

Oxford Academy Style Guide



**Successful Strategies
For Writing
Research Projects**

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Preface

The purpose of this style guide is to help you with your research projects. Developing research skills is an important way to use and process information. Whether in school, work, or for personal gain, you will use research skills in a variety of ways throughout your life.

Although there are many different types of citation formats, this book includes information and style guide examples for MLA (Modern Language Association) and APA (American Psychological Association) research projects. While the MLA format is generally used for humanities related subjects, APA is used for research in the social sciences. APA is often used across the disciplines. **Make sure to ask your instructor which style guide he/she requires.**

Reference Collection

A **Reference Collection** is a selection of sources that will help you understand the broader context of your research and tell you in general terms what is known about your topic. These sources will give you an idea of what kind of information is available.

Reference Collections contain many sources of information, such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, almanacs, directories or statistical compilations.

Here are some examples of **Reference** materials:

[The World Book Encyclopedia](#)

[The World Book Encyclopedia Online](#)

[The Encyclopedia Americana](#)

[Webster's Dictionary](#)

[The World Almanac and Book of Facts](#)

[Statistical Abstract of the United States](#)

[Countries and Their Cultures](#)

[The Gale Encyclopedia of Science](#)

[Contemporary Authors](#)

[Authors and Artists for Young Adults](#)

Definitions of Important Terms

Attribution

The acknowledgement that something came from another source.

The following sentence properly *attributes* an idea to its original author: Jack Bauer, in his article “Twenty-Four Reasons not to Plagiarize,” maintains that cases of plagiarists being expelled by academic institutions have risen dramatically in recent years due to an increasing awareness on the part of educators.

Bibliography/Annotated Bibliography

While a works cited list refers to only the sources directly referred to in a paper, a **bibliography** is a list of books which were consulted or which are recommended for further reading.

An **annotated bibliography** lists all of the sources consulted in the research process and gives a brief summary of each, discussing the subject of the source and its usefulness to the topic.

Citation

- 1) A short, formal indication of the source of information or quoted material.
- 2) The material quoted.

Cite

- 1) to indicate a source of information or quoted material in a short, formal note.
- 2) to quote
- 3) to ascribe something to a source

Common Knowledge

Information that is readily available from a number of sources, or so well-known that its sources do not have to be cited. For example, the fact that carrots are a source of Vitamin A is common knowledge, and you could include this information in your work without attributing it to a source. However, any information regarding the effects of Vitamin A on the human body are likely to be the products of original research and would have to be cited.

Copyright

A law protecting the intellectual property of individuals, giving them exclusive rights over the distribution and reproduction of that material.

Endnotes

Notes at the end of a paper acknowledging sources and providing additional references or information.

Facts

Knowledge or information based on real, observable occurrences. Just because something is a fact does **not** mean it is not the result of original thought, analysis, or research. Facts can be considered intellectual property as well. If you discover a fact

that is not widely known nor readily found in several other places, you should cite the source.

Footnotes

Notes at the bottom of a paper acknowledging sources or providing additional references or information.

Fair Use

The guidelines for deciding whether the use of a source is permissible or constitutes a copyright infringement.

Index/Database

- 1) An **index** is any sequenced ordering of information.
- 2) A **database** is a computerized sequential ordering of information.

Intellectual Property

A product of the intellect, such as an expressed idea or concept, that has commercial value .

Notation

The form of a citation; the system by which one refers to cited sources.

Original

- 1) Not derived from anything else; new and unique
- 2) Markedly departing from previous practice
- 3) The first, preceding all others in time
- 4) The source from which copies are made

Paraphrase

A restatement of a text or passage using other words. It is **extremely important** to note that changing a few words from an original source does NOT qualify as paraphrasing. A paraphrase must make **significant** changes in the **style** and **voice** of the original *while retaining the essential ideas*. **If you change the ideas, then you are not paraphrasing** – you are misrepresenting the ideas of the original, which could lead to serious trouble.

Peer Review

Allows students to review the work of their peers. This gives students a chance to build critical skills while helping them to see the strengths and weaknesses of their own writing.

Plagiarism

The reproduction or appropriation of someone else's work without proper attribution; stealing someone's work or ideas and passing them off as one's own.

Primary and Secondary Sources

A **primary source** is firsthand original information: a letter, an autobiography, or an interview with a person who participated in an experience being researched, a work of literature, or a historical document.

A **secondary source** is information derived from, or about, a primary source and even from other secondary sources: an encyclopedia, a documentary film, a biography, history books, or an interview with an historian.

Proofreading

When you proofread a piece of writing, you are basically making one last examination of your piece in order to catch and correct any remaining errors. When you proofread, look for errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.

The following techniques may help you proofread:

- 1) Focus on one line at a time and try starting from the line of your piece.
- 2) Exchange your paper with a classmate.
- 3) Read your paper aloud or ask a classmate to read it aloud.
- 4) When in doubt, look up spelling and grammar rules in dictionaries and handbooks.

Public Domain

The absence of copyright protection; belonging to the public so that anyone may copy or borrow from it. Material from public domain must still be cited.

Quotation

Using words from another source for the purpose of supporting or illustrating an idea. A quotation is worded exactly as the original source and punctuated with quotation marks.

References (APA)

A reference page lists all of the works that you have referred to specifically in the writing of your paper. All sources must appear in alphabetical order by the author's last name and each entry should be formatted according to APA style. A references page should appear as the last page of your research paper.

Authoritative Source

An authoritative source is credible or trustworthy and comes from one who is an expert on the topic you are researching or from a respected publication.

An authoritative source must be up-to-date and should present an unbiased viewpoint on a topic. If the source seems biased in some way, you should consider why the author is attempting to convey a certain side of an issue.

All sources can be evaluated by considering whether they are:

- 1) **Relevant**-Is the information provided in the source related to your topic?
- 2) **Reliable**-Can you trust the source? Does it come from a respected scholar or publication?
- 3) **Recent**-Be sure that the source is not outdated. Look for the most recent data available.
- 4) **Representative**-Be sure that you consider both sides of controversial topics.

Thesis Statement

The thesis statement is a sentence (or sentences) that declares the main idea or purpose of a research paper. It should refer to the topic of your paper as well as what you wish to say about that topic. The thesis statement should appear in your introduction and act as a guidepost for the remainder of the paper. It is a point to be proven.

Works Cited (MLA)

A works cited page lists all of the works that you have referred to specifically in the writing of your paper. All sources must appear in alphabetical order by the author's last name and each entry should be formatted according to MLA style. A works cited page should appear as the last page of your research paper.

Successful Strategies for Research Projects

Identify and develop your topic in question form.

Ex. What effects does the whale shark's environment have on its life span?

Find sources.

- **First**, find sources from reference books.
- **Second**, refer to subject books. Use bibliographies to find other sources.
- **Third**, use Ebsco, Proquest, First Search and/or Newsbank for periodicals.
- **Last**, use Internet, audio, and video sources for information.

Cite what you find. Keep a written record of your sources.

Evaluate what you find.

- If you have too few sources, broaden your topic.
- If you have too many sources, narrow your topic.
- Check your sources are authoritative (see page 6).

Write your working thesis. A working thesis is one that may change as your research continues.

Ex. The whale shark's existence is threatened due to its present environment.

Take notes. You may use index cards, graphic organizers, or formal or informal outlines to form subtopics and gather information. Check with your teacher for preferences.

Organize for writing.

- Organize your notes.
- Check to see if your notes support your thesis.
- Develop an outline if required.

Type the rough draft.

- Be sure to use parenthetical references for quotations.
- Do not plagiarize.

Revise and type the final copy.

- Make sure you hand in any Internet articles used.

About Authoritative Sources

Ask yourself this question before using a source:

What *kind* of source am I using?

Evaluate your source – Remember the 4 Rs:

RELEVANT	Does it link to your topic?
RELIABLE	Can you trust the source?
RECENT	Is it up to date?
REPRESENTATIVE	Does it show a balanced view of the topic?

Authoritative sources are those that you can trust and whose information is reliable and agreed upon by many experts in the field.

- Make sure it is believable
- Make sure you the person who wrote the information is NOT crazy or developing a website to try to win people over to his/her own way of thinking
- Make sure the person who wrote the article is a recognized expert in the field
- Make sure the article represents scholarship or even personal experience
- Make sure you or your teacher has heard of the organization that made this information possible
- Beware of source designed to spread information, convince people to pick one side, donate money or join a movement.

WHEN IN DOUBT, ASK YOUR MEDIA SPECIALIST OR TEACHER.

What is Plagiarism?

Many people think of plagiarism as copying another's work, or borrowing someone else's original ideas, but terms like "copying" and "borrowing" can disguise the seriousness of the offense:

According to the *Merriam-Webster OnLine Dictionary*, to "plagiarize" means

- 1) to steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one's own
- 2) to use (another's production) without crediting the source
- 3) to commit literary theft
- 4) to present as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source.

In other words, plagiarism is an act of *fraud*. It involves both **stealing** someone else's work and **lying** about it afterward.

Can words and ideas really be stolen?

According to U.S. law, the answer is **yes**. In the United States and many other countries, the expression of original ideas is considered intellectual property, and is protected by copyright laws, just like original inventions. Almost all forms of expression fall under copyright protection as long as they are recorded in some media (such as a book or a computer file).

