Solutions to the Most Common Problems

Seen in Students' Writing,

and More

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Author Note

This is a sample of a title page, if necessary to turn in one (no date, according to APA, but you can put one if you'd like to know when you wrote the paper). You can look at this on page 41 of the APA (6th ed.) manual. The title page is the first page, and is now given a running head. The running head and the page go at the top right as they do on all subsequent pages. Use the header function; don't just "type" a header at the top if the page, b/c when the page changes, so does the header, so it shows up in the middle of a page sometimes.

Solutions to the Most Common Problems Seen Writing, and More

To make your writing better, consider doing the following:

Prewriting-stimulus, discussion, thinking, organizing, getting catchy openers, brainstorming.

Rough Draft also called "sloppy copy"-composing, using prewriting as a guide, getting ideas on paper, not worrying about spelling or sentence structure. It is your first draft. It is not perfect, but it is not horrible either.

Revision-supporting/elaborating ideas, are all words needed, exciting words used, does the story make sense to me or to an outside reader, is it "blah" or "wow." Subtracting, combining, rearranging, and expanding are all a part of revision.

Combine—How can I vary sentence openings so as to make it more interesting for my readers. **Rearrange**—Which sentences can be rearranged to avoid the same dull openings such as "Then," "The..."

Subtract—Do I have extra padding that adds bulk, but doesn't say anything? Did I use fillers such as "on account of the fact that," "needless to say," "in the following paragraphs I will..." **Expand**—To support the main ideas, where do I need to expand and answer questions such as who, what, when, where, why, and how? Where are the gaps in the information that my audience needs to know!

Editing-looking carefully at spelling, sentence structure, grammar, mechanics, making it look good.

Publishing-the best looking copy to turn in, either to one's own self, the teacher, or someone else.

Spelling, typos (typographical errors), grammar, mechanics—the whole nine yards do count. (Yes, I know this is not the English department.) If you are applying for a job: **Principals often will throw your letter of application away if they notice a single typo on it!** As teachers, it is important for you model good writing skills for your students, future/ current. It is important you know how to write a good paper and that you do so, no matter what the course. We are all teachers of grammar, spelling, and so on, if you want to get technical about it. I did not like getting papers home from my children's teachers with mistakes all over them. Principals and school board members do not like it. So, you might as well get in the habit now of doing your best on any writing you turn in to me. (Yes, I also know this is a real pain, but that's tough. I am tough. In class I am relaxed and informal, but I expect you to be formal on your papers.)

You ought to check a writing style manual, such as Strunk and White's *The Elements of Style*; the American Psychological Association (APA) *Publication Manual*; or Hopper, Gale, Foote, and Griffith's *Essentials of English*, for clearing up confusing issues. Since I require APA format, it would behoove you to learn it. (White is the writer of *Charlotte's Web*, FYI.)

Go see the people at the writing skills center (at Cortland, it is the ASAP Center). They are excellent resources!

You may use "I" in your papers, if your subject pertains to you. For example, in a personal philosophy of teaching, I would expect to see something along the lines of "I believe all children can learn." This would be instead of "The teacher feels all students can learn." What teacher? Isn't this <u>your</u> belief system? Then, use I..., I feel... It is my opinion that...

3

It is much better to use "I" instead of "you" unless you are speaking directly to the reader. APA doesn't account for the first person, but it is accepted in scholarly journals to use I, so go for it.

Editing marks that may show up on your papers:

delete $\frac{del}{del}$ space needed $^{\circ}$ or $^{\circ}$ space not needed $^{\circ}$ (upside down caret) paragraph \P capitalize \equiv (under the letter) no cap needed _ (under the letter) spelling (circle $^{\circ}$ w/sp) reverse $^{\circ}$ (drawn around words)

neans you did well

NAS (not a sentence) huh? (means I am confused)

what? (means I am confused and do not understand what you are saying)

Things such as "kids," "mom," "dad," or "a lot" are much too informal for papers you turn in for a grade. DO NOT USE THEM IN PAPERS YOU TURN IN. There is a difference in professional writing, writing notes, hate letters, and talking. Even if these words show up in scholarly journal articles, it is still too informal to use these words. The people who are writing the articles are established in the profession and are being reader friendly. You need to be FORMAL.

