted bed frame, wrapped in what might once have been a bedsheet, protrudes from the destroyed facade. Cupboards filled with bandages and drugs hang open.
- (b) Your quotation, with signal phrase that contains the author's credentials and a preview of the passage:

Ben Doherty, a reporter for the British newspaper, the *Guardian*, describes the scene in the hospital in the aftermath of the earthquake: "Between the broken blue and white concrete and twisted metal, signs that this was once a hospital, a place of sanctuary, are clear. A twisted bed frame, wrapped in what might once have been a bedsheet, protrudes from the destroyed facade. Cupboards filled with bandages and drugs hang open."

6. BLOCK FORMAT:

<u>Purpose</u>: To quote a passage that will exceed four lines of type in your essay.

<u>Format</u>: Tab in twice from left margin; double space; no quotation marks; signal phrase is a complete sentence ending with a colon (:).

Example:

- (a) Original passage (from a Los Angeles Times article, "Bird Watchers Flock to New Jersey—Yes, New Jersey" by reporter Perry Crowe): Most birds migrate at night, taking advantage of the cooler temperatures, stable air and fewer predators that come with darkness. Many also follow the coastline, and on the East Coast that tapers to a blunted point in Cape May. So the rising sun has greeted countless migrating birds with the uninviting prospect of finishing their night's flight with 17 more miles over open water before reaching Delaware. Naturally, the hard-traveling birds descend on Cape May for some R&R before the next leg of the journey.
- (b) Your quotation, with a signal phrase that contains the author's credentials and a preview of the passage:

Perry Crowe, a reporter for the *Los Angeles Times*, explains the migration of birds to Cape May, New Jersey:

Most birds migrate at night, taking advantage of the cooler temperatures, stable air and fewer predators that come with darkness. Many also follow the coastline, and on the East Coast that tapers to a blunted point in Cape May. So the rising sun has greeted countless migrating birds with the uninviting prospect of finishing their night's flight with 17 more miles over open water before reaching Delaware. Naturally, the hard-traveling birds descend on Cape May for some R&R before the next leg of the journey.

7. QUOTE-WITHIN-A-QUOTE:

<u>Purpose</u>: To quote a passage that already has a quote within it.

<u>Format</u>: Use double quotes around the entire passage that you are quoting. Change the quotation marks in the original passage from double to single quotation marks.

Example:

- (a) Original passage (from the book by Gabriele Rico, Writing the Natural Way): Proverbs are sometimes belittled as clichés, but proverbs last because they are sound bites that call up ideas and feelings we can easily verbalize or agree with. The writer Cervantes called proverbs "short sentences based on long experience." Shakespeare's plays are rich in proverbs or allusions to proverbs.
- (b) Your quotation of the original passage:

As writer Gabriele Rico notes in her book, *Writing the Natural Way*, "Proverbs are sometimes belittled as clichés, but proverbs last because they are sound bites that call up ideas and feelings we can easily verbalize or agree with. The writer Cervantes called proverbs 'short sentences based on long experience.' Shakespeare's plays are rich in proverbs or allusions to proverbs."

(Note that the Cervantes comment, originally enclosed in double quotation marks, is <u>now</u> enclosed in single quotation marks.)

Sentence Fragments – How to Avoid Sentence Fragments

A. Sentence Components

We know that a sentence requires three components:

- 1. **Subject**—who or what is performing the action in the sentence
- 2. **Verb**—the action that the subject is doing (Sometimes it's not an action but a state of being.)

Action verb	State of being verb
l <u>eat</u> cookies.	l <u>am</u> sad.

3. A sentence must express a complete thought—There are lots of ways that sentences don't express a complete thought. Check out the following pitfalls that create fragments.

B. Participles

Participles are verbs ending in –ing. They can serve two roles in a sentence. <u>One role is as an adjective</u>. For example:

The **jumping** frog <u>landed</u> in the pond.

In this sentence "jumping" is not the verb. Rather, it is a participle used as an adjective to describe the frog. "Jumping" just describes what kind of frog—the jumping frog. The verb is <u>landed</u>. It tells what the jumping frog did and is placed after the subject.