All of the following are considered plagiarism:

- turning in someone else's work as your own.
- copying words or ideas from someone else without giving credit.
- failing to put a quotation in quotation marks.
- giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation.
- changing words but copying the sentence structure of a source without giving credit.
- copying so many words or ideas from a source that it makes up the majority of your work, whether you give credit or not (see copyrighting and fair use rules)
- cutting and pasting: This type of plagiarism involves copying large chunks of text from one or more original sources and inserting it into the assignment.

Attention! **Changing the words of an original source is *not* sufficient to prevent plagiarism.** If you have retained the essential idea of an original source, and have not cited it, then no matter how drastically you may have altered its context or presentation, *you have still plagiarized*. Most cases of plagiarism can be avoided, however, by citing sources. Simply acknowledging that certain material has been borrowed, and providing your audience with the information necessary to find that source, is usually enough to prevent plagiarism.

But can't I use material if I cite the source?

You are allowed to borrow ideas or phrases from other sources provided you **cite them properly** and your usage is consistent with the guidelines set by fair use laws. As a rule, however, you should be careful about borrowing too liberally – if the case can be made that your work consists predominantly of someone else's words or ideas, you may still be susceptible to charges of plagiarism.

Do I have to cite sources for every fact I use?

No. You do not have to cite sources for facts that are not the result of unique individual research. Facts that are readily available from numerous sources and generally known to the public are considered "common knowledge," and are not protected by copyright laws. You can use these facts liberally in your paper without citing authors. If you are unsure whether or not a fact is common knowledge, you should probably cite your source just to be safe.

Example of plagiarism:

The following excerpt has been taken from a research paper on the issue of home schooling.

Home schooling is the attempt to gain an education outside of institutions. Those who home school for religious reasons account for 90 percent of all home-schoolers. This group is made up predominantly of Christian fundamentalists but also includes Buddhists, Jews, and Muslims.

Corrected passage:

David Gutterson, a high-school teacher whose own children are home schooled, defines home schooling as "the attempt to gain an education outside of institutions" (5). Those who home school their children for religious reasons, account for 90 percent of all home schoolers, according to the Home School Legal Defense Association and the National Association of State Boards of Education (Kohn 22). This group is made up predominantly of Christian fundamentalists but also includes Buddhists, Jews, and Muslims, explained author Alfie Kohn.

General Process

Choosing a Topic or Thesis

Working thesis

In order to guide your work, you should have a working thesis as you develop your essay.
Later you will revise it into a finished thesis statement.

The working thesis has two parts: **a topic part** and a **comment part**.
The **topic part** to the right of the slash mark states the topic of the paper.
The **comment part** to the left of the slash mark makes an important point about the topic.

Topic

Comment

Recent studies of depression / suggest that it is much more closely related to physiology than scientists had previously thought.

The current American farm crisis / can be traced to three major causes.

A successful working thesis has three characteristics:

- It should be potentially interesting to your intended audience.
- In its language, it should be as specific as possible.
- It must limit and focus a topic enough to make it manageable.

Inadequate working thesis:

The theory of "nuclear winter" is being debated around the globe.

Adequate working thesis:

Scientists from several countries have challenged the "nuclear winter" theory and claimed that it is more propaganda than science.

Developing an explicit thesis

An explicit proposition forces you to articulate all your major lines of argument and to see how those arguments carry out your purpose and appeal to your audience. Somehow, organize your thoughts by asking yourself the following:

In this research project, I plan to (explain, argue, demonstrate, analyze, and so on) that _____ because

(1) _____, (2) _____, and

(3) _____.

Writing a Thesis Statement

from Owl Online Writing Lab, Purdue University

A thesis statement is a sentence (or sentences) that expresses the main ideas of your paper and answers the question or questions posed by your paper. It offers your readers a quick and easy-to-follow summary of what the paper will be discussing and what you, as a writer, are setting out to tell them. The kind of thesis that your paper will have will depend on the purpose of your writing.

General Thesis Statement Tips

- A thesis statement generally consists of two parts: your topic, and then the analysis, explanation(s), or assertion(s) that you're making about the topic. The kind of thesis statement you write will depend on what kind of paper you're writing.
- You can think of your thesis as a map or a guide both for yourself and your audience, so it might be helpful to draw a chart or picture of your ideas and how they're connected to help you get started.
- In some kinds of writing, such as narratives or descriptions, a thesis statement is less important, but you may still want to provide some kind of statement in your first paragraph that helps to guide your reader through your paper.
- A thesis statement is a very **specific** statement -- it should cover only what you want to discuss in your paper, and be supported with specific evidence. The scope of your paper will be determined by the length of your paper and any other requirements that might be in place.
- **Generally, a thesis statement appears at the end of the first paragraph of an essay, so that readers will have a clear idea of what to expect as they read.**
- As you write and revise your paper, it's okay to change your thesis statement -- sometimes you don't discover what you really want to say about a topic until you've started (or finished) writing! Just make sure that your "final" thesis statement accurately shows what will happen in your paper.
- Questions you should be asking yourself as you formulate a thesis statement:
 - What am I trying to explain?
 - How can I categorize my explanation into different parts?
 - In what order should I present the different parts of my explanation?

Thesis Statement Examples

Example of an **analytical** (breaking down and evaluating) thesis statement:

An analysis of the college admission process reveals two principle problems facing counselors: accepting students with high test scores or students with strong extracurricular backgrounds.

- Questions to ask yourself when writing an **analytical** thesis statement:
 - What did I analyze?
 - What did I discover in my analysis?
 - How can I categorize my discoveries?
- The paper that follows should:
 - Explain the analysis of the college admission process.
 - Explain the two problems facing admissions counselors.

Example of an **expository** (explanatory) thesis statement:

The lifestyles of barn owls include hunting for insects and animals, building nests and raising their young.

- An **expository** thesis statement will tell your audience:
 - What you are going to explain to them
 - The way you are organizing your explanation
 - The order in which you present your categories
- Questions to ask yourself when writing an **expository** thesis statement:
 - What am I trying to explain?
 - How can I categorize my explanation into different parts?
 - In what order should I present the different parts of my explanation?
- The paper that follows should explain how:
 - Barn owls hunt for insects, build nests and raise young.

Example of an **argumentative** (persuasive) thesis statement:

- High school graduates should be required to take a year off to pursue community service projects before entering college in order to increase their maturity and global awareness.
- The paper that follows should present an argument and give evidence to support the claim that students should pursue community projects before college.
- Questions to ask yourself when writing an **argumentative** thesis statement:
 - What is my claim or assertion?
 - What are the reasons I have to support my claim or assertion?
 - In what order should I present my reasons?

Taking Notes

Note taking helps you organize your ideas more effectively and remember more of what you read or listen to. There are many ways to take notes. You should follow instructor directions for note taking and ultimately you will find the method that helps you best. Here are some suggested strategies for taking notes.

Notes in the Margin

If you have a magazine, newspaper or Internet article that you can write on, you can summarize or define what you've read in the margins. It should look something like this:

EFFECTIVE POLICE PROCEDURES

By John Smith

A glance through any of the popular law enforcement will show at least one advertisement for automatic defibrillators. Equipping police with modern AED technology can save the lives of experiencing sudden cardiac arrest.

AED= automatic Defibrillator
SCA= sudden cardiac arrest
Police w/AED=save lives

Highlighting and Underlining (Annotation)

In order to summarize or paraphrase information, you have to first select the information that you feel is important enough to use in your paper. Highlighting and underlining are note taking strategies that help you decide what is important and allows you to come back to an article and look at that information again. In order to figure out what is important enough to highlight or underline:

- Ask yourself, "What points does the author make that are important to my topic and purpose?"
- Note the topic sentences
- Look for bold-faced or italicized words

Here is an example of what is important and need to be underlined or highlighted:

Muslims adapted ideas in architecture from the many peoples within the Islamic Empire. Mosques reflected a blend of Roman, Byzantine, and Persian styles. Graceful Roman arches were decorated with Persian design. Columns supported domed roofs similar to those of Byzantine churches. Outside the mosque, architects designed slender towers called minarets, from which the people were called to prayer.

To Muslims, the Koran was the greatest written work in Arabic because they believed it was the revealed word of God. Muslim philosophers frequently wrote about religious questions. For example, the philosopher Averroes (uh VEHR oh eez), a Spanish Muslim, tried to reconcile the teachings of Aristotle with Islam. Through careful logic, he tried to prove that there was no conflict between faith and reason. His writings later influenced Christian thinkers such as Thomas Aquinas (Beers 237).

Note Cards

Another method of taking notes is to use note cards. There are several ways to take notes on cards and your teacher will assign the method he/she requires for his/her course.

One idea per note card

Each card is limited to one sentence or idea

Subject note cards

Each card summarizes an entire subject

If you were doing a research paper on Stephen King, your note cards would look like this:

CHILDHOOD

King's childhood wasn't that great, because he was overweight, alienated and kids made fun of him.

Authors and Artists for Young Adults pg. 164

CHILDHOOD

- not that great
- overweight, alienated
- kids made fun of him
 - wrote nasty things about teachers in a school paper called *Village Vomit*
- got in trouble, one teacher helped him

Authors & Artists for Young Adults pg. 164

One Idea

On each card, make sure to put WHERE you found the information. When you have to cite your sources, you'll know exactly what to do and what to look for. Placing a topic heading is helpful.

Subject

You can include as much information on each card as you can fit. Write down WHERE you found the information so you can refer to it when citing sources in your paper.