The use of ! is frowned upon in formal writing. So is the use of contractions such as *isn't* or *don't*. Etc. should be used exceedingly sparingly, if at all. Do not use <u>you</u> in a formal paper, i.e., one that I am grading, unless speaking specifically to the reader, namely me. Most of the time, I have noticed students talking about themselves and they put "you do this." No, I don't, at least probably not to students' knowledge. (This use of "you do ..." or "you find ..." is becoming prevalent in speaking as well, when the speaker is talking about him or herself. It's just WRONG. USE I!!!!) If it is yourself you are speaking of, take credit for it, as in "I do this." If you are speaking of someone else, use "The ____ (insert the name of the person) does this."

Avoid unnecessary words. E. B. White believed authors should write a draft, then cut about 1/3 of their words.

Be specific. Is the meaning clear to the reader? Often, what you (the author) know is more than what you have put on the paper, as you had background knowledge of what you are saying, which your reader does not. Do you need to add an example for clarification? Did you explain your logic/reasoning? Make sure it is clear to the reader, as you may think it is clear because you have all the background knowledge of your topic that the reader doesn't have. Get a good friend to read the paper to see if there are confusing parts, unclear parts. You should read your paper aloud so as to catch awkward syntax, grammar, etc. Use the spellchecker and ask a friend to proofread to catch mistakes.

Avoid incomplete statements. To check for fragments, or parts of sentences:

- 1. Read your composition backwards, one sentence at a time. Begin with your last sentence. Does the sentence make sense? If so, go on. If not, look for a fragment.
- 2. Check for ing words. Michael earns money. Delivering newspapers.
- 3. Check for glue words. Because he delivers papers. Michael earns monev.
- 4. Check for wh words. Who delivers papers. Michael earns money. (It's not a question; it is incomplete as a sentence.)

If you can not tell if your sentence is a sentence or not, read the following words before the sentence with which you are concerned. **I BELIEVE THAT** (then read your sentence). If the sentence sounds ok, it is probably a complete thought. If it sounds confusing, it is probably a fragment. **I believe that** because you are worth it. (Not a sentence, is it?) **I believe that** it will rain in Australia sometime. (Yep, that's a sentence.)

You really should have subject/verb and noun/pronoun agreement. The use of plurals will help you avoid awkward he/she or him/her... also it will help you avoid he/they.

Periods (full stops) and commas go inside quotation marks in the US and in APA format.

Avoid the use of <u>this</u> standing alone as the subject or object. *This is about me. (What "this" are you talking about?)* Also avoid "it" as a stand-alone subject or object. *It was clear.* (What is it?)

Avoid the use of is when. "Occurs when" is much better.

It is helpful in your writing to only have 1 main idea per paragraph. This means you need a topic sentence and then to develop this topic in the paragraph. When you shift to a new idea, you need a new paragraph. Between paragraphs, you need to have linking words, connectives--you know, transition words/phrases. Having the aforementioned lessens the possibility you will have points deducted for problems with your writing.

Don't try to talk to impress me. Follow simple rules of correct writing, don't blather on endlessly—say what you have to say, say it well, and stop. It is not length that counts; it is quality of writing. Back up what you are saying. Don't just say "this is good." Tell me why it is good, in your opinion and when required, use the experts in the field. Or tell me why this is crazy--defend your position.

Avoid usage of gender specific pronouns unless you are speaking specifically of someone. Phrase your sentences so that you do not need a pronoun, so you do not have to use the cumbersome he/she, him/her... Wrong: A student can learn his alphabet. Right: A student can learn the alphabet. Right again (and even better): Students can learn the alphabet. As an aside, the ABC and #s do not belong to anyone. So, saying "Ellen can learn her alphabet," even though Ellen is female and the pronoun her is female, I'll count "her" wrong. Ellen can learn the alphabet.

Grammatical Terms with Which You Should Be Familiar, but May Have Forgotten

Noun—the name of a person, place, or thing (also an idea or object). Common nouns refer to just any person, place, or thing; proper nouns refer to specific persons, places, or things, including objects and ideas. Nouns may be subjects in the sentence, objects of prepositions, and objects of verbs. **Pronoun**—takes the place of a noun.

