Research Papers in the Academic Disciplines

Though most of your previous experience with research papers may have been in English classes, you should be prepared for instructors in other academic disciplines to assign papers with significant research components. Here, for example, is a sampling of research topics that have recently been assigned in a broad range of undergraduate courses:

**ANTHROPOLOGY:** Identify, observe, and gather data pertaining to a particular subculture within the campus community; describe the internal dynamics of this group, and account for these dynamics in terms of theories of relevant anthropologists and sociologists.

**ART HISTORY:** Discuss the main differences between Romanesque and Gothic sculpture, using the sculptures of Jeremia (St. Pierre Cathedral) and St. Theodore (Chartres Cathedral) as major examples.

**ASIAN-AMERICAN STUDIES:** Address an important socio-psychological issue for Asian-American communities and/or individuals—for example, the effects of stereotypes, mental health problems, sex role relations, academic achievement, assertiveness, or inter-racial marriage. Review both the theoretical and research literature on the issue, conduct personal interviews, and draw conclusions from your data.

**ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES:** Choose a problem or issue of the physical environment at any level from local to global. Use both field and library work to explore the situation. Include coverage of the following: (1) the history of the issue or problem; (2) the various interest groups involved, taking note of conflicts among them; (3) critical facts and theories from environmental science necessary to understand and evaluate the issue or problem; (4) impact and significance of management measures already taken or proposed; (5) your recommendations for management of the solution.

**FILM STUDIES:** Pick a particular period of British film and discuss major film trends or production problems within that period.

**HISTORY:** Write a paper analyzing the history of a public policy (example: the U.S. Supreme Court’s role in undermining the civil rights of African-Americans between 1870 and 1896), drawing your sources from the best, most current scholarly histories available.

**PHYSICS:** Research and write a paper on solar cell technology, covering the following areas: basic physical theory, history and development, structure and materials, types and characteristics, practical uses, state of the art, and future prospects.
POLITICAL SCIENCE: Explain the contours of California's water policy in the last few decades and then, by focusing on one specific controversy, explain and analyze the way in which policy was adapted and why. Consider such questions as where the water comes from, how much, what quantity, who uses the water, how pays and how much, and should we develop more water resources?

PSYCHOLOGY: Explore some issue related to the testing of mental ability; for example, the effects of time limits upon test reliability

RELIGIOUS STUDIES: Select a particular religious group or movement present in the nation for at least twenty years and show how its belief or practice has changed since members of the group have been in America or, if the group began in America, since its first generation

SOCIOLOGY: Write on one of the following topics: (1) a critical comparison of two (or more) theories of deviance; (2) field or library research study of a specific deviant career: thieves, drug addicts, prostitutes, corrupt politicians, university administrators; (3) portrayal of deviance in popular culture—e.g., television "accounts" of terrorism, incest, spouse abuse; (4) old age as a form of deviance; (5) the relationship between homelessness and mental illness.

Some of these research papers allow students a considerable range of choice (within the general subject); others are highly specific in requiring students to address a particular issue. Most of these papers call for some library research; a few call for a combination of library and field research; others may be based entirely on field research.

▼ FINDING A SUBJECT

In your present writing course, finding a general subject shouldn't be a problem, since your research likely will concern one of the subjects covered in this text. And, as we've suggested, your instructor may assign you one of the research activities at the end of each chapter, for which some focus will be provided in our directions. Or your instructor may specify his or her own particular directions for your research activity. In other cases, you'll be asked simply to write a paper on some aspect of the subject.

Which aspect? Review the readings, the questions following the readings, and your responses to these questions. Something may immediately (or eventually) spring to mind. Perhaps while reading the chapter from Aldous Huxley's enormously influential Brave New World you wonder how the book was received by critics and general readers when it first appeared in 1932. Maybe while reading the selections on the Milgram experiment in the chapter on obedience to authority, you become curious about later experiments that also tested obedience to authority, or about a recent event that demonstrated the malign effects of obedience to unlawful or immoral authority. Consider the readings on welfare. What has been written on this subject...
THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Research handbooks generally advise students to narrow their subjects as much as possible. A ten-page paper on the modern feminist movement would be unmanageable. You would have to do an enormous quantity of research (a preliminary computer search of this subject would yield several thousand items), and you couldn't hope to produce anything other than a superficial treatment of such a large subject. But a paper on the contemporary reception of Brave New World or on its relationship to other twentieth-century dystopias should be quite manageable. It's difficult to say, however, how narrow is narrow enough. (A literary critic once produced a twenty-page article analyzing the first paragraph of Henry James's The Ambassadors.)

Perhaps more helpful as a guideline on focusing your research is to seek to answer a particular question, a research question. For example, how did the Bush administration respond to the demand for bilingual education? To what extent is America perceived by social critics to be in decline? Did Exxon behave responsibly in handling the Valdez oil spill? How has the debate over genetic engineering evolved during the past decade? To what extent do contemporary cigarette ads perpetuate sexist attitudes? Or how do contemporary cigarette ads differ in message and tone from cigarette ads in the 1950s? Focusing on questions like these and approaching your research as a way of answering such questions is probably the best way to narrow your subject and ensure focus in your paper. The essential answer to this research question eventually becomes your thesis, and in the paper you present evidence that systematically supports your thesis.

PRELIMINARY RESEARCH

Once you have a research question, you want to see what references are available. You want to familiarize yourself quickly with the basic issues and to generate a preliminary list of sources. There are many ways to go about doing this; some of the more effective ones are listed in the box above. We'll consider a few of these suggestions in more detail.

Consulting Knowledgeable People

When you think of research, you may immediately think of libraries and print material. But don't neglect a key reference source—other people. Your professor can probably suggest fruitful areas of research and some useful sources. Try to see your professor during office hours, however, rather than immediately before or after class, so that you'll have enough time for a productive discussion.

Once you get to the library, ask a reference librarian which reference sources (e.g., bibliographies, specialized encyclopedias, periodical indexes, statistical almanacs) you need for your particular area of research. Librarians won't do your research for you, but they'll be glad to show you how to research efficiently and systematically.

You can also obtain vital information from people when you interview them, ask them to fill out questionnaires or surveys, or have them participate in experiments. We'll cover this aspect of research in more detail below.
Encyclopedias

Reading an encyclopedia entry about your subject will give you a basic understanding of the most significant facts and issues. Whether the subject is American politics or the mechanics of genetic engineering, the encyclopedia article—written by a specialist in the field—offers a broad overview that may serve as a launching point to more specialized research in a particular area. The article may illuminate areas or raise questions that you feel motivated to pursue further. Equally important, the encyclopedia article frequently concludes with an annotated bibliography describing important books and articles on the subject.

