# Research Handbook

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### Shortcuts that should become your best friend:

- Ctrl + A selects all text
- Ctrl + C copies selected text
- Ctrl + X cuts selected text
- Ctrl + V pastes copied text
- Ctrl 2 will double space selected text. Ctrl 1 will single space selected text.
- Ctrl Z will undo automatic actions taken by the computer.
- Ctrl F will find words (such as “you”) and highlight them. You can also replace the highlighted words.
- Shift + Enter will allow you to move text that wouldn’t move before.
- Ctrl + Tab will allow you to tab just one line; try it if two lines move when you hit the Tab key.
Writing a Thesis Statement
(from the Writing Center at UNC Chapel Hill)

A thesis statement:

- tells the reader how you will interpret the significance of the subject matter under discussion.
- is a road map for the paper; in other words, it tells the reader what to expect from the rest of the paper.
- directly answers the question asked of you, or a question you pose. A thesis is an interpretation of a question or subject, not the subject itself. The subject, or topic, of an essay might be World War II or Moby Dick; a thesis must then offer a way to understand the war or the novel.
- makes a claim that others might dispute.
- is usually a single sentence somewhere in your first paragraph that presents your argument to the reader. The rest of the paper, the body of the essay, gathers and organizes evidence that will persuade the reader of the logic of your interpretation.

How do I get a thesis?
A thesis is the result of a lengthy thinking process. Formulating a thesis is not the first thing you do after getting the assignment. Before you develop an argument on any topic, you have to collect and organize evidence, look for possible relationships between known facts (such as surprising contrasts or similarities), and think about the significance of these relationships. Once you do this, you will probably have a "working thesis," a basic or main idea, an argument that you think you can support with evidence but that may need adjustment along the way.

Writers use all kinds of techniques to stimulate their thinking and to help them clarify relationships or comprehend the broader significance of a topic and arrive at a thesis statement. One method is to pose a research question. The best way to become an informed citizen is to ask good questions that uncover the central issues and motives that shaped events, ideas, and peoples’ actions. An analytic approach looks at causes and effects rather than just providing a narrative. How and Why become the focus, rather than Who, What, Where, and When.

- Bad Questions: Who are the leaders in Syria? When did rebellion start?
- Better Question: Why did Syrians revolt against their government?

Good research questions should. . .

- Address causes or effects
- Be open-ended (not having a yes or no answer)
- Be argumentative (can be legitimately answered in multiple ways)
- Be specific

Here are a couple of examples of solid open-ended questions that have multiple possible answers:

- How will President Obama’s new immigration policy affect young, undocumented immigrants?
- What impact will the Mars Rover landing have on future space exploration?
Always remember that your entire paper is an elaborate answer to your research question, so it is not only important that you form a question you can live with, it is also important to form a question that you have an opinion about and can be answered through the use of multiple sources.

If you write a solid research question, it is much easier to write an effective thesis, for you are answering your question.

For example: The Syrian revolt against their government is not a movement to demonize their officials, but rather a crusade to gain freedom, justice, and political reform in an attempt to democratize their country.

OR President Obama’s new immigration policy will give young, talented people the chance to step out of the shadows of illegality and demonstrate the positive impact that they can have on American society if given a chance.

How do I know if my thesis is strong?

When reviewing your first draft and its working thesis, ask yourself the following:

- Does my thesis statement answer the question? Re-reading the research question after constructing a working thesis can help you fix an argument that misses the focus of the question.
- Have I taken a position that others might challenge or oppose? If your thesis simply states facts that no one would, or even could, disagree with, it's possible that you are simply providing a summary, rather than making an argument.
- Is my thesis statement specific enough? Thesis statements that are too vague often do not have a strong argument. If your thesis contains words like "good" or "successful," see if you could be more specific: why is something "good"; what specifically makes something "successful"?
- Does my thesis pass the "So what?" test? If a reader's first response is, "So what?" then you need to clarify, to forge a relationship, or to connect to a larger issue.
- Does my thesis pass the "how and why?" test? If a reader's first response is "how?" or "why?" your thesis may be too open-ended and lack guidance for the reader. See what you can add to give the reader a better take on your position right from the beginning.
- Does my essay support my thesis specifically and without wandering? If your thesis and the body of your essay do not seem to go together, one of them has to change. It's okay to change your working thesis to reflect things you have figured out in the course of writing your paper. Remember, always reassess and revise your writing as necessary.

