



WRITING GUIDE

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WRITING GUIDE

This writing guide is designed as a reference for beginning and continuing undergraduate and graduate students at International American University (IAU) in preparing various written products required in their specific programs. Often the most imposing and anxiety producing challenge is returning to the academic environment after years of separation from academia. There is a duality to this challenge. First, as students who have been pursuing their professional career, this will require learning a “new system and style.” Second, once the academic writing style is mastered, there is a requirement to use the two styles, professional and academic, in the production of written work.

Academic writing is like writing in a few professions, i.e., it has certain rules and conventions. Whereas one might write “I” and “you” in a professional setting, their use is not usually acceptable in an academic setting (of course there are exceptions). “Borrowing” the words or ideas of others without permission or citation may be acceptable in certain professions, but is considered an honesty violation in the academe. Like many organizations, there is a definitive format that is acceptable at IAU, namely APA.

Graduate study is all about research, discovery, critical thinking, and writing. First, students have access to the online library. In the second, coursework is designed to develop skills in analysis, comparison, contrast, synthesis, and evaluation that will enhance the capability to “dig” into various topics and think about them at a new level. But in the end, it will be the student’s ability to express the results of their research and discovery that will determine successful outcomes.

Scholarly Writing

The four distinguishing characteristics that define quality scholarly writing are organization, readability, effectiveness, and elegance. Organization and readability are self-explanatory. Effectiveness refers to the tone of the language; passionate, but not emotional. How strongly the writer makes the argument is important. Elegance implies writing with simplicity and grace, eliminating wordiness and meaningless words, with clear and concise expression as the goal. Through reading, class discussion, and written exercises, students will develop these skills as they advance in the program.

IAU Writing Center

The IAU Writing Center provides support for students working on course papers and independent writing projects. The center can help at any stage of the writing process, from brainstorming to final polishing. The Writing Center also provides students with free writing resources and grammar guides by email based on a review of their papers.

Typically, students do 2-3 drafts of an assignment, meeting in person or via email with the coordinator as they send versions of the paper back and forth until a final draft is ready. The coordinator can assist with comments or tracked changes and communicate with students via email. Students should give the Writing Center at least three days advance notice and let the coordinator know when the assignment is due.

Students may receive writing help by emailing wc@iaula.edu throughout the year. A staff member can assist in person. In-person hours change from semester to semester. Contact wc@iaula.edu for the current in-person hours each term. Drop-ins are also welcome on a first come, first served basis. However, if possible, make an appointment in advance. When visiting the Writing Center in person, be sure to sign your name on the sign-in sheet.

Writing Standards

IAU considers academic honesty one of its highest values. Students are expected to be the sole authors of their work. Use of another's ideas must be accompanied by specific citation and attribution. The disciplinary consequences of plagiarism and other forms of academic dishonesty include: non-acceptance of work submitted, written reprimands or other disciplinary action, and possible dismissal. Similarly, due to the ease of accessing the Internet and the integration of learning concepts with practical application expected at the graduate level, IAU extends the concept of academic integrity to include issues of copyright and trademark violations as well as misuse or misappropriation of company-owned and proprietary information.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is to steal or pass off the ideas or words of another as one's own. If a student copies verbatim or simply rephrases the ideas of another without proper attribution and credit, it is considered theft and plagiarism. In the preparation of submitted work in meeting course requirements, either a draft or final version of the product, students must take great care to distinguish their own ideas and language from information, ideas, facts, etc. from other sources. Sources include books, articles, electronic media, others' opinions, information, and published facts. Generally, "if it is written or printed, it must be cited."

Academic Honesty

A computer program, marketing plan, PowerPoint presentation, or other similar forms of work products written to satisfy a course requirement are expected to be the original work of the student submitting it. Copying documentation from another student or from any other source without proper citation is a form of academic dishonesty, as is deriving a final work product from the work of another. Students should acknowledge any collaboration in the completion of a written assignment. Another form of academic dishonesty is the purchase of written work from a commercial or private source. Another form of dishonesty is the submission of the same work product for two different courses.

Authorship

The student is the assumed author of all submitted course material. Any assistance received by the student in the preparation of such coursework should be acknowledged and disclosed within the work product. Some instructors may require a "Certificate of Original Authorship" attached to the submission.

Copyright and Trademark Violations

The student will not post, transmit, or print any information in all or any part of an IAU course of any company or individually-owned material that infringes on another person's or entity's copyright, trademark, trade dress, or service mark. The use of a trademark, copyright information, or documentation will be used only with the expressed consent of the trademark or copyright holder.

Proprietary and Confidential Information

The student must have formal approval for the use of any company or individually owned materials used in an IAU course. The individuals and/or organizations owning this information must be fully aware of the intention of the student in using such material and the basis of its usage.

In accordance with IAU's educational privacy policy, students may not violate other parties' rights in connection with their coursework. For example, plagiarism or other forms of copyright infringement are forbidden, as is the disclosure of another party's confidential information or trade secrets.

To ensure IAU continues to respect students' rights, as a matter of policy, IAU and faculty members will not accept information from students under the obligation of confidentiality. Types of information that could be subject to confidentiality requirements include: US government sensitive and confidential information, proprietary and confidential information from an employer, patented inventions not yet patented, and information obtained pursuant to a nondisclosure agreement.

Format and Style Standard

IAU's standard for presenting written work is the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 7th edition (2020), unless specifically waived for a specific class or program.

Why the standard? Standards serve dual purposes. The first and more obvious one is to provide for consistency in formatting. Hence, there exist "rules" for citation and references, positioning of tables and figures, and the like. The second and less obvious one, but in the long run more critical, is the means it provides to organize the presentation of thought and logic to the reader. In that sense, it is also a tool for critical thinking.

University Writing

Many students entering undergraduate and graduate school depend on the writing strategies that served them well in their previous institutions. Old formulae, such as the five-paragraph theme, are not sophisticated or flexible enough to provide a sound structure for a university-level paper. And many of the old tricks—such as using elevated language or repeating yourself, so you might meet a ten-page requirement—will fail you now.

So how does a student make a successful transition to undergraduate or graduate academic writing? The first thing you will need to understand is that university writing is for the most part a particular style of writing called academic writing. While academic writing might be defined in many ways, there are three concepts that you need to understand before you write your first university academic paper.

1. Academic writing is writing done by scholars for other scholars. Writing done by scholars for scholars is to engage in an activity that has been going on in academic circles for centuries. It is reading, thinking about, arguing, and writing in certain ways. Education and experience helps students to understand the expectations, conventions, and requirements of scholarship.
2. Academic writing is devoted to topics and questions that are of interest to the academic community. When you write an academic paper, you must first try to find a topic, or a question that is relevant and appropriate. But how do you know when a topic is relevant and appropriate? First of all, pay attention to what your professor is saying. He/she will certainly be giving you a context into which you can place your questions and observations. Second, understand that your paper will be of interest to other students and scholars. Remember that academic writing must be more than personal response. You must write something that your readers will find interesting and useful. In other words, you will want to write something that helps your reader to better understand your topic or to see it in a different way.

3. Academic writing should present the reader with an informed argument. To construct an informed argument, you must first try to sort out what you know about a subject from what you think about a subject. You will want to discern what is known about a subject and then determine what you think about it. If your paper fails to inform, or it fails to argue, then it will fail to meet the expectations of the academic reader.

Informed Argument Construction

When you sit down to write an academic paper, you will first want to consider what you know about your topic. Different writing assignments require different degrees of knowledge. When you sit down to write an academic paper, you must consider the following questions:

1. What do I know about my topic?
2. What do I know about the context of my topic?
3. What historical or cultural influences do I know about that might be important to my topic?
4. Does my topic belong to a particular genre or category of topics?
5. What do I know about the genre?

Then you should follow up with the second set of questions:

1. What seems important to me about this topic?
2. If I were to summarize what I know about this topic, what points would I focus on?
3. What points seem less important? Why do I think so?
4. What do I know about the topic that might help my reader to understand it in new ways?
5. What don't I know about my topic?
6. What do I need to know?
7. How can I find out more?

Moving Toward Critical Thinking

You will discover that as you consider the questions listed above that you are moving beyond what you know about a topic and are beginning to consider what you think. In the process of really thinking about our topic, your aim is to come up with a fresh observation. After all, it is not enough to summarize in a paper what is already known and talked about. You must add something of your own to the academic conversation.

Understand, however, that “adding something of your own” is not an invitation to simply bring your own personal associations, reactions, or experiences to the reading of a text or article. To create an informed argument, you must first recognize that your writing should be analytical rather than personal. At the graduate level, scholars are not concerned with “what you think about something.” They want to know “what does the literature and research say about the topic.” Your writing must show that your associations, reactions, and experiences of a topic, subject, or text have been framed in a critical, rather than a personal, way.

Critical Thinking

At the graduate level, papers are the most popular means for assessing and evaluating student comprehension, abilities, and skills. Graduate papers can be a challenge for a variety of reasons:

1. The key component professors use in evaluating papers is the critical thinking demonstrated, and critical thinking is difficult. Many students struggle with what it really is, how to recognize it, or how to do it. Papers

submitted during graduate coursework become a trial and error process in developing critical thinking skills.

2. Papers are the primary means that students demonstrate their comprehension of knowledge of the course materials. Grades are determined not only on content, but also on presentation and format.
3. Learning to think critically is an iterative process, and students must take advantage of opportunities to rewrite, edit, and learn from consecutive assignment submissions.

Thinking critically about a topic begins with something to think about. It requires a reasonable level of content knowledge. The process is basically one of questioning, especially underlying premises. Many students quickly learn the importance of context and discovering on what “it depends.” “One person’s freedom fighter is another person’s terrorist” (Loquitur, 2002).

Thinking Critically

The following are presented to assist students in determining and answering questions about a selected subject.

1. Conduct a literature review in the IAU library and/or on the Internet using Google Scholar and IAU’s online library LIRN. Write down key facts and ideas revealed in the readings. Concentrate on academic, peer-reviewed, articles and academic websites. It is imperative that all information found is up to date. Wikipedia is a good place to start, but never cite it as an academic source.
2. Supplement this list with information already known about the topic. Put the two lists together and return to it a number of times, until you feel you have a comprehensive knowledge of the subject matter. Then ask “Is there anything else?” until the answer is “no.”
3. Organize the material into categories, or groups of like information. The objective is to find things that fit together, determine possible relationships, and isolate groups.
4. Step back and look at the categories or groups. Is there a way they fit together? What do they suggest? Is there anything that doesn’t belong or is contradictory? Write any answers that arise, questions still to be answered, and any notes or comments generated from this process.

The critical thinking process does not stop with the early stages of the development of a course paper. It carries through the entire research, organization, and writing process. Often the critical question to be answered in achieving the course objectives does not surface until the paper is actually being developed. At every stage of the process, the objective is to keep track of the thoughts that are generated. Writing everything down and keeping all notes and materials together helps in organizing a course paper.

Constructing Informed Argument

The question becomes: how do you move from a personal response to analytical writing? Within the realm of academic writing, arguing can encompass many different intellectual activities and are stated in Bloom’s Taxonomy (8.1.1 Skills Demonstrated). Higher level ones include:

Analyzing

This step in constructing an informed argument asks you first to consider the parts of your subject and to examine how these parts relate to each other and the whole. In analyzing a strategic plan, for example, the student researcher might break it down into its major parts—Vision, Mission, Objectives, etc.—and examine their relationship to the whole and each other.

Comparing

Comparing involves examining a number of things in a search for similarities. A student researcher might look at a series of events, decisions, organizations, or processes in such an effort. For example, one might examine the decisions of a number of similar firms considering opening offices in a foreign country. By comparing these decisions and the critical variables that contribute to each, a researcher can develop a model for such decisions.

Contrasting

Contrasting involves examining a number of things in a search for differences. Similar to comparison, the student researcher might look at a series of events, decisions, organizations, or processes to determine which of their components was responsible for different outcomes.