Encyclopedias have certain limitations. First, most professors don't accept encyclopedia articles as legitimate sources for academic papers. You should use encyclopedias primarily to familiarize yourself with (and to select a particular aspect of) the subject area and as a springboard for further research. Also, because new editions appear only once every five or ten years, the information they contain—including bibliographies—may not be current. The current editions of the Encyclopaedia Britannica and the Encyclopaedia Americana, for instance, may not include information about the most recent developments in biotechnology.

Some of the most useful general encyclopedias include the following:

- American Academic Encyclopedia
- Encyclopedia Americana
- New Encyclopaedia Britannica

Keep in mind that the library also contains a variety of more specialized encyclopedias. These encyclopedias restrict themselves to a particular disciplinary area, such as chemistry, law, or film, and are considerably more detailed in their treatment of a subject than general encyclopedias. Here are examples of specialized encyclopedias:

**SOCIAL SCIENCES**
- Encyclopedia of Education
- Encyclopedia of Psychology
- Guide to American Law
- International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences

**HUMANITIES**
- Encyclopedia of American History
- Encyclopedia of Art
- Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics
- International Encyclopedia of Film
- The New College Encyclopedia of Music

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**
- Encyclopedia of Biological Sciences
- Encyclopedia of Computer Science and Engineering
- Encyclopedia of Physics

Preliminary Research

McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Environmental Science
Van Nostrand's Scientific Encyclopedia

BUSINESS
- Encyclopedia of Banking and Finance
- Encyclopedia of Economics

Overviews and Bibliographies in Recent Books

If your professor or one of your bibliographic sources directs you to an important recent book on the subject, skim the introductory (and possibly the concluding) material to the book, along with the table of contents, for an overview of the key issues. Look also for a bibliography. For example, Zvi Dor-Ner's 1991 book Columbus and the Age of Discovery includes a four-page annotated bibliography of important reference sources on Columbus and the age of exploration.

Keep in mind that authors are not necessarily objective about their subject, and some have particularly biased viewpoints that you may unwittingly carry over into your paper, treating them as objective truth. However, you may still be able to get some useful information out of such sources. Alert yourself to authorial biases by looking up the reviews of your book in the Book Review Digest (described on page 163). Additionally, look up biographical information on the author (see Biographical Indexes, pages 167–168), whose previous writings or professional associations may suggest a predictable set of attitudes on the subject of your book.

Bibliographic Index

The Bibliographic Index is a series of annual volumes that enables you to locate bibliographies on a particular subject. The bibliographies it refers to generally appear at the end of book chapters or periodical articles, or they may themselves be book or pamphlet length. Browsing through the Bibliographic Index in a general subject area may give you ideas for further research in particular aspects of the subject, along, of course, with particular references.

1Bias is not necessarily bad. Authors, like all other people, have certain preferences and predilections that influence the way they view the world and the kinds of arguments they make. As long as they inform you of their biases, or as long as you are aware of them and take them into account, you can still use these sources judiciously. (You might gather valuable information from a book about the Watergate scandal, even if it were written by former President Richard Nixon or one of his top aides, as long as you make proper allowance for their understandable biases.) Bias becomes a potential problem only when it masquerades as objective truth or is accepted as such by the reader. For suggestions on identifying and assessing authorial bias, see the material on persuasive writing (pages 61–64) and evaluating assumptions (pages 66–67) in Chapter 3.
Focused Research

BOOK REVIEW DIGEST

Perhaps the best way to determine the reliability and credibility of a book you may want to use is to look it up in the annual Book Review Digest. These volumes list (alphabetically by author) the most significant books published during the year, supply a brief description of each, and, most important, provide excerpts from (and references to) reviews. If a book receives bad reviews, you don’t necessarily have to avoid it (the book still may have something useful to offer, and the review itself may be unreliable). But you should take any negative reaction into account when using that book as a source.

Electronic Databases

Much of the information that is available in print—and a good deal that is not—is available in electronic form. Almost certainly, your library card catalog has been computerized, allowing you to conduct searches much faster and more easily than in the past. Increasingly, researchers are accessing magazine, newspaper, and journal articles and reports, abstracts, and other forms of information through online databases (many of them on the Internet) and through databases on CD-ROMs. One great advantage of using databases (as opposed to print indexes) is that you search several years’ worth of different periodicals at the same time.

Online databases—that is, those that originate outside your computer—are available through international, national, or local (e.g., campus) networks. The largest such database is DIALOG, which provides access to over 300 million records in over 400 databases, ranging from sociology to business to chemical engineering. In addition to being efficient and comprehensive, online databases are generally far more up-to-date than print sources. If your own computer has a modem, you can access many of these databases—including those available through commercial online services such as Prodigy, CompuServe, and America Online—without leaving your room.

Access to online databases often requires an account and a password, which you may be able to obtain by virtue of your student status. In some cases, you will have to pay a fee to the local provider of the database, based on how long you are online. But many databases will be available to you free of charge. For example, your library may offer access through its computer terminals to magazine and newspaper databases, such as MAGS and NEWS, as well as to the Internet itself.

Various sites and files on the Internet may be accessed through their gopher or ftp (file transfer protocol) addresses. (Once you locate a file, you may have to “download” it to your disk or to your e-mail address.) More user-friendly is the World Wide Web, which offers graphics, multimedia, and “hyperlinks” to related material in numerous sources. To access these sources, you can either browse (i.e., follow your choice of paths or links wherever they lead) or type in a site’s address.
For example, to get information on recent Supreme Court rulings, you could go to the gopher site info.umd.edu at the University of Maryland. From there, you would follow the directory path first by selecting Academic Resources by Topic, then United States and World Politics, Culture, and History, then United States, and finally Supreme Court Documents. The relevant ftp site would be ftp.cwru.edu (at Case Western Reserve University), from which you would choose the path hermes/*, for Hermes Project. (The * is a symbol for a group of files, from which you would select according to your interest.) For corresponding information on the World Wide Web, go to http://www.law.cornell.edu/supct/. In many cases, you can narrow your searches through electronic databases by typing in key words or descriptors—the equivalent of subject headings.