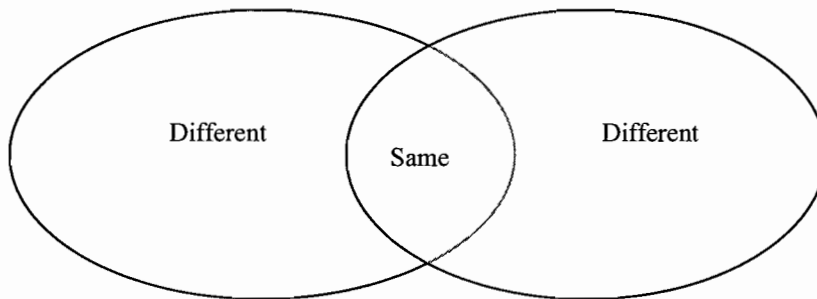
Graphic Organizers

A graphic organizer is a method of taking notes using diagrams and webs. This might be helpful when trying to separate the main ideas from the details you would like to use to support the main ideas, or when presenting two sides of a controversial issue. You can create one of your own which coincides with the research you are doing. Here are some examples of graphic organizers:

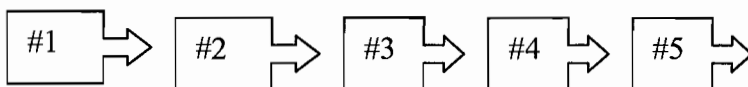
Explaining Relationships:

Causes of Problem	Effects or Solutions
1.	1.
2.	2.

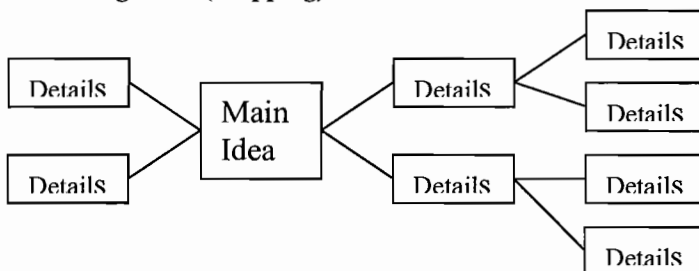
Compare and Contrast (Venn Diagram):



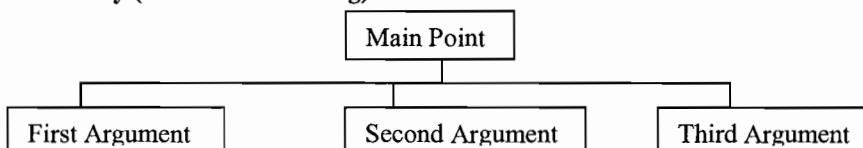
Sequencing (Technical Direction):



Clustering Ideas (Mapping):



Hierarchy (Persuasive Writing):



OUTLINES

An outline is another way to organize the information you have gathered for your research paper. You should list the topics on the outline in the order you will be presenting them in your paper.

The Ogallala: Preserving the Great American Desert

Thesis: The Ogallala Aquifer transformed the Great American Desert, but its future is in jeopardy.

- I. Background of the problem
 - A. Formation of the Ogallala Aquifer
 - B. Explanation of aquifers
 - C. Size and location of the Ogallala Aquifer

- II. The nature and extent of the problem
 - A. Irrigation depleting the aquifer
 - B. Advances in center-pivot irrigation a huge factor
 1. Lowering water table
 2. Causing unnecessary waste
 - C. Farming community resistant to change

- III. The solution: sustainable farming practices
 - A. Positive changes in the last decade
 - B. New technologies
 1. Gypsum blocks
 - a. What they are
 - b. How they work
 2. LEPA
 - C. Cooperation and long-term view

Conclusion: For the Ogallala Aquifer to survive, user must change their attitudes and accept sustainable farming practices.

What is a Citation, A.K.A. Parenthetical Notation?

A “citation” is the way you tell your readers that certain material in your work came from another source. It also gives your readers the information necessary to find that source again.

Why should I cite sources?

Giving credit to the original author by citing sources is the only way to use other people’s work without plagiarizing. But there are a number of other reasons to cite sources:

- Citations are extremely helpful to anyone who wants to find out more about your ideas and where they came from.
- Not all sources are good or right – your own ideas may often be more accurate or interesting than those of your sources. A proper citation will keep you from taking the rap for someone else’s bad ideas.
- Citing sources shows the amount of research you’ve done.
- Citing sources strengthens your work by lending outside support to your ideas.

Doesn’t citing sources make my work seem less original?

Not at all. On the contrary, citing sources actually helps your reader distinguish your ideas from those of your sources. This will actually emphasize the originality of your own work.

When do I need to cite?

Whenever you borrow words or ideas, you need to acknowledge their source. The following situations almost always require citation:

- Whenever you use quotes
- Whenever you paraphrase
- Whenever you use an idea that someone else has already expressed
- Whenever you make specific reference to the work of another
- Whenever someone else’s work has been critical in developing your own ideas.
- Whenever you use art work, pictures, lyrics, or music from books or the internet.

Don’t Overdo...

If you include too many quotations in a research essay, readers may form the impression that you cannot think for yourself. Connect your ideas with those of your sources. No more than 10 % of your paper should be made up of quotes.

Using Quoted Material

A quotation can be a single word or an entire paragraph. Choose quotations carefully, keep them as brief as possible, and use them only when they are necessary. When you do quote material directly, be sure that the capitalization, punctuation, and spelling are the same as that in the original work.

Short Quotations

If a quotation is four typed lines or fewer, work it into the body of your paper and put quotation marks around it. Place a parenthetical citation after the quote followed by punctuation.

Example:

Jamie Reno, a correspondent for Newsweek magazine, examines the recent upsurge of tattooing among sports figures. He says, “The tattoo craze is primarily a 20-something phenomenon” (52).

Long Quotations

Quotations of more than four typed lines should be set off from the rest of the writing by indenting each line 10 spaces. When quoting two or more paragraphs, indent the first line of each paragraph three additional spaces. *Do not use quotation marks and note that the period is placed before the parenthetical citation in long quotes.*

Example:

A recent study conducted by the University of California at San Diego reveals that more than 11% of adult men in the United States have tattoos and that as many as 100,000 women get tattoos each year. Reno states that the percentage is high among today’s athletes:

A recent informal survey of San Diego Chargers players found that nearly half of the squad has at least one tattoo, and the percentage is even higher among players younger than 25. The trend was fully delineated at the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta, where tattooed athletes abounded. (Reno 455).

Partial Quotations

If you want to leave out part of the quotation, use an ellipsis to signify the omission. An ellipsis (. . .) is three periods with a space before and after each one.

Example:

“They’re painful yet addicting...it’s hard to describe...when it was done, my tattoo changed my life” (Reno 456).

Quoting Poetry

When quoting up to three lines of poetry, use quotation marks and work the lines into your writing. Use forward slash (/) to show where each line of the poem ends.

Example:

When Alice Walker described love, she said in her poem, “New Face,” “ I have not learned not to worry about love;/ but to honor its coming/ with all my heart” (24).

For more than four lines of a poem, indent each line 10 spaces.

Do not use quotation marks when quoting more than four lines.

Example:

Sylvia Plath was definitely in a depressed state when she wrote:

As the light lies on these white walls, this bed, these hands.

I am nobody; I have nothing to do with explosions.

I have given my name and my day-clothes up to the nurses

And my history to the anesthetist and my body to surgeons

(251)

Using Signal Phrases

When you choose to use quotations, make sure that they are integrated smoothly into the text of your paper. Readers should be able to move from your own words to the words of the quote without feeling an abrupt shift. Signal phrases provide clear signals to prepare the readers for the quotation. Choose a verb that is appropriate in the context. Here are some examples of signal phrases that can be used to introduce quotes:

Example:

Reporter Jamie Reno (add signal phrase here) states/stated, “tattooing is sometimes an addictive behavior” (26).

Examples of acceptable signal phrases:

argues	acknowledges	declares	refers
asserts	admits	defends	reveals
believes	affirms	explains	speculates
claims	asks	insists	suggests
comments	considers	mentions	testifies
thinks	criticizes	proposes	writes

Don't Overdo

If you include too many quotations in a research essay, readers may form the impression that you cannot think for yourself. Connect your idea with those of your sources.

Note: Be sure that no more than 10% of your paper is made up of quoted materials.

MLA

MLA Paper Format

from Owl Online Writing Lab, Purdue University

Here are some basic guidelines for setting up a paper in MLA style.

General Guidelines

- Type your paper or write it on a computer and print it out on standard-sized paper (8.5 X 11 inches).
- Double-space your paper.
- Set the margins of your document to 1 inch on all sides.
- Create a header that numbers all pages consecutively in the upper right-hand corner, one-half inch from the top and flush with the right margin. Your instructor or whoever is reading the manuscript may ask that you omit the number on your first page. Always follow their guidelines.
- Use either underlining or *italics* throughout your essay for highlighting the titles of longer works.

Formatting the first page of your paper

- Do not make a title page for your paper unless specifically requested.
- Provide a double-spaced entry in the top left corner of the first page that lists your name, your instructor's name, the course, and the date.
- Center your title on the line below the header with your name, and begin your paper immediately below the title.

Your first page should look like the example on page 24.