<u>The second role of the participle is as a verb</u>. It is used with some variation of the verb "to be." For example:

The frog (is, was, will be, or has been) jumping.

Note that participles used as verbs **must** be accompanied by an auxiliary (helping) verb such as *is*, *was*, *will be*, or *could have been*.

C. Pitfalls of Participles

A participle phrase is a fragment, not a sentence. For example:

Hoping for the answer to the question on the exam.

In this example, there is no subject. Who is hoping? So this is not a sentence. But even if we add a subject—John—it is still not a sentence.

John, hoping for the answer to the question on the exam...

Notice how the sentence seems unfinished? That is because "hoping" is not used as a verb but as a participle (adjective) describing John.

We can correct this in two ways. The simple way is to add an auxiliary (helping) verb such as "was" or "is" to make "hoping" the action verb—what John is doing.

John was hoping for the answer to the question on the exam.

The other way is to leave "hoping" as a participle describing John and add a verb.

John, hoping for the answer to the question, asked the professor again.

Hoping" is used as an adjective to describe John and the action that John is doing is the verb "asked."

How to correct participle fragments:

Correct participle fragments in two ways.

- 1. Change the participle into a verb by adding a helping verb (is, was, will be).
- 2. Keep the participle as a descriptive adjective and add a subject and verb.

D. Subordinate Clauses

Another pitfall in writing complete sentences is thinking that subordinate clauses are complete sentences. A subordinate clause is a **dependent clause** and **does not express a complete thought**. It has a subject and a verb, but it begins with a *subordinating conjunction* such as *when, if, since, because, although, after, while, until.* For example:

Because her rent is so expensive...

Although this clause has a subject and a verb, it does not express a complete thought and it seems that the speaker is not finished.

In order to become a complete sentence, it must be joined to an **independent clause** that does express a **complete thought**. This is an example of an independent clause: <u>Sarah must work</u> two jobs. This clause **does** express a complete thought. Combining the subordinate clause to the independent clause will make a complete sentence.

Because her <u>rent</u> is so expensive, <u>Sarah</u> <u>must work</u> two jobs.

How to correct subordinate clause fragments:

Correct subordinate clause fragments by adding an **independent** clause to make the **dependent** clause complete.

E. Coordinating Conjunctions

Incorrect use of coordinating conjunctions also results in fragments. You may know the **coordinating conjunctions** as "fanboys"—for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. These conjunctions are used to join **independent clauses**. (Remember independent clauses express a complete thought.) For example:

The honored employee received a service award, but he was not able to attend the ceremony.

Each of these clauses could stand alone as a sentence without the conjunction "but."

A fragment occurs when writers begin sentences with one of the "fanboys." For example:

And the form must be submitted by the deadline. (Fragment)

To correct the fragment, add an independent clause and place a comma in front of the conjunction. For example:

The application must be filled out completely, and the form must be submitted by the deadline.

How to correct coordinating conjunction fragments:

Correct coordinating conjunction fragments in two ways.

- 1. Remove the conjunction to make the independent clause its own complete sentence.
- 2. Add an additional independent clause to the existing clause and conjunction. Place a comma before the conjunction.

F. Relative Clauses with Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are the following: who, whom, whose, which and that. A sentence that is not a question cannot begin with one of these relative pronouns or it will be a fragment. These relative clauses are dependent clauses and cannot stand alone. For example:

Which is why I don't go to the beach often. (Fragment)

This does not express a complete thought. This relative clause must be joined to an independent clause to complete the thought. Here's one way to correct the problem:

I hate sitting in sand and I'm afraid of the water, which is why I don't go to the beach often.

Sometimes the subject of the independent clause is separated from its verb by the relative clause. For example:

Sarah, whose purse was stolen, had to walk home.

Note that the subject of the independent clause may be separated from its verb by the relative clause.

How to correct relative clause fragments:

Correct relative clause fragments by adding an independent clause to complete the existing "relative clause."

Paragraph Structure – What is a Body Paragraph?