CD-ROMs (compact disk-read only memory) used for research look just like sound CDs; but unlike sound CDs, they can display graphics. Many newspapers, magazines, and journals are available on CD-ROM: for example, The Readers’ Guide to Periodical Literature, The New York Times, Film Index International, PAIS International, and America: History and Life, as are other standard reference sources, such as Statistical Abstract of the U.S., Compton’s Encyclopedia, Bibliography of Native North Americans, Environment Reporter, and National Criminal Justice Reference Service. Of particular interest is InfoTrac, which provides access to over 1000 general interest, business, government, and technological periodicals.

Keep in mind, however, that while electronic sources make it far easier to access information than their print counterparts, they often do not go back more than a decade. For earlier information, therefore (e.g., contemporary reactions to the Milgram experiments of the 1960s), you would have to rely on print indexes.

**Periodicals: General**

**MAGAZINES**

Because many more periodical articles than books are published every year, you are likely (depending on the subject) to find more information in periodicals than in books. By their nature, periodical articles tend to be more current than books (the best way, for example, to find out about the federal government's current policy on AIDS is to look for articles in periodicals and newspapers). However, periodical articles may have less critical distance than books, and they also may date more rapidly—to be superseded by more recent articles.

General periodicals (such as Time, The New Republic, and The Nation) are intended for nonspecialists. Their articles, which tend to be highly readable, may be written by staff writers, free-lancers, or specialists. But they usually do not provide citations or other indications of sources and so are of limited usefulness for scholarly research.

The most well known general index is the Readers’ Guide to Periodical Literature, an index of articles in several hundred general-interest magazines and a few more specialized magazines (such as Business Week and Science Digest). Articles in the Readers’ Guide are indexed by author, title, and subject.

Another general reference for articles is the Essay and General Literature Index, which indexes articles contained in anthologies.

**NEWSPAPERS**

News stories, feature stories, and editorials (even letters to the editor) may be important sources of information. Your library certainly will have the New York Times index, and it may have indexes to other important newspapers, such as the Washington Post, the Los Angeles Times, the Chicago Tribune, the Wall Street Journal, and the Christian Science Monitor. Newspaper holdings will be on microfilm (your library may have the New York Times on CD-ROM), and you will need a microprinter/viewer to get hard copies.

Note: Because of its method of cross-referencing, the New York Times index may at first be confusing to use. Suppose that you want to find Times stories on bilingual education during 1994. When you locate the “Bilingual education” entry, you won’t find citations, but rather a “See also Education” reference that directs you to seven dates (August 14, 15, and 17; September 11; October 20, 29, and 30) under the heading of “Education.” Under this major heading, references to 1994 stories on education are arranged in chronological order from January to December. When you look up the dates you were directed to, you’ll see brief descriptions of the stories on bilingual education.

**Periodicals: Specialized**

**ARTICLES**

Many professors will expect at least some of your research to be based on articles in specialized periodicals. So instead of (or in addition to) relying on an article from Psychology Today on an account of the effects of crack cocaine on mental functioning, you might (also) rely on an article from the Journal of Abnormal Psychology. If you are writing a paper on the satirist Jonathan Swift, you may need to locate a relevant article in Eighteenth-Century Studies. Articles in such journals are written by specialists and professionals in the field, rather than by staff writers or free-lancers, and the authors will assume that their readers already understand the basic facts and issues concerning the subject.

To find articles in specialized periodicals, you’ll use specialized indexes—that is, indexes for particular disciplines. You also may find it helpful to refer to abstracts. Like specialized indexes, abstracts list articles published in a particular discipline over a given period, but they also provide summaries of the articles listed. Abstracts tend to be more selective than indexes, since they consume more space (and involve considerably more work to compile); but, because they also describe the contents of the articles covered, they can save you a lot of time in determining which articles you should read and which ones you can safely skip.
Here are some of the more commonly used specialized periodical indexes and abstracts in the various disciplines.

Note: Lists of electronic databases follow the print indexes, but some listed print indexes (e.g., PAIS) are also available in electronic form, such as CD-ROM

SOCIAL SCIENCE
- Abstracts in Anthropology
- Education Index
- Index to Legal Periodicals
- Psychological Abstracts
- Public Affairs Information Service (PAIS)
- Social Science Index
- Sociological Abstracts
- Women's Studies Abstracts

Social Science Databases:
- ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center)
- PSICHOINFO (psychology)
- Psychological Abstracts
- Social SciSearch
- Sociological Abstracts

HUMANITIES
- Abstracts of English Studies
- Art Index
- Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature
- Essay and General Literature Index
- Film/Literature Index
- Historical Abstracts
- Humanities Index
- International Index of Film Periodicals
- MLA International Bibliography of Books and Articles on Modern Languages and Literatures
- Music Index
- Religion Index
- Year's Work in English Studies

Humanities Databases:
- Arts and Humanities Citation Index
- MLA Bibliography
- Philosopher's Index
- Historical Abstracts

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
- Applied Science and Technology Index
- Biological Abstracts

Engineering Index
- General Science Index
- Index to Scientific and Technical Proceedings

Science and Technology Databases:
- Aerospace Database
- Agricola (agriculture)
- BIOSIS Previews (biology, botany)
- Chemical Abstracts search (chemistry)
- Compendex (engineering)
- Environment Abstracts
- MathSci
- MEDLINE (medical)
- Science Citation Index
- SciSearch
- WSPEC (physics, electronics, computer science)

BUSINESS
- Business Index
- Business Periodicals Index
- Economic Titles/Abstracts
- Wall Street Journal Index

Business Databases:
- ABI/INFORM
- Econ Abstracts International
- Labor Statistics
- Standard and Poor’s News

Biographical Indexes

To look up information on particular people, you can use not only encyclopedias but an array of biographical sources. (You can also use biographical sources to alert yourself to potential biases on the part of your source authors.) A brief selection follows:

LIVING PERSONS
- Contemporary Authors: A Biographical Guide to Current Authors and Their Works
- Current Biography
- International Who’s Who
- Who’s Who in America

PERSONS NO LONGER LIVING
- Dictionary of American Biography
- Dictionary of National Biography (Great Britain)
- Dictionary of Scientific Biography
- Who Was Who
Dictionaries

Use dictionaries to look up the meaning of general or specialized terms. Here are some of the most useful dictionaries:

**GENERAL**
- Oxford English Dictionary
- Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary
- Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language

**SOCIAL SCIENCES**
- Black's Law Dictionary
- Dictionary of the Social Sciences
- McGraw-Hill Dictionary of Modern Economics

**HUMANITIES**
- Dictionary of American History
- Dictionary of Films
- Dictionary of Philosophy
- Harvard Dictionary of Music
- McGraw-Hill Dictionary of Art

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**
- Computer Dictionary and Handbook
- Condensed Chemical Dictionary
- Dictionary of Biology
- Dorland's Medical Dictionary

**BUSINESS**
- Dictionary of Advertising Terms
- Dictionary of Business and Economics
- Mathematical Dictionary for Economics and Business Administration

Other Sources/Government Publications

You also may find useful information in other sources. For statistical and other basic reference information on a subject, consult a handbook (example: Statistical Abstracts of the United States). For current information on a subject as of a given year, consult an almanac (example: World Almanac) For annual updates of information, consult a yearbook (example: The Statesman's Yearbook). For maps and other geographic information, consult an atlas (example: New York Times Atlas of the World). (Often, simply browsing through the reference shelves for data on your general subject—such as biography, public affairs, or psychology—will reveal valuable sources of information.)