Sanders 1

Samantha Sanders

Mr. R. Riley

English 101

12 November 2006

Building a Dream: Reasons to Expand Ross-Aide Stadium

During the 2006 football season, the Purdue Boilermakers won the Big Ten Conference Title, earned their first trip to the Rose Bowl in thirty-four years, and played consistently to sold-out crowds. ...Continue writing your paper on this page, making sure you have a good thesis statement and support for it. Make sure to properly cite all information within the text of your paper. Remember, don't plagiarize...

Works Cited Page: Basic Format

According to the MLA style you must have a Works Cited page at the end of your research project. All entries in the Works Cited page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

Basic Rules

- Begin your **Works Cited** page on a separate page at the end of your research project. It should have the same one-inch margins and last name, page number header as the rest of your paper.
- Label the page **Works Cited** (do not underline the words Works Cited or put them in quotation marks) and center the words Works Cited at the top of the page.
- Double space all citations, but do not skip spaces between entries.
- List page numbers of sources efficiently, when needed. If you refer to a journal article that appeared on pages 225 through 250, list the page numbers on your Works Cited page as 225-50.
- If you're citing an article or a publication that was originally issued in print form but that you retrieved from an online database, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the article either in its original print form or retrieve it from the online database (if they have access).

Capitalization and Punctuation

- Capitalize each word in the titles of articles, books, etc, but do not capitalize short prepositions or conjunctions unless one is the first word of the title or subtitle:
Gone With the Wind, The Art of War, There Is Nothing Left to Lose.
- Use italics or underlining for titles of large works (books, magazines) and quotation marks for titles of shorter works (poems, articles).

This is an example of a WORKS CITED page:

Works Cited

- Anderson, Chalon E., Amy T. Carrell, and Jimmy L. Widdifield, Jr.. APA and MLA Writing Formats. 2nd ed.. Boston: Pearson, 2004.
- "Finding Background Information." Cornell University Library Gateway. 2006. Cornell University. 20 Jul 2006 <http://www.library.cornell.edu/t/help/res_strategy/tutorial/background.html>.
- Gibaldi, Joseph. MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers. 6th. New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 2003.
- Gustafon, Chris. "Is It Cheating if Everybody Does it?." Library Media Connection Feb 2004. MAS Ultra School Edition. Oxford High School Library, Oxford, NY. 12/29/06. Ebscohost. <<http://search.epnet.com>>.
- Hacker, Diana. "Documenting Sources." The Official Site for Diana Hacker. 2006. 20 Jul 2006 <<http://www.dianahacker.com/resdoc/>>.
- "The Owl at Purdue." Purdue University's Online Writing Lab. 2006. Purdue University. 20 Jul 2006 <<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl>>.
- Plagiarism.org. 2005. iParadigms, LLC. 20 Jul 2006 <<http://www.plagiarism.org>>.
- Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association. 5th. Washington D.C.: American Psychological Association, 2001.

<u>Directory to MLA works cited models</u>	
<p>Print Sources</p> <p>Books</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. book with one author 2. book with multiple authors 3. book with an editor 4. book with an author and translator 5. work in an anthology 6. reference entry or article <p>Articles in Periodicals</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. article in a magazine 8. article in a daily newspaper 9. book or film review <p>Multimedia Sources</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. works of art 11. cartoons 12. maps or charts 13. radio or television programs 14. other sound recordings 15. personal interview 16. movie 	<p>Electronic Sources</p> <p>Electronic Books</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 17. online book with one author 18. book with an editor 19. book with a translator 20. work in an anthology <p>Periodicals in Electronic Format</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 21. magazine articles from an online service such as ProQuest, EBSCO, or First Search 22. newspaper articles from an online service such as proQuest, EBSCO, or First Search 23. article in an online periodical 24. website 25. short work from a website 26. e-mail 27. e-mail to an online list, forum or group <p>Multimedia Sources Found On-line</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 28. works of art 29. cartoons 30. maps or charts

This list does not constitute a complete list of possible entries. If the source you are trying to document does not seem to fit any of these examples, see one of the following websites for a more complete resource:

- The Owl at Purdue – <http://owl.English.purdue.edu/owl/resource/557/01>
- Diana Hacker: Research and Documentation Online – www.dianahacker.com/resdoc

Examples of MLA Style Formatting for Print Sources

In your research, you may be required to use sources that are in print. Keep in mind that the same document will be cited differently whether it is found in print (something you can physically hold) or in an electronic format. The following section only addresses citing print sources.

If you're citing an article or a publication that is in print form, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the publication.

Provide the following information in your citation:

- Author's name
- Article and/or Book Title
- Publisher
- City of Publication
- Publication Date
- Page Number/ Range

Books

1. Book with one author - A book-length work, play or poem

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name, initial. Title. City of publication:
Publisher, Year of publication.

EXAMPLE: Rawlins, Gregory J. E. Moths to the Flame. Cambridge: MIT P, 1996.

2. Book with multiple authors - A book-length work, play or poem

FORMAT: Last name, first name and first name last name. Title. City of Publication:
Publisher, Year of Publication.

EXAMPLE: Walker, Janice M. and Todd Taylor. The Prophet. New York: Alfred A Knopf, 1981.

3. Book with an editor(s), but no single author - Sometimes a book is compiled by one or more editors. Use the abbreviation *ed.* or *eds.*

FORMAT: Last name, first name, ed. Title. City of Publication: Publisher, Year of
Publication.

EXAMPLE: Romanowski, Patricia and Holly George-Warren, eds. Encyclopedia of Rock & Roll. New York: Rolling Stone Press, 1995.

4. Book with an author and a translator - If the book was originally written in one language and then translated into another language, you need to credit the translator as well as the author.

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Title. Trans. Translator's first and last name. City of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication.

EXAMPLE: Hugo, Victor. Les Miserables. Trans. Charles E. Wilbour. New York: Washington Square Press, 1964.

5. A Work in an Anthology

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name, initial. Title of Work. Title of Anthology. Editor. City of Publication: Publisher, Year of publication. Page numbers.

EXAMPLE: Adams, Henry. "The Education of Henry Adams." Great BooAnthology. Boston: Houghton, 1918. 251-73.

6. Reference Book

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." Title of Reference Work. Year of Publication.

EXAMPLE: Van Valkenburg, Samuel. "Greenland." Collier's Encyclopedia. 1993.

Note: If there is no stated author, start with the title of the reference article.

"Arctic Wolves." Collier's Encyclopedia. 1993.

Articles in Periodicals

7. Article in a Magazine

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name, initial. "Article Title." Title of Magazine. Date Month year: page numbers.

EXAMPLE: Moffett, Mark W. "Poison Dart Frogs." National Geographic May 1995: 98-110.

8. Article in a Daily Newspaper

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." Title of Newspaper Date: section: page number.

EXAMPLES: Latham, Aaron. "Roughing It In Romania." New York Times 15 July 2001: sec. 5:10.
 "Roseboom Man Faces Felony Charge." Press and Sun Bulletin 5 May 1995: 2B.

9. Book or Film Review

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Rev. of Title of Work, artist. Title of Publication Date, page number.

EXAMPLE: Purnick, Joyce. Rev. of The Ungovernable City, John Lindsay and His Struggle to Save New York City, by Vincent J. Cannato. The New York Times Book Review 15 July 2001: 8.

Note: If the review is of a performance, tell where and when the performance took place.

Dunning, Jennifer. Rev. of The River, chor. Alvin Ailey. Dance Theater of Harlem. New York State Theater, New York. New York Times 17 Mar. 1994, late ed.: C18.

Multimedia Sources

10. Works of Art

FORMAT: Artist's last name, first name. "Title of Work." Location of Work.

EXAMPLE: El Greco. Burial of Count Orgaz. San Tome , Toledo.
Evans, Walker. "Untitled (Subway Portrait)." The Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago.

Note: If you found a reproduction of the work of art in a book, you must also cite the book.

El Greco. "Burial of Count Orgaz." San Tome , Toledo. Renaissance Perspectives in Literature and the Visual Arts. By Murray Roston. Princeton: Princeton UP, 1987. 274.

11. Cartoons

FORMAT: Artist's last name, first name. "Title of Cartoon." Title of Publication publishing information (see proper format for book, magazine or newspaper above).

EXAMPLE: Unger, Jim. "Herman." The Evening Sun 15 Aug.

12. Maps or Charts

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "title of map or chart." Map or Chart. Title of Publication date: page number.

EXAMPLE: Joseph, Lori, and Bob Laird. "Driving While Phoning is Dangerous." Chart. USA Today 16 Feb. 2001: 1A.

13. Radio or Television Programs

FORMAT: "Title of Episode." Title of Program. Station Information, City. Date.

EXAMPLE: "Monkey Trial." American Experience. PBS. WGBH, Boston. 18 Mar. 2003.

14. Sound Recordings

FORMAT: Performer's last name, first name. Title of Work. Names of pertinent artists. Manufacturer, date.

EXAMPLE: Counting Crows. "Holiday in Spain." Hard Candy. Geffen, 2002.

15. Personal Interview

FORMAT: Interviewee's last name, first name. Personal Interview. Date.

EXAMPLE: Stockton, Dale. Personal Interview. 18 July, 2001.

16. Movie

FORMAT: Movie Title. Director. Film Studio, Release Year.

EXAMPLE: The Usual Suspects. Dir. Bryan Singer. Polygram, 1995.

Examples of MLA Style Formatting for Electronic Sources

In your research, you may be required to use sources that are electronic. Keep in mind that the same document will be cited differently whether it is found in print (something you can physically hold) or in an electronic format. The following section only addresses citing electronic sources.