Synthesizing

Synthesizing involves combining things to produce something new. A student researcher might combine decision-making theories with practical considerations to make decisions and develop a new framework for analyzing and evaluating them.

Evaluating or Assessing

Evaluating or assessing involves examining something against a proven or generally accepted standard. For example, if an author intended to evaluate/assess the efficacy of a specific social program, the typical approach would include examining the program's structure and execution against standard criteria put forth by the profession itself.

Combinations

In certain circumstances, there may be occasions where two or more intellectual activities are combined within one manuscript. For example, in the case of the social program evaluation noted above, a student researcher might also break down the program into its component parts (analyzing) and look at each part in light of the components of known successful programs, looking for similarities and differences (comparing and contrasting). In the end, the overall program evaluation/assessment may contain both qualitative and quantitative results.

Characteristics of Good Writing

The four distinguishing characteristics of good academic writing are organization, readability, effectiveness, and elegance.

Organization

Organization refers to the “flow” of the paper's content, the layout, and how effective subheadings are used. Well-organized papers are easy for a reader to follow and contain no gaps in logic flow. Readers are told everything they need to know to follow the author's logic.

Readability

Readability refers to word selection and usage, sentence construction, and phrasing. Attention to proper spelling and grammar are also important. The objective is not to prove one's command of the English language, but to ensure the writing is clear, to the point, and easily understood by the reader.

Not writing as one speaks. In many professional environments, writing can be more effective if it communicates in a conversational tone. In other words, the reader can “hear” the writer as the written word closely parallels what the writer would be saying in a face-to-face conversation.

Such writing is not considered effective in the academic setting as it tends to lead to the use of jargon and slang in the manuscript. Jargon includes words whose meanings have a unique interpretation within a society or group. Slang includes colloquial language used in everyday speech. Both should assiduously be avoided.

Use third person. From a style standpoint, this is one of the more difficult challenges facing newly returning academic writers: eliminating first and second person from their prose, and writing exclusively in the third person. Professionally, it is common to use first or second person in memoranda and other forms of written correspondence; but in academic writing, it is strongly discouraged and is only usually allowed with the professor's approval.

Why is this so? One of the major goals of academic writing is objectivity. The strength and logic of the argument, and not the author, should be preeminent. First person writing conveys a perception of opinion rather than fact. The second person conveys a feeling of being on the receiving end of a lecture or sermon. It is only through the third person writing that these impressions of opinion or lecturing can be eliminated and that the logic and strength of the argument can be in the spotlight.

Another writing style to be avoided is substituting "the writer" or "this researcher" for "I" in a sentence or "the reader" for "you." While these forms are technically third person, they still refer to the author and the audience and as such are "implied" first and second person.

Write for the audience. No matter the reason for writing, one must always remember who makes up the audience. Communicating is a two-way process. The first part is the transmission or "sending" of the information. The second part is the receipt of that information. It is incumbent upon the writer to be sure the message is transmitted clearly and concisely so that it will be received in the manner intended.

When writing a course paper, comprehensive paper, thesis, etc. one seeks to persuade the audience that the author's position and logic are sound, and by doing so, lend credibility and validity to the manuscript's argument. The author must ensure the message gets through "loud and clear."

Authors can assume that the audience is educated, but cannot assume they are knowledgeable in the specific subject matter. Care must be taken to define and explain terms used and concepts applied.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness refers to the tone of the language—passionate, but not emotional or judgmental. How strongly the writer makes the argument is important. Again, word selection and usage, sentence construction, and phrasing play a big part.

At the same time, it is important that the work be courteous and tactful, and it should exhibit a respectful tone. Students should avoid being critical, accusatory, insulting, sarcastic, or self-centered, and should seek to encourage trust by being calm and polite in content.

Elegance

Elegance implies writing with simplicity and grace, eliminating wordiness, redundancy, and meaningless words. Clear and concise expression is the goal. Writing should be natural, concise, direct, and devoid of outdated and overused clichés. Information should be presented positively rather than negatively or discourteously.

ELEMENTS AND STRATEGY OF SCHOLARLY WRITING

Elements of Good Academic Writing

When writing an academic paper, you must not only consider what you want to say, but also consider to whom you are saying it. In other words, it is important to determine not only what you think about a subject/topic, but also what your audience is likely to think. What are your audience's biases? Values? Expectations? Knowledge? To whom are you writing, and for what purpose?

When you begin to answer all these questions, you have started to establish a “rhetorical stance.” Rhetorical stance refers to the position you take as a writer in terms of the subject and the readers of your paper, i.e., your audience.

Consider Your Position

First consider your position in relation to the subject/topic. When you write a paper, you take a stand on a topic. You determine whether you are “for” or “against” a position. You also determine whether you are going to view this topic through a particular perspective or whether you are going to make a more general response. Your stance on a topic depends on the many decisions you have made in the reading and thinking process.

In order to ensure that your stance on a topic is appropriately analytical, you might want to ask yourself some questions:

1. Why have you taken this particular stance?
2. Why did you find some of the elements of the subject matter more important than others?
3. Does this prioritizing reflect some bias or preconception on your part?
4. If you dismissed part of an article/book as unimportant, why did you do so?
5. Do you have personal issues or experiences that lead you to be impatient with certain claims?
6. Is there a part of your response to the literature/research that might cause your audience to discount your paper as biased or uncritical?
7. Have you reconsidered your position relative to previous questions?

Consider Your Audience

Your rhetorical stance not only considers your position but also your reader. Usually it is the professor and occasionally other students. No matter who it is, you must consider them seriously.

1. What do you know about your reader and his/her position relative to the topic?
2. What is he/she likely to know about the topic?
3. What biases is he/she likely to have?
4. What effect do you hope to have on your reader?
5. Is your aim to be controversial? Informative? Entertaining?
6. Will the reader appreciate or resent your intention?

When you take a rhetorical stance, choose one that allows you to be sincere. You do not want to take an authoritative stance on a subject if you are not confident about what you are saying. On the other hand, you

cannot avoid taking a position on a subject: nothing is worse than reading a paper in which the writer refuses to take a stance. If you are not yet confident about a subject, and you have more questions than answers, you might want to take an inquisitive stance. If you are of two minds on a subject, declare that to your reader, i.e., make ambivalence your clear rhetorical stance.

Consider Structure

In your past life you probably have been taught various strategies for structuring your papers. Some of you have been raised on the five paragraph theme, in which you introduce your topic, come up with three supporting points, and then conclude by repeating what you have already said. Others might have been told that the best structure is the hour-glass model, in which you begin with a general statement, make observations that are increasingly specific, and then conclude with a statement that is again general in nature.

When you are writing papers in graduate school, you will require structures that support ideas that are more complex than the ones you considered as an undergraduate. Your professors might suggest several models for structuring your papers, and we will discuss some of these in a later section. Instructors might tell you to order your information chronologically or spatially, depending on the specific class. Or he/she might provide you with different models for argument: compare and contrast, cause and effect, etc. But remember, the structure for your argument will in the end be determined by the content itself. When creating an informed argument, you will want to rely on several organizational strategies, but you will want to keep some general advice in mind.

Introduction

Your introduction should accomplish two things: (1) it should declare your argument, and (2) it should place your argument within the larger, ongoing conversation about the subject matter. Often writers will do the latter before the former. That is, they will begin by summarizing what other scholars have said about their subject, and then they will declare what they are adding to the conversation. Even when your paper is not a research paper, you will be expected to introduce your argument as if into a larger conversation. “Place” your argument for your reader by naming the text, the author(s), the issues it raises, and your “take” on these issues. Also, refer to academic articles in peer-reviewed journals and examine the style used.

Thesis Sentence

In the past you were probably told that every paper must have a thesis sentence, and that it should appear at the end of the introduction. This is sound advice. A thesis is sometimes implied rather than declared in a text, and it can appear almost anywhere—if the writer is skillful.

Still if you want to be safe, your paper will have a declared thesis, and it will appear where the reader expects it to appear—at the end of the introduction. Your thesis should also be an arguable point; i.e., it should declare something that is interesting and controversial. The thesis sentence is the most important sentence in the entire paper.

Opposing Viewpoints

Because every thesis presents an arguable point, you as a writer are obligated to acknowledge in your paper opposing viewpoints of an argument. Consider what your opponents might say against your argument. Then determine where and how you want to deal with the opposition. Do you want to dismiss the opposition in the first paragraph? Do you want to list each opposing argument and rebut them one by one? Your decisions will determine how you structure your paper.

Supporting Paragraphs

Every convincing argument must have supporting evidence. Your argument’s support will be organized in your paper’s paragraphs. These paragraphs must declare a point, usually formed as that paragraph’s topic sentence.

A topic sentence is like a thesis sentence—except that instead of announcing the argument of the entire paper, it announces the argument of that particular paragraph. In this way, the topic sentence controls the paper’s evidence. The topic sentence is more flexible than the thesis in that it can more readily appear in different places within the paragraph. Most often, however, it appears at or near the beginning.

Conclusions

Writing a good conclusion is difficult. You will want to sum up, but you will want to do more than say what you have already said. You will want to leave the reader with something to think about, but you will want to avoid preaching. You might want to point to a new idea or question, but you risk confusing the reader by introducing something that he/she will find irrelevant. Writing conclusions is, in part, finding the proper balance.

Using Appropriate Tone and Style

Do you think you understand what is required in an academic paper? Remember, you need to be critical and analytical. You need to create an informed argument. You need to consider your relationship to your topic and your reader. But what about finding an appropriate tone and style?

The tone and style of academic writing might at first seem intimidating. But it need not be. Professors want students to write clearly and intelligently on matters that they, the students, care about. What professors do not want is imitation scholarship—that is, exalted gibberish that no one cares about. If the student did not care to write the paper, the professor probably will not care to read it. The tone of an academic paper must be inviting to the reader, even while it maintains an appropriate academic style.

Remember, professors are human beings, capable of boredom, laughter, irritation and awe. Understand that you are writing to a person who is delighted when you have made your point clearly, concisely, and persuasively. Understand, too, that he/she is not pleased when you have inflated your prose, pumped up your page count, or tried to impress by using terms that you did not take the time to understand.

Good academic writing follows the rules of good writing. Consider some of the following tips, designed to make the process of writing an academic paper go more smoothly.

Keep the personal in check. Some assignments invite you to make a personal response. But if you have not been invited to talk about personal experiences, it is better not to use them.

Rely on evidence over feeling. You may be very passionate about a subject, but that is no excuse to allow rhetoric alone to carry the ball. Even if you have constructed some very pretty phrases about a topic, they will not mean much to your professor unless you back up those pretty phrases with facts.

Watch personal pronouns. Using personal pronouns is a way to avoid offering proof. You have to defend positions. When in doubt, ask.

Watch gendered pronouns. When you write, you will want to make sure you do not make your readers feel excluded. We acknowledge that writing “he/she” is a bit cumbersome; however, you might solve the problem by alternating “he” and “she” or “they” throughout the document. Whatever your decision, be sensitive to its effect on your readers. APA 7th ed. now allows “they” as a non-gendered pronoun.

Pay attention to the assignment. When asked for evidence, do not provide opinion. When asked for an opinion, do not offer facts. Too often students write a summary when they are asked to write for analysis. The assignment will cue you on how to respond.

Familiarize yourself with new language. Every discipline has its own jargon and specific terms. When you will want to avoid unnecessary use of jargon in your own writing, you will want to be sure before you write that you have a clear understanding of important concepts and terms.

Follow APA conventions. APA has specific requirements concerning tone and style. Consult the manual to ensure you are following the conventions. We will discuss these later.

Avoid mechanical errors. No matter what audience you are writing for, you will want to produce a submission that is error-free. Errors in grammar and style slow your reader down and even obscure your meaning. Always proofread your text before submission. If you find you are making a lot of errors or have questions, have a third person review the document. Often the professor will allow early submissions to review before the deadlines. It does not hurt to ask for additional feedback.