Many libraries keep pamphlets in a vertical file (i.e., a file cabinet). For example, a pamphlet on AIDS might be found in the vertical file, rather than in the library stacks. Such material is accessible through the Vertical File Index (a monthly subject and title index to pamphlet material).

Finally, note that the U.S. government regularly publishes large quantities of useful information. Some indexes to government publications:

- American Statistics Index
- Congressional Information Service
- The Congressional Record
- Information U.S.A.

Interviews and Surveys

Depending on the subject of your paper, some or all of your research may be conducted outside the library. You may pursue research in science labs, in courthouses, in city government files, in shopping malls (if you are observing, say, patterns of consumer behavior), in the quad in front of the humanities building, or in front of TV screens (if you are analyzing, say, situation comedies or commercials, or if you are drawing on documentaries or interviews—in which case you should try to obtain transcripts or tape the programs).

You may want to interview your professors, your fellow students, or other individuals knowledgeable about your subject. Before interviewing your subject(s), become knowledgeable enough about the topic that you can ask intelligent questions. You also should prepare most of your questions beforehand. Ask “open-ended” questions designed to elicit meaningful responses, rather than “forced choice” questions that can be answered with a word or two, or “leading questions” that presume a particular answer (For example: Instead of asking, “Do you think that men should be more sensitive to women’s concerns for equality in the workplace?” ask, “To what extent do you see evidence that men are insufficiently sensitive to women’s concerns for equality in the workplace?”) Ask follow-up questions to elicit additional insights or details. If you record the interview (in addition to, or instead of, taking notes), get your subject’s permission, preferably in writing.

Surveys or questionnaires, when well prepared, can produce valuable information about the ideas or preferences of a group of people. Before preparing your questions, determine your purpose in conducting the survey, exactly what kind of information you want to obtain, and whom you are going to ask for the information. Decide also whether you want to collect the questionnaires as soon as people have filled them out or whether you want the responses mailed back to you. (Obviously, in the latter case, you have to provide stamped, self-addressed envelopes and specify a deadline for return.) Keep in mind that the larger and the more representative your sample of people, the more reliable the survey. As with interviews, it’s important to devise
and word questions carefully, so that they (1) are understandable and (2) don't reflect your own biases. If you're surveying attitudes on capital punishment, for example, and you ask, "Do you believe that the state should endorse legalized murder?" you've loaded the question to influence people to answer in the negative, and thus you've destroyed the reliability of your survey.

Unlike interview questions, survey questions should be short answer or multiple choice; open-ended questions encourage responses that are difficult to quantify. You may want to leave space, however, for "additional comments." Conversely, "yes" or "no" responses or rankings on a 5-point scale are easy to quantify. For example, you might ask a random sample of students in your residence hall the extent to which they are concerned that genetic information about themselves might be made available to their insurance companies—on a scale of 1 (unconcerned) to 5 (extremely concerned). For surveys on certain subjects (and depending on the number of respondents), it may be useful to break out the responses by as many meaningful categories as possible—for example, gender, age, ethnicity, religion, education, geographic locality, profession, and income. Obtaining these kinds of statistical breakdowns, of course, means more work on the part of your respondents in filling out the survey and more work for you in compiling the responses. If the survey is too long and involved, some subjects won't participate or won't return the questionnaires.

\section*{FROM RESEARCH TO WORKING THESIS}

The search strategy we've just described isn't necessarily a straight-line process. In other words, you won't always proceed from the kinds of things you do in "preliminary research" to the kinds of things you do in "focused research." You may not formulate a research question until you've done a good deal of focused research. And the fact that we've treated, say, biographical sources before, say, specialized periodical articles does not mean that you should read biographical material before you read articles. We've described the process as we have for convenience; and, in general, it is a good idea to proceed from more general sources to more particular ones. In practice, however, the research procedure often is considerably less systematic. You might begin, for example, by reading a few articles on the subject, continue by looking up an encyclopedia article or two. Along the way, you might consult specialized dictionaries, book review indexes, and a guide to reference books in the area. Or, instead of proceeding in a straight line through the process, you might find yourself moving in circular patterns—backtracking to previous steps and following up leads you missed or ignored earlier. There's nothing wrong with such variations of the basic search strategy, as long as you keep in mind the kinds of resources that are available to you, and as long as you plan to look up as many of these resources as you can—given the constraints on your time.

\section*{THE WORKING BIBLIOGRAPHY}

As you conduct your research, keep a working bibliography—that is, a set of bibliographic information on all the sources you're likely to use in preparing the paper. Compile full bibliographic information as you consider each source. It's better to spend time during the research process noting information on a source you don't eventually use than to go back to retrieve information—such as the publisher or the date—just as you're typing your final draft.

The most efficient way to compile bibliographic information is on 3" x 5" cards. (Note, however, that some software programs allow you to create sortable electronic cards.) You can easily add, delete, and rearrange cards as your research progresses. On each card record:

a. the author or editor (last name first)

b. the title (and subtitle) of the book or article

c. the publisher and place of publication (if a book) or the title of the periodical

d. the date of publication; if periodical, volume and issue number

e. the inclusive page numbers (if article)
You also may want to include on the bibliography card:

f. a brief description of the source (to help you recall it later in the research process)
g. the library call number (to help you relocate the source if you haven’t checked it out)
h. a code number, which you can use as a shorthand reference to the source in your notecards

Your final bibliography, known as “Works Cited” in Modern Language Association (MLA) format and “References” in American Psychological Association (APA) format, consists of the sources you have actually summarized, paraphrased, or quoted in your paper. When you compile the bibliography, arrange the cards in alphabetical order and type the references one after another.