If you're citing an article or a publication that is in electronic form, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the publication. Provide as much of this information as possible.

Provide the following information in your citation:

- Author's name
- Title(s) of site
- Publishing information
- Date of publication or last update
- Name of sponsoring organization
- Date you accessed the source
- The URL

Electronic Books

17. Online Books with an Author

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Title. City of Publication: Publisher, Copyright. Date Accessed <web address>.

EXAMPLE: Rawlins, Gregory J.E. Moths to the Flame. Cambridge: MIT P, 1996. 11 Nov. 2004 <<http://mitpress.mit.edu/e-books/Moths/contents.html>>.

18. Online Book with an Editor

- book-length work, play or poem posted as its own site

FORMAT: Editor's last name, first name, ed. Book Title. Place of publication: Publisher, Year of Publication. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Gubar, Susan, L, ed. Women in Literature. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1980. 10 Nov. 2005 <www.gubar.com>.

- A book-length work, play or poem posted on a site containing many works

FORMAT: Editor's last name, first name, initial, ed. Book Title. Place of publication: Publisher, Year of Publication. Title of Web Site. Date Published to web. Date of access. <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Gubar, Susan, L, ed. Women in Literature. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1980. Houghton Mifflin. 5 May 2005. 10 Nov. 2005 <www.houghtonmifflin.com>.

19. Online Work with a Translator

- A book-length work, play or poem posted as its own site

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Title. Trans. Translator's first name last name. Place of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Allende, Isabelle. Daughter of Fortune. Trans. Bob Evans. New York: Harcourt Brace, 2000. 10 November 2003. <www.DaughterofFortune.com>.

- A book-length work, play or poem posted on a site containing many works

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Title. Trans. Translator's first name last name. Place of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication. Title of Web Site. Date Published to web. Date of access. <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Allende, Isabelle. Daughter of Fortune. Trans. Bob Evans. New York: Harcourt Brace, 2000. Bartleby.com. 3 April 2005. 10 November 2003 <www.bartleby.com>.

20. Work in an Online Anthology

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Title of part, (poem or chapter)." Title of Book. City of Publication: Publisher, Year of publication. Title of Web Site. Date Published to web. Date of access. <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Adams, Henry. "Diplomacy." The Education of Henry Adams. Boston: Houghton, 1918. Bartleby.com: Great Books Online. 1999. 8 Jan. 2005 <<http://bartleby.com/159/8.html>>.

Periodicals in Electronic Format

21. Magazine articles from an online service such as ProQuest, EBSCO, or First Search

FORMAT: Author's Last name, first name. "Article Title." Journal or Magazine Title Month Year: Pages. Database Title. Service. Name of library where service is accessed, Town of Access, State. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Barrera, Rebeca María. "A Case for Bilingual Education." Scholastic Parent and Child Nov.-Dec. 2004: 72-73. Academic Search Premier. EBSCOhost. St. Johns River Community Coll. Lib., Palatka, FL. 1 Feb. 2005 <<http://search.epnet.com>>.

22. Newspaper Articles from an Online Service such as ProQuest, EBSCO or First Search

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Newspaper Article Title." Newspaper Title. Day Month Year: Section of Paper: page number. Service. Name of Library where service is accessed, Town of Access, State. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Kolata, Gina. "Scientists Debating Future of Hormone Replacement." New York Times 23 Oct. 2002: A20. ProQuest. Drew U Lib., Madison, NJ. 26 Nov. 2002 <<http://www.proquest.com>>.

23. Article in an Online Periodical

- Online Scholarly Journal

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." Title of Journal Volume (Year) Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Belau, Linda. "Trauma and the Material Signifier." Postmodern Culture 11.2 (2001): 37 pars. 30 Mar. 2001 <<http://jefferson.village.virginia.edu/pmc/current.issue/11.2belau.html>>.

- Online Magazine

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Article Title." Web Magazine Title Date Posted to Web. Date of Access <URL>

EXAMPLE: Morgan, Fiona. "Banning the Bullies." Salon.com 15 Mar. 2001. 21 Sept. 2004 <<http://www.salon.com/news/feature/2001/03/15/bullying/index.html>>.

- Online Newspaper

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Article Title." Newspaper Title. Date of Issue. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Rubin, Joel. "Report Faults Charter School." Los Angeles Times 22 Jan.

2005. 24 Jan. 2005
 <<http://pqasb.pqarchiver.com/latimes/search.html>>.

Websites and E-Mail

24. Website

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. Title of Site. Date of Last Update. Name of sponsoring organization or editor if given. <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Peterson, Susan Lynn. The Life of Martin Luther. 2002. 24 Jan. 2005
 <<http://www.susanlynnpeterson.com/luther/home.html>>.

25. Short Work from a Website

FORMAT: Author's last name, first name. "Short Work Title." Title of Web Site. Date of Last Update. Name of sponsoring organization or editor if given. <Web Address>.

EXAMPLE: Shiva, Vandana. "Bioethics: A Third World Issue." NativeWeb. 15 Sept. 004 <<http://www.nativeweb.org/pages/legal/shiva.html>>.

26. E-Mail

FORMAT: Last Name of writer, first name. "Subject Line." E-mail to Name of Recipient. Date of Message.

EXAMPLE: Wilde, Lisa. "Review questions." E-mail to the author. 15 Mar. 2005.

27. E-Mail to an Online List, Forum or Group

FORMAT: Last Name of Writer, First Name. "Title or Subject." Online Posting. Date of Post <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Edwards, David. "Media Lens." Online posting. 20 Dec. 2001. Media Lens Archives. 10 Apr. 2002
 <<http://groups.yahoo.com/group/medialens/message/25>>.

Multimedia Sources Found Online

28. Work of Art

FORMAT: Artist Last Name, First Name. Title of Work. Date of Creation. Institution and City in which artwork can be found. Date of Access <URL>

EXAMPLE: Van Gogh, Vincent. The Starry Night. 1889. Museum of Mod. Art, New York. 3 Feb. 2003
 <http://moma.org/collection/depts/paint_sculpt/blowups/paint_sculpt_003.html>.

29. Cartoon

FORMAT: Cartoonist's Last Name, First Name. "Title of Cartoon." Cartoon. Publication or Web Page Title. Date Published to Web. Date of Access <URL>

EXAMPLE: Sutton, Ward. "Why Wait 'til November?" Cartoon. Village Voice 13 July

2004. 16 Sept. 2004 <www.nytimes.com>.

30. Maps or Charts

FORMAT: Title. Map. Date of publication to web. Date of Access <URL>.

EXAMPLE: Serbia. Map. 2 Feb. 2001. 17 Mar. 2003 <<http://www.biega.com/serbia.html>>.

APA

APA Paper Format

from Owl Online Writing Lab, Purdue University

Here are some basic guidelines for setting up a paper in MLA style.

General Guidelines

- Type your paper or write it on a computer and print it out on standard-sized paper (8.5 X 11 inches).
- Double-space your paper.
- Set the margins of your document to 1 inch on all sides.
- Create a header that numbers all pages consecutively in the upper right-hand corner, one-half inch from the top and flush with the right margin. Your instructor or whoever is reading the manuscript may ask that you omit the number on your first page. Always follow their guidelines.
- Use either underlining or *italics* throughout your paper for highlighting the titles of longer works.

Parenthetical Notation/In-Text Citation

- Parenthetical notation includes the author of the source and the date of publication.
- If the author's name is used in the paper (often with a signal phrase), parenthetical notation will follow with the date of publication.
- The page number of the source will follow (in parentheses) the information being cited.

For example:

“The current state of the treatment for obesity is similar to the state of the treatment of hypertension several decades ago” (Yanovski & Yanovski, 2002, p. 600).

Or,

Yanovski and Yanovski (2002) reported that “the current state of obesity is similar to the state of the treatment of hypertension several decades ago” (p. 600).

Formatting the title page of your paper

The title page includes a running head for publication, title, and byline and affiliation.

Your title page should look like this:

Uniforms 1
<p>Do Uniforms Affect School Performance? A Review of the Literature</p> <p>John Jones English 12, Block 2 Mr. Johnson October 31, 2004</p>

References Page: Basic Format

According to the APA style you must have a References page at the end of your research project. All entries in the References page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

Basic Rules

- Begin your **References** page on a separate page at the end of your research project. It should have the same one-inch margins and abbreviated title, page number header as the rest of your paper.
- Label the page **References** (do not underline the word References or put it in quotation marks) and center the word **References** at the top of the page.
- Double space all citations, but do not skip spaces between entries.
- List page numbers of sources efficiently, when needed. If you refer to a journal article that appeared on pages 225 through 250, list the page numbers on your References page as 225-50.
- If you're citing an article or a publication that was originally issued in print form but that you retrieved from an online database, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the article either in its original print form or retrieve it from the online database (if they have access).

Capitalization and Punctuation

- Capitalize the **first word only** in the titles of articles, books, etc. Use italics or underlining for titles of large works (books, magazines) and quotation marks for titles of shorter works (poems, articles).

This is an example of a References page:

References

- Berndt, T. J. (1996). Exploring the effects of friendship quality on social development. In W. M. Bukowski, A. F. Newcomb, & W. W. Hartup, (Eds.), *The company they keep: Friendship in childhood and adolescence*. (pp. 346-365). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Berndt, T. J. (2002). Friendship quality and social development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *11*, 7-10.
- Wegener, D. T., & Petty, R. E. (1994). Mood management across affective states: The hedonic contingency hypothesis. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, *66*, 1034-1048.
- Wegener, D. T., & Petty, R. E. (1995). Flexible correction processes in social judgment: The role of naive theories in corrections for perceived bias. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, *68*, 36-51.