STRATEGY FOR PREPARING ACADEMIC PAPERS

This section contains a strategy for preparing academic written products. This strategy contains 13 separate steps and procedures to assist in producing a well-organized product. With experience, you may find that you can combine or reorder the steps, adapting the strategy to your style, especially when the steps become second nature.

The first two steps comprise the stage of writing known as prewriting. Prewriting is the stage where you formulate your ideas about the assignment. It includes the note-taking that is carried out as the topic is researched. There are various techniques for amalgamating your thoughts: 3 X 5 cards, Post-it® notes, note pages, etc. The object is to not lose anything that attracts your attention while investigating the topic. It is always better to have too much information and then edit out repetition or irrelevant data and/or information.

Several techniques have been proven effective:

1. Focused Free-writing. Write down everything that comes to mind about a subject, stopping only when there is nothing else to say.
2. Listing. Make a simple list of facts and approaches related to the assignment.
3. Journal. Keep a journal of observations, sources, readings, etc. about key points related to the topic.
4. Outlining. Use an outline format to list main and sub-points.

Do a Rough Sketch

The rough sketch begins with a mission statement for the paper/document/manuscript. It should document what you want to do, and how it will be done. It should also include a statement of the problem, and if known, the research question or hypothesis. The sketch should be as short and focused as possible; a target length should be about 25 words. An example would be:

Evaluate the impact of IAU's Employee Assistance Program on absenteeism by comparing the before/after absentee data for users and non-users.

This statement tells what this writer wants to do (evaluate the impact of IAU's Employee Assistance Program on reducing absenteeism), how it is to be done (comparing the before/after absence data for users and non-users), and gives an indication of the problem (absenteeism).

From the rough sketch, you can determine what facts need to be gathered, and what other relevant materials will be necessary. Students should concentrate on ensuring that all their thoughts and ideas get put on paper, without concern for composition. The actual "writing" comes later.

Create an Outline

In general, an outline is a logical, general description of the work. It provides its schematic, pattern, or design. It should reflect logical thinking and clear classification. Its general purpose is to aid in the process of manuscript development. Specifically, it helps organize ideas, present material in a logical form, show relationships among ideas, construct an orderly overview, and define boundaries. The most important rule for outlining is to be consistent.

Outlines have balanced structures based on the following principles:

1. Parallelism
2. Coordination
3. Subordination
4. Division

Parallelism occurs when headings are expressed in parallel form: nouns parallel with nouns, verbs with verbs, etc. An example is to not have present and past tense of verbs in the same sentence.

Coordination occurs when items of equal significance have similar heading levels. See APA manual for variations in heading levels.

Subordination exists in the ordering of the heading of ideas from general to specific, or from abstract to concrete, with the more general or abstract the term, the higher the heading level.

Division occurs when major headings include multiple minor headings. In cases where there would be only one minor heading, it should be omitted.

An outline can use a topic or sentence structure. A topic outline uses words or phrases for all entries. It presents a brief overview of work and is generally easier and faster to write than a sentence outline. A sentence outline uses complete sentences for all entries. This structure presents a more detailed view and is easier and faster when writing the first draft. This latter structure is referred to as an annotated outline.

Steps three (3), four (4), and five (5) comprise the stage of the writing process known as drafting. Drafting naturally follows prewriting. During this section, you create the rough draft that includes an introduction, background, conclusion, and several body paragraphs of explanation. The draft will resemble the final document, but there remains a lot of work to be done.

In this state, the paper builds on the research question or thesis, typically found in the introduction. Each paragraph should expand on a topic sentence that links one idea to another in the body of the work. A sense of cohesion should emerge as the message gathers strength and momentum. In this stage, you will make your first cut at organizing and arranging the major ideas. Examples, evidence, explanations, and details will help to develop each paragraph. With a rough draft, you create a general impression of the message you wish to convey. But you still have a long way to go.

Write the Introduction

The early part of a paper introduces the topic to the reader. Introductions may be one paragraph in short works or several paragraphs in longer works. There is no firm requirement regarding length and no firm outline for content. An introduction should invite consideration of the topic, give a clear idea of what the work contains, and the kinds of sources used, and provide a sense of the content.

If a paper begins with a question, ask the reader to consider the problem being addressed. Stating the research question can achieve that purpose. If writing an argumentative research paper, consider introducing the work by stating the hypothesis. If this introduction method is chosen, it should be followed by explanatory text that helps the reader understand where the topic came from, and why it is important.

Another option, if readers may be unfamiliar with the topic, is to give background. Background information can summarize the results of others, or place the topic in a larger context. Be sure to define all terms and as early as possible, so that the reader can be comfortable with them.

Writing the introduction occurs in two parts. In the first, under each part of the introduction outline, the writer should add words, phrases, and an occasional sentence to ensure that everything that needs to be covered is discussed. As in the rough sketch, the objective here is to ensure that nothing is missing, that all relevant facts are presented.

Once you are confident that the expanded outline contains all the material necessary, then and only then should the composition process begin. The major objective is to achieve a logical flow and that sentences and paragraphs follow an understandable pattern. Depending on the depth and complexity of the subject matter, use of multiple headings and heading levels may also help you achieve this objective.

Draft the Body

The next part of the paper is the main body. This is a collection of materials that supports the thesis or answers the research question. Each chapter or major heading in the main body has a theme. Each paragraph has a topic sentence and examples to support it. You use examples that are relevant to the topic sentence and the overall thesis or research question.

It is equally important to examine examples that might contradict the thesis or topic sentences or may generate challenges to research questions, as it is to look at those that obviously support your contentions. Good writers will have a stronger argument because they anticipate possible objections and state why a counterargument is not as salient as the one put forth.

If you use examples, ensure they are specific. Specific examples demonstrate that you have a sound grasp of the subject. Use dates for important events to keep any chronology straight and help the reader determine what was important at the time.

Include only relevant material that addresses the thesis or research question. Efficient time management would suggest that no effort be expended writing about anything that does not support the points the paper is trying to make. Any topic discussed should connect to the thesis or research question. If no connection is made, it will appear that the manuscript is “padded.” It is your job to tell what is relevant to the thesis or research question, and why it is relevant. It is not the reader’s job to figure it out.

Using the same two-step approach in writing the introduction, you expand the outline for the body of the manuscript, concentrating first on ensuring the completeness of the material, and then on composing to achieve logical flow. As this is where you make your case, care should be taken as to not overlook anything.

Prepare the Conclusion

Conclusions are just as important as introductions. Conclusions close papers and try to close the issue. The goal is to convince the reader that the work has covered all the most important arguments about the subject matter and that the thesis has been “proven” or research question “answered.” No new topics should be advanced in the conclusion.

There are two parts to a conclusion. It restates the thesis or research question, and presents one or two sentences that summarize the “proof” of the thesis or the answer to the research question. In some situations, you might entice your reader to conduct some follow up research or study.

Again, using the two-step approach, you prepare the conclusion, taking note to reflect upon whether the previous section would allow a reader to arrive logically at the same point. After this step, you should put the paper aside for a few days.

After some time, it is time to begin the revising stage. Revising is where you can review the draft and make some changes. Structure, development, and clarity are some of the tasks to be addressed during this stage.

Structure

1. Is there an introduction with a focused main point?
2. Is the body of the message adequately developed or explained?
3. Is the conclusion apparent, and does it include a follow-up step for the reader, if one is necessary?

Develop

1. Does each paragraph serve a specific purpose?
2. Is each topic idea supported by detail or examples?
3. Is the diction specific and concrete with imaginative or thoughtful insights?

Clarity

1. Is there a mixture of sentence types that mesh neatly to form connected paragraphs?
2. Will the reader(s) understand the main point or the purpose of the message?

Perform an Initial Review

This is a global review, not a detailed one. In this review, you look at overall logic flow, at organization, and at conformance to the outline. Key considerations center on whether the paper has achieved its objectives, and whether the audience would agree. You might at this time check with APA Manual for conformance.

Make Initial Revisions

This revision is organizational and is based on the previous step. Changes should be made to sections and paragraphs, not to words, phrases, or sentences. Work should be checked as it proceeds. At the end of this process put the paper away for a while.

The final state in the writing process is editing. In this stage, you review the paper word-for-word, checking for grammatical and punctuation errors and seeking to improve the coherence, concision, and flow of the language. As with revision, it is important to allow some time before beginning this process.

Conduct a Second Review

This review is a proofreading effort and your focus should be on words, phrases, and sentences. Prose should be evaluated for readability, effectiveness, and elegance. Conformance to rules of grammar and syntax should be addressed. Reading the paper aloud or to someone else can prove helpful in this step.

Proofreading involves re-reading and re-thinking. Successful proofreading can be accomplished by role-playing, either as the potential audience, as an educated but not knowledgeable reader, or as someone who is not familiar with the subject matter. Playing the role other than that of the author helps to remind you that writing, unlike

conversation, does not provide the reader the opportunity to ask questions for clarification; they must be provided in the paper.

Proofreading, as part of revising, demands that the text be read slowly, carefully, and closely. Often editors read a section backwards so as not to impose thoughts into the editing process. Other strategies include:

1. Allow time between writing and proofreading to return to the paper with an open, refreshed mind.
2. Remember that the reader will not want to put too much effort into understanding what the paper is trying to say. Make sure wording is clear and explicit, without any gaps in logic.
3. Make several proofreading passes through the paper. Look for a different problem during each pass.
4. On one reading, read it silently. Check for general readability.
5. On another reading, read it aloud. Check for monotonous prose, redundancy, and verbosity.

Make Proofreading Revisions

After the previous step, make revisions as necessary. Under most circumstances this ends the editing process. However, there are a few more steps you might consider prior to the submission of your paper. These could have significant implications for the development of your academic writing skills, particularly in the early stages.

Consider an Outside Reader

Using an outsider reader can be very valuable, provided the reader meets the requirement of being “educated, but not knowledgeable.” The reader can be a spouse, friend, significant other, co-worker, friend, or neighbor. The person selected, however, should be trusted to give an honest appraisal. In the absence of an outside reader, you should go over the paper one more time to catch anything you might have missed.

Make Final Revisions

Your paper is now ready for final revisions. Go over the format one more time, and check for compliance with APA conventions.

Write the Abstract or Executive Summary

After the paper is in a form you consider complete, you should now prepare the abstract or Executive Summary. The APA Manual standard is 120 words maximum, and can be as short as three to six sentences if done properly: one or two sentences on what was done and why, one or two sentences on how it was done, and one or two sentences on the results. Executive summaries are normally longer and more detailed, but rarely exceed 10% of the text itself.

Submit

Some professors allow early submissions for review, while others do not. If allowed, use this resource. The paper is now ready for submission.

TYPES OF PAPERS REQUIRED

General Course Papers

Course papers can take many forms. Overall, however, there are minimum expectations that all graduate papers should meet:

1. Mastery of the course content, by including demonstrated knowledge of the major theories and concepts associated with the subject of the paper and presented in the literature.
2. Ability to collect, analyze, and evaluate information; and to formulate logical conclusions.
3. Competence in writing at the graduate level.

Research Paper

Research papers take two basic forms: a review and analysis of the literature available on a topic, or an interpretation of selected evidence that supports a thesis statement. The interpretive paper option, though primarily concerned with the writer's thesis, should also consider contrary evidence. Note that a pure review of the literature in a field that results in a summary of the existing body of knowledge on any subject does not constitute a research paper. It does not demonstrate a capacity for critical thinking.

Research papers are entirely new works created by consulting several sources to answer a specific research question or "prove" a hypothesis. Papers synthesize the writer's interpretation and evaluation of the information, with complete citation of the sources.

Research papers require more thoughtful levels of investigation. Typically, they include a familiarity with the works of recognized experts in the field, and an application of those works to the research question or thesis. The final product is a unique and appropriate integration of evidence beyond the writer's personal insights and opinions.

Research papers can be analytical, and use evidence to analyze the various facets of an issue; or argumentative, and use evidence to attempt to convince the reader of a stance on a debatable topic. Analytical papers begin with a research question and will survey the information and views available, concluding in answering that research question. Argumentative papers begin with a thesis that takes a stand on an issue, and then uses evidence to back-up that statement.