Here is an example of a working bibliography card for a book:

8


Attacks Columbus legacy for genocide and ecocide. Good treatment of Columbus’s voyages (Chaps. 6-8)

Here is an example of a working bibliography card for an article:

12


Finds treatments of subjects in title of article inadequate in most college-level American history texts. Specifies "errors," "half-truths" and "misleading assertions." Recommends changes in nine areas

Some instructors may ask you to prepare—either in addition to or instead of a research paper—an annotated bibliography. This is a list of relevant works on a subject, with the contents of each briefly described or assessed. The bibliography cards shown provide examples of two entries in an annotated bibliography on the Columbian legacy. Annotations are different from abstracts in that they do not claim to be comprehensive summaries; they indicate, rather, how the items may be useful to the prospective researcher.

EVALUATING SOURCES

As you sift through what seems a formidable mountain of material, you’ll need to work quickly and efficiently; you’ll also need to do some selecting. This means, primarily, distinguishing the more important from the less important (and the unimportant) material. The hints in the box below can simplify the task.

NOTE-TAKING

People have their favorite ways of note-taking. Some use cards; others use legal pads or spiral notebooks; yet others type notes into a laptop computer, perhaps using a database program. We prefer 4" x 6" cards for note-taking. Such cards have some of the same advantages as 3" x 5" cards for working bibliographies: they can easily be added to, subtracted from, and rearranged to accommodate changing organizational plans. Also, discrete pieces of information from the same source can easily be arranged (and rearranged) into subtopics—a difficult task if you have three pages of notes on an entire article.

HOW TO EVALUATE SOURCES

- Skim the source. With a book, look over the table of contents; the introduction and conclusion; and the index. Set in on passages that your initial survey suggests are important. With an article, skim the introduction and the headings.
- Be on the alert for references in your sources to other important sources, particularly to sources that several authors treat as important.
- Other things being equal, the more recent the source, the better. Recent work often incorporates or refers to important earlier work.
- If you’re considering making multiple references to a book, look up the reviews in the Book Review Digest or the Book Review Index. Also, check the author’s credentials in a source like Contemporary Authors or Current Biography.
- Draw on your critical reading skills to help you determine the reliability and value of a source (see Chapter 3).
Whatever your preferred approach, we recommend including, along with the note itself,

a. a page reference
b. a topic or subtopic label, corresponding to your outline (see below)
c. a code number, corresponding to the number assigned the source in the working bibliography

Here is a sample notecard for an article by Charles Krauthammer entitled "Hail Columbus, Dead White Male" (Time, May 27, 1991):

**Defenses of Columbus (III B)**

Defends Columbus against revisionist attacks. Our civilization "turned out better" than that of the Incas. "And mankind is the better for it. Infinitely better. Reason enough to honor Columbus and 1492." (74)

Here is a notecard for the specialized periodical article by Axtell (see bibliography card on page 172):

**Problems with Textbooks (II A)**

American history textbooks do not give adequate coverage to the Age of Discovery. An average of only 4% of the textbook pages covering first-semester topics is devoted to the century that accounts for 30% of the time between Columbus and Reconstruction. "The challenge of explaining some of the most complex, important, and interesting events in human history—the discovery of a new continent, the religious upheavals of the sixteenth century, the forging of the Spanish empire, the Columbian biological exchange, the African diaspora—all in twenty or twenty-five pages is one that few, if any, textbook authors have met or are likely to meet." (623)

The notecard is headed by a topic label followed by the tentative location in the paper outline where the information will be used. The number in the upper right corner is coded to the corresponding bibliography card. The note itself in the first card uses summary ("Defends Columbus against revisionist attacks") and quotation. The note in the second card uses summary (sentence 1), paraphrase (sentence 2), and quotation (sentence 3). Summary was used to condense important ideas treated in several paragraphs in the sources; paraphrase, for the important detail on textbook coverage; quotation, for particularly incisive language by the source authors. For general hints on when to use each of these three forms, see page 31.

### ARRANGING YOUR NOTES: THE OUTLINE

Recall that your research originally was stimulated by one or more research questions, to which you may have made a tentative response in your working thesis (see page 33). As you proceed with your research, patterns should begin to emerge that either substantiate, refute, or otherwise affect your working thesis. These patterns represent the relationships you discern among the various ideas and pieces of evidence that you investigate. They may be patterns of cause and effect, of chronology, of logical relationships, of comparison and contrast, of pro and con, of correspondence (or lack of correspondence) between theory and reality. Once these patterns begin to emerge, write them down as the components of a preliminary outline. This outline indicates the order in which you plan to support your original working thesis or a new thesis that you have developed during the course of research.

For example, on deciding to investigate new genetic technologies, you devise a working thesis focused on the intensity of the debate over the applications of such technologies. Much of the debate, you discover, focuses on arguments about the morality of (1) testing for genetic abnormalities in the fetus, (2) using genetic information to screen prospective employees; and (3) disrupting the ecosystem by creating new organisms. Based on this discovery, you might create a brief outline, numbering each of these three main categories (as examples of the pro–con debates) and using these numbers on your notecards to indicate how you have (at least provisionally) categorized each note. As you continue your research, you'll be able to expand or reduce the scope of your paper, modifying your outline as necessary. Your developing outline becomes a guide to continuing research.

Some people prefer not to develop an outline until they have more or less completed their research. At that point they will look over their notecards, consider the relationships among the various pieces of evidence, possibly arrange their cards into separate piles, and then develop an outline based on their perceptions and insights about the material. They will then rearrange (and code) the notecards to conform to their newly created outline.
In the past, instructors commonly required students to develop multilevel formal outlines (complete with Roman and Arabic numerals) before writing their first drafts. But many writers find it difficult to generate papers from such elaborate outlines, which sometimes restrict, rather than stimulate, thought. Now, many instructors recommend only that students prepare an informal outline, indicating just the main sections of the paper, and possibly one level below that. Thus, a paper on how the significance of Columbus’s legacy has changed over the years may be informally outlined as follows:

Intro: Different views of Columbus, past and present;  
-thesis: view of Columbus varies with temper of times

Pre-20th-century assessments of Columbus and legacy
The Debate over the quincentennial
- positive views
- negative views

Conclusion: How to assess Columbian heritage

Such an outline will help you organize your research and should not be unduly restrictive as a guide to writing.

