

SIXTH EDITION

Writing and Reading Across the Curriculum

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Research

GOING BEYOND THIS TEXT

In this chapter we'll discuss how you can use the skills you've learned in writing summaries, critiques, and syntheses to compose research papers and reports. A research paper is generally considered a major academic endeavor, and frequently it is. But even a paper based on only one or two sources outside the scope of assigned reading has been researched. Research requires you (1) to locate and take notes on relevant sources and organize your findings; (2) to summarize or paraphrase these sources; (3) to critically analyze them for their value and relevance to your subject; and (4) to synthesize information and ideas from several sources that best support your own critical viewpoint.

As you'll see, each chapter in Part II of *Writing and Reading Across the Curriculum* consists of a group of related readings on a particular subject—obedience to authority, privacy and technology, business ethics, and so on. The readings in a chapter will give you a basic understanding of the key issues associated with the subject. For a deeper understanding, however, you'll need to go beyond the relatively few readings included here. A paper based on even two or three additional sources will have a breadth missing from a paper that relies exclusively on the text readings.

Of course, you may be asked to prepare a research paper of some length. Each chapter in Part II concludes with a number of research activities on the subject just covered. In some cases, we suggest particular sources; in others, we provide only general directions. Your instructor may ask you to work on at least one of these assignments during the term. But whether you are preparing an in-depth research paper or just locating a few additional sources on your subject (or something in between), it's essential to know your way around a college library, to be able to locate quickly and efficiently the information you need. In this chapter, we'll give you some important research tips. For more comprehensive information (e.g., annotated lists of specialized reference tools), consult a text on research papers or the research section of a handbook.

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 Jeremiah (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 interracial 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, who 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) portrayals 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

WRITING THE RESEARCH PAPER

Here is an overview of the main steps involved in writing research papers. Keep in mind that as with other synthesis projects, writing research papers is a recursive process: You may not necessarily follow these steps in the order below, and you will find yourself backtracking and looping. This is not only normal, it is essential to carefully developed research.

- **Find a subject.** Decide what subject you are going to research and write about.
- **Develop a research question.** Formulate an important question that you would like to answer through your research.
- **Conduct preliminary research.** Consult knowledgeable people, general and specialized encyclopedias, overviews and bibliographies in recent books, the *Bibliographic Index*, and subject heading guides.
- **Conduct focused research.** Consult books, electronic databases, general and specialized periodicals, biographical indexes, general and specialized dictionaries, government publications, and other appropriate sources. Conduct interviews and surveys, as necessary.
- **Develop a working thesis.** Based on your initial research, formulate a working thesis that attempts to respond to your research question.
- **Develop a working bibliography.** Keep a working bibliography (either paper or electronic) of your sources. Make this bibliography easy to sort and rearrange.
- **Evaluate Sources.** Attempt to determine the veracity and reliability of your sources; use your critical reading skills; check *Book Review Digest*; look up biographies of authors.
- **Take notes from sources.** Paraphrase and summarize important information and ideas from your sources. Copy down important quotations. Note page numbers from sources of this quoted and summarized material.
- **Arrange your notes according to your outline.** Develop a working outline of topics to be covered in your paper. Arrange your notes according to this outline.
- **Write your draft.** Write the preliminary draft of your paper, working from your notes, according to your outline.
- **Avoid plagiarism.** Take care to cite all quoted, paraphrased, and summarized source material, making sure that your own wording and sentence structure differ from those of your sources.

(continued)

- **Cite sources.** Use in-text citations and a "Works Cited" or "References" list, according to the conventions of the discipline (e.g., MLA, APA, CBE).
- **Revise your draft.** Use transitional words and phrases to ensure coherence. Check for style. Make sure that the research paper reads smoothly, logically, and clearly from beginning to end. Check for grammatical correctness, punctuation, and spelling.

since these selections appeared? To what extent have the terms of the debate changed? What programs on the federal, state, or local level have been instituted to change the way welfare is administered?