Position Paper

The term "position paper" is often used in place of "argumentative paper" above.

Professional Practice Position Paper

A Professional Practice Position Paper is a specific type of position paper applicable to one's professional environment. These types of papers argue for a way to apply a theoretical principle(s) to a specific problem in the profession.

Annotated Bibliography

An annotated bibliography is an organized list of sources, each followed by a brief discussion or “annotation.” These annotations include: a description of the content and focus of the work, including the author’s thesis; an assessment of the source’s usefulness to the individual’s research; an evaluation of its method, conclusions or reliability; and a critique of the sources the author uses.

Annotations are brief. Only directly related details should be included, and information apparent in the title should be omitted. Background information and reference to other works by the same author are not included.

Critical Reviews

A critical review of a book or article includes a summary and evaluation of the ideas and information the author presents. It is an examination of the author’s thoughts on a subject from a specific perspective and is based on the student’s knowledge of the topic as well as on the criteria related to the specific perspective chosen. This is usually not a graduate school level activity.

Generally, conducting a critical review of a single work is not the norm. However, conducting a series of reviews on similar works by various authors, and then comparing the outcomes of the reviews and producing a conclusion related to the specific evaluation perspective is valid graduate work.

Case Studies

Many courses use case studies as a learning document. Cases set forth facts associated with events and circumstances surrounding a situation. The student assumes a role in the unfolding of events and is asked to diagnose the situation and recommend appropriate actions to be taken.

While case study reports follow the “tell what is about to be told, tell what is being told, tell what has been told” format, the specific presentation varies from the normal research paper. Typical headings in a case study paper include:

1. **Introduction and Background.** This section introduces the reader to the events and circumstances associated with the situation. Relevant organizational information, necessary to understanding the environment, is also presented.
2. **Diagnosis.** This section highlights and discusses in detail those events and circumstances that relate directly to a problem the student is asked to address.
3. **Analysis and Evaluation.** This section relates the events and circumstances detailed in the last section to the theories and principles discussed in the course and covered in the course readings, and then evaluates them in light of those principles.
4. **Recommendation.** This section closes the paper with a set of definite recommendations, usually discussed in the context of a plan of action. All the problems and issues highlighted in the diagnosis section should be addressed, and the recommendations flow logically from the analysis and evaluation.

Note: Students who use their current or prior place of employment as a basis for a case study should proceed with caution. Often, these types of projects involve information that is viewed by the organization as proprietary or confidential. If you proceed, you should do so with caution and ensure you have the necessary organizational approvals. Also, notify your professor if information is sensitive.

APA GUIDE

APA Mechanics

Paper Requirements. The following are the Conventions per APA:

1. Paper is standard 8 ½ x 11 inches, printed in “portrait.”
2. Margins are 1 inch all around, left-justified.
3. Papers are to be double-spaced.
4. One space after punctuation marks at the end of the sentence.
5. Font is Times New Roman or Courier.
6. Font size is 12 (preferred) or 10.
7. Page numbering is in the upper right corner starting on the first page.
8. “Running head” is no longer required in the header. A shortened title up to 50 characters is required in the header.
9. Indentation of paragraphs is ½ inch from the left margin
10. Do not underline.

APA Specific Requirements

The following are APA specific requirements:

1. Use the past or present perfect tense.
2. Avoid personal pronouns, e.g. “I,” “you,” “we,” etc. APA now acknowledges “they” as a non-gendered pronoun in the singular form.
3. All numbers ten or less are written out, except when it is a measurement, e.g. “...ten students,” ... took 6 liters.” Exceptions are in direct quotes.
4. Bullets may be used.
5. A comma must be used between all items of three or more.
6. Use the % sign instead of “percent,” e.g. “30%.”
7. No apostrophe should be used when forming the plural of a number (e.g. 1940s).
8. Use double quotation marks for quotations (e.g. “energy”).
9. Do not use contractions except in direct quotes.
10. Direct quotations of 40 words or more should be placed in a block quotation (double-spaced). Quotation marks are not used.
11. The proper format for a dash is two dashes with no space between them or on either side.

In-Text Citations

APA style requires authors to use the past tense or present perfect tense when using signal phrases to describe earlier research:

Jones (1998) found... or Jones (1998) has found....

When using APA format, follow the author-date method of in-text citations. It should only precede a comma, semicolon, or period.

...in research by Jones (1998), but was further amplified by....
...the findings were also found in later works (Jones, 1998).

Citing an Author or Authors

Work by Two Authors

Name both authors in the signal phrase or in the parentheses each time you cite the work. Use the word "and" between the authors' names within the text and use the ampersand in the parentheses.

Research by Wegener and Petty (2004) showed...
... found in later research (Wegner & Petty, 2004).

A Work by Three to Five Authors

List the first author's last name followed by et al. and the year of publication in the signal phrase in parentheses.

For example, Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, and Harlow (2005) found.... should be revised to Kernis et al. (2005) found ...
...later found by other studies (Kernis et al., 2005).

A Work by Multiple Authors or Multiple Works

Use the first author's name followed by et al. in the signal phrase in parentheses.
...Harris et al. (2001) argued that.....
...by the study (Harris et al., 2001).

List the authors alphabetically by last name followed by et al., the date and separate them with semicolons.
(Raspa et al., 2015; Gadomski et al., 2018; Graybill et al., 2016).

When listing multiple authors using "et al.", and there are multiple dates, chronologically list the dates.
(Caraway et al., 2013, 2014, 2019).

A Work by the Same Author and Same Date use a lowercase letter after the year of publication for both in-text and reference-list entries.

(Boysen, 2015a, 2015b)

Unknown Author

If the work does not have an author, cite the source by citing its title in the signal phrase or use the first word or two in the parentheses. Titles of books and reports are italicized, while titles of articles and chapters are in quotation marks.

...a study was done of students working on research papers ("Using APA," 2001).

Book, Unknown Author. Give the title of the work in italics and the publication year.
(*Interpersonal Skills*, 2019)

Magazine article, Unknown Author. Give the magazine title and the publication year. (“Understanding Sensory Memory,” 2018).

Anonymous

In the rare case of works that are “Anonymous” or for an anonymous author, treat it as the author’s name. In the reference list, use the name Anonymous as the author. (These sources are discouraged.)

...and was discovered relevant (Anonymous, 2007).

Citing Works

Capitalization

Always capitalize proper nouns, including author names and initials. If you refer to the title of a source within your paper, capitalize all words that are four letters long or greater within the source. Exceptions apply to short words that are verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

...in her work *Permanence and Change*.
... refer to the work *Writing New Media, There Is Nothing Left to Lose*.

Capitalize the first word after a dash or colon

...in the criticism *Defining Film Rhetoric: The Case of Older Movies*.

Italicization

Italicize the titles of books, edited collections, movies, television series, documentaries, or albums.

The Wizard of Oz. *Friends*. *Seinfeld*, *History of the American People*.

Quotation Marks

Put quotation marks around the titles of shorter works such as journal articles, articles from edited collections, television series episodes, and websites.

...in the article “Life in Texas” and subsequent works by Jones (1998).

Organization as an Author

If the author is an organization or a government agency, mention the organization in the signal phrase or in the parenthetical citation the first time you cite the source.

According to the American Psychological Association (2000) ...

If the organization has a well-known abbreviation, include the abbreviation in brackets the first time the source is cited and then use only the abbreviation in later citations.

First citation: (Mothers Against Drunk Driving [MADD], 2000)

Second citation: (MADD, 2000)

Two or More Works in the Same Parentheses

When your parenthetical citation includes two or more works, order them the same way they appear in the reference list, separated by a semi-colon.

(Berndt, 2002; Harlow, 1983)

Authors with the Same Last Name

To prevent confusion, use first initials with the last names.

(E. Johnson, 2001; L. Johnson, 1998)

Two or More Works by the Same Author in the Same Year

If you have two sources by the same author in the same year, use lower-case letters (a, b, c) with the year to order the entries in the reference list. Use the lower-case letters with the year in the in-text citation.

Research by Berndt (1981a) illustrated that...

Personal Communication

For interviews, letters, e-mails, and other person-to-person communication, cite the communicator's name, the fact that it was personal communication, and the date of the communication. Do not include personal communication in the reference list.

(E. Robbins, personal communication, January 4, 2001).

A. P. Smith also claimed that many of her students had difficulties with APA style (personal communication, November 3, 2002).

Citing Indirect Sources

If you use a source that was cited in another source, name the original source in your signal phrase. List the secondary source in your reference list and include the secondary source in parentheses.

...as Johnson argued ... (as cited in Smith, 2003, p. 56).

Electronic Sources

If possible, cite an electronic document the same as any other document by using the author-date style.

Kenneth (2000) explained....

Unknown Author and Unknown Date

If no author or date is given, use the title in your signal phrase or the first word or two of the title in the parentheses and use the abbreviation “n.d.” for “no date.”

Another study of students and research decisions found success... (“Tutoring and APA,” n.d.).

Sources Without Page Numbers

When an electronic source lacks page numbers, you should try to include information that will help readers find the passage being cited. When an electronic document has numbered paragraphs, use the ¶ symbol, or the abbreviation “para.” followed by the paragraph number.

...found in later documents (Hall, 2002, ¶ 5) or (Hall, 2002, para. 5).

If the paragraphs are not numbered, and the document contains headings, provide the appropriate heading and specify the paragraph under the heading. Note: In some electronic sources like Web pages, people can use the “Find” function in their browser to locate any passages you cite.

According to Smith (2000), ... (“Mind over Matter” section, para. 6)

Note: Never use the page numbers of Web pages you print out, different computers print Web pages with different pagination.

Short Quotations

If you are directly quoting from a work, you will need to include the author, year of publication, and the page number for the reference (preceded by “p.” or “pp.”). Introduce the quotation with a signal phrase that includes the author’s last name followed by the date of publication in parentheses.

According to Jones (1999), “Students had difficulty using APA style, especially when it was their first time” (p. 199). If the author is not named in the signal phrase, place the author’s last name, the year of the publication, and the page number after the quotation.

She stated “students often had difficulty using APA style” (Jones, 1999, p. 199), but did not ask why?

Long Quotations

Place direct quotations longer than 40 words in a free-standing block of typewritten lines, and omit quotation marks. Start the quotation on a new line, indented ½ in. from the left margin. Type the entire quotation on the new margin, and indent the first line of any subsequent paragraph within the quotation ½ in. from the left margin. Maintain double-spacing throughout. The parenthetical citation should come after the closing punctuation mark.

...Jones’s (1999) study found the following:

Students often had difficulty using APA style, especially when it was their first time citing sources. This difficulty could be attributed to the fact that many students failed to purchase a style manual or to ask their teacher for help. (p. 199)

Note: Period is before parentheses in block direct quotes.

Summary or Paraphrase

If you are paraphrasing an idea from another work, you only have to make reference to the author and year of publication in your in-text reference, but APA guidelines encourage you to also provide the page number, but it is not absolutely required.

Reference List: Books

Your reference list should appear at the end of the paper. It provides information necessary for a reader to locate and retrieve any source you cite in the body of the paper. Each source you cite in the paper must appear in your reference list; likewise, each entry in the reference list must be cited in the text. You may now list 20 authors in your "References" list. The title of your "References" list should be in bold and centered at the top of the page.

Your references should begin on a new page that is separate from the text of the paper; label this page References (with no quotation marks, underlining, bold, etc.), centered at the top of the page. It should be double-spaced just like the rest of the paper.

Basic Rules:

1. All lines after the first line of each entry in your reference list should be indented ½ in. from the left margin. This is called hanging indentation.
2. Authors' names are inverted (last name first); give the last name and initials for all authors of a particular work unless the work has more than six authors. If the work has more than six authors, list the first author by last name followed by et al.
3. Reference list entries should be alphabetized by the last name of the first author of each work.
4. If you have more than one article by the same author, single-author references, or multiple-author references with the exact same authors in the exact same order, they are listed in order by the year of the publications, starting with the earliest.
5. When referring to any work that is not a journal, such as a book, article, or Web page, capitalize only the first letter of the first word of a title or subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and proper nouns. Do not capitalize the first letter of a second word in a hyphenated compound word.
6. Capitalize all major words in journal titles, e.g., Harvard Business Review.
7. Italicize titles of long works such as books and journals.
8. Do not italicize, underline, or put quotes around the titles of shorter works such as journal articles or essays in edited collections.