Remember that you can (and should!) revise your thesis continually throughout the research process. It is highly unlikely that your first thesis statement will be written so well that you can use it without revision in the final paper.
Using Websites and Databases

SEARCHING THE INTERNET

➢ Do not go straight to Google, or Yahoo, or Bing or any other number of search engines and type in your topic every time you sit down to do research. Search smart!
   ○ If you want to use Google, try News Google, Google Scholar or Google Squared first
   ○ Or use Boolean operators
     + between search terms will give you faster results
     “site:edu” will limit your search to educational sites
     “site:gov” will limit your search to government sites

➢ Use a metasearch engine, such as Yippy, IXQUICK, Dogpile, Mamma etc., which searches ALL of the other search engines

➢ Use a web site that has previously evaluated web sites and found them to be useful, such as ipl.org (the Internet Public Library), which also offers links to thousands of subjects

➢ Whenever you’re searching on the Internet, use specific terms and **look for keywords** you can use to further refine your search. Don’t keep searching using the same term and expect different results. That’s crazy. . .really. That’s the definition of insanity! You are guaranteed to find the same information in every source. . . because you’re looking for the same information.

PROFESSIONAL DATABASES

**NCWISEOWL**
http://www.ncwiseowl.org/
Password: ask me
➢ Click on High School Zone
➢ Once there, click on a database that is relevant to your research.
➢ You can also do a basic search and it will explore all of the databases.

**NCLIVE**
http://nclive.org/
Password: library card number
➢ Choose Cabarrus County/Charles A. Cannon
➢ Enter your library card number
➢ Go to “Current Issues,” then CQ Researcher
➢ Other links in NCLIVE: MasterFILE, Newspaper Source Plus, Points of View, TOPICsearch, Student Research Center, and many more.

OTHER RESOURCES

**DESTINY: ON-LINE CATALOG AND RESOURCE PAGE**
➢ Go to the MPHS Homepage
   ○ select the Media Center button on the left
   ○ click Destiny

**ACCESS TO CABARRUS COUNTY LIBRARIES**
➢ Go to http://www.cabarruscounty.us/Library/
   ○ Choose “Catalog” from the contents list
Tips for Evaluating Internet Sources
(from Research and Documentation Online 5th Edition)

BEFORE YOU DECIDE TO CITE A WEB SITE IN YOUR PAPER, TAKE THE TIME TO EVALUATE IT!

CHECKING FOR SIGNS OF BIAS
- Does the author or publisher have political leanings or religious views that could affect objectivity?
- Is the author or publisher associated with a special-interest group, such as Greenpeace or the National Rifle Association, which might promote one side of the issue?
- Are alternative views presented and addressed? How fairly does the author treat opposing views?
- Does the author’s language show signs of bias?

ASSESSING AN ARGUMENT
- What is the author’s central claim or thesis?
- How does the author support this claim—with relevant and sufficient evidence or with just a few anecdotes or emotional examples?
- Are statistics consistent with those you encounter in other sources? Have they been used fairly? Does the author explain where the statistics came from? (It is possible to “lie” with statistics by using them selectively or by omitting mathematical details.)
- Are any of the assumptions questionable?
- Does the author consider opposing arguments and refute them persuasively?
- Does the author fall prey to any logical fallacies? (If this . . ., then that . . .)

DETERMING THE QUALITY OF THE SITE
- Does the layout appear professional? (no dancing, flashing graphics; minimal advertisements)
- Can you easily locate the author and/or sponsor of the site? Is the sponsor reputable?
- Is there a way to contact the author?
- Did the author document his or her sources? Use reliable, credible sources?
- Are those sources real? Can you verify them?
- Are the hyperlinks reliable, valuable? Do the links work?
- Are there grammatical or spelling errors on the page?
Preparing Source Cards/Writing Citations

Source cards/citations can be written on index cards, typed in a Word document, or created on power point slides. Each citation requires particular information that you will need when you document the information in your paper and write your Works Cited page. If you prepare your citations correctly, it will be easy to write a Works Cited page.