The formal outline (a multilevel plan with Roman and Arabic numerals, capital and small lettered subheadings) may still be useful, not so much as an exact blueprint for composition—although some writers do find it useful for this purpose—but rather as a guide to revision. That is, after you have written your draft, outlining it may help you discern structural problems: illogical sequences of material; confusing relationships between ideas; poor unity or coherence; sections that are too abstract or underdeveloped. Many instructors also require that formal outlines accompany the finished research paper.

The formal outline should indicate the logical relationships in the evidence relating to your particular subject (see example below). But it also may reflect the general conventions of presenting academic ideas. Thus, after an introduction, papers in the social sciences often proceed with a description of the methods of collecting information, continue with a description of the results of the investigation, and end with a conclusion. Papers in the sciences often follow a similar pattern. Papers in the humanities generally are less standardized in form. In devising a logical organization for your paper, ask yourself how your reader might best be introduced to the subject, be guided through a discussion of the main issues, and be persuaded that your viewpoint is a sound one.

Formal outlines are generally of two types: topic and sentence outlines. In the topic outline, headings and subheadings are indicated by words or phrases—as in the informal outline above. In the sentence outline, each heading and subheading is indicated in a complete sentence. Both topic and sentence outlines generally are preceded by the topic sentence.

Here is an example of a sentence outline:

Thesis: How Columbus, his voyages, and his legacy are assessed varies, depending on the values of the times.

I. Early 19th-century and late 20th-century assessments of Columbus are 180 degrees apart.
   A. 19th-century commentators idealize him.
   B. 20th-century commentators often demonize him.
   C. Shifting assessments are based less on hard facts about Columbus than on the values of the culture that assesses him.

II. In the 16th and 17th centuries, Columbus was not yet being used for political purposes.
   A. In the early 16th century, his fame was eclipsed by that of others.
      1. Amerigo Vespucci and Vasco da Gama were considered more successful mariners.
      2. Cortés and Pizarro were more successful in bringing back wealth from the New World.
   B. In the next century, historians and artists began writing of the achievements of Columbus, but without an overt political purpose.
      1. The first biography of Columbus was written by his son Fernando.
      2. Plays about Columbus were written by Lope de Vega and others.
   C. An important exception was that in 1542 the monk Bartolomé de Las Casas attacked the Spanish legacy in the Americas—although he did not attack Columbus personally.

III. In the 18th and 19th centuries, Columbus and his legacy began to be used for political purposes.
   A. During the late 18th century, Columbus’s stature in America increased as part of the attempt to stir up anti-British sentiment.
      1. Columbus was opposed by kings, since he “discovered” a land free of royal authority.
2. Columbus, the bold visionary who charted unknown territories, became symbolic of the American spirit.

B. During the 19th century, Columbus’s reputation reached its peak.
1. For some, Columbus represented geographical and industrial expansion, optimism, and faith in progress.
2. For others, Columbus’s success was the archetypal rags-to-riches story at the heart of the American Dream.
3. After the Civil War, Catholics celebrated Columbus as an ethnic hero.
4. The 400th anniversary of Columbus’s landfall both celebrated the past and expressed confidence in the future. Columbus became the symbol of American industrial success.

IV. By the quincentennial of Columbus’s landfall, the negative assessments of Columbus were far more evident than positive assessments.
A. Historians and commentators charged that the consequences of Columbus’s “discoveries” were imperialism, slavery, genocide, and ecocide.
B. The National Council of Churches published a resolution blasting the Columbian legacy.
C. Kirkpatrick Sale’s The Conquest of Paradise attacked Columbus.
D. Native Americans and others protested the quincentennial and planned counter-demonstrations.

V. Conclusion: How should we judge Columbus?
A. In many ways, Columbus was a man of his time and did not rise above his time.
B. In his imagination and boldness and in the impact of his discoveries, Columbus stands above others of his time.

C. When we assess Columbus and his legacy, we also assess our own self-confidence, our optimism, and our faith in progress.

**WRITING THE DRAFT**

Your goal in drafting your paper is to support your thesis by clearly and logically presenting your evidence—evidence that you summarize, critique, and synthesize. (For a review of the techniques of summary, critique, and synthesis, see Chapters 1, 3, and 4.) In effect, you are creating and moderating a conversation among your sources that supports the conclusions you have drawn from your exploration and analysis of the material. The finished paper, however, should not merely represent an amalgam of your sources; it should present your own particular critical perspective on the subject. Your job is to select and arrange your material in such a way that your conclusions seem inevitable (or at least reasonable). You also must select and arrange your material in a way that is fair and logical; remember that your paper will be evaluated to some degree on whether it meets the standards of logical argument discussed on pages 61–64. Try not to be guilty of such logical fallacies as hasty generalization, false analogy, and either/or reasoning.

As we suggested in the section on introductions (pages 47–52), when writing the first draft it’s sometimes best to skip the introduction (you’ll come back to it later when you have a better idea of just what’s being introduced) and to start with the main body of your discussion. What do you have to tell your audience about your subject? It may help to imagine yourself sitting opposite your audience in an informal setting like the student center, telling them what you’ve discovered in the course of your research, and why you think it’s interesting and significant. The fact that you’ve accumulated a considerable body of evidence (in your notecards) to support your thesis should give you confidence in presenting your argument. Keep in mind, too, that there’s no one right way to organize this argument; any number of ways will work, provided each makes logical sense. And if you’re working on a computer, it is particularly easy to move whole paragraphs and sections from one place to another.

Begin the drafting process by looking at your notecards. Arrange the cards to correspond to your outline. Summarize, paraphrase, and quote from your notecards as you draft. (One timesaving technique for the first draft is to tape photocopied quotations in the appropriate places in your draft.) If necessary, review the material on explanatory and argument syntheses (pages 88–134). In particular, note the table “How to Write Syntheses” (pages 91–92 and inside back cover) and “Techniques for Developing Your Papers” (pages 134–137). When presenting your argument, consider such rhetorical strategies as strawman, concession, and comparison and contrast. The sample stu-
dent papers in the synthesis chapter may serve as models for your own research paper.

As you work through your notecards, be selective. Don't provide more evidence or discussion than you need to prove your point. Resist the urge to use all of your material just to show how much research you've done. "One experienced teacher, Susan M. Hubble, scornfully refers to papers with too much information as "memory dumps"—consisting of nothing but "mindless regurgitation of everything you have read about a subject".) Also avoid going into extended discussions of what are essentially tangential issues. Keep focused on your research questions and on providing support for your thesis.