Single Author (Book)

Last name first, followed by the author's initials.

Anderson, J. J. (2007). *Management in international arena* (4th ed.). Harper.

Multiple Authors (Book)

Last name first, followed by initials, then comma and ampersand.

Calfee, R. C., & Valencia, R. R. (2000). *APA guide to preparing manuscripts for journal publication*. American Psychological Association.

Edited Book with Author(s)

Plath, S. (2000). *The unabridged journals* (K. V. Kukill, Ed.).Anchor.

Edited Book

Duncan, G. J., & Brooks-Gunn, J (Eds.). (1997). *Consequences of growing up poor*. Russell Sage Foundation.

Translation

Laplace, P. S. (1951). *A philosophical essay on probabilities*. (F. W. Truscott & F. L. Emory, Trans.). Dover

Republished Book

Joyce, J. (1920/2005). *Ulysses*. Harper.

Edition Other Than the First

Helper, M.E., Keme, R.S., & Drugman, R.D. (1997). *The battered child* (5th ed.). University of Chicago Press.

Article or Chapter in Edited Book

O'Neil, J.M., & Egan, J. (1992). Men's and women's gender role journeys: Metaphor for healing transition, and transformation. In B.R. Wainrib (Ed.), *Gender issues across the life cycle* (pp. 107-123). Springer.

Multivolume Work

Weiner, P. (Ed.). (1999). *Dictionary of the history of ideas* (Vols. 1-4).Scribner's.

Reference List: Periodicals

APA Style dictates that authors are named last name followed by initials; publication year goes between parentheses, followed by period. The title of the article is in sentence-case, meaning only the first word and proper nouns in the title are capitalized. The periodical title is run in title case, and is followed by the volume number which, with the title, is also italicized.

Author, A.A. Author, B.B., & Author, C.C. (Year). Title of the article. Title of the Periodical, volume number (issue number), page(s).

Article in Journal Paginated by Volume

Journals that are paginated by volume begin with page one in issue one, and continue numbering pages in the next issue where the previous volume ended.

Harlow, H.F. (1983). Fundamentals for preparing psychology journal articles. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, 55, 893-896.

Article in Journal Paginated by Issue

Journals paginated by issue begin with page one every issue; therefore, the issue number gets italicized in parentheses after the volume. The parentheses and issue number are not italicized.

Scruton, R. (1996). The eclipse of listening. *The New Criterion*, 15(30), 5-13.

Article in Journal with a DOI

McCauley, S. M., & Christiansen, M.H. (2019). Language learning as language use: A cross-linguistic model of child language development. *Psychological Review* (in italics), 126 (in italics)(1), 1-51.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/rev0000126>

Article in Magazine

Henry, W.A., III. (1990, April 9). Making the grade in today's schools. *US News & World Report*, 135, 28-31

Article in Magazine with a DOI

Bergeson, S. (2019, January 4). Really cool neutral plasmas. *Science*, 363(6422), 33-34.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aau7988>

Article in Newspaper

Unlike other periodicals, p. pp. precedes page numbers for newspaper reference in APA style. Single pages take "p." e.g., p. B2; multiple pages take "pp.," e.g., pp. B2, B4 or pp. C1, C3-C4.

Schultz, S. (2005, December 28). Calls made to strengthen state energy policies. *New York Times*, pp. A1, A5-A6.

Online Article in a Newspaper

Omit the page number and add the URL after the newspaper title. For example, for *The Washington Post*,
Guarino, B. (2017, December 4). How will humanity react to alien life? Psychologists have some predictions. *The Washington Post*.
<https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/speaking-of-science/wp/2017/12/04/how-will-humanity-react-to-alien-life-psychologists-have-some-predictions>

Letter to Editor

Moller, G. (2002, August). Ripples versus rumbles (Letter to the editor). *Scientific American*, 287(2), 12

Book Review

Baumeister, R.F. (1993). Exposing the self-knowledge myth [Review of the book *the self-knower: A hero under control*]. *Contemporary Psychology*, 38,463-466.

Blog Post

Klymkowsky, M. (2018, September 15). Can we talk scientifically about free will? *Sci-Ed*.
<https://blogs.plos.org/scied/2018/09/15/can-we-talk-scientifically-about-free-will>

Reference List: Other Print Sources

Encyclopedia

Bergman, P.G. (1993). Relativity. In *The new encyclopedia Britannica* (Vol. 26, pp. 501-508). Encyclopedia Britannica.

Work Discussed in a Secondary Source

Let's assume the source was listed in:

Coltheart, M., Curtis, B., Atkins, P., & Haller, M. (1993). Models of reading aloud: Dual-route and parallel-distributed-processing approaches. *Psychological Review*, 100, 589-608.

Give the secondary source in the references list, in the text, name the original work, and give a citation for the secondary source. For example, if Seidenberg and McClelland's work is cited in Coltheart et al., and you did not read the original work, list Coltheart et al. in the References. In the text, use the following:

In Seidenberg and McClelland's study (as cited in Coltheart, Curtis, Atkins, & Haller, 1993),

Dissertation Abstract

Yoshida, Y. (2001). *Essays in urban transportation* (Doctoral dissertation, Boston College, 2001). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 62, 7741A.

Report from Government Organization

National Institute of Mental Health. (1990). *Clinical training in serious mental illness* (DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1679). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Report from Private Organization

American Psychiatric Association. (2000). *Practice guidelines for the treatment of patients with eating disorders* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Report from Conference Proceedings

Schnase, J.L., & Collins, E.L. (Eds.). (2005). *Proceedings from CSLC '95: The First International Conference on Computer Support for Collaborative Learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Reference List: Author(s)

The following rules for handling works by a single author or multiple authors apply to all APA-style references in your reference list, regardless of the type of work (book, article, electronic resource, etc.)

Single Author

Berndt, T.J. (2002). Friendship quality and social development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 11(1), 7-10.

Two Authors

Wegner, D.T., & Petty, R.E. (2004). Mood management across affective states: The hedonic contingency hypothesis. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 66, 1034-1048.

Three to Six Authors

Kernis, M.H., Cornell, D.P., Sun, C. R., Berry, A., & Harlow, T. (2003). There's more to self-esteem than whether it is high or low: The importance of stability of self-esteem. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 65, 1190-2004.

Six or More Authors

If there are more than six authors, list the first six as above and then "et al.," which stands for "and others." Note: Remember not to place a period after "et" in "et al."

Harris, M., Karper, E., Stacks, G., Hoffman, D., DeNiro, R., Cruz, P., et al. (2001). Writing labs and the Hollywood connection. *Journal of Film and Writing*, 44(3), 213-245.

Unknown Author

Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary (10th ed.). (1993). Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.

When your paper includes parenthetical citations of sources with no author named, use a shortened version of the source's title instead of the author's name. Use quotation marks and italics as appropriate.

...and used in sentences (Merriam-Webster's, 1993).

...the war on drugs continues in Washington, DC ("New Drug War," 2003).

Two or More Works by the Same Author

Use the author's name for all entries and list the entries by the year with the earliest coming first.

Burns, T.J. (2001). *In the heart of the matter*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Burns, T.J. (2003). *The principle of viewing life*. Mason, OH: Prentice Hall.

When an author appears as a sole author and, in another citation, as the first author of a group, list the one-author entries first.

Burns, T.J. (2001). *In the heart of the matter*. New York: McGraw Hill

Burns, T.J. & O'Keefe, M. R. (2000). *Applications of the theory of multiples*. New York: Harper's.

References that have the same first author and different second or third authors are arranged alphabetically by the last name of the second author, or the last name of the third author if the first and second authors are the same.

Wagner, D.T., Kerr, N.L., & Fleming, R. (2000). Flexible corrections of juror judgments. *Psychology & Public Policy*, 6(1), 45-51.

Wagner, D.T., Petty, T., & Owens, M.M. (1999). Effect of mood on high elaboration attitude changes. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 24, 25-43.

Two or More Works by Same Author in the Same Year

If you are using more than one reference by the same author (or the same group of authors listed in the same order) published in the same year, organize them in the reference list alphabetically by the title of the article or chapter. Then assign letter suffixes to the year. Refer to these sources in your paper as they appear in your reference list, e.g.: “Burns (2001a) makes similar claims....”

Burns, T.J. (2001a). *In the heart of the matter*. New York: McGraw Hill

Burns, T.J. (2000b). *Applications of the theory of multiples*. New York: Harper's

Reference List: Electronic Sources

Article from an Online Periodical

Online articles follow the same guidelines for printed articles. Include all information the online host makes available, including an issue number in parentheses.

Bernstein, M. (2002). 10 tips on writing the living web. *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*, 149. <http://www.alistapart.com>

Note: IAU lets you eliminate the string after the .com, .edu, .org, etc.

Online Scholarly Journal Article

Kenneth, I.A. (2000). A Buddhist response to the nature of human rights. *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 8. Retrieved April 3, 2008, from <http://www.cas.psu.edu>

If the article appears as a printed version as well, the URL is not required. Use “Electronic version” in brackets after the article’s title.

Kenneth, I.A. (2000). A Buddhist response to the nature of human rights [Electronic version]. *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 8. Retrieved April 3, 2008, from <http://www.cas.psu.edu>

Article from a Database

IAU does not require that the database an article was retrieved from be cited. However, APA does suggest its inclusion.

Kenneth, I.A. (2000). A Buddhist response to the nature of human rights. *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 8. Retrieved April 3, 2008, from Business Source Premier database.

Multi-page Document from Private Organization, No Date

Greater Lancaster (CA) Community Center, Task Force on Crime (n.d.). *What you can do to protect your family and property*. Retrieved October 5, 2007, from <http://www.lancaster.org>

Chapter or Section in an Internet Document

Benton Foundation (2006, July 6). Barriers to closing the gap. In *Losing ground bit by bit: Low-income communities in the information age* (chap. 3). Retrieved August 18, 2006, from <http://www.benton.org>

Stand-Alone Document, No Author, No Date

Harris 2005 user survey. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2007, from <http://www.gatech.edu>

Document from University Program/Department Website

Chou, L., McClintock, R., & Moretti, F. (1998). *Technology and education: New findings: Education research*. Retrieved August 1, 2006, from Stanford University, Institute for Learning Web site: <https://ctl.stanford.edu/>

University Report on Private Organization Website

University of California, San Francisco, Institute for Health and Aging. (1996, November). *Chronic care in America: A 21st century challenge*. Retrieved September 9, 2000, from the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation Web site: <http://rwjf.org>

US Government Report on Government Website: No Date

United States Sentencing Commission. (n.d.). *2003 sourcebook of federal sentencing statistics*. Retrieved December 2, 2007, from <http://www.ussc.gov>

Private Organization Report on Organization's Website

Canarie, Inc. (1997, September 27). *Towards a Canadian health IWAY: Vision, opportunities and future steps*. Retrieved March 4, 2000, from <http://www.canaries.ca>

Daily Newspaper Article, Electronic Version

Hilts, P.J. (1999, February 16). In forecasting their emotions, most people flunk out. *New York Times*. Retrieved November 21, 2000, from <http://www.nytimes.com>

Dissertation/Thesis from a Database

Biawas, S. (2008). *Dopamine D3 receptor: A neuro-protective treatment target in Parkinson's disease*. Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations. (AAT 3295214)

Online Encyclopedia/Dictionary

Feminism. (n.d.) In *Wikipedia online*. Retrieved March 16, 2009 from <http://www.wikipedia.com>

Online Lecture Notes and Presentation Slides

Hallam, A. *duality in consumer theory* [PDF document]. Retrieved from Lecture Notes Online:
<http://www.econ.iastate.edu/classes/econ501/Hallam/index.html>

Roberts, K. F. (1999). *Federal regulations of chemicals in the environment* [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from
<http://siri.uvm.edu/ppt/40hrenv/index.html>

Video Podcasts

Scott, D. (Producer). 2007, January 5). The community college classroom [Episode 7]. *Adventures in Education*.
Podcast retrieved from <http://www.adveeducation.com>

USE OF REFERENCES

A comprehensive reference list is extremely important in any course paper. Perhaps more than anything else, it allows the instructor/reader to assess how comprehensive and thorough the research was. Unless told otherwise by your instructor, you should provide full citations to only those works actually referenced within the text.