The information and order of that information will vary based on the source, so refer to first section of this packet for the particulars, or use a citation maker. It is important that you copy down all information as it appears, and that you follow the models given EXACTLY. This includes punctuation and capitalization.

Regardless of the type of source, you must number every source card/citation. If you are using a library book, you might also include the call number in the lower right-hand corner for future reference. If you do not wish to make source cards, number the sources in your annotated bibliography.

Book with two authors

| Source Number | Collins, Marva and Civia Tamarkin. Marva

Writing an Annotated Bibliography

Create the bibliography following the MLA style, in alphabetical order. Double space citations and use a hanging indentation (the lines AFTER the first line are indented [see the source card example]. Use the Ctrl key and the Tab key at the same time.)

For the annotation, READ THE ENTIRE SOURCE, or, if it is long, such as an entire book, review relevant portions of the entire work so that you can critically describe its value.

Then, write a paragraph between 150 to 200 words, or five to seven sentences, single spaced, following the citation. Within this paragraph, you must answer the following questions:

1. WHO? (Authority) What is the author’s background? Where did he/she go to school? What kind of experience does the author have? Provide the author’s qualifications or the authority of the publication. State credentials or degrees, or experience. If it is a corporate authority or Web site, state the mission—the reason they exist. If there is no author, explain why you would like to use the source anyway.

2. WHAT? (Scope) What kind of resource do you have? Is it news, a newspaper, a personal Web site, general encyclopedia, specialized Reference book, magazine article, business Web site, product manual, editorial, book, interview, blog, advertisement, speech, a law, etc.? Do not just say it’s a web site. Be specific.

3. WHY? (Content) Why do you want to use the source? What does it have that is different from what you already have? (Example: You chose a source because it provides background information, or an expert opinion, or statistics, or an update, or a different point of view.) Is the content accurate? Does the author provide his/her sources? Do the links on the page work?

4. HOW? (Value) How will you use it? Why do you need it? What is its relevance to your thesis? How will it help you to support your thesis? Be specific.
Here are some vocabulary words and sentence starters that you might use:

This (article, author, etc.) explains. . .
This author is an expert in the field of. . .
The author is a member of. . .
The author is against. . .
The ____supports the position that. . .
This _____discusses. . .
This _____investigates. . .
This _____focuses on. . .
This _____is unique because. . .
This _____shows that. . .
This _____includes. . .
This _____is the key to understanding. . .
The information is valuable/unique because. . .
I will use this information to support. . .
This ____is unique to this topic because. . .
This is the only resource that provided. . .
The mission of the Web site is. . .

Example Annotated Bibliography with ONE ENTRY (Look on my web page for a full example):

Follow the directions for formatting the first page of your research paper to help you set up your annotated bibliography.

Your Name
Mrs. Tomasino
English III
Due date

Annotated Bibliography

Thesis: J. Robert Oppenheimer’s contribution to the Manhattan Project propelled America and the rest of the world into a new type of warfare when he successfully removed science from the laboratory and placed it into combat.


The authors of this site are scientists with several published essays on nuclear power. Each has a doctorate from an Ivy League school. This resource presents a general overview of the topic of nuclear power. I found the article in the NCLive database, so I know that it has been reviewed by professionals. The article was originally published in the Environmental Encyclopedia, a standard reference work published annually. It discusses various kinds of power plants, gives a brief history of nuclear power, and points out the problems with using nuclear power such as accidents, terrorism, nuclear weapons, and nuclear waste. Because it is from Opposing Viewpoints, it contains opinions from people on both sides of the argument. It is valuable to my research because it gives me the background information I need to complete my introductory information.
Taking Notes and Making Note Cards

Sample Note Cards

Topic: Leukemia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-topic</th>
<th>Source Number</th>
<th>Page #</th>
<th>Paragraph #</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemotherapy with radiation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Paragraph 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bone marrow transplant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical Definition</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“It is a disease of the blood, forming tissue...”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You may take notes on index cards or power point slides (which you will print as a handout—6 to a page). This will give you the flexibility to change the order of your notes and group them together easily (such as by subtopic). This is particularly helpful when it’s time to create an outline.