<u>Directory to APA References models</u>	
<p>Print Sources</p> <p>Books</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. book by a single author 2. book by more than one author 3. edited collection 4. work in an anthology or collection <p>Articles in Periodicals</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. daily newspaper article 6. magazine article 7. article in a scholarly journal with continuous pagination 8. article in a scholarly journal with separate issue pagination <p>Multimedia Sources</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. interview 10. lecture, speech, address 11. music recording 	<p>Electronic Sources</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12. website 13. material from an information service or database 14. short work from a website 15. e-mail 16. posting that is retrieved from an archive

This list does not constitute a complete list of possible entries. If the source you are trying to document does not seem to fit any of these examples, see one of the following websites for a more complete resource:

- The Owl at Purdue – <http://owl.English.purdue.edu/owl/resource/557/01>
- Diana Hacker: Research and Documentation Online – www.dianahacker.com/resdoc

Books

1. Book by a Single Author

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (Copyright). Title. City of Publication:
Publisher.

EXAMPLES: Bird, S. E. (1992). For enquiring minds: A cultural study of supermarket tabloids. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press.

Fine, G. A. (1992). Manufacturing tales: Sex and money in American culture. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press.

2. Books by More Than One Author

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s) & Author's last name, first initial(s).
(Copyright). City of Publication: Publisher.

EXAMPLES: Bennett, T., & Woolacott, J. (1987). Bond and beyond: The political career of a popular hero. New York: Methuen.

Spradley, J. P., & McCurdy, D. W. (1988). The cultural experience: Ethnography in complex society. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

3. Edited Collection

FORMAT: Editor's last name, first initial(s). (Ed.). (Copyright). Title. City of
Publication: Publisher.

EXAMPLES: Modleski, T. (Ed.). (1986). Studies in entertainment: Critical approaches to mass culture. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Paredes, A., & Bauman, R. (Eds.). (1971). Toward new perspectives in folklore. Austin: University of Texas Press.

4. Work in an Anthology or Collection

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (Copyright). Title of shorter work.
 Editor, Title of anthology (page numbers). City of Publication:
 Publisher.

EXAMPLES: Dundes, A. (1971). On the psychology of legend. In W. D. Hand (Ed.),
American folk legend (pp. 92-100). Berkeley: University of
 California Press.

Press, A. L. (1990). Class, gender, and the female viewer: Women's
 responses to Dynasty. In M. E. Brown (Ed.), Television and
 women's culture: The politics of the popular (pp. 158-182).
 Newbury Park: Sage.

Articles in Periodicals

5. Daily Newspaper Article

- With author

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (Date). Title of article. Title of
 Newspaper, page numbers.

EXAMPLES: Pitz, M.(1978, July 17). Boxtop savers discover they're rumor
 victims. White Plains(NY) Reporter Dispatch, pp. A3, A16.
 Solomon, J. (1984, November 8). Proctor & Gamble fights new rumors of
 link to Satanism. Wall Street Journal, p. 3.

- Without author

FORMAT: Article title. (date). Newspaper title, page numbers.

EXAMPLES: Kidnap rumor may be just that--rumor. (1977, March 2). Minneapolis
 Tribune, p. C12.

6. Magazine Article

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Article title. Magazine Title,
volume #, page numbers.

EXAMPLES: Stone, K. (1990, October 15). Supermarket tabloids and celebrity rumors.
Time, 329, 23-25, 37.

Brunvand, J. H. (1990, March). Debunking the urban legend. Esquire, 176,
 112-120.

Lippman, C. (1992, May-June). Contemporary legends reflect fears and
 fantasies. Utne Reader, 34, 132-145.

7. Article in a Scholarly Journal with Continuous Annual Pagination

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Title of article. Title of Journal,
volume #, page numbers.

EXAMPLES: Fine, G. A. (1980). The Kentucky fried rat: Legends and modern society.
Journal of the Folklore Institute, 17, 222-43.

Fine, G.A. (1989). On incredible edibles: Legends of fast food
 contamination. Journal of American Folklore, 100, 345-367.

8. Article in a Scholarly Journal That Paginates Each Issue Separately

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Title of article. Title of Journal,
 volume# (issue), page numbers.

EXAMPLES: Hinkle, G., & Elliott, W. R. (1989). Science coverage in three newspapers
 and three supermarket tabloids. Journalism Quarterly, 66 (2), 53-
 58.

Suczek, B. (1972). The curious case of the 'death' of Paul McCartney.
Urban Life and Culture, 1 (4), 61-76.

Multimedia Sources

9. Interview

In APA style, an interview is considered personal correspondence and is not included in References. Cite the interview in the text of your paper with a parenthetical notation that it is a personal communication, as in the example below:

Pat Mullen (personal interview, June 30, 1995) endorses the notion that contemporary legends mirror the country's current fears and anxieties.

10. Lecture, Speech, Address

FORMAT: Speaker's last name, first initial(s). (date). Type of address. "Title of address." Sponsor. Location.

EXAMPLE: Murphree, S. (1993, December 10). Lecture. "Hunting." Survey of Animal Welfare, Dept. of Biology. Belmont Univ.

11. Music Recording

FORMAT: Writer, A. (Date of copyright). Title of song [Recorded by artist if different than writer]. On Title of album [Medium of recording—compact disk, record, cassette, etc.]. Location: Label. (Recording date if different from copyright date).

EXAMPLES: Shocked, M. (1992). Over the waterfall. On Arkansas traveler [CD]. New York: Polygram Music.

Goodenough, J.B. (1982). Tails and trotters [Recorded by G. Bok, A. Mayo, Trickett]. On And so we will yet [CD]. Sharon, CT: Folk-Legacy Records (1990).

Note: In-text citations include the writer's name and side or track numbers. For example:

The artist's message can clearly be heard in the song "Tails and Trotters" (Goodenough, 1982, track 5).

Referencing Electronic Sources--APA Format

12. World Wide Web Site

Give the full title of the page or document you've reference, followed by a period, then the title of the longer work of which it is a part, underlined.

FORMAT: Name of author. (Date created/updated). Name of the document. Name of host organization. Retrieved month, day, year, from [http:// web address](http://web address).

EXAMPLE: Rex, J. (1996). National identity in the democratic multi-cultural state. SociologicalResearch Online
<<http://www.socresonline.org.uk/socresonline1/2/1.html>> (1997, February 27).
Shade, L. R. (1993). Gender issues in computer networking.
<<http://www.mit.edu:8001/people/sorokin/women/lrs.html>> (1996, May 28).

13. Material from an Information Service or Database

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Title of material. In editor(s) (Ed.), Title of database. City of Publication: Publishing information.

EXAMPLES: Belenky, M. F. (1984). The role of deafness in the moral development of hearing impaired children. In A. Areson & J. De Caro (Eds.), Teaching, learning, and development. Rochester, NY: National Institute for the Deaf. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service NO. ED 248 646) 0.

14. Short Work from a Website

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Title of chapter/section. In Title of document (identifying information). Date of access, from URL.

EXAMPLE: Heuer, R.J., Jr. (1999). Keeping an open mind. In Psychology of intelligence analysis (chap. 6). Retrieved July 7, 2001, from <http://www.cia.gov/csi/books/19104/art9.html>

15. E-Mail

E-mail messages and other personal communications are not included in the list of references.

16. Posting that is Retrieved from an Archive

FORMAT: Author's last name, first initial(s). (date). Title of list [message #].

Message posted to URL.

EXAMPLE: Kaufmann, W.J., III. (2001, June 12). Online transactions [Msg 2].

Message posted to

news://sci.psychology.psychotherapy.moderated

**The following people worked to present the information
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Maria Santacrose
Elizabeth Schaefer**

Appendix A

Double-spacing used throughout.

John Garcia
Professor Hacker
English 101
7 April 1999

Title is centered.

The Mountain Lion:

Once Endangered, Now a Danger

Summary: citation with author's name and page number in parentheses.

On April 23, 1994, as Barbara Schoener was jogging in the Sierra foothills of California, she was pounced on from behind by a mountain lion. After an apparent struggle with her attacker, Schoener was killed by bites to her neck and head (Rychnovsky 39). In 1996, because of Schoener's death and other highly publicized attacks, California politicians presented voters with Proposition 197, which contained provisions repealing much of a 1990 law enacted to protect the lions. The 1990 law outlawed sport hunting of mountain lions and even prevented the Department of Fish and Game from thinning the lion population.

Thesis asserts writer's main point.

Proposition 197 was rejected by a large margin, probably because the debate turned into a struggle between hunting and antihunting factions. When California politicians revisit the mountain lion question, they should frame the issue in a new way. A future proposition should retain the ban on sport hunting but allow the Department of Fish and Game to control the population. Wildlife management would reduce the number of lion attacks on humans and in the long run would also protect the lions.

Headings help readers follow the organization.

The once-endangered mountain lion

To early Native Americans, mountain lions--also known as cougars, pumas, and panthers--were objects of reverence. The European colonists, however, did not share the Native American view. They conducted what Ted

Williams calls an "all-out war on the species" (29). The lions were eliminated from the eastern United States except for a small population that remains in the Florida Everglades.