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

HOW TO FIND PRELIMINARY SOURCES AND NARROW THE SUBJECT

- Ask your professor for recommended sources on the subject.
- Ask your college librarian for useful reference tools in your subject area.
- If you're working on a subject from this text, use some of the sources we've mentioned in the research activities section.
- Read an encyclopedia article on the subject and use the bibliography following the article.
- Read the introduction to a recent book on the subject and review that book's bibliography.
- Consult the annual *Bibliographic Index* (see below for details).
- If you need help in narrowing a broad subject, consult one or more of the following:

the subject heading in a computerized card catalog (the subject will be broken down into its components);

the subject heading in an electronic periodical catalog, such as *InfoTrac*, or in a print catalog, such as the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*;

the *Library of Congress Subject Headings* catalog.

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 *Encyclopedia 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

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.¹ 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.

Subject-Heading Guides

Seeing how a general subject (e.g., education) is broken down in other sources also could stimulate research in a particular area (e.g., bilingual primary education in California). As in the table of contents of a book, the general subject (the book title) is analyzed into its secondary subject headings (the chapter titles). To locate such sets of secondary subject headings, consult:

- an electronic card catalog
- an electronic or print periodical catalog (e.g., *InfoTrac*, *Readers' Guide*, *Social Science Index*)
- *The Library of Congress Subject Headings* catalog
- *The Propaedia* volume of the *New Encyclopaedia Britannica* (1995)

FOCUSED RESEARCH

Once you've narrowed your scope to a particular subject and a particular research question (or set of research questions), you're ready to undertake more focused research. Your objective now is to learn as much as you can about your particular subject. Only in this way will you be qualified to make an informed response to your research question. This means you'll have to become something of an expert on the subject—or, if that's not possible, given time constraints, you can at least become someone whose critical viewpoint is based solidly on the available evidence. In the following pages we'll suggest how to find sources for this kind of focused research. In most cases, your research will be based on (1) *books*; (2) *articles*; (3) *electronic databases*; and (4) *specialized reference* sources. In certain cases, your research may be based partially or even primarily on (5) *interviews* and *surveys*.

Books

Books are often useful in providing both breadth and depth of coverage of a subject. Because they generally are published at least a year or two after the events treated, they also tend to provide the critical distance that is sometimes missing from articles. (Of course, books also may be shallow, inaccurate, outdated, or hopelessly biased; for help in making such determinations, see *Book Review Digest*, below.) You can locate relevant books through the electronic or card catalog. When using this catalog, you may search in three ways: (1) by *author*, (2) by *title*, and (3) by *subject*. Entries include the call number, the publication information, and, frequently, a summary of the book's contents. Larger libraries use the Library of Congress cataloging system for call numbers (example: E111/C6); smaller ones use the Dewey Decimal System (example: 970.015/C726).

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* for 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 normally 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)

PAIS (Public Affairs Information Service)

PSYCHINFO (psychology)

Psychological Abstracts

Social SciSearch

Sociological Abstracts

HUMANITIES

Abstracts of English Studies

America: History and Life

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)

ScienceCitation 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

PERSONS LIVING OR DEAD

Biography Almanac

McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of World Biography

Webster's Biographical Dictionary

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

McGraw-Hill Dictionary of Modern Economics: A Handbook of Terms and Organizations

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 cases 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 (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 surveys 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.

▼ 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.

One other thing you'll discover as you proceed: research is to some extent a self-generating process. That is, one source will lead you—through references in the text, citations, and bibliographic entries—to others. Your authors will refer to other studies on the subject; and, frequently, they'll indicate which ones they believe are the most important, and why. At some point, if your research has been systematic, you'll realize that you've already looked at most of the key work on the subject. This is the point at which you can be reasonably assured that the research stage of your paper is nearing its end.

As your work progresses, you may find that your preliminary research question undergoes a change. Suppose you are researching bilingual education. At first, you may have been primarily interested in the question of whether or not bilingual education is a good idea. During your research, you come across S. I. Hayakawa's controversial proposal that English be made the official language of the United States, and you decide to shift the direction of your research toward this particular debate. Or, having made an initial assessment that bilingual education is a good idea, you conclude the opposite. Be prepared for such shifts: they're a natural—and desirable—part of the research (and learning) process. They indicate that you haven't made up your mind in advance, that you're open to new evidence and ideas.

You're now ready to respond to your modified research question with a *working thesis*—a statement that controls and focuses your entire paper, points toward your conclusion, and is supported by your evidence. See our earlier discussion, in Chapter 2 (pages 32–39), on the process of devising and narrowing a thesis.