If you’re really not a visual, hands-on learner, you may choose to take notes in a way that does suit your learning style. Just let me know what you’re planning.

However you decide to take notes, it is important to remember one thing: every note must relate directly to your research question or thesis statement.

There are different ways to take notes:

- Direct quotations—copying word for word from the source. You might use this to write your note cards, but you will use it sparingly in your paper. Use it when the exact language is necessary, or a person’s words are the best way to make your point. Obviously, you must give credit to the source of the information—record the number of the source and the page number on your note card. Also, be sure to use quotation marks to avoid plagiarism. You might want to mark this card with a “DQ.”
  - Please keep in mind that direct quotations should make up no more than 10% (60-100 words) of your entire paper. Your objective in writing this research paper is to draw your own conclusions, make your own points, OWN the topic.
- Summaries—summing up a large portion of the text in one or two sentences. Even though you are using your own words, you must give credit to the source. No quotation marks are necessary. Consider marking the card with an “S.”
- Paraphrases—putting into your own words a portion of the text. Sometimes, a paraphrase is longer than the text; sometimes it is shorter. A paraphrase differs from a summary in that you are looking at one word at a time and putting the text into your own words, rather than summing up the general idea of the text. This is what you will do with the majority of your notes when you write your paper. Again, you must give credit to the source. No quotation marks are necessary, unless you quote a portion directly. Consider marking the card with a “P.”
  - Paraphrasing is more than changing word-order, eliminating adjectives, or changing a few words. This is what leads to plagiarism. True paraphrasing takes time: Read the source until you understand it; then cover the information and write your note. Finally, double-check your information for accuracy.
Here’s the procedure to follow for each note:
1. Write only one main point on a note card. Use a separate card/slide for each note, each piece of information.
2. Do not write on the back of the cards.
3. Write information directly related to your thesis statement only.
4. Write only essential words; abbreviate when possible. Cut nonessential parts of a quotation by using ellipsis points (...).
5. Be accurate: Double check direct quotations and statistics.
6. Identify direct quotations with quotation marks and the person’s name. Pay attention to his/her background so that you can effectively introduce the information in your paper.
7. Distinguish between 'fact' and 'opinion.'
8. Include the source's number on the card.
9. Write the page number of the source after the note (if applicable). If the source does not have page numbers, you might include the paragraph number so that you can quickly and easily locate the information later.
10. Write a sub-topic at the top of the card--this will come in handy when it is time to outline your paper.

Paraphrase: Write it in Your Own Words

A paraphrase is...
- your own understanding of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form.
- one legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source.
- a more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea. A paraphrase is similar in length to the original passage.

A paraphrase is NOT... 
- changing the word order.
- swapping in a few synonyms.

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because...
- it is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage.
- it helps you control the temptation to quote too much.
- the mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original, which means that you have a better understanding of your topic.

6 Steps to Effective Paraphrasing
1. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.
2. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card (or whatever method you’ve chosen).
3. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase. (Another option is to record which section of your rough outline the note supports: A, B, C.)
4. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.
5. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phrase you have borrowed exactly from the source.
6. Record a source number on your note card so that you can credit it easily when you incorporate the material into your paper.
Some examples to compare

The original passage:
Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. From Antoine Lester, Writing a Research Paper, pages 46-47

A legitimate paraphrase:
In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46-47).

An acceptable summary:
Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester 46-47).

A plagiarized version:
- Students often overuse direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should appear as directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied exactly while taking notes.

What is Plagiarism?
(from the University of Southern Mississippi.)

Plagiarism is the act of taking another person's writing, conversation, song, or even idea and passing it off as your own. This includes information from web pages, books, songs, television shows, email messages, interviews, articles, artworks or any other medium. Whenever you paraphrase, summarize, or take words, phrases, or sentences from another person's work, it is necessary to indicate the source of the information within your paper using a parenthetical citation. It is not enough to just list the source in a Works Cited at the end of your paper. Failing to properly quote, cite or acknowledge someone else's words or ideas with a citation is plagiarism.