The lions lingered on in the West, but in smaller and smaller numbers. At least 66,665 lions were killed between 1907 and 1978 in Canada and the United States (Hansen 58). As late as 1969, the country's leading authority on the big cat, Maurice Hornocker, estimated the United States population as fewer than 6,500 and probably dropping (Williams 30).

Resurgence of the mountain lion

In western states today, the mountain lion is no longer in danger of extinction. In fact, over the past thirty years, the population has rebounded dramatically. In California, fish and game officials estimate that since 1972 lion numbers have increased from 2,400 to at least 6,000 ("Lion" A21).

Similar increases are occurring outside of California. For instance, for nearly fifty years mountain lions had virtually disappeared from Yellowstone National Park, but today lion sightings are increasingly common. In 1992, Hornocker estimated that at least eighteen adults were living in the park (59). In the United States as a whole, some biologists estimate that there are as many as 50,000 mountain lions, a dramatic increase over the 1969 estimate of 6,500 (Williams 30). For the millions of Americans interested in the preservation of animal species, this is good news, but unfortunately the increase has led to a number of violent encounters between human and lion.

Quotation: author named in signal phrase; page number in parentheses.

Statistics documented with citations.

Hornocker introduced as an expert.

Short title given in parentheses because the work has no author.

A clear transition prepares readers for the next section.

Increasing attacks on humans

There is no doubt that more and more humans are being attacked. A glance at figure 1, a graph of statistics compiled by mountain lion researcher Paul Beier, confirms just how dramatically the attacks have increased since the beginning of the century.

The writer explains what the graph shows.

Ray Rychnovsky reports that thirteen people have been killed and another fifty-seven have been mauled by lions since 1890. "What's most startling," writes Rychnovsky, "is that nearly three-quarters of the attacks [. . .] have taken place in the last twenty-five years" (41).

Ellipsis dots in brackets indicate words omitted from the original source.

Particularly frightening are the attacks on children. Kevin Hansen points out that children have been "more vulnerable than adults, making up 64 percent of the victims" (69). This is not surprising, since chil-

Quotation introduced with a signal phrase.

The graph displays evidence of increased attacks.

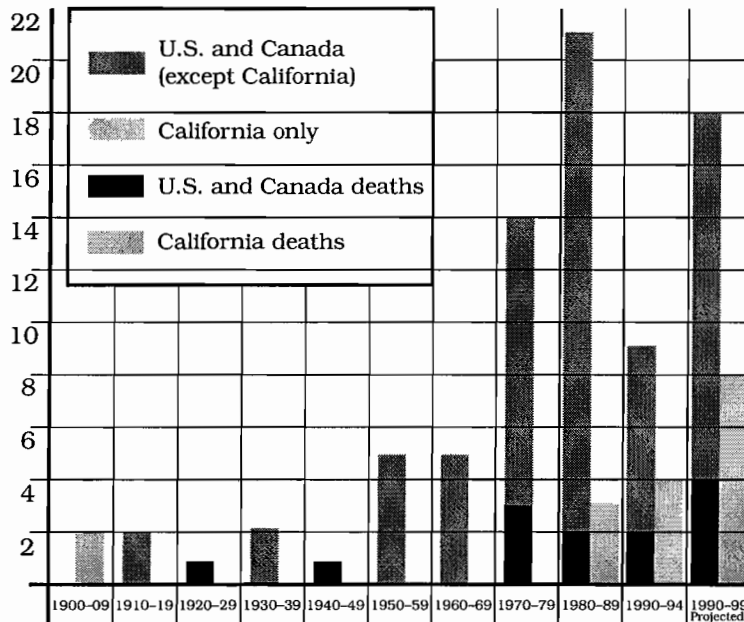


Fig. 1. Cougar attacks--a history, by Paul Beier. Northern Arizona University; rpt. in Rychnovsky (42).

dren, being small and active, resemble the lion's natural prey. Lion authority John Seidensticker reports that when he worked for the National Zoo in Washington, DC, he regularly observed cats stalking children who passed by the lion cages (120).

Summary introduced with a signal phrase.

Since 1986, four children have been attacked in California ("Mountain" 7). One of these attacks was serious enough to prompt officials to place Caspers Wilderness Park off-limits to children (Tran B8). In July 1997 alone, two attacks on children, one fatal, occurred in different national parks in Colorado (McPhee A1).

In California, the state where the lion is most fully protected, 1994 was a particularly bad year. Los Angeles Times writer Tony Perry reports that two women were killed by lions in 1994 and that the year brought a dramatic increase in mountain lion sightings, "many in suburban and urban areas where the animal had previously not been spotted" (B4). With two killings in one year and an increasing number of sightings, it is not surprising that California politicians responded with Proposition 197, aimed at repealing the ban on hunting the lions.

The 1996 California referendum

The debate over Proposition 197 was inflamed by campaigns of misinformation on both sides of the issue. The pro faction included the National Rifle Association (NRA), the Safari Club, and Gun Owners of California. On the other side were animal rights groups such as the Sierra Club, the Fund for Animals, and the Mountain Lion Foundation.

Clear topic sentences, like this one, used throughout the paper.

The proposition itself, introduced by Republican Tim Leslie, is laced with legalese and deceptive phras

Quotation set off from text is clearly introduced.

ing. For example, in a provision aimed at amending section 4801 of the Fish and Game Code, the word hunters does not appear, though the legalistic term designee clearly includes hunters:

Quotation longer than four lines is indented 1" (or ten spaces); quotation marks are omitted; no period is used after citation.

The department may remove or take, or authorize its designee, including, but not limited to, an appropriate governmental agency with public safety responsibility, an appropriate governmental agency with wildlife management responsibility, or an owner of land, to remove or take, one or more mountain lions that are perceived to be an imminent threat to public health or safety or livestock anywhere in the state except within the state park system. ("Proposition" sec. 5)

Short title given in parentheses because the work has no author.

The proposition's euphemistic language, such as remove or take, was echoed by the hunting factions, who spoke much about "controlling" the lion population, avoiding such words as hunt and shoot.

No parenthetical citation necessary for unpaginated Internet source when author is named in signal phrase.

Supporters of Proposition 197 were not above exaggerating the dangers posed by mountain lions, preferring lurid accounts of maulings and killings to solid statistics. For example, writing on the Internet in an attempt to sway voters, Terrence M. Eagan, Wayne Long, and Steven Arroyo appeal to human fears of being eaten: "Two small children woke up one morning without a mother because a lion ate her." To underscore the point, they describe a grisly discovery: "A lion preying upon neighborhood pets was found with parts of five different puppies in its stomach."

Transition helps readers move from one topic to another.

Whereas the pro-hunting groups used deceptive language and exaggerated the dangers posed by lions, the pro-lion groups invoked inflammatory language and ignored the dangers. A Web page written by a coalition of

wildlife preservationists is typical. Calling Proposition 197 "a special interest trophy hunting measure," the coalition claims that the Gun Owners of California, the NRA, and the Safari Club "rammed" the proposition onto the ballot while "hiding behind a disingenuous concern for public safety." Asserting that the mountain lion poses a minimal threat to humans, the coalition accuses the Department of Fish and Game of "creating a climate of fear" so that the public will choose to reinstate lion hunting (California Wildlife Protection Coalition). While it is true that human encounters with mountain lions are rare, some pro-lion publications come close to ridiculing Californians who fear that lion attacks on humans and pets will continue to accelerate unless something is done.

Population control: A reasonable solution

Without population control, the number of attacks on Californians will almost certainly continue to rise, and the lions may become even bolder. As lion authority John Seidensticker remarks, "The boldness displayed by mountain lions just doesn't square with the shy, retiring behavior familiar to those of us who have studied these animals" (177). He surmises that the lions have become emboldened because they no longer have to contend with wolves and grizzly bears, which dominated them in the past. The only conceivable predator to re-instill that fear is the human.

Sadly, the only sure way to reduce lion attacks on humans is to thin the population. One basic approach to thinning is sport hunting, which is still legal, though restricted in various ways, in every western state except California. A second approach involves state-

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Credentials of
author men-
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directed wildlife management, usually the hiring of professional hunters to shoot or trap the lions.

Sport hunting is a poor option--and not just because it is unpopular with Californians. First, it is difficult to control sport hunting. For instance, a number of western states have restrictions on killing a female lion with kittens, but sport hunters are rarely knowledgeable enough to tell whether a lion has kittens. Second, because some sport hunters are poor shots, they wound but don't kill the lions, causing needless suffering. Finally, certain hunting practices are anything but sport. There is a growing business in professionally led cougar hunts, as a number of ads on the World Wide Web attest. One practice is to tree a lion with radio-equipped dogs and then place a phone call to the client to come and shoot the lion. In some cases, the lion may be treed for two or more days before the client arrives to bag his trophy. Such practices are so offensive that even the California Park Rangers Association opposed Proposition 197. As a spokesperson explained, "We support managing the lions. But they shouldn't be stuck on the wall in a den" (qtd. in Perry B4).

Citation of indirect source: words quoted in another source.

We should entrust the thinning of the lion population to wildlife specialists guided by science, not to hunters seeking adventure or to safari clubs looking for profits. Unlike hunters, scientific wildlife managers have the long-term interests of the mountain lion at heart. An uncontrolled population leads to an ecological imbalance, with more and more lions competing for territory and a diminishing food supply. The highly territorial lions will fight to the death to defend their hunting grounds; and because the mother lion ultimately ejects her offspring from her own territory,

No citation needed for "common knowledge" available in many sources.

young lions face an uncertain future. Stephani Cruickshank, a spokesperson for California Lion Awareness (CLAW), explains, "The overrun of lions is biologically unsound and unfair to the lions, especially those forced to survive in marginal or clearly unnatural urban settings" (qtd. in Robinson 35).