A. Elements of a body paragraph:

Your body paragraphs contain the "meat" of your essay. This is where you develop your argument and analyze your source material. Make sure that your body paragraphs focus on the points you are presenting to support your argument. Use the source material to support your points. (Don't just summarize the points of the source material.)

There are three parts to a body paragraph: (1) a topic sentence, (2) main points with detailed support (a "section"), and (3) a concluding sentence.

Topic Sentence: The *topic sentence* introduces the sub-topic point (reason or example). It should include a transition that suggests the relationship between the previous paragraph and the one you are now writing. These transitions include *Furthermore, Second, Not only..., In addition to..., Similarly, In the same way that..., Finally,....* Refer to a handbook for a full list of transitions.

Section (main point with supporting details): In a traditional source-based academic essay, each of your body paragraphs will develop two to three distinct sub-points. Each of these "sections" of your paragraph can have roughly the same structure:

- a point
- a quote that supports the point
- commentary (or "warrant")—a sentence that explains or analyzes how/why the quote supports the point

Each section should be repeated 2 or 3 times to develop the paragraph effectively. As your writing skills improve and you master this fairly prescriptive format, you can certainly modify it to suit your purposes. The format offered here is simply to get you started and to give you a sense of what it takes to develop a sophisticated argument. It is both writer- and reader-friendly. These elements of a section are explained below.

Concluding Sentence: The concluding sentence closes the paragraph with a final summary thought about the main points.

B. Elements of a section within a paragraph:

Main point: Generating main points involves reading the research and brainstorming ideas that prove or illustrate your topic sentence. These points should be distinct from one another. Each should clearly address a different aspect of your topic sentence. They should not overlap or your analysis will be repetitive. It is important to outline these points before you begin writing your paragraph so that you can adjust the points if they are too similar.

Supporting Quote: Present the evidence—facts, quotations, statistics, expert opinion—for each main point. Remember to cite your source properly. (*Use MLA or APA format* for in-text, parenthetical citations.)

When using sources to support your main points, you have three options for citing the material: quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

Quoting:

Use the author's exact words and enclose those words in quotation marks. You must cite the source of the quotation, using MLA or APA format. For additional information, note the Citing Hints below.

Paraphrasing: Rephrase (in your own words) a passage or idea from the author's essay or

article. When you paraphrase, you still need to cite your source, using MLA or APA

format.

Summarizing: Condense and rephrase (in your own words) the essential points of a passage or

article. A summary should include all of the author's key points, conclusions, and recommendations, but it should leave out any unnecessary information. Cite your

source, using MLA or APA format.

Commentary (or "warrant"): This section shows how your quote proves or illustrates your point. After you cite your quotation, write a sentence that explains the relevance of your quote to your main point before moving on to your next point. Explain the significance of the evidence: how or why the quote or fact illustrates your point. Give background information that will help the reader understand and appreciate the evidence you are presenting.

Citing Hints

Introduce a quote with a signal phrase. You may do one or more of the following, as needed:

- 1. Identify the author. On first mention, use the author's full name; subsequently, use last name only.
- 2. Present the author's background and credentials.
- 3. Name the title of the work (e.g., the book or essay from which you quoted).
- 4. Identify the writer's purpose (e.g., explain, argue, deny, refute, discuss, clarify).
- 5. Preview for your reader the content of the quote.
- 6. Clarify the larger context of the quoted passage (e.g, the author's thesis).
- 7. If relevant, identify the year the essay or article was written and how that may have influenced the writer's perspective.
- 8. Relate the essay to other sources you are using in your essay—explaining a similarity or contrast between two writers' views, for example.

Note that the verb is ordinarily in the present tense. Be sure to vary your signal phrases so that you are not using the same one every time you quote. The following are examples of signal phrases: The writer argues...The author asserts...She defends...They refute...He believes...She says...Professor X denies...Dr. Jones explains...She bemoans...He realizes...She admits...They confess...He responds...He disagrees...She supports this...He concedes...

Clarify whether you are quoting the author or someone quoted by the author:

Quoting the author: Fukuyama asserts, "The fight ought to be over the question of assimilation itself" (121).