What is “Common Knowledge”?

Common knowledge needs no internal citation in a paper. Common knowledge includes information that is considered a well-established fact verifiable in three or more DIFFERENT sources. It also includes common sayings and proverbs ("look before you leap") and historical dates, places and events.

An example of common knowledge needing no citation: George Washington was born February 22, 1732.

What is a “Unique Phrase”?

A unique phrase does need an internal citation. A unique phrase is one which is coined by an author and used commonly by other authors in a specific genre or discipline, but it is not necessarily a common fact or phrase used by everyone. An example of a unique phrase is “era of error,” coined by author Kass Ghayouri.
Using Your Notes Effectively

**Use a quotation when . . .**
- the language is especially vivid or expressive
- exact wording is needed for technical accuracy (for example, statistics or specific terminology)
- it is important to let the experts on an issue explain their positions in their own words the words of an important authority lend weight to an argument

**Use a summary of the information when . . .**
- A passage is long and you simply want to capture the main idea

**Use a paraphrase of the information when . . .**
- You can capture the meaning of the source in your own words, without losing anything important.

Remember: 90% of the paper should be made up of paraphrasing and summarizing of your research, along with your own conclusions. Quotations should make up the other 10%.

Effectively Using Quotations
(from the Writing Center at the University of Richmond)

**General Principles**
- Move smoothly from the source information to your own thoughts—dropped quotations cause the reader become confused as to the appropriateness and relevance of that particular quotation.
- Introduce the quotation in a signal phrase, which usually includes the author's name or the source from which it came, to give the reader adequate notice of the relevance and importance of the quotation.

*Example of a quotation that lacks adequate introduction:*

The men in Stephen Crane's short story, "The Open Boat," are courageous; they want to live. "The idealistic virtues of bravery, fortitude, and integrity possess no meaning in a universe that denies the importance of man" (Stein 151). The ideals of their native environment, then, mean little when confronted with the harshness of the open ocean. These men finally realize that it is possible they will die.

While the writer addresses the importance of the quotation, this discussion comes after it is "dropped into the paper." **The following example illustrates a better use of this particular quotation:**

The men in Stephen Crane's short story, "The Open Boat," are courageous; they want to live. As critic William Bysshe Stein points out, however, "the idealistic virtues of bravery, fortitude, and integrity possess no meaning in a universe that denies the importance of man" (Stein 151). The ideals of their native environment, then, mean little when confronted with the harshness of the open ocean. These men finally realize that it is possible they will die.

In the example, the quotation is well-introduced. The author of the quotation is identified, as is the quotation's relation to the previous statement. From the introduction, the reader can detect the contrast between the quotation and the first sentence of the paragraph.
Integrating Quotations

To avoid abrupt stops and starts in your research paper, you should integrate quotations by blending them into your own sentence. To do this effectively, you must do the following:

1. Decide what part of the quotation is **critical** to your paper. What keys words or phrases are necessary to make the point and support your thesis?

2. Signal to your reader that something important is coming up by introducing the quotation with a signal phrase. Always introduce quotations with a **signal phrase** so that your reader knows what to expect. It is a good idea to introduce these quotations using a varied wording. It becomes monotonous if all the quotations in a paper are introduced with stock phrases: "this critic states" or "another critic says." A paper is much more interesting and cohesive if the introductory phrases, or "signal phrases," are varied. SMOOTHLY integrate those critical pieces of the quotation into your own sentence. Sometimes this requires changing an ending, adding a word, or deleting a word or two.
   a. To change a word ending, or to add a word, use brackets [ ].
   b. To indicate that you have deleted part of the quotation, use the ellipsis mark . . .

**Here are some possible signal phrases:**

- According to Jane Doe, "..."
- As Jane Doe goes on to explain, "..."
- Characterized by John Doe, the society is "..."
- As one critic points out, "..."
- John Doe believes that "..."
- Jane Doe claims that "..."
- In the words of John Doe, "..."