At the same time, remember that you are working on a rough draft—one that will probably have all kinds of problems, from illogical organization to awkward sentence structure to a banal conclusion. Don't worry about it; you can deal with all such problems in subsequent drafts. The important thing now is get the words on paper (or on your disk).

\section*{Avoiding Plagiarism}

Plagiarism generally is defined as the attempt to pass off the work of another as one's own. Whether born out of calculation or desperation, plagiarism is the least tolerated offense in the academic world. The fact that most plagiarism is unintentional—arising from ignorance of conventions rather than deceitfulness—makes no difference to many professors.

You can avoid plagiarism and charges of plagiarism by following the basic rules below:

\subsection*{Rules to Avoid Plagiarism}

- Cite all quoted material and all summarized and paraphrased material, unless the information is common knowledge (e.g., the Civil War was fought from 1861 to 1865).
- Make sure that both the wording and the sentence structure of your summaries and paraphrases are substantially your own.

Following is a passage of text, along with several student versions of the ideas represented. (The passage is from Richard Rovere's April 30, 1967, New York Times Magazine article, "The Most Gilded and Successful Demagogue This Country Has Ever Known.")

McCarthy never seemed to believe in himself or in anything he had said. He knew that Communists were not in charge of American foreign policy. He knew that they weren't running the United States Army. He knew that he had spent five years looking for Communists in the government and that—although some must have been there, since Communists had turned up in practically every other major government in the world—he hadn't come up with even one.

One student version of this passage reads as follows:

McCarthy never believed in himself or in anything he had said. He knew that Communists were not in charge of American foreign policy and weren't running the United States Army. He knew that he had spent five years looking for Communists in the government, and although there must certainly have been some there, since Communists were in practically every other major government in the world, he hadn't come up with even one.

Clearly, this is intentional plagiarism. The student has copied the original passage almost word for word.

Here is another version of the same passage:

McCarthy knew that Communists were not running foreign policy or the Army. He also knew that although there must have been some Communists in the government, he hadn't found a single one, even though he had spent five years looking.

This student has attempted to put the ideas into her own words, but both the wording and the sentence structure are still so heavily dependent on the original passage that even if it were cited, most professors would consider it plagiarism.

In the following version, the student has sufficiently changed the wording and sentence structure, and she properly credits the information to Rovere, so that there is no question of plagiarism:

According to Richard Rovere, McCarthy was cynical enough to know that Communists were running neither the government nor the Army. He also knew that he hadn't found a single Communist in government, even though he had been looking for five years (192).

Apart from questions of plagiarism, it's essential to quote accurately. You are not permitted to change any part of a question or to omit any part of it without using brackets or ellipses (see pages 44-47).
CITING SOURCES

When you refer to or quote the work of another, you are obligated to credit or cite your source properly. There are two types of citations, and they work in tandem.

If you are writing a paper in the humanities, you probably will be expected to use the Modern Language Association (MLA) format for citation. This format is fully described in the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 4th ed (New York: Modern Language Association of America, 1995). A paper in the social sciences will probably use the American Psychological Association (APA) format. This format is fully described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 4th ed (Washington, D C.: American Psychological Association, 1994).

In the following section, we will focus on MLA and APA styles, the ones you are most likely to use in your academic work. Keep in mind, however, that instructors often have their own preferences. Some require the documentation style specified in the Chicago Manual of Style, 14th ed (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993). This style is similar to the APA style, except that publication dates are not placed within parentheses. Instructors in the sciences often follow the Council of Biology Editors (CBE) format. Or they may prefer a number format: each source listed on the bibliography page is assigned a number, and all text references to the source are followed by the appropriate number within parentheses. Some instructors like the old MLA style, which calls for footnotes and endnotes. Check with your instructor for the preferred documentation format if this is not specified in the assignment itself.

In-Text Citation

The general rule for in-text citation is to include only enough information to alert the reader to the source of the reference and to the location within that source. Normally, this information includes the author’s last name and page number (and, if you are using the APA system, the date). But if you have al-

TYPES OF CITATIONS

- Citations that indicate the source of quotations, paraphrases, and summarized information and ideas — these citations appear in text, within parentheses.
- Citations that appear in an alphabetical list of “Works Cited” or “References” following the paper.

Citing Sources

ready named the author in the preceding text, just the page number is sufficient.

Here are sample in-text citations using the MLA and APA systems:

MLA

From the beginning, the AIDS antibody test has been “mired in controversy” (Bayer 101)

APA

From the beginning, the AIDS antibody test has been “mired in controversy” (Bayer, 1989, p. 101)

If you have already mentioned the author’s name in the text, it is not necessary to repeat it in the citation:

MLA

According to Bayer, from the beginning, the AIDS antibody test has been “mired in controversy” (101)

APA

According to Bayer (1989), from the beginning, the AIDS antibody test has been “mired in controversy” (p. 101)

or:

According to Bayer, from the beginning, the AIDS antibody test has been “mired in controversy” (1989, p. 101)

When using the APA system, provide page numbers only for direct quotations, not for summaries or paraphrases. If you do not refer to a specific page, simply indicate the date:

Bayer (1989) reported that there are many precedents for the reporting of AIDS cases that do not unduly violate privacy.

In MLA format, you must supply page numbers for summaries and paraphrases, as well as for quotations:

According to Bayer, the AIDS antibody test has been controversial from the outset (101)

Notice that in the MLA system there is no punctuation between the author’s name and the page number. In the APA system, there is a comma between the author’s name and the page number, and the number itself is preceded by “p.” Notice also that in both systems the parenthetical reference is placed before the final punctuation of the sentence.

For block (indented) quotations, however, place the parenthetical citation after the period.
MLA

Robert Flaherty's refusal to portray primitive people's contact with civilization arose from an inner conflict:

He had originally plunged with all his heart into the role of explorer and prospector; before Nanook, his own father was his hero. Yet as he entered the Eskimo world, he knew he did so as the advance guard of industrial civilization, the world of United States Steel and Sir William Mackenzie and railroad and mining empires. The mixed feeling this gave him left his mark on all his films (Barnouw 45).

APA

Robert Flaherty's refusal to portray primitive people's contact with civilization arose from an inner conflict:

He had originally plunged with all his heart into the role of explorer and prospector; before Nanook, his own father was his hero. Yet as he entered the Eskimo world, he knew he did so as the advance guard of industrial civilization, the world of United States Steel and Sir William Mackenzie and railroad and mining empires. The mixed feeling this gave him left his mark on all his films (Barnouw, 1974, p. 45).