In conclusion, wildlife management would benefit both Californians and the California lions. Although some have argued that California needs fewer people, not fewer lions, humans do have an obligation to protect themselves and their children, and the fears of people in lion country are real. As for the lions, they need to thrive in a natural habitat with an adequate food supply. "We simply cannot let nature take its course," writes Terry Mansfield of the Department of Fish and Game (qtd. in Perry B4). In fact, not to take action in California is as illogical as reintroducing the lions to Central Park and Boston Common, places they once also roamed.

The writer concludes with his own stand on the controversy.

The paper ends with the writer's own words.

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Heading centered 1" from top of page.

List is alphabetized by authors' last names.

First line of each entry is at left margin; subsequent lines are indented ½" (or five spaces).

Double-spacing used throughout.

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Appendix B

Apes and Language

1

Short title and
page number for
student papers.

Apes and Language:
A Review of the Literature

Full title, writer's
name, name and
section number
of course, in-
structor's name,
and date all
centered.

Karen Shaw

Psychology 110, Section 2

Professor Verdi

March 4, 1999

Full title, centered.

Apes and Language:

A Review of the Literature

Over the past thirty years, researchers have demonstrated that the great apes (chimpanzees, gorillas, and orangutans) resemble humans in language abilities more than had been thought possible. Just how far that resemblance extends, however, has been a matter of some controversy. Researchers agree that the apes have acquired fairly large vocabularies in American Sign Language and in artificial languages, but they have drawn quite different conclusions in addressing the following questions:

The writer sets up her organization in the introduction.

1. How spontaneously have apes used language?
2. How creatively have apes used language?
3. Can apes create sentences?
4. What are the implications of the ape language studies?

This review of the literature on apes and language focuses on these four questions.

Headings, centered, help readers follow the organization.

How Spontaneously Have Apes Used Language?

A signal phrase names all four authors and gives date in parentheses.

In an influential article, Terrace, Petitto, Sanders, and Bever (1979) argued that the apes in language experiments were not using language spontaneously but were merely imitating their trainers, responding to conscious or unconscious cues. Terrace and his colleagues at Columbia University had trained a chimpanzee, Nim, in American Sign Language, so their skepticism about the apes' abilities received much attention. In fact, funding for ape language research was sharply reduced following publication of their 1979 article "Can an Ape Create a Sentence?"

In retrospect, the conclusions of Terrace et al. seem to have been premature. Although some early

ape language studies had not been rigorously controlled to eliminate cuing, even as early as the 1970s R. A. Gardner and B. T. Gardner were conducting double-blind experiments that prevented any possibility of cuing (Fouts, 1997, p. 99). Since 1979, researchers have diligently guarded against cuing. For example, Lewin (1991) reported that instructions for bonobo (pygmy chimpanzee) Kanzi were "delivered by someone out of his sight," with other team members wearing earphones so that they "could not hear the instructions and so could not cue Kanzi, even unconsciously" (p. 51). More recently, philosopher Stuart Shanker of York University has questioned the emphasis placed on cuing, pointing out that since human communication relies on the ability to understand cues and gestures in a social setting, it is not surprising that apes might rely on similar signals (Johnson, 1995).

There is considerable evidence that apes have signed to one another spontaneously, without trainers present. Like many of the apes studied, gorillas Koko and Michael have been observed signing to one another (Patterson & Linden, 1981). At Central Washington University the baby chimpanzee Loulis, placed in the care of the signing chimpanzee Washoe, mastered nearly fifty signs in American Sign Language without help from humans. "Interestingly," wrote researcher Fouts (1997), "Loulis did not pick up any of the seven signs that we [humans] used around him. He learned only from Washoe and [another chimp] Ally" (p. 244).

The extent to which chimpanzees spontaneously use language may depend on their training. Terrace trained Nim using the behaviorist technique of operant conditioning, so it is not surprising that many of Nim's signs were cued. Many other researchers have used a

Because the author of the work is not named in the signal phrase, his name appears in parentheses, along with the date. Citation from a long work has page number preceded by "p."

For a quotation, a page number preceded by "p." appears in parentheses.

An ampersand links the names of two authors in parentheses.

Brackets are used to indicate words not in original source.

conversational approach that parallels the process by which human children acquire language. In an experimental study, O'Sullivan and Yeager (1989) contrasted the two techniques, using Terrace's Nim as their subject. They found that Nim's use of language was significantly more spontaneous under conversational conditions.

How Creatively Have
Apes Used Language?

There is considerable evidence that apes have invented creative names. One of the earliest and most controversial examples involved the Gardners' chimpanzee Washoe. Washoe, who knew signs for "water" and "bird," once signed "water bird" when in the presence of a swan. Terrace et al. (1979) suggested that there was "no basis for concluding that Washoe was characterizing the swan as a 'bird that inhabits water.'" Washoe may simply have been "identifying correctly a body of water and a bird, in that order" (p. 895).

Other examples are not so easily explained away. The bonobo Kanzi has requested particular films by combining symbols in a creative way. For instance, to ask for Quest for Fire, a film about early primates discovering fire, Kanzi began to use symbols for "campfire" and "TV" (Eckholm, 1985). And the gorilla Koko has a long list of creative names to her credit: "elephant baby" to describe a Pinocchio doll, "finger bracelet" to describe a ring, "bottle match" to describe a cigarette lighter, and so on (Patterson & Linden, 1981, p. 146). If Terrace's analysis of the "water bird" example is applied to the examples just mentioned, it does not hold. Surely Koko did not first see an elephant and then a baby before signing "elephant baby"--or a bottle and a match before signing "bottle match."

The word "and" links the names of two authors in the signal phrase.

When this article was first cited, all four authors were named. In subsequent citations of a work with three to five authors, "et al." is used after the first author's name.

The writer interprets the evidence; she doesn't just report it.

Can Apes Create Sentences?

The early ape language studies offered little proof that apes could combine symbols into grammatically ordered sentences. Apes strung together various signs, but the sequences were often random and repetitious. Nim's series of 16 signs is a case in point: "give orange me give eat orange me eat orange give me eat orange give me you" (Terrace et al., 1979, p. 895).

More recent studies with bonobos at the Yerkes Primate Research Center in Atlanta have broken new ground. Kanzi, a bonobo trained by Savage-Rumbaugh, seems to understand simple grammatical rules about lexigram order. For instance, Kanzi learned that in two-word utterances action precedes object, an ordering also used by human children at the two-word stage. In a major article reporting on their research, Greenfield and Savage-Rumbaugh (1990) wrote that Kanzi rarely "repeated himself or formed combinations that were semantically unrelated" (p. 556).

More important, Kanzi began on his own to create certain patterns that may not exist in English but can be found among deaf children and in other human languages. For example, Kanzi used his own rules when combining action symbols. Lexigrams that involved an invitation to play, such as "chase," would appear first; lexigrams that indicated what was to be done during play ("hide") would appear second. Kanzi also created his own rules when combining gestures and lexigrams. He would use the lexigram first and then gesture, a practice often followed by young deaf children (Greenfield & Savage-Rumbaugh, 1990, p. 560).

In a recent study, Kanzi's abilities were shown to be similar to those of a 2-1/2-year-old human, Alia. Rumbaugh (1995) reported that "Kanzi's comprehension of

The writer draws attention to an important article.

The writer gives a page number for this summary because the article is long.

For quotations, a page number is required.

over 600 novel sentences of request was very comparable to Alia's; both complied with the requests without assistance on approximately 70% of the sentences" (p. 722).

What Are the Implications of the Ape Language Studies?

Kanzi's linguistic abilities are so impressive that they may help us understand how humans came to acquire language. Pointing out that 99% of our genetic material is held in common with the chimpanzees, Greenfield and Savage-Rumbaugh (1990) have suggested that something of the "evolutionary root of human language" can be found in the "linguistic abilities of the great apes" (p. 540). Noting that apes' brains are similar to those of our human ancestors, Leakey and Lewin (1992) argued that in ape brains "the cognitive foundations on which human language could be built are already present" (p. 244).

The writer presents a balanced view of the philosophical controversy.

The suggestion that there is a continuity in the linguistic abilities of apes and humans has created much controversy. Linguist Noam Chomsky has strongly asserted that language is a unique human characteristic (Booth, 1990). Terrace has continued to be skeptical of the claims made for the apes, as have Petitto and Bever, coauthors of the 1979 article that caused such skepticism earlier (Gibbons, 1991).

Recently, neurobiologists have made discoveries that may cause even the skeptics to take notice. Ongoing studies at the Yerkes Primate Research Center have revealed remarkable similarities in the brains of chimpanzees and humans. Through brain scans of live chimpanzees, researchers have found that, as with humans, "the language-controlling PT [planum temporale] is larger on the left side of the chimps' brain than on

the right. But it is not lateralized in monkeys, which are less closely related to humans than apes are" (Begley, 1998, p. 57).

Although the ape language studies continue to generate controversy, researchers have shown over the past thirty years that the gap between the linguistic abilities of apes and humans is far less dramatic than was once believed.

The tone of the conclusion is objective.

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used throughout.

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