Someone quoted by the author: Fukuyama quotes from Peter Brimelow's article in the *National Review*: "All the empirical evidence is that immigrants from developed countries assimilate more readily . . ." (121).

Here is a signal phrase that accomplishes #1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 8 in the list above:

In her essay, "Too Good for the Middle Class," sociologist Madison Flannery supports Colson's view that the American middle class was shrinking: "Between 1970 and 1985, those earning15 to 50 thousand dollars per year diminished by 7 per cent" (14).

NOTE: For the purpose of this activity, quotations will be provided to you without the essay in which they were found. That is, the quotations are "out of context." When you write an actual essay for your college classes, you will have the entire essay to refer to. In that case, you should provide the context for the source material. You can do this in your signal phrase or in your "commentary."

Proofreading – Strategies

Proofreading is the stage in the writing process in which the writer reviews the essay to check for surface errors that were inadvertently included. Because it is frequently the final stage in the writing process, proofreading is often omitted. Students may finish writing an essay late at night and may be too tired to review it. Students may have procrastinated in completing the essay and barely have enough time to print a copy before class begins. As a result, students are not submitting their best work and are not receiving the grades they expect. Sadly, some of the errors that frequently appear on a final draft could have been detected and corrected had the student taken the time to proofread.

This workshop will present several proofreading strategies and alert you to the areas in which frequent errors occur.

Proofreading Strategies:

- **Wait to proofread.** After you finish the essay, take a 5-10 minute break or more before proofreading. This will allow you to return to the essay with a fresh mind and eye.
- Read slowly and carefully and read more than once. Allow enough time to thoughtfully address each sentence in the essay. Most errors cannot be detected by quickly skimming the work or even reading at normal speed.
- **Read when you are alert**. Don't try to proofread when you are tired or overworked. Find a quiet place without distractions.
- Run your finger along the text as you read. This technique will slow down your reading so you can concentrate on finding errors. Print a copy of your essay if necessary.
- Use a blank sheet of paper. Read only one sentence at a time and cover the rest of your essay with the blank paper so that you will not be distracted by the rest of the essay.
- **Read from bottom to top**. Read the last sentence of the essay first and proceed up to the first sentence. Since the content of the essay will not make sense (because you are reading it backwards), your mind will not be able to fill in missing words and you can focus on the sentence itself rather than the ideas of the essay.
- **Read out loud**. Since your mind fills in the words for you when you read silently (because it knows what you wanted to say), allow your voice and your ears to catch the errors that silent reading misses.
- **Role Play.** Pretend you are the instructor or one of your classmates and read the essay objectively as an outsider who is not familiar with the content of the essay.
- **Listen.** Ask someone you trust to read your essay out loud and listen for awkward sounding sentences or missing words.

Proofreading – Trouble Spots

The following is a list of the most common errors that writers frequently make. When you proofread, try to spot these errors in your own work. Websites are included for future reference.

Spelling errors.

Use a spell checker as a start to catch some errors, but remember that it will not catch an incorrectly used word that is spelled correctly such as it's/its, their/there, to/too/two. Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/660/01/

• Punctuation errors.

Commas, apostrophes, semi-colons, quotation marks Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/566/01/

• Sentence boundary errors.

Fragments. <u>Resource</u>: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/620/01/ Comma splices, run-ons. Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/598/02/

• Subject/verb agreement.

Singular subjects must have singular verbs. Plural subjects must have plural verbs. Online Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/599/01/

• Verb Tense Problems.

Verbs must stay in the same tense, not shift from past to present. Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/601/01/

- **Pronoun problems.** Common pronoun problems include unclear reference (a pronoun that has no noun to refer back to), shift in point of view (shifting from "he" to "you" in the same sentence or passage), and lack of agreement (singular pronouns that refer to plural pronouns). Resource: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/595/01/
- Omitted words. Read carefully to make sure you did not leave out a word.
- **Duplicated words.** Read carefully to make sure you did not repeat a word.

Locating Resources:

Since this one-hour activity cannot teach you how to correct all the kinds of errors that may occur in your work, you must know where to find assistance to correct an error when you make it. Your instructor and the tutors in the TLC are valuable resources in helping you to correct your errors. Also, keep a handbook close by when you proofread. Learn how to use the handbook to look up topics in the index that are troublesome for you. The *Rules for Writers* handbook offers online exercises for practice. You can access this site at www.dianahacker.com/rules and register. Also, the OWL (Online Writing Lab) at Purdue is an excellent site where you can receive assistance with any writing errors. Access this site at http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/. It is important to have resources available to help you proofread effectively. Remember to ask for help!

Thesis Development – Characteristics of Strong Thesis Statements

Good academic writing begins with a statement of purpose, a controlling idea which predicts and confines the subject you are covering in your essay. This controlling idea, or thesis, is your essay's life and spirit, for without it, your chances of running amuck in your essay, of dragging your reader through a series of unrelated ideas, are more than increased—they are guaranteed.

Thesis Statement Criteria:

A strong thesis statement accomplishes the following:

- 1. It generates other thoughts.
- 2. It predicts, controls, and obligates.
- 3. It summarizes the whole essay in one sentence.
- 4. It makes a unified *claim* that is *debatable* (readers may disagree) or *that needs to be proved* (readers need convincing)

Let's take a closer look at #4 on the list of criteria.

- A good thesis includes a unifying claim AND may—or may not—include subtopics.
- A *unifying claim* is the overall assertion or idea of your thesis and of your paper, which you'll back up with support and specific evidence in the body your essay.
- Depending on the nature of the writing assignment, you may be asked to include specific subtopics
 in your thesis statement. *Subtopics* are smaller topics within your overall focus. If you are writing a
 thesis statement with subtopics, most of the time limiting them to three works best. However,
 including subtopics does not mean you do not need a claim. It must be clear to the reader how your
 subtopics are related.

Example of thesis with subtopics related by a unifying claim:

Because of the media's influence, "twenty-somethings" of today are sophisticated consumers of food, fashion, and technology.

(The unifying claim here is that the media has made "twenty-somethings" sophisticated consumers.)

Example of thesis with subtopics—but missing a unifying claim:

"Twenty-somethings" today like to eat, shop, and play video games.

(Saying merely that "twenty-somethings" like certain activities is not a strong enough idea to make the relationship between those activities clear.)

In the first example, the thesis could stand on its own without the subtopics if necessary or desired. Readers would also be able to disagree and argue that teens have always been more willing to try new things simply because they are young and adaptable, and that we should not give so much power to the media in forming theories about people.

In the case of the second example, however, if the subtopics were taken away all that remains is the idea of "twenty-somethings" liking something! This is not a claim it is possible to disagree with, nor is it one that would need proof, since most people like *something*.

If you do specify subtopics in your thesis statement, you'll most likely need to use them in each topic sentence of your essay. A **topic sentence** is usually the first or second sentence of one of your body paragraphs. A strong topic sentence will repeat the claim made by the thesis and relate it to the appropriate subtopic, thereby stating the main idea of the paragraph.

Example of topic sentence that repeats the thesis claim and relates it to the subtopic:

Television and the movies have made sushi a surprisingly coveted meal for young adults with disposable income.

(This topic sentence relates to the overall claim because it states the media's influence *and* addresses one of the subtopics directly. The paragraph could then be developed with examples of television and movie references to sushi).

Thesis Development – Thesis Statement Criteria

- 1. A thesis cannot be a fragment; it must be expressed in a complete sentence.
 - NO: How life is in the Salem Housing project.
 - YES: Residents of the Salem Housing project tend to have higher disease rates than do any other residents of the greater New Canaan metropolitan area.
- 2. A thesis typically should not be in the form of a question. (Often the answer to that question may function as the thesis.)
 - NO: Should eighteen-year-olds have the right to vote?
 - YES: Anyone old enough to fight a war is old enough to vote.
- 3. A thesis should not contain phrases such as "I think." (They weaken the statement.)
 - NO: Diane Feinstein and Pete Wilson may appear to be different, but in my opinion, they're similar.
 - YES: To the unsuspecting voter, Diane Feinstein and Pete Wilson might seem to offer a choice in this year's gubernatorial race. In fact, however, they take very similar stands on issues that affect our environmental standards—standards that will seriously influence the quality of life that we, and our successors, will experience.
- 4. A thesis should not contain elements that are not clearly related to one another.
 - NO: All novelists seek the truth; therefore, some novelists appear to be good psychologists.
 - YES: In their attempt to probe human nature, many novelists appear to be good psychologists.
- 5. A thesis should not be expressed in vague language.
 - NO: Bad things have resulted from religion being taught in the classroom.
 - YES: Religion as a part of the school curriculum should be avoided because a person's religious beliefs are highly personal and require individual commitment.
- 6. A thesis should not be expressed in muddled or incoherent language.
 - NO: Homosexuality is a status offense because the participants are willing so that the relationship is voluntary in character, unlike the type described in a victim-perpetrator model.
 - YES: When the participants in a homosexual act are consenting adults, then homosexuality should be classified as a status, not as a criminal offense.
- 7. A thesis should not be written in overly figurative language.
 - NO: Religion is the phoenix bird of civilization.
 - YES: Our code of civil rights is founded upon religious principles.

APA Style 1: Structure and Formatting – Checklist APA 6th Edition

General Guidelines

- Margins: 1 inch on all sides
- Font: 12 point
- Spacing: Double-spacing throughout entire paper
- Paragraph Indentation: 5 Spaces
- Alignment: Flush left
- Pagination: Page number on upper right corner of each page, starting with title page
- Running Head: Short title, upper left (flush) which appears on all pages, starting with title page.

Order of Pages

- Title
- Abstract
- Body
- References
- Appendix
- Footnotes
- Tables
- Figures

Title Page

- Page 1
- Includes title of paper, name of student(s), and educational institution
- Double-spaced and centered
- Running head and page header start on title page

Abstract

- Page 2 (begins on next page)
- Summarizes main points of the paper
- Centered at top of paper

Body

- Page 3 (begins on next page)
- Title of paper centered at top
- Introduction starts below title (Introduction is not labeled)
- Headings (main headings and sub headings) are used to organize sections within paper)
- Note: Main headings and sub headings are often required in empirical papers, but not always in non-empirical papers (ask your instructor if they are required)

Citations

- All information from sources used in research must be cited, using the author(s) last name, year of publication, and page number.
- Direct quotes (under 40 words) must be surrounded by quotation marks, and cited with author(s) last name, year of publication, and page number
- Direct quotes (over 40 words) must be block quoted, quotation marks are not used, and cited with author(s) last name, and year of publication
- A paraphrase, or summary of information from a source, must be cited, using the author(s) last name, and year of publication

Reference Page

- Begins on next page, after text
- The heading References is centered at the top of the page
- Alphabetized by first author(s) last name
- Hanging indentation used on each reference (first line of each reference is flush left, consecutive lines are indented 5 spaces
- Each reference must contain the author(s) name(s), date of publication, title of work, and publication information (title of publication is italicized)
- Citations in text must match references

Appendix

- Begins on new page (if more than one appendix, each one starts on new page)
- Used to include detailed information from the text, which is too distracting to include within the body (ie. List of words, questionnaire)
- If more than one appendix, each begins on new page

Tables/Graphs

- Each begins on new page (if more than one table/graph, each one starts on new page)
- The heading, Table, or Graph, is centered at the top of the page
- Used to organize data
- Note: Tables are often required in empirical papers, but not always in non-empirical papers (ask your instructor if they are required)

APA Style 2: Citations and References – Introduction

How to create in-text citations in APA format:

Follow the author-date method of in-text citation. (author's last name, year of publication) The author's last name and the year of publication for the source should appear in the text.

- Examples: (Brown, 2010) or Brown (2010) researched...
- (Colvin & Block, 1994) or Colvin and Block (1994) found that...
- Always include the publication date. Do not use first initials or first names in the text citation (unless there is more than one author with the same last name.)

Three types of citations in APA format: Paraphrase, Short quote, Long quote

Paraphrase (summary): A paraphrase is material from a source which has been simplified and restated in your own words. All paraphrases must be cited, using the author's last name, and year of publication.

• For all in text citations, if the author's name is part of the sentence, place only the year of publication in parentheses.

Example:

Berk (2007) found that children begin to play organized games with rules, once they reach school-age.

• For all in text citations, when the author's name is not part of the sentence, place both the name and the year, separated by a comma, in parentheses *Example*:

Studies conducted found that children begin to use organized play and games with rules at school-age (Berk, 2007).

Short-quote, (< 40 words): Must be enclosed within quotation marks and cited using the author's last name, year of publication, and page number.

Example:

Research has shown that "mathematics teaching in elementary school builds on and greatly enriches children's informal knowledge of number concepts and counting" (Berk, 2007, p. 307).

Long-quote (> 40 words): Must be block formatted: indented 5 spaces and double spaced, and cited using the author's last name, year of publication, and page number.

Example:

Berk (2007) found the following to be true:

We have seen that middle childhood brings major advances in perspective taking, the capacity to imagine what other people may be thinking and feeling. These changes support self-self esteem, understanding of others, and a wide variety of social skills. (p. 336)

Additional Notes regarding citations

- When the author's name is designated as "**Anonymous**" cite in text the word Anonymous followed by a comma and the date. (Anonymous, 1998). In the Reference list, an anonymous work is alphabetized by the word Anonymous as the author with the remaining publication data.
- When a work has **no identified author**, cite the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. Use quotation marks around the title of an article, a chapter or a webpage; italicize the title of a journal, a book, a brochure or a report.

Examples:

- Recent research reveals ("Six Sites Meet," 2006) significantly...
- The book College Bound Seniors (2008) asserts that...
- When listing this source on the References page, place in alphabetical order according to the title

How to Create Reference List using APA format

- References cited throughout text are listed on a new page in alphabetical order by author's last name.
 - Hanging indentation is used for all references. (Author's name is flush left. Each subsequent line of the reference is indented 5 spaces.)
 - Entire reference page is double-spaced.
- The title References is centered at the top of the page.
 - Do not bold, underline, or use quotation marks for the title.
- Format follows this basic formula regardless of the type of source.

Author's Last Name, First Initial. (Year of Publication). Title, Publication Data.

- Author's last name, first initial (if more than one author include ALL authors)
- Year of publication
- Title of the book or title of the article
- Publication data refers to where the source material is located.
 - For example: Book publishing company information, full website address, journal name, newspaper name, or magazine name. Include issue and page numbers for journals, newspapers and magazines.

Examples:

Books:

Paloutzian, R. F. (1996). *Invitation to the psychology of religion* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Journals and periodicals:

• Journal articles with DOI (Digital Object Identifier):

Murzynski, J., & Degelman, D. (1996). Body language of women and judgments of vulnerability to sexual assault. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26, 1617-1626. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1996.tb00088.x

• Journal articles without DOI, print version:

Colvin, C.R., & Block, J. (1994). Do positive illusions foster mental health? An examination of the Taylor and Brown formulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *116*, 3-20.

• Journal articles without DOI, online version:

Aldridge, D. (1991). Spirituality, healing and medicine. *British Journal of General Practice*, 41, 425-427. Retrieved from http://www.rcgp.org.uk/publications/bjgp.aspx

Note: For articles retrieved from databases, include the URL of the journal home page. Database information is not needed. Do not include the date of retrieval.

• Articles or chapters in an edited book:

Shea, J. D. (1992). Religion and sexual adjustment. In J. F. Schumaker (Ed.), *Religion and mental health* (pp. 70-84). New York: Oxford University Press.

• Articles from magazines:

Kanchier, C. (2000, March/April). Dare to Change. Psychology Today, 33. 64-67.

Helpful Resources:

http://www.apastyle.org/learn/tutorials/basics-tutorial.aspx

http://www.canyons.edu/offices/Library/APAStyle.asp

http://www.vanguard.edu/faculty/ddegelman/detail.aspx?doc_id=796