Again, were Barnouw's name mentioned in the sentence leading into the quotation, the parenthetical reference would be simply (45) for MLA style and (1974, p. 45) for APA style

If the reference applies only to the first part of the sentence, the parenthetical reference is inserted at the appropriate points within the sentence:

MLA

While Baumrind argues that "the laboratory is not the place to study degree of obedience" (421), Milgram asserts that such arguments are groundless.

APA

While Baumrind (1963) argued that "the laboratory is not the place to study degree of obedience" (p. 421), Milgram asserted that such arguments are groundless.

There are times when you must modify the basic author/page number reference. Depending on the nature of your source(s), you may need to use one of the following citation formats:

QUOTED MATERIAL APPEARING IN ANOTHER SOURCE

MLA: (qtd in Milgram 211)
APA: (cited in Milgram, 1974, p. 211)

AN ANONYMOUS WORK

MLA: "Obedience" 32
APA: "Obedience," 1974, p. 32

THE LOCATION OF A PASSAGE IN A LITERARY TEXT

MLA: for example, Hardy's The Return of the Native (224; ch. 7) [page 224 in the edition used by the writer; the chapter number, 7, is provided for the convenience of those referring to another edition]

THE LOCATION OF A PASSAGE IN A PLAY

MLA: (1.2.308–22) [act scene line number(s)]

THE BIBLE

MLA: (1 Chron. 21:8)

Content Notes

Occasionally, you may want to provide a footnote or an endnote as a content note—one that provides additional information bearing on or illuminating, but not directly related to, the discussion at hand. For example:

1 Equally well known is Forster's distinction between story and plot: in the former, the emphasis is on sequence ("the king died and then the queen died"); in the latter, the emphasis is on causality ("the king died and then the queen died of grief").
Reference Page

In MLA format, your list of sources is called "Works Cited." In APA format, it is called "References." Entries in this listing should be double-spaced, with the second and subsequent lines of each entry indented—five spaces or one-half inch. In both styles, a single space follows the period.

The main difference between MLA and APA styles is that in MLA style the date of the publication follows the name of the publisher; in APA style, the date is placed within parentheses following the author's name. Other differences: in APA style, only the initial of the author's first name is indicated, and only the first word (and any proper noun) of the book or article title and subtitle is capitalized. However, all main words of journal/magazine titles are capitalized, just as in MLA style. For APA style, do not place quotation marks around journal/magazine article titles. However, do use "p." and "pp." to indicate page numbers of newspaper articles. In APA format, extend underlining under title to include punctuation immediately following. In both MLA and APA styles, publishers' names should be abbreviated; thus, "Random House" becomes "Random"; "William Morrow" becomes "Morrow.

Note: While the hanging indent (second and subsequent lines indented) is the recommended format for APA-style references in student papers, manuscripts intended for publication follow paragraph-indent format in which the first line of each reference is indented.

Provided below are some of the most commonly used citations in both MLA and APA formats. For a more complete listing, consult the MLA Handbook, the APA Manual, or whichever style guide your instructor has specified.

Books

ONE AUTHOR

MLA


APA


TWO OR MORE BOOKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR

MLA


Note: For MLA style, references are listed in alphabetical order of title.

APA


Note: For APA style, references are listed in chronological order of publication.

TWO AUTHORS

MLA


APA


THREE AUTHORS

MLA


APA


MORE THAN THREE AUTHORS

MLA


APA

BOOK WITH AN EDITOR

MLA


APA


LATER EDITION

MLA


APA


RE-PUBLISHED BOOK

MLA


APA

Lawrence, D. H. (1960). **Sons and Lovers.** New York: Signet. (Original work published 1913)

ONE VOLUME OF A MULTIVOLUME WORK

MLA


APA


SEPARATELY TITLED VOLUME OF A MULTIVOLUME WORK

MLA


APA


TRANSLATION

MLA


APA


SELECTION FROM AN ANTHOLOGY

MLA


APA


REPRINTED MATERIAL IN AN EDITED COLLECTION

MLA


APA

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATION
MLA


APA


THE BIBLE
MLA

SIGNSIGNED ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLE
MLA

UNSIGNED ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLE
MLA

APA

PERIODICALS
CONTINUOUS PAGINATION THROUGHOUT ANNUAL CYCLE
MLA

APA

SEPARATE PAGINATION EACH ISSUE
MLA

APA

MONTHLY PERIODICAL
MLA

APA
APA

 UnsIGNED Article in weekly periodical
MLA

APA

 Signed Article in daily newspaper
MLA

APA

UNSIGNED Article in daily newspaper
MLA

APA

Review
MLA

APA

Other Sources

INTERVIEW
MLA

APA
Emerson, R. (1989, 10 October) [Personal interview].

DISSERTATION (ABSTRACTED IN DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL)
MLA

APA

Note: If the dissertation is available on microfilm, give University Microfilms order number in parentheses at the conclusion of the reference. Example, in MLA format: "Ann Arbor: UMI, 1993. 9116566." In APA format, enclose the order number in parentheses: "(University Microfilms No AAD93-15947)."

Lecture
MLA

APA
PAPER DELIVERED AT A CONFERENCE

MLA


APA


FILM

MLA


APA


TV PROGRAM

MLA


APA


RECORDING

MLA

GENERAL APA ORDER OF ITEMS FOR ELECTRONIC SOURCES

The general APA order of items for electronic sources is the same as that for MLA except as follows:

1. If the citation includes a previously published printed source or analogue for which you have given the date, do not include the date of electronic publication; also do not include any page numbers of the printed source or analogue in place of it. For online sources, do not include the date of your access.

PORTABLE SOURCES (CD-ROMs, DISKETTES, OR MAGNETIC TAPE)

MLA


APA


MLA


APA


ONLINE SOURCES

General MLA format for online periodical sources:


General APA format for online periodical sources:

Author, I (Date). Title of article [number of paragraphs]. Name of Periodical [Online], volume no. Name of Online Service or Network. Available: electronic address

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE

MLA


APA


MAGAZINE ARTICLE

MLA


APA


ELECTRONIC JOURNAL

MLA


APA

PART II

An Anthology of Readings

SAMPLE RESEARCH PAPER

For an example of research paper format and documentation, see the student argument synthesis on pages 127–133. Although many research papers will be longer and draw on more sources than this example, the discussion and the text of "The Angry Welfare Debate" accurately represent both the finished product and the process by which a student goes from the research question to a systematic argument that supports a thesis.