A list of “References” includes all works cited in the text. The list is located after the conclusion section, but before any appendices. A “Selected Bibliography” includes all materials that would be included in a list of References, plus any works you consulted for background information but not cited in the paper. There is no occasion where a “Bibliography” is appropriate; this list would include all works written on the subject.

There is no IAU-wide standard on the number of references required for any specific paper. Individual instructors may set standards, so you should ask. The availability of references may also vary with the subject matter. New areas might not have extensive references available.

Whenever possible, primary references should be used. A primary reference is one where the author was the originator of the information, actually observed and reported the phenomenon, or conducted the research that led to the information. Statistical information is stronger from the source of the data such as the US Department of Education, rather than from other sources that might report the information as well.

Note: Wikipedia is NOT an academic source and has questionable veracity. It is useful as an orientation tool, but should not be included in References.

A secondary source is one that reports what someone else originated, discovered, or researched. Newspaper articles that report government statistics, for example, are secondary sources. A book on counseling that reports the results researched not conducted by its author(s) is a secondary source. These are not as credible as primary sources, although there are times when these are all not available.

When using Web references, extreme care should be taken. Many of these sources are commercial in nature. Try to avoid those without authors or organizations and anonymous sites. You should try to limit your Web sources and concentrate on peer-reviewed academic articles.

Extreme care should be taken in the selection of references. For the most part, you should develop the ability to differentiate between legitimate scholarly works and those of a more commercial nature.

REFERENCES

- American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.).
Author
- Govier, T. (1992). *A practical study of argument* (3rd ed.). Wadsworth.
- Lipson, C. (2006). *Cite right: A quick guide to citation styles—MLA, APA, Chicago, the sciences, professions, and more.*
University of Chicago Press.
- Purdue University. (n.d.) *The Purdue Online Writing Lab*. Retrieved March 31, 2008, from
<http://owl.english.purdue.edu>
- Strunk, W., White E.B., & Osgood, C. (2005). *Elements of style*. Prentice Hall.
- Swales, J.M., & Beer-Freak, C.A. (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essentials and tasks and skills* (2nd
ed.): University of Michigan Press.
- Turbian, K.L. (2007). *A manual for writers of research papers, theses, and dissertations* (7th ed.) University of Chicago
Press.
- Wood, N. (2004). *Perspectives on argument* (4th ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.

WRITING RESOURCES

The Writing Center at IAU offers writing resources and guides for IAU students enrolled in courses at IAU. After reviewing and providing feedback on students' papers, the Coordinator, Writing Center provides students with writing resources and guides by email based on the areas in which she feels the students need improvement in their writing. For example, if students need assistance in their use of English grammar, the *APA Editorial Style Hints* guide would be a useful resource for them. If students require assistance with reducing wordiness and avoiding repetition in their writing, then the *Clear, Concise and Direct Sentences* guide may help them when writing their papers. This writing guide includes how to use the active voice, which is preferred in academic writing.

The following writing resources are recommended for improving English grammar and composition:

1. Clear, Concise, and Direct Sentences
2. Directives for Essays, Reports, Tests
3. Writing and Editing Guidelines
4. APA Editorial Style Hints

In addition, further resources and guides for writing including how to format in APA style can be located on the IAU website under Student Services/Writing Center/Other Great Resources at the following link:

<https://iaula.edu/writing-center>.

How to Write Clear, Concise, and Direct Sentences

1. Unless you have a reason not to, use the active voice.

At the heart of every good sentence is a strong, precise verb; the converse is true as well--at the core of most confusing, awkward, or wordy sentences lies a weak verb.

Passive

- a. It is believed by the candidate that a ceiling must be placed on the budget by Congress.

Active

- b. The candidate believes that Congress must place a ceiling on the budget.

Passive

- c. It was earlier demonstrated that heart attacks can be caused by high stress.

Active

- d. Brown earlier showed that high stress can cause heart attacks.

There are sometimes good reasons to use the passive voice:

- To emphasize the action rather than the actor.
 - e. After long debate, the proposal was endorsed by the long-range planning committee.
- To keep the subject and focus consistent throughout a passage.
 - f. The data processing department recently presented what proved to be a controversial proposal to expand its staff. After a long debate, the proposal was endorsed by
- To be tactful by not naming the actor.
 - g. The procedures were somehow misinterpreted.
- To describe a condition in which the actor is unknown or unimportant.
 - h. Every year, thousands of people are diagnosed as having cancer.
- To create an authoritative tone.

- i. Visitors are not allowed after 9:00 p.m.

2. Put the action of the sentence in the verb. Don't bury it in a noun or blur it across the entire sentence. Watch out especially for nominalizations (verbs that have been made into nouns by the addition of *-tion*).

- a. An evaluation of the procedures needs to be done.
- b. The procedures need to be evaluated.
- c. We need to evaluate the procedures.
- d. The stability and quality of our financial performance will be developed through the profitable **execution** of our existing business, as well as the **acquisition** or **development** of new businesses.
- e. We will improve our financial performance not only by executing our existing business more profitably but by acquiring or developing new businesses.

3. Reduce wordy verbs.

- a. is aware, has knowledge of -----> knows
- b. is taking -----> takes
- c. are indications -----> indicate
- d. are suggestive -----> suggests

4. Use expletive constructions ("It is," "There is," "There are") sparingly.

- a. It was her last argument that finally persuaded me.
- b. Her last argument finally persuaded me.
There are likely to be many researchers raising questions about this methodological approach.
- c. Many researchers are likely to raise questions about this methodological approach.

5. Try to avoid using vague, all-purpose nouns, which often lead to wordiness.

--factor, aspect, area, situation, consideration, degree, case . . .

- a. Consumer demand is rising in the area of services.
- b. Consumer demand for services is rising.
- c. Consumers are demanding more services.

6. Unless your readers are familiar with your terminology, avoid writing strings of nouns (or noun strings!).

- a. patient program satisfaction
- b. student-professor relationship factors
- c. processing step change
- d. competitive cotto salami performance test
- e. program implementation process evaluation
MHS has a hospital employee relations improvement program.
- f. MHS has a program to improve employee relations.
- g. MHS has a program to improve relations among employees.

7. Eliminate unnecessary prepositional phrases.

- a. The opinion of the working group.
- b. The working group's opinion.
- c. The obvious effect of such a range of reference is to assure the audience of the author's range of learning and intellect.

8. Avoid unnecessarily inflated words.

<i>Instead of</i>	<i>Use</i>
cognizant of	aware of, know
facilitate	help
impact on	affect
implement	start, create, carry out, begin
subsequent to	after
utilize	use

9. Put wordy phrases on a diet.*

<i>Instead of</i>	<i>Use</i>
the reason for	
for the reason that	
due to the fact that	
owing to the fact that	because, since, why
considering the fact that	
on the grounds that	
this is why	
despite the fact that	
regardless of the fact that	although, even though
in the event that	
if it should transpire/happen that	
under circumstances in which	if

<i>Instead of</i>	<i>Use</i>
on the occasion of	
in a situation in which	when
under circumstances in which	
as regards	
in reference to	
with regard to	about
concerning the matter of	
where . . . is concerned	
it is crucial that	
it is necessary that	
there is a need/necessity	
it is important that	must, should
it is incumbent upon	

cannot be avoided

is able to
has the opportunity to
is in a position to
has the capacity for
has the ability to

can

it is possible that
there is a chance that
it could happen that
the possibility exists for

may, might, can, could

prior to
in anticipation of
subsequent to
following on
at the same time as
simultaneously with

before, after, as

*This list comes from Joseph Williams, *Style: Ten Lessons in Clarity and Grace*. 3rd ed. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1989.

Directives for Essays, Reports, Tests

"Directives" ask you to answer, or present information, in a particular way. Review these, and most of all note that there are different ways of answering a question or writing a paper!

Compare:

Examine qualities, or characteristics, to discover resemblances. "Compare" is usually stated as "compare with": you are to emphasize similarities, although differences may be mentioned.

Contrast:

Stress dissimilarities, differences, or unlikeness of things, qualities, events, or problems.

Criticize:

Express your judgment or correctness or merit. Discuss the limitations and good points or contributions of the plan or work in question.

Define:

Definitions call for concise, clear, authoritative meanings. Details are not required but limitations of the definition should be briefly cited. You must keep in mind the class to which a thing belongs and whatever differentiates the particular object from all others in the class.

Describe:

In a descriptive answer you should recount, characterize, sketch or relate in narrative form.

Diagram:

For a question which specifies a diagram you should present a drawing, chart, plan, or graphic representation in your answer. Generally you are expected to label the diagram and in some cases add a brief explanation or description.

Discuss:

The term discuss, which appears often in essay questions, directs you to examine, analyze carefully, and present considerations pro and con regarding the problems or items involved. This type of question calls for a complete and entailed answer.

Enumerate:

The word enumerate specifies a list or outline form of reply. In such questions you should recount, one by one, in concise form, the points required.

Evaluate:

In an evaluation question you are expected to present a careful appraisal of the problem stressing both advantages and limitations. Evaluation implies authoritative and, to a lesser degree, personal appraisal of both contributions and limitations.

Explain:

In explanatory answers it is imperative that you clarify and interpret the material you present. In such an answer it is best to state the "how or why," reconcile any differences in opinion or experimental results, and, where possible, state causes. The aim is to make plain the conditions which give rise to whatever you are examining.

Illustrate:

A question which asks you to illustrate usually requires you to explain or clarify your answer to the problem by presenting a figure, picture, diagram, or concrete example.

Interpret:

An interpretation question is similar to one requiring explanation. You are expected to translate, exemplify, solve, or comment upon the subject and usually to give your judgment or reaction to the problem.

Justify:

When you are instructed to justify your answer you must prove or show grounds for decisions. In such an answer, evidence should be presented in convincing form.

List:

Listing is similar to enumeration. You are expected in such questions to present an itemized series or tabulation. Such answers should always be given in concise form.

Outline:

An outline answer is an organized description. You should give main points and essential supplementary materials, omitting minor details, and present the information in a systematic arrangement or classification.

Prove:

A question which requires proof is one which demands confirmation or verification. In such discussions you should establish something with certainty by evaluating and citing experimental evidence or by logical reasoning.

Relate:

In a question which asks you to show the relationship or to relate, your answer should emphasize connections and associations in descriptive form.

Review:

A review specifies a critical examination. You should analyze and comment briefly in organized sequence upon the major points of the problem.

State:

In questions which direct you to specify, give, state, or present, you are called upon to express the high points in brief, clear narrative form. Details, and usually illustrations or examples, may be omitted.

Summarize:

When you are asked to summarize or present a summarization, you should give in condensed form the main points or facts. All details, illustrations and elaboration are to be omitted.

Trace:

When a question asks you to trace a course of events, you are to give a description of progress, historical sequence, or development from the point of origin. Such narratives may call for probing or for deduction.

Writing and Editing Guidelines

Avoid Vague Words

Effective writing is concise and precise. When composing and editing, think carefully about the meaning of each sentence in your essay. Does each word in the sentence contribute to the meaning you want to convey? Check your drafts for use of the following words and phrases and then remove them. Taking the time to check your use of these words will help you generate better developed, more thoughtful writing.

Thing: This all-purpose noun is a favorite of basic writers because it is convenient, familiar, and easy to fall back on. Rhetorically empty, the word *thing* conveys practically no meaning. Each time you find the word *thing*, try to be more specific. Choose a more precise word or words.