Verb—demonstrates action or state of being/having/doing/becoming. Verbs also indicate time of the action or the being (past, present, or future). The infinitive form of the verb is to+the verb, as in to be, to run, to skip. *It is an incomplete form as it does not indicate a time.*

Adjectives—describing words, they modify nouns. Adjectives specify color, size, number, and the like. **Adverbs**—these too are describing words, modifying adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs. They specify how much, in what manner, when, and where.

Prepositions—these words demonstrate how a noun or pronoun is related to another work in the sentence. They can also be used in conjunction with a verb, and this combination usually means something different from the use of the verb alone. Examples of prepositions: among (used with several items), between (with two items), at, with, besides, behind, besides, on, with, to, before, over, under, down

Conjunctions—join words, phrases, and/or clauses. Coordinating conjunctions connect elements of the same value (and, but, for, or, nor, either, neither, yet, so, and so that). (Just to confuse you further, yet and so are also adverbs.) Subordinating conjunctions join two clauses, the main one and the dependent (or subordinate clause) one. The conjunctions used with dependent clauses are: although, because, since, until, while, and others which place a stipulation on the sentence.

5

Case refers to the form of a noun or pronoun which shows its relationship to other words in a sentence. We have three (3) cases: nominative (subject of sentence/clause), possessive, and objective (receives action of verb/preposition). Nouns do not change form except in possessive case, when an 's is added. Pronouns have different forms for each case.

Parts of a sentence include

Subject: person, object, or idea being described. Nouns, pronouns, or phrases used as nouns Predicate: explanation of the action, condition, or effect of the subject. Verbs, and words used to explain action or condition.

Phrases: group of words closely related, but have no subject or predicate.

Clauses: group of words with a subject and predicate. Main clause can stand alone. Subordinate clause cannot stand alone as it is incomplete.

A sentence has a complete thought or idea.

Run on sentences--to check for, read your sentence out loud and listen for a natural pause. Where did you hear the pause? Is your sentence punctuated correctly?

(INCORRECT) Michael looked out the window he saw his parents driving up the driveway.

- Use a period (or full stop) as an end punctuation mark. Capitalize the first word of the second sentence.
 - Michael looked out the window. He saw his parents driving up the driveway.
- ❖ Use a comma plus a coordinator, i.e., one of the "boys fan" words--but, or, yet, so, for, and, nor. *Michael looked out the window, and he saw his parents driving up the driveway.*
- Use a semicolon if the two sentences are closely related in meaning.
 Michael looked out the window; he saw his parents driving up the driveway.
- Rewrite, using words such as ING words, GLUE words, or WH words. ING words are: present participles and gerunds such as running, flying, etc. GLUE words are: subordinating conjunctions such as after, although, as, as if, as long as, because, before, even though, if, in order that, since, so that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, whereas, and while. WH words are: relative pronouns--who, whom, whose, which, that.

 Looking out the window, Michael saw his parents driving up the driveway.

 As Michael looked out the window, he saw his parents driving up the driveway.

 Michael, who looked out the window, saw his parents driving up the driveway.
- Use a semi-colon to separate two independent, yet related clauses (see below as well).

 Michael looked out the window; he saw his parents driving up the driveway.

Use a comma:

- 1. To separate items in a series when there are three or more items. Use the comma before **and** and **or**.
- 2. To set off nonessential or non restrictive clauses. This is a clause that embellishes a sentence but, if it is removed, does not harm the grammatical structure or change the meaning.
- 3. To separate independent clauses joined by a conjunction.
- 4. To set off the year in an exact date.
- 5. To set off the year in a parenthetical reference.

Do not use a comma:

1. To separate parts of a compound predicate.

2. Before an essential or restrictive clause.

Use a semicolon:

- 1. To set off two or more independent clauses not joined by conjunctions.
- 2. To set off items in a series when the series already includes commas.

Use quotation marks:

- 1. When quoting directly from someone's work.
- 2. The "first time" a word or phrase is used as an ironic comment, slang, or an invented or coined word.