▼ 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

Sale, Kirkpatrick. *The Conquest of Paradise: Christopher Columbus and the Columbian Legacy*. New York: Knopf, 1990.

Attacks Columbian 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

Axtell, James. "Europeans, Indians and the Age of Discovery in American History Textbooks." *American Historical Review* 92.3 (1987): 621-32

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; zero 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):

7

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):

12

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 multi-leveled 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 multileveled 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 idolize 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* also 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 argumentation 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. Hubbuch, 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).

▼ 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:

RULES TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

- Cite (a) *all* quoted material and (b) *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 Gifted 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

certainly 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" or "pp." 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)

TWO AUTHORS

MLA: (Woodward and Bernstein 208)

APA: (Woodward & Bernstein, 1974, p. 208)

A PARTICULAR WORK BY AN AUTHOR, WHEN YOU LIST TWO OR MORE WORKS BY THAT AUTHOR IN THE "WORKS CITED"

MLA: (Toffler, *Wave* 96-97)

APA: (Toffler, 1973, pp. 96-97)

TWO OR MORE SOURCES AS THE BASIS OF YOUR STATEMENT (ARRANGE ENTRIES IN ALPHABETIC ORDER OF SURNAME)

MLA: (Giannetti 189; Sklar 194)

APA: (Giannetti, 1972, p. 189; Sklar, 1974, p. 194)

A MULTIVOLUME WORK

MLA: (2: 88)

APA: (Vol. 2, p. 88)

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").

Notice the format: Indent five spaces or one-half inch and type the note number, raised one-half line. Then space once more and begin the note. Subsequent lines of the note are flush with the left margin. If the note is at the bottom of the page (a footnote), quadruple-space between the text and the footnote, single-spacing the note itself. Content notes are numbered consecutively throughout the paper; do not begin renumbering on each page.

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

Rose, Mike. Lives on the Boundary. New York: Penguin, 1989.

APA

Rose, M. (1989). Lives on the boundary. New York: Penguin.

TWO OR MORE BOOKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR

MLA

Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Random, 1970.

---. The Third Wave. New York: Morrow, 1982.

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

APA

Toffler, A. (1970). Future shock. New York: Random.

Toffler, A. (1982). The third wave. New York: Morrow.

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

TWO AUTHORS

MLA

Brockway, Wallace, and Herbert Weinstock. Men of Music: Their Lives, Times, and Achievements. New York: Simon, 1939.

APA

Brockway, W., & Weinstock, H. (1939). Men of music: Their lives, times, and achievements. New York: Simon.

THREE AUTHORS

MLA

Young, Richard E., Alton L. Becker, and Kenneth L. Pike. Rhetoric: Discovery and Change. New York: Harcourt, 1970.

APA

Young, R. E., Becker, A. L., & Pike, K. L. (1970). Rhetoric: Discovery and change. New York: Harcourt.

MORE THAN THREE AUTHORS

MLA

Maimon, Elaine, et al. Writing in the Arts and Sciences. Boston: Little, 1982.

APA

Maimon, E., Belcher, G. L., Hearn, G. W., Nodine, B. N., & O'Connor, F. W. (1982). Writing in the arts and sciences. Boston: Little.

BOOK WITH AN EDITOR**MLA**

Weeks, Robert P., ed. Hemingway: A Collection of Critical Essays. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice, 1962.

APA

Weeks, R. P. (Ed.). (1962). Hemingway: A collection of critical essays. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice.

LATER EDITION**MLA**

Houp, Kenneth W., and Thomas E. Pearsall. Reporting Technical Information. 3rd ed. Beverly Hills: Glencoe, 1977.

APA

Houp, K. W., & Pearsall, T. E. (1977). Reporting technical information (3rd ed.). Beverly Hills: Glencoe.

REPUBLISHED BOOK**MLA**

Lawrence, D. H. Sons and Lovers. 1913. New York: Signet, 1960.

APA

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

ONE VOLUME OF A MULTIVOLUME WORK**MLA**

Bailey, Thomas A. The American Spirit: United States History as Seen by Contemporaries. 4th ed. 2 vols. Lexington, MA: Heath, 1978. Vol. 2.

APA

Bailey, T. A. (1978). The American spirit: United States history as seen by contemporaries (4th ed., Vol. 2). Lexington, MA: Heath.