A fine shade of meaning exists between words such as "contend" and "argue" and large differences between ones such as "claim" and "demonstrate." Ask yourself questions as to whether the source material is making a claim, asserting a belief, stating a fact, etc. Then choose a verb that is appropriate for the source material's purpose.

**A list of possible verbs for use in the introduction of quotations follows. Double-check meanings before using them!**

- acknowledges
- adds
- admits
- affirms
- agrees
- argues
- asserts
- believes
- claims
- comments
- compares
- confirms
- contends
- declares
- demonstrates
- disputes
- emphasizes
- endorses
- grants
- illustrates
- implies
- insists
- notes
- observes
- points out
- reasons
- refutes
- rejects
- reports
- responds
- states
- suggests
- thinks
- underlines
- writes

3. Cite the quotation. You must cite to avoid plagiarism.

4. Explain the importance of the quotation. Let your reader know why you chose to quote those words. Keep in mind, your explanation should be longer than the quotation. The explanation is your chance to share your feelings about the topic, to show your reader that you learned something about your topic.
EXAMPLE
1. Choose what is critical and discard the rest: Ralph Waldo Emerson, page 187: “There is a time in every man’s education when he arrives at the conviction that envy is ignorance; that imitation is suicide; that he must take himself for better, for worse, as his portion
2. Signal phrase: Ralph Waldo Emerson’s teachings on self-reliance make it clear that
3. Quotation: “envy is ignorance [and] imitation is suicide”
4. Citation: (187). Because I used the author’s name in my signal phrase, I do not need to repeat it in the citation.
5. Explanation: The idea of envying something or someone implies a desire to be in that position, but what Emerson makes clear is that envy is fueled by ignorance. Without a full understanding of the object of one’s envy, one completely ignores the backstory. Furthermore, being envious prevents the development of one’s individuality. To wish to be like someone else is to deny one’s own individual potential—commit “suicide”—thus remaining in the darkness of ignorance.

Putting it all together: Ralph Waldo Emerson’s teachings on self-reliance make it clear that “envy is ignorance [and] imitation is suicide” (187). The idea of envying something or someone implies a desire to be in that position, but what Emerson makes clear is that envy is fueled by ignorance.

Punctuation Basics: Only two punctuation marks are used to introduce quotations: the comma and the colon (:). Note that a semicolon (;) is not used to introduce quotations.

Rules:
1. Use a colon if you introduce a quotation with a complete sentence → Emerson emphasizes this point: “Quotation.”
2. Use a comma if you use a verb in your signal phrase → Emerson states, “Quotation.”
3. No punctuation is needed if you do not use either of the methods above → Emerson states that “quotation.”
4. If there is no parenthetical citation (because the information was provided in a signal phrase), the punctuation goes inside the final quotation mark (“like this.”).
5. Semicolons and colons, however, go outside of the final quotation mark (“like this;”).
6. Question marks and exclamations points go outside of the final quotation mark if the punctuation mark is part of the writer’s sentence—the writer’s question or exclamation (“like this?”). Those marks go inside of the final quotation mark if they are a part of the original—the source’s question or exclamation (“like this!”).

Points to remember:
• Most of your paper (90%) should be made up of paraphrased/summarized information (you still need to cite it!) and your conclusions.
• Do not change the meaning of the original sources when you paraphrase.
• If you need to use a word or phrase as it appears in the source, but the rest of the information is paraphrased, simply use quotation marks around the word or phrase.
• Cite directly after a direct quotation.
• Always, always, always follow a quotation with YOUR THOUGHTS. Rule of thumb: Two lines of student thought (interpretation, explanation) should follow one line of quoted material.
How and When To Use Block Quotations

1. Block quotations are used only if a quotation runs more than four lines in your paper.
2. Introduce the block quotation with a signal phrase; always use a colon at the end of the signal phrase.
3. Quotation marks are not used to open/close block quotations.
4. Block quotations are indented 10 spaces from the left margin.
5. Block quotations run flush to the right margin.
6. Punctuation goes at the end of the quotation’s final sentence, not after the citation.

EXAMPLE (from englishdiscourse.org):

The first stage of the meditative process focuses on the event itself as opposed to scripture, which for Milton problematizes memory. Further, evidence suggests that Milton understood exactly what