To connect your paragraphs, and sometimes your sentences, you need transitional devices. These help your reader see how you move from one idea to another. You need to determine the type of relationship and then select a term that expresses that type of relationship. Here are some examples of various sorts of transitional devices.

in similar style or direction			negative choice			
and	bothand			nor	neither (Neith	er rain nor shine)
moreover	likewise			however	only	
besides	indeed			nevertheless	otherwise	
furthermore	also			except that	conversely	
not onlybut also						
comparison			condition			
moreover	indeed			if	providing	
in fact	than			unless	as if	
asas	soas			though	although	
such	accordingly			provided	as though	
similarly				in the case of		
contrast			concession			
but yet				unless	insofar as	
not onlybut a	also			the fact that	however	
nevertheless				though	although	
still althou				while	yet	
on the other hand				admittedly		
indication of results			time			
therefore	thus			then	until	next
as a result				when	before	meanwhile
consequently				since	while	second
hence	obviously			before	now	last
for	SO			soon	later	at length
inasmuch as				earlier	from then on	
so that because	se			at the outset	in future	
introduction of examples			positive choice			
for example				eitheror	or	also
for instance				still	moreover	accordingly
in particular				likewise		
whether	whereas					
place						
where	wherever	outside	beyond	here bey	ond inside abo	ove
near	overhead	ahead	behind	nearby	beneath	

Words Which Fire Tonfusing:

<u>Affect</u> is generally a verb meaning influence. <u>Effect</u> is generally a noun that means an outcome or response.

It's—it is or it has. Its—possessive form of it.

There—place (see here in the word). Their—possessive pronoun (this word has a person in it). They're—they are.

To—part of an infinitive, preposition. Too—also. Two—2, II.

Cite—to reference, quote. Site—place. Sight—the ability to see.

Usually "'s"—1 possessive, i.e., boy's bat. Usually "s"—2+ possessive, i.e., boys' bats.

Rapport—camaraderie, understanding. Report—account, narrative.

Then—time. Than—used in comparative statements to introduce the second element. Thin—slim, skinny.

You're—you are. Your—possessive pronoun.

Complement—to go with well. Compliment—say something nice about someone or some thing.

Comer is someone who comes. Comma is a piece of punctuation. (An apostrophe is also piece of punctuation.)

Aloud and out loud both mean the same thing – a person can hear whatever it is. But, **aloud** is all one word and **out loud** is two words.

Using 2 words: Every day means on a daily basis. Using one word: Everyday means ordinary.

Verbal has to do with words, whether they are spoken or written. A lot of times, we use verbal to stand for "written" and a lot of times we use verbal to stand for "oral." Be specific and use "written" or "oral" (or even "spoken") to be very clear to your listener or reader.

8

About the Actual Writing Papers

Paraphrasing is better than quoting for several reasons. One, you've demonstrated comprehension of what you've read as well as the ability to synthesize and analyze. Your paper is truly your paper when you have paraphrased; it is not a stringing together of quotes that may or may not make sense or be about what you think they are. You should avoid block quotes, unless there is absolutely, positively, most assuredly no other way to say the words/idea. If you are writing a 1-5 page paper, you should limit yourself to only one quote (a small one). If you are writing a 5-10 page paper, two quotes should suffice. If you are writing a 25-50 page paper, between 5-10 quotes would be the limit. Of course, if a course instructor requires you to use quotes, that's different. Follow the rules (i.e., requirements) of the course instructor,

APA References—you make a <u>reference</u> (the list at the back) to only the works <u>cited</u> (used) in your paper. This is not a complete list of books/magazines/journals consulted. This is a reference list for sources actually used, in a paraphrase or in a direct quote; in MLA style, it is called a works cited page. In APA, it is called a reference page. In addition, there are no footnotes in APA style (hooray). Instead, you cite in the body of the paper. To cite using APA 6th edition in the body, for a paraphrase you do it like this (Jampole, 2009; Summers & Irvin-Gonzalez, 2007) and keep going. You must cite because when you have gotten the idea from someone else, even though you are not using their words, you must give them credit. That is called a paraphrase. Or, if you wish, you do it at the end of your sentence (Pass, Buxton, & Cohen, 2000). Using Randolph and Cervoni's work (as cited in Kuklis, Jampole, Bogandcherry, & Alter, 2004) is citing a secondary source, that is, if you paraphrase someone's work from a work you are reading rather than the original, you cite it as above. This is not everything there is to know about citing; buy the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association to be truly in the know. Jampole (2010, in press) said to also do it this way. "If it is a direct quote, you must write it with quote marks, and give the author, date, and paragraph number if it is given in a web-based document, with the period after the cite" (Buxton, 2005, ¶ 4). Monty-Python (2000, conclusion section, para. 9) said to give the "heading and number of the paragraph if the

paragraphs are not numbered," meaning you have to count paragraphs. "Regular quotes are cited thusly, if from a print source (non-electronic source)" (Jampole, 2005, p. 5). But, if it is a block quote, it is done differently. Spamalot (2002) said:

A block quote is 40 or more words taken from someone else. It is not really a good idea to do this, unless absolutely necessary, and then you do not string two block quotes together. It really looks like you do not know how to make sense of, or understand, what you have read if you continue to quote and to make several block quotes. Notice no quote marks? There aren't any in a block quote. (p. 34567)

Personal communication is "stuff" like interviews, telephone conversations, letters, emails, memos, and non-archived postings to message boards on the Internet. In other words, it is non-retrievable data. The personal communication is cited in the body of the paper, but not in the reference list (D. R. Troike, personal communication, September 10, 2007).

YOU MUST GIVE ALL AUTHORS CREDIT FOR THE WORK AND YOU MUST LIST THEM IN THE ORDER GIVEN, because if you do not, it is considered making up references and is a form of plagiarism (Jampole, Mosher, & Dudgeon, 1998; Pumpkineater, Grimm, Charming, Goose, & Aardvark, 2005). You really need to check the APA manual for more "how to" help. I do not show you here how to do running heads, levels of headings, and page numbers here; not all forms of references are done below. See pages 92-93 of the sixth edition of the manual for how to cite quotes. References are on their own page, rather than being at the end of your last sentence. And they are called references, not works cited or bibliography. How to do references begins on page 193in APA and ends on page 224. The following list is just a hopefully helpful summary of what is in the publication manual.

APA online is good for citing a URL or uniform resource locator. If you must cite (and then reference) a URL, copy and paste from your browser window, to ensure you've got the correct address. I like Sean Connery, so I used him as my URL example. The links are live as of May 31, 2010. I found info about him (and ads drat it all)

(<u>http://www.starpulse.com/Actors/Connery, Sean/</u>). It's worth looking at if you like him. I

drilled deeper; to see what other info I could find out and I found a biography (http://www.starpulse.com/Actors/Connery, Sean/Biography/). Make sure though that the site is still live and not corrupted before you turn in your paper to your professor. In the APA manual (6th edition), there is information about message boards and electronic mailing lists and other online communities on pages 214-215.

This information should be helpful to you in writing papers not only for me, but for other courses as well. Refer to these sheets as well as your papers to see the types of errors you made and how to avoid them on other papers. Refer to the APA manual for help before turning in papers. It is quite clearly laid out in there what you should do and how to do it.

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of the APA manual)

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(authors, date, article name, journal name, volume number, and pages)

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 (Give the rightsholder, year, name of program, description of form, location, and producer; see page 210 of the APA manual.

From the APA Manual (6th edition)

To cite a specific part of a source, indicate the page, chapter, figure, table, or equation at the appropriate point in text. Always give page numbers for quotations (see section 6.19). Note that the word *page* is abbreviated in such text citations:

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(Cheek & Buss, 1981, p. 332)
(Shimamura, 1989, Chapter 3)
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For electronic sources that do not provide page numbers, use the paragraph number, if available, preceded by the paragraph symbol or the abbreviation para. If neither paragraph nor page numbers are visible, cite the heading and the number of the paragraph following it to direct the reader to the location of the material.

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(Myers, 2000, ¶ 5)
(Beutler, 2000, Conclusion section, para. 1)
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General Form for Electronic References

Electronic sources include aggregated databases, online journals, Web sites or Web pages, newsgroups, Web- or e-mail-based discussion groups, and Web- or e-mail-based newsletters.

Online periodical:

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (2000). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx(xx), pp-pp. doi: xx.xxxxx

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (2000). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx(xx), pp-pp. Retrieved from http://www.xxxxx (if there is no doi) – notice no period after the URL, either.

Online document:

Author, A. A. (2000). *Title of work*. Retrieved month day, year, from source.

Electronic Media and URLs

Sources on the Internet. See Crediting Sources, section 6 of the 6th edition of the APA manual.