It: Basic writers often use this word as a free-floating substitute for thought. Check each *it* in your essay.

To convey meaning, each *it* used as a pronoun must be tied firmly to an antecedent. If there is no clear antecedent, rewrite the sentence.

Confusing: The professor explained the principle of photosynthesis, but *it* was difficult to follow.

Clear: The professor explained the principle of photosynthesis, but his explanation was difficult to follow.

Confusing: *It* will damage their credit rating if students default on credit card payments.

Clear: Students who default on their credit card payments will damage their credit rating.

Avoid vague and awkward constructions such as "In the article *it* says that rising interest rates will affect housing construction." Rewrite this type of sentence to be clear and specific: "According to a recent article in the Wall Street Journal, rising interest rates will affect housing construction."

This/that: These words can be either adjectives (this book, that movie) or pronouns (this is real; that is an imitation). Writers who use "this" and "that" as pronouns must be sure the antecedents are clear to the reader. An effective way to clarify meaning is to restate the intended antecedent.

Confusing: One plan is to close Harbor Hospital despite the current healthcare crisis. This needs further study.

Clear: One plan is to close Harbor Hospital despite the current healthcare crisis. This plan needs further study.

You: Use of the indefinite you-you meaning "anyone" or "people in general" --is ambiguous and misleading. Do not use the indefinite you in academic writing. When you find an indefinite you in your essay, stop. Think carefully about what you want to say; then substitute a specific noun or an indefinite pronoun such as one or someone. However, you is appropriate for addressing the reader directly.

I feel: "I feel" signals an emotional response. Although this phrase may be appropriate in personal writing, its use in business and academic writing is inappropriate; this phrase undermines your effectiveness. Business and academic readers expect information and compelling evidence.

I think/I believe: In business and academic writing, you express your beliefs and perspectives about a topic. The reader assumes that your writing reflects your thoughts and beliefs; therefore, the phrases "I think" and "I believe" are generally unnecessary because they are redundant.

APA Editorial Style Hints

Periods

End of sentence	Periods and most sentences.
Initials with an author's name.	C. S. Lewis
Reference-list abbreviations	Ed. Vol.6, pp. 34-38, Rev.ed.
After figures captions	<i>Figure 3.</i> Students use of computers
Latin abbreviations	i.e., e.g.,
Abbreviation for inch	In. (distinct from preposition <i>in</i>)
Decimal points in fractions	2.45 ml 33.5 lb

Commas

Three or more items in a series	men, women, and children
---------------------------------	--------------------------

Set off non-essential information	The room, which was well lighted, was on the south corridor.
Clauses of compound sentence	The first survey was a failure, but the second one was a success.
Years with exact dates	May 25, 2009, the experiment began However not used: May 2009, the experiment began
Years within in-text citations	(Armstrong, 2010) (Jones, 1999)
Numbers of 1,000 or larger	11,205 students 1,987 books

Semicolons

Join clauses of a compound sentence when no coordinating conjunction is used	Males responded positively; females responded negatively.
Separate elements in an series when the elements contain commas	The test groups were from Fresno, California; St. Louis, Missouri; and Raleigh, North Carolina.
Set off citations in in-text citations	acceptable in theory (Brown, 2010; Jones, 2009).

Colons

Introduces a phrase that serves as an explanation or illustration	Two words triggered the strongest reactions: <i>preferential</i> and <i>special</i> .
Introduce a sentence that serves as an illustration or explanation (the first word of the clarifying sentence is capitalized)	The results were quickly summarized: The experiment was a failure.
Separate elements in a ratio	The ratio was 3:10
Separate the place of publication and publisher in a reference list entry	Jones, R. (2010). <i>The day is done</i> . New York: Harper
Separate the numbered section and page number in a newspaper in a reference-list entry	Garcia, J. (2007, September 16). When health care does more harm than good. <i>The Chicago Tribune</i> , p. 1:18.

Dashes

Indicate a break in the thought of a sentence	The national heritage of participants—they identified themselves—proved less important than researchers anticipated.
Insert a series of elements that contain commas	Universities in two small cities—Terre Haute, Indiana, and

	Bloomington, Illinois-offer similar programs.
--	---

Hyphens

A compound that functions as an adjective	high-risk behaviors time-sensitive work all-or-nothing day-by-day
A compound with a number that functions as an adjective	two-part explanation sixth-grade teacher 50-work paragraph
A compound using the prefix <i>self-</i>	self-help books self-inflicted injuries self-imposed limitations
A compound that could be misread	re-form (“form again” not “change”) re-mark (“mark again not “comment”) re-count (“count again not “count again”)
A compound using a prefix when the base word is capitalized	anti-American sentiment pseudo-Freudian interpretations post-Depression regulations
A compound using prefix when the base word is a number	pre-1960s complacency post-2005 requirements
A compound using a prefix when the base word is more than one word	non-user-friendly manual anti-off-site testing non-peer-reviewed article
A fraction used as an adjective	three-fourths majority
A prefix that ends with the first letter of the base word (except e)	anti-inflammatory drug post-traumatic stress <i>but</i> preexisting condition

No Hyphen (Special Cases)

A compound with an adverb ending in <i>-ly</i>	newly designed test recently certified teacher uncharacteristically exaggerated statement
A compound with a comparative or superlative adjective	less capable practitioner clearer written instructions most egregious error
A foreign phrase used as a modifier	ad hoc committee a priori reasoning

	laissez faire attitude
A common fraction used as a noun	two thirds of students one half of the sample one quarter of the residents

Quotation Marks

Titles of chapters, articles, songs, sub-sites of websites, and so on (quotation marks are used in the text only; reference list entries <i>do not</i> use quotation marks)	"The High Risk Child" (chapter) "Grant vs. Grant" (article) "My Vietnam" (song) "Adlerian Web Links" (sub-site)
Quoted material (written or spoken) of fewer than 40 words when used word for word	Duncan (2008) asserted, "Normative behavior is difficult to define because community standards apply" (p. 34).
Words used counter to their meaning (irony, slang, or coined usage)	Her "abnormal" behavior was, in fact, quite normal.

Parentheses

Set off clarifying information	We provided parents with four samples (see Figures 1-4).
Set off publication dates in the text	Wagner (2003) noted that special-needs students responded well to the protocol.
Set off parenthetical references within the text; they must correspond to entries in the references list	were repeat offenders (Smith & Brown, 2013).
Set off page references that follow direct quotations	Rodriquez (2009) noted "Self-concept is an intangible quality among immigrant children" (p 43).
Introduce an abbreviation to be used in place of a full name in subsequent sections of the paper	The American Psychological Association (APA) has developed a manual for writers and updates it every five years.
Set off letters that indicate divisions or sequences within paragraphs	The test included sections on (a) vocabulary, (b) reading comprehension, and (c) inferences.

Brackets

Clarifying information in a quotation	Thompson (2006) observed, "When [students] work in groups, they perform better" (p. 11). <i>Used to replace "they" in the original text</i>
Parenthetical information in a reference-list entry	<i>Eternal sunshine of the spotless mind</i> [Motion picture]

Slashes

Hyphenated compounds in alternatives	first-day/second-day
Fractions (numerator/denominator)	3/4 X + Y/Z
Represents <i>per</i> in units with numerical value	0.07 ml/L
Separate dual publication dates for printed work	Palmer (1995/2003)

Capitalization

Proper nouns and proper adjectives	Jean Piaget Chinese students Elizabethan drama
Specific departments, offices, positions	he went to the Human Relations office Vice President of Operations called him to Department of Engineering Criminology 401
Trade and brand names	Prozac® Xerox® Word®
Specific titles for parts of books	"The Middle-Child Syndrome"
Formal title of tests	Scholastic Aptitude Test
Table titles: Use headline-style capitalization	<i>Grade Ranges of Remedial Students</i>
First word of a sentence that follows a colon	One challenge could not be met: The cost of the test was too great.

No Capitalization

Figure captions: Use sentence-style capitalization	<i>Figure 2.</i> Percentages of international students by country of origin.
General references to departments, sections	a number of departments of operations a mathematics course he was elected to a city council in Arizona she reports to a vice president in the firm
Generic or scientific names of drugs or ingredients	fluoxetine hydrochloride
General names of laws or theories	the empirical law of effect specifies the theory of relativity was astounding

Common parts of tables	page iv, column 2, row 6
General titles of tests	an achievement test was given an intelligence test indicates

Italics

Titles of full-length works: periodicals, books, motion pictures, CDs, websites, etc.	<i>Journal of Management</i> (journal) <i>Wordplay and Fun</i> (book) <i>A Beautiful Mind</i> (motion picture) <i>Back to Back</i> (CD) <i>The Victorian Web</i> (website)
New terms when introduced and define: thereafter, presented without italics	The term <i>Nisei</i> , meaning second-generation Japanese American.
Words, letters, or phrases used as words, letters, or phrases	Different impressions are created by the words <i>small</i> , <i>diminutive</i> , <i>minute</i> , and <i>tiny</i> .
Foreign words whose meaning is not commonly known	he said <i>sayonara</i> when he left she gave him a big <i>abrazo</i> when he arrived <i>audentes fortuna juvat</i> was the byword of the
Words that could be misread	<i>more</i> specific detail (meaning additional detail that is specified)
Titles of tables	<i>Factors That Influence School Choice</i>
Volume numbers for periodicals in reference list	<i>Journal of Management</i> , 145(5), 45-67. <i>Opinions & References</i> , 136, 67-69 .
Anchors for scales	Satisfaction ratings ranged from 1 (<i>very satisfied</i>) to 10 (<i>very dissatisfied</i>).

Use of Numbers (Spelled Out)

Numbers 10 or less are spelled out	He was there for four days. two experimental models three lists one-topic discussion there were two boys in the car
Zero and one (when confusion is likely)	zero-percent increase (0% increase) one-unit design
Numbers that begin sentences	Sixteen authors contributed to the collection. Thirteen people attended.
Numbers that begin titles	"Twelve Common Errors in Research" <i>Seven-Point Scales: Values and Limitations</i>
Numbers in common fractions	two thirds of teachers

	a reduction of three fourths
Zero and one (when confusion is likely)	zero-percent increase (0% increase) one-unit design
Numbers in common names and phrases	the Seven Deadly Sins : The Ten Commandments

Numbers

Numbers smaller than 10 when compared to numbers larger than 10	the 4th chapter of 20 2 of 30 research subjects 13 sources: 10 articles, 3 books
Numbers used statistically or mathematically	7.5 of respondents a ratio of 5:2 9% of the sample The 3rd percentile
Numbers that represent time	6 years, 5 months 1 week, 3 hr., 15 min., 7:15 p.m.
Numbers representing dates	April 1, 2009 November 2006
Numbers representing age	4-year-olds students who are 8 years old
Numbers that refer to the number of participants	7 participants 4 rhesus monkeys
Numbers that refer to points or scores on a scale	score of 6.5 on an 8-point scale
Numbers for exact sums of money	A test costing \$4.25 a \$5
Numbers used as numbers	a scale ranging from 1 to 5
Numbers that indicate placement in a series	Exam 4, Figure 9
Numbers for parts of a book	Chapter 2, page 6
Numbers in a list of four or more numbers	The sample was composed of workgroups with 2, 4, 6, and 8 members

No Commas in Numbers

Page numbers	page 1287 pages 1002-1021 (p. 2345)
Degrees of temperature	2044°F

Serial numbers	97846537
Binary digits	0110100101
Numbers to the right of a decimal	2.65746
Designations of acoustical frequency	1000Hz
Degrees of freedom	$F(31,1000)$

GLOSSARY OF USAGE

The following glossary includes words commonly confused, words commonly misused, and words that are nonstandard. It also lists colloquialisms that may be appropriate in normal speech but are considered inappropriate in formal writing.