SEPARATELY TITLED VOLUME OF A MULTIVOLUME WORK**MLA**

Churchill, Winston. The Age of Revolution. Vol. 3 of A History of the English Speaking Peoples. New York: Dodd, 1957.

APA

Churchill, W. (1957). A history of the English speaking peoples: Vol. 3. The Age of revolution. New York: Dodd.

TRANSLATION**MLA**

Chekhov, Anton. Chekhov: The Major Plays. Trans. Ann Dunnigan. New York: NAL, 1974.

APA

Chekhov, A. (1974). Chekhov: The major plays (A. Dunnigan, Trans.). New York: New American Library

SELECTION FROM AN ANTHOLOGY**MLA**

Russell, Bertrand. "Civil Disobedience and the Threat of Nuclear Warfare." Civil Disobedience: Theory and Practice. Ed. Hugo Adam Bedau. Indianapolis: Pegasus, 1969. 153-59.

APA

Russell, B. (1969). Civil disobedience and the threat of nuclear warfare. In H. Bedau (Ed.), Civil disobedience: Theory and practice (pp. 153-159). Indianapolis: Pegasus.

REPRINTED MATERIAL IN AN EDITED COLLECTION**MLA**

McGinnis, Wayne D. "The Arbitrary Cycle of Slaughterhouse-Five: A Relation of Form to Theme." Critique: Studies in Modern Fiction 17. 1 (1975): 55-68. Rpt. in

Contemporary Literary Criticism. Ed. Dedria Bryfonski and Phyllis Carmel Mendelson. Vol. 8. Detroit: Gale, 1978. 530-31.

APA

McGinnis, W. D. (1975). The arbitrary cycle of Slaughterhouse-five: A relation of form to theme. In D. Bryfonski and P. C. Mendelson (Eds.), Contemporary literary criticism (Vol. 8, pp. 530-531). Detroit: Gale. Reprinted from Critique: Studies in modern fiction, 1975 (Vol. 17, No. 1), pp. 55-68.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATION

MLA

United States. Cong. House. Committee on the Post Office and Civil Service, Subcommittee on Postal Operations. Self-Policing of the Movie and Publishing Industry. 86th Cong., 2nd sess. Washington: GPO, 1961.

United States. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare. The Health Consequences of Smoking. Washington: GPO, 1974.

APA

U.S. Congress. House Committee on the Post Office and Civil Service, Subcommittee on Postal Operations. (1961). Self-policing of the movie and publishing industry. 86th Congress, 2nd session. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (1974). The health consequences of smoking. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

THE BIBLE

MLA

The New English Bible. New York: Oxford UP, 1972.

SIGNED ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLE

MLA

Lack, David L. "Population." Encyclopaedia Britannica:

APA

Lack, D. L. (1974). Population. Encyclopaedia Britannica: Macropaedia.

UNSIGNED ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLE

MLA

"Tidal Wave." Encyclopedia Americana. 1982 ed.

APA

Tidal wave. (1982) Encyclopedia Americana.

Periodicals

CONTINUOUS PAGINATION THROUGHOUT ANNUAL CYCLE

MLA

Davis, Robert Gorham. "Literature's Gratifying Dead End." Hudson Review 21 (1969): 774-78.

APA

Davis, R. G. (1969). Literature's gratifying dead end. Hudson Review, 21, 774-778.

SEPARATE PAGINATION EACH ISSUE

MLA

Palmer, James W., and Michael M. Riley. "The Lone Rider in Vienna: Myth and Meaning in The Third Man." Literature/Film Quarterly 8.1 (1980): 14-21.

APA

Palmer, J. W., & Riley, M. M. (1980) The lone rider in Vienna: Myth and meaning in The third man. Literature/Film Quarterly, 8(1), 14-21.

MONTHLY PERIODICAL

MLA

Spinrad, Norman. "Home Computer Technology in the 21st Century." Popular Computing Sept. 1984: 77-82.

APA

Spinrad, N. (1984, September). Home computer technology in Popular Computing, 77-82.

SIGNED ARTICLE IN WEEKLY PERIODICAL**MLA**

Hulbert, Ann. "Children as Parents." New Republic 10 Sept. 1984: 15-23.

APA

Hulbert, A. (1984, September 10). Children as parents. The New Republic, 15-23

UNSIGNED ARTICLE IN WEEKLY PERIODICAL**MLA**

"Notes and Comment." New Yorker 20 Feb. 1978: 29-32.

APA

Notes and comment. (1978, February 20) The New Yorker, 29-32.

SIGNED ARTICLE IN DAILY NEWSPAPER**MLA**

Surplee, Curt "The Bard of Albany." Washington Post 28 Dec. 1983: B1+.

APA

Surplee, C. (1983, December 28) The bard of Albany. Washington Post, pp. B1, B9.

UNSIGNED ARTICLE IN DAILY NEWSPAPER**MLA**

"Report Says Crisis in Teaching Looms." Philadelphia Inquirer 20 Aug. 1984: A3.

APA

Report says crisis in teaching looms. (1984, August 20). Philadelphia Inquirer, p. A3.

REVIEW**MLA**

Maddocks, Melvin "A Most Famous Anthropologist." Rev. of Margaret Mead: A Life, by Jane Howard. Time 27 Aug. 1984: 57.

APA

Maddocks, M. (1984, August 27). A most famous anthropologist [Review of the book Margaret Mead: A life]. Time, 57.

Other Sources**INTERVIEW****MLA**

Emerson, Robert. Personal interview. 10 Oct. 1989.

APA

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

DISSERTATION (ABSTRACTED IN DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS INTERNATIONAL)**MLA**

Gans, Eric L. "The Discovery of Illusion: Flaubert's Early Works, 1835-1837." DA 27 (1967): 3046A. Johns-Hopkins U

APA

Pendar, J. E. (1982). Undergraduate psychology majors: Factors influencing decisions about college, curriculum and career Dissertation Abstracts International, 42, 4370A-4371A.

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. 9316566" In APA format, enclose the order number in parentheses: "(University Microfilms No. AAD93-15947)."

LECTURE**MLA**

Osborne, Michael. "The Great Man Theory: Caesar." Lecture. History 4A University of California, Santa Barbara, 5 Nov. 1992.

APA

Baldwin, J. (1993, January). The self in social interactions. Sociology 2 lecture, University of California, Santa Barbara

PAPER DELIVERED AT A CONFERENCE**MLA**

Worley, Joan. "Texture: The Feel of Writing." Conference on College Composition and Communication. Cincinnati, 21 Mar. 1992.

APA

Worley, J. (1992, March). Texture: The feel of writing. Paper presented at the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Cincinnati, OH.

FILM**MLA**

Howard's End. Dir. James Ivory. Perf. Emma Thompson and Anthony Hopkins. Merchant/Ivory and Film Four International, 1992.

APA

Thomas, J. (Producer), & Cronenberg, D. (Director). (1991). Naked lunch [Film]. 20th Century Fox.

TV PROGRAM**MLA**

Legacy of the Hollywood Blacklist. Videocassette. Dir. Judy Chaikin. Written and prod. Eve Goldberg and Judy Chaikin, One Step Productions. Public Affairs TV. KCET, Los Angeles. 1987.

APA

Chaikin, J. (Co-producer, director, & co-writer), & Goldberg, E. (Co-producer & co-writer), One Step Productions (1987). Legacy of the Hollywood blacklist [videocassette]. Los Angeles, Public Affairs TV, KCET.

RECORDING**MLA**

Beatles. "Eleanor Rigby." The Beatles 1962-1966. Capitol, 1973.

Schumann, Robert. Symphonies Nos. 1 & 4. Cond. George Szell, Cleveland Orchestra. Columbia, 1978.

APA

Beatles. (Singers) (1973). Eleanor Rigby. The Beatles 1962-1966. (Cassette Recording No. 4X2K 3403). New York: Capitol.

Schumann, R. (Composer). (1978). Symphonies nos. 1 & 4. (Cassette Recording No. YT35502). New York: Columbia.

Electronic Sources

Electronic sources can be divided into two categories: portable sources (on CD-ROMs, diskettes, or magnetic tape) and online sources (accessed through a computer service or network). In either case, material in electronic sources may or may not be based on previously published printed sources or printed analogues.

According to MLA guidelines (see below for differences between MLA and APA guidelines), in citing material from an electronic source, you must provide the information for the printed source or analogue (if any) and the information for the electronic source—including the publication medium (e.g., CD-ROM, diskette, magnetic tape, or online); the vendor's name (e.g., if a database has been created by a publisher or other provider and then leased to a vendor for publication in electronic form); and the electronic publication date (for portable sources) or the date of your access. In MLA format, the electronic address you used to access the source (for online sources) is optional. In APA format it is required.

For nonperiodical portable electronic sources (e.g., CD-ROMs that, like books, are published a single time without plans to update or revise the work regularly), the publisher and vendor are usually the same, in which case you must provide the city of publication along with the publisher's name.

GENERAL MLA ORDER OF ITEMS FOR ELECTRONIC SOURCES

The general MLA order of items for electronic sources is as follows:

1. Name of the author (if given)
2. Other publication information for the printed source or analogue (if relevant)
3. Title of the electronic source
4. Edition, release, or version (if relevant)
5. Publication medium (CD-ROM, diskette, magnetic tape, or online)
6. *For portable sources*: City of publication and name of the publisher (e.g., Redmond: Microsoft), or name of the vendor (e.g., SilverPlatter), and electronic publication date

For online sources: Name of the computer service or network (e.g., America Online or Internet), date of your access, and electronic address preceded by "Available:" (Do not put a period or other punctuation mark at the end of the electronic address; such marks may make it impossible to access the source.)

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:

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 the page numbers of the printed source or analogue (instead, include the number of paragraphs). For online sources, do not include the date of your access

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

MLA

Rich, Alan. "Sonata Form." Microsoft Multimedia Schubert: The Trout Quintet. CD-ROM. Redmond, WA: Microsoft, 1994.

APA

Rich, A. (1994). Sonata form. Microsoft Multimedia Schubert: The Trout Quintet [CD-ROM]. Redmond, WA: Microsoft.

MLA

Elmer-Dewitt, Philip. "The Genetic Revolution." Time 17 Jan. 1994: 40-52. Time Almanac 1990s. CD-ROM. Softkey, Jan. 1994.

APA

Elmer-Dewitt, P. (1994, January 17). The genetic revolution. Time [CD-ROM]. Time Almanac 1990s. Softkey.

ONLINE SOURCES

General MLA format for online periodical sources:

Author, First name. "Title of Article." Name of Periodical
Date: page nos or number of paragraphs. Title
of Electronic Source Online. Name of Online Service

or Network. Date of your access. Available: electronic address.

General APA format for online periodical sources:

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

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE

MLA

Altman, Robert K. "Gene-Implant Experiments with Humans Are Put Off to Resolve Questions." New York Times 20 Oct. 1988: A7. New York Times Online. Online. Nexis 30 Aug. 1995.

APA

Altman, R. K. (1977, October 20). Gene-implant experiments with humans are put off to resolve questions. New York Times, p. A7. New York Times Online [Online]. Nexis.

MAGAZINE ARTICLE

MLA

Gutin, Jo Ann C. "End of the Rainbow." Discover Nov. 1994: 70-75. Magazine Index. Online. Dialog. 27 May 1995.

APA

Gutin, J. C. (1994, November). End of the rainbow. Discover, 70-75. [Online]. Dialog.

ELECTRONIC JOURNAL

MLA

Zolo, Mary Beth. "The President's Health Care Plan: Implications for Institutional Ethics Committees." Bioethics Bulletin Online (Winter 1994). Online. Internet. 31 Aug. 1995.

APA

Zolo, M. B. (1994, Winter). The president's health care plan: Implications for institutional ethics

committees. Bioethics Bulletin Online [On-line].
Internet.

GOPHER

MLA

"House Chamber Action for the Last Three Legislative Days." 4 Aug. 1995. Online. Internet. 31 Aug. 1995. Available: [gopher//gopher.house.gov/0F-1%3A947%3AHouse%20Actions](http://gopher.house.gov/0F-1%3A947%3AHouse%20Actions)

APA

House chamber action for the last three legislative days (1995, August 4). [On-line]. Available: gopher.house.gov/0F-1%3A947%3AHouse%20Actions

WORLD WIDE WEB

MLA

"The U.S. House of Representatives and the Legislative Process." Aug. 1995. Online. America Online. 31 Aug. 1995. Available <http://www.house.gov/Legproc.html>

APA

The U.S. House of Representatives and the legislative process (1995, August) [On-line]. America Online. Available <http://www.house.gov/Legproc.html>

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.

PART II

An Anthology of Readings