The Internet is a worldwide network of interconnected computers. Although there are a number of methods for navigating and sharing information across the Internet, by far the most popular and familiar is the graphical interface of the World Wide Web. The vast majority of Internet sources cited in APA journals are those that are accessed via the Web.

The variety of material available on the Web, and the variety of ways in which it is structured and presented, can present challenges for creating usable and useful references. Regardless of format, however, authors using and citing Internet sources should observe the following two guidelines:

- 1. Direct readers as closely as possible to the information being cited; whenever possible, reference specific documents rather than home or menu pages.
- 2. Provide addresses that work.

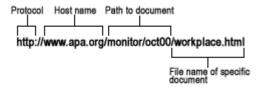
Documents available via the Internet include articles from periodicals (e.g., newspaper, newsletter, or journal); they may stand on their own (e.g., research paper, government report, online book or brochure);

or they may have a quintessentially Web-based format (e.g., Web page, newsgroup).

At a minimum, a reference of an Internet source should provide a document title or description, a date (either the date of publication or update or the date of retrieval), and an address (in Internet terms, a uniform resource locator, or URL). Whenever possible, identify the authors of a document as well.

The URL is the most critical element: If it doesn't work, readers won't be able to find the cited material, and the credibility of your paper or argument will suffer. The most common reason URLs fail is that they are transcribed or typed incorrectly; the second most common reason is that the document they point to has been moved or deleted.

The components of a URL are as follows:



The protocol indicates what method a Web browser (or other type of Internet software) should use to exchange data with the file server on which the desired document resides. The protocols recognized by most browsers are hypertext transfer protocol (http), hypertext transfer protocol secure (https), and file transfer protocol (ftp); other Internet protocols include telnet and gopher. In a URL, all of the protocols listed in this paragraph should be followed by a colon and two forward slashes (e.g., http://).

The host name identifies the server on which the files reside. On the Web, it is often the address for an organization's home page (e.g., http://www.apa.org is the address for APA's home page). Although most host names start with "www," not all do (for example, http://journals.apa.org is the home page for APA's electronic journals, and http://members.apa.org is the entry page to the members-only portion of the APA site). The host name is not case sensitive; for consistency and ease of reading, always type it in lowercase letters.

The rest of the address indicates the directory path leading to the desired document. This part of the URL is case sensitive; faithfully reproduce uppercase and lowercase letters and all punctuation. It is important to provide the directory path, and not just the host name, because home pages and menu pages typically consist mainly of links, only one of which may be to the document or information you want the readers to find. If there are hundreds of links (or even just 10 to 20), readers may give up in frustration before they have located the material you are citing.

If you are using a word-processing program, the easiest way to transcribe a URL correctly is to copy it directly from the address window in your browser and paste it into your paper (make sure the automatic hyphenation feature of your word processor is turned off). Do not insert a hyphen if you need to break a URL across lines; instead, break the URL after a slash or before a period.

Test the URLs in your references regularly when you first draft a paper, when you submit it for peer review, when you're preparing the final version for publication, and when you're reviewing the proofs. If the document you are citing has moved, update the URL so that it points to the correct location. If the document is no longer available, you may want to substitute another source (e.g., if you originally cited a draft and a formally published version now exists) or drop it from the paper altogether.

Electronic Media Spelling Guide

Dictionaries are not the best guide to spelling in the electronic world. This is an extremely fast moving environment and common usage develops quickly, leaving print resources easily bypassed.

Below is a list of common terms and their current preferred spelling.

- database
- DOI
- e-journal
- e-mail
- FTP
- Internet
- LISTSERV* (tm) -- the generic term is electronic mailing list
- online
- PDF
- SGML
- URL
- Web

*LISTSERV is a trademarked, proprietary term; unless you know that is what is being used, you should use "electronic mailing list" rather than the, admittedly, more commonly used "list server."

A DOI is a way to persistently identify information which is found on digital networks. Digital Object Identifier is what DOI stands for and it is a unique alphanumeric string assigned by the International DOI Foundation to identify content.

When retrieving information from a database aggregators, such as EBSCO, it is not necessary to provide the database info, as that may change over time. Some archival documents are found ONLY on JSTOR or ERIC and if the document cannot be easily found through its "primary publishing channel, give the home or entry page URL for the online archive" (APA Manual, 2010, p. 192).