a, an - Use *an* before a vowel sound, *a* before a consonant sound: *an apple, a peach*. In words beginning with *h*, if the *h* is silent, the word begins with a vowel sound: *an hour, an honorable deed*. If the *h* is pronounced, the word begins with a consonant sound: *a hospital, a hymn, a hotel*.

accept, except - *Accept* is a verb meaning “to receive.” *Except* is usually a preposition meaning “excluding”: *I will accept all the packages except that one.* *Except* is also a verb meaning “to exclude”: *Please except that item from the list.*

advice, advise - *Advice* is a noun, *advise* a verb: *We advise you to follow John’s advice.*

affect, effect - *Affect* is usually a verb meaning “to influence.” *Effect* is usually a noun meaning “result”: *The drug did not affect the disease, and it had several adverse side effects.* *Effect* can also be a verb meaning “to bring about:” *Only the president can effect such a dramatic change.*

all ready, already - *All ready* means “completely prepared.” *Already* means “previously”: *Susan was all ready for the concert, but her friends had already left.*

all right - *All right* is always written as two words. *Alright* is nonstandard.

all together, altogether - *All together* means “everyone gathered.” *Altogether* means “entirely”: *We were not altogether certain that we bring all the family all together for the reunion.*

allusion, illusion - An *allusion* is an indirect reference; an *illusion* is a misconception or false impression: *Did you catch my allusion to Shakespeare? Mirrors give the room an illusion of space.*

a lot - *A lot* is two words. Do not write *alot*.

among, between - Ordinarily, use *among* with three or more entities, *between* with two. *The prize was divided among several contestants. You have a choice between carrots and beans.*

amount, number - Use *amount* with quantities that cannot be counted; use *number* with those that can: *This recipe calls for a large amount of sugar. We have a large number of toads in the yard.*

and/or - Avoid *and/or* except in technical or legal documents.

anxious - *Anxious* means “worried” or “apprehensive.” In formal writing, avoid using *anxious* to mean “eager”: *We are eager (not anxious) to see your new house.*

anyone, any one - *Anyone*, an indefinite pronoun, means “any person at all.” *Any one* refers to a particular person or thing in a group: *Anyone from Chicago may choose any one of the games on display.*

anyways, anywheres - *Anyways* and *anywheres* are nonstandard and are to be avoided.

awful, awfully - The adjective *awful* means “awe-inspiring.” Colloquially it is used to mean “terrible” or “bad.” The adverb *awfully* is sometimes used in conversation as an intensifier meaning “very.” In formal writing, avoid these colloquial uses: *I was very (not awfully) upset last night.*

awhile, a while - *Awhile* is an adverb; it can modify a verb, but it cannot be the object of a preposition such as *for*. The two-word form *a while* is a noun preceded by an article and therefore can be the object of a preposition. *Stay awhile. Stay for a while.*

bad, badly - *Bad* is an adjective, *badly* is an adverb: *They felt bad about being early and ruining the surprise. Her arm hurt badly after she slid into second base.*

being as, being that - *Being as* and *being that* are nonstandard expressions. Write *because* or *since* instead.

beside, besides - *Beside* is a preposition meaning “at the side of” or “next to”: *Wild Bill Hickok slept with his gun beside his bed. Besides* is a preposition meaning “except” or “in addition to”: *No one besides Terry can have that ice cream. Besides* is also an adverb meaning “in addition”: *I’m not hungry; besides I don’t like ice cream.*

burst, bursted; bust, busted - *Burst* is an irregular verb meaning “to come open or fly apart suddenly or violently.” The past-tense form *bursted* is nonstandard. *Bust* and *busted* are slang for *burst*, and along with *bursted*, should be avoided and not used in formal writing.

can, may - *Can* is traditionally reserved for ability, *may* for permission. *Can you ski down the advanced slope without falling? May I help you?*

capital, capitol - *Capital* refers to a city, *capitol* to a building where lawmakers meet. *The residents of the state capital protested the development plans in front of the capitol. Capital* also refers to wealth, funds, or resources.

cite, site - *Cite* means “to quote as an authority or example.” *Site* is usually a noun meaning “a particular place”: *He cited the zoning law in his argument against the proposed site of the gas station. When referring to the Internet, use website instead of site.*

continual, continuous - *Continual* means “repeated regularly and frequently”: *She grew weary of the continual telephone calls. Continuous* means “extended or prolonged without interruption”: *The broken siren made a continuous wail.*

could care less - *Could care less* is a nonstandard expression and should be avoided.

could of - *Could of* is nonstandard for *could have* and should be avoided.

criteria - *Criteria* is the plural for *criterion*, which means “a standard, rule, or test on which a judgment or decision can be based”: *The only criterion for the job is a willingness to work overtime.*

data - *Data* is the plural of *datum*, which means “a fact or proposition.” Many writers now treat *data* as singular or plural depending on the meaning in a sentence. Some experts insist, however, that *data* can only be plural: *The new data suggest (not suggests) that our theory is correct. The singular form datum is rarely used.*

double negative - Standard English allows two negatives only if a positive meaning is intended: *The runners were not unhappy with their performance.* Double negatives used to emphasize negation are nonstandard: *Jack does not have to answer to anybody (not nobody).*

due to - *Due to* is an adjective phrase and should not be used as a preposition meaning “because of”: *The trip was canceled because of (not due to) lack of interest.* *Due to* is acceptable as a subject complement and usually follows a form of the verb *to be*: *His success was due to hard work.*

etc. - Avoid ending a list with *etc.* It is more emphatic to end with an example, and in most contexts readers will understand that the list is not exhaustive. When you do not wish to end with an example, *and so on* is more graceful than *etc.*

farther, further - *Farther* describes distances: *Detroit is farther from Miami than I thought.* *Further* suggests quantity or degree: *You extended the curfew further than you should have.*

fewer, less - *Fewer* refers to items that can be counted; *less* refers to general amounts: *Fewer people are living in the city. Please put less sugar in my coffee.*

good, well - *Good* is an adjective, *well* an adverb: *He hasn't felt good about his game since he sprained his wrist last season. She performed well on the uneven parallel bars.*

hardly - Avoid expressions such as *can't hardly* and *not hardly*, which are considered double negatives: *I can (not can't) hardly describe my elation at getting the job.*

he - At one time *he* was used to mean “he or she.” Today such usage is inappropriate. Use *he/she* as an alternative or alternate use of “he” and “she” in the text.

hopefully - *Hopefully* means “in a hopeful manner”: *We looked hopefully to the future.* Do not use *hopefully* in constructions such as: *Hopefully, your daughter will recover soon.* Indicate who is doing the hoping: *I hope that your daughter will recover soon.*

I - *I* and other personal pronouns such as “you,” “we,” and “us” should be avoided. In formal academic writing the third person is used. Also avoid possessive pronouns like “his,” “hers,” “yours,” and “ours.” This does not apply to direct quotes.

impact - *Impact* is commonly used as a noun. Avoid using the expression “impact on” as a verb: *The legislation had an impact on (not impacted on) our company's policies.*

imply, infer - *Imply* means “to suggest or state indirectly”; *infer* means “to draw a conclusion”: *John implied that he knew all about computers, but the interviewer inferred that John was inexperienced.*

in regards to - *In regards to* confuses two different phrases: *in regard to* and *as regards*. Use one or the other: *In regard to (or as regards) the contract, ignore the first clause.*

irregardless - *Irregardless* is nonstandard. Use *regardless*.

its, it's - *Its* is a possessive pronoun; *it's* is a contraction for *it is*: *The dog licked its wound whenever its owner walked into the room. It's a perfect day to walk the trail.*

kind of, sort of - Avoid using *kind of* or *sort of* to mean “somewhat”: *The movie was a little (not kind of) boring.* Do not put “a” after either phrase: *That kind of (not kind of a) salesclerk annoys me.*

liable - *Liable* means “obligated” or “responsible.” Do not use it to mean “likely”: *You’re likely (not liable) to trip if you don’t tie your shoelaces.*

lie, lay - *Lie* is an intransitive verb meaning “to recline or rest on a surface.” Its forms are *lie, lay, lain, lying, and lies.* *Lay* is a transitive verb meaning “to put into place.” Its forms are *lay, laid, laying, and lays.*

like, as - *Like* is a preposition, not a subordinating conjunction. It should be followed only by a noun or a noun phrase. *As* is a subordinating conjunction that introduces a subordinate clause. In casual speech you may say: *She looks like she hasn’t slept* or *You don’t know her like I do.* But in formal writing, use “as”: *She looks as if she hasn’t slept. You don’t know her as I do.*

maybe, may be - *Maybe* is an adverb meaning “possibly”; *may be* is a verb phrase: *Maybe the sun will shine tomorrow. Tomorrow may be a brighter day.*

may of, might of - *May of* and *might of* are nonstandard for *may have* and *might have.* They should be avoided.

of - Use the verb *have*, not the proposition *of*, after the verbs *could, should would, may, might* and *must*: *They must have (not must of) left early.*

plus - *Plus* should not be used to join independent clauses: *This raincoat is dirty; moreover (not plus), it has a hole in it.*

precede, proceed - *Precede* means “to come before.” *Proceed* means “to go forwards”: *As we proceeded up the mountain, we noticed fresh tracks in the mud, evidence that a group of hikers preceded us.*

principal, principle - *Principal* is a noun meaning “the head of a school or organization” or “a sum of money.” It is also an adjective meaning “most important.” *Principle* is a noun meaning “a basic truth or law”: *The principal expelled her for three principal reasons. We believe in the principle of equal justice for all.*

reason is because - Use *that* instead of *because*: *The reason I’m late is that (not because) my car broke down.*

reason why - The expression *reason why* is redundant: *The reason (not The reason why) Morris lost the election is clear.*

should of - *Should of* is nonstandard for *should have.*

since - Do not use *since* to mean “because” if there is any chance of ambiguity: *Because (not Since) we won the game, we have been celebrating with a pitcher of beer.* *Since* here could mean “because” or “from the time that.”

there, their, they’re - *There* is an adverb specifying place; it is also an expletive. Adverb: *Sylvia is lying there unconscious.* Expletive: *There are two plums left.* *Their* is a possessive pronoun: *Fred and June finally washed their car.* *They’re* is a contraction of *they are*: *Surprisingly, they’re late today.*

toward, towards - *Toward* and *towards* are generally interchangeable, although *toward* is preferable.

try and, try to - *Try and* is nonstandard for *try to.*

use to, suppose to - *Use to and suppose to are nonstandard for used to and supposed to.*

who, which, that - Use *who*, not *which*, to refer to persons. Generally, use *that* to refer to things or, occasionally, to a group or class of people: *Fans wondered how an old man who (not that or which) walked with a limp could play football. The team that scores the most points in this game will win the tournament.*

BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

Benjamin Bloom created this taxonomy for categorizing the level of abstraction of questions that commonly occur in educational settings. *Source: Bloom, B.S. (1984). Taxonomy of educational objectives. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon*

Competence	Skills Demonstrated – Bloom's Taxonomy
Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● observation and recall of information ● knowledge of dates, events, places ● knowledge of major ideas ● mastery of subject matter ● <i>Question Cues:</i> list, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, tabulate, quote, name, who, when, where, etc.
Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● understanding information ● grasp meaning ● translate knowledge into new context ● interpret facts, compare, contrast ● order, group, infer causes ● predict consequences ● <i>Question Cues:</i> summarize, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, differentiate, discuss, extend
Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● use information ● use methods, concepts, theories in new situations ● solve problems using required skills or knowledge ● <i>Questions Cues:</i> apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment, discover
Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● seeing patterns ● organization of parts ● recognition of hidden meanings ● identification of components ● <i>Question Cues:</i> analyze, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer
Synthesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● use old ideas to create new ones ● generalize from given facts ● relate knowledge from several areas ● predict, draw conclusions ● <i>Question Cues:</i> combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, what if?, compose, formulate, prepare, generalize, rewrite
Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● compare and discriminate between ideas ● assess value of theories, presentations ● make choices based on reasoned argument ● verify value of evidence ● recognize subjectivity ● <i>Question Cues:</i> assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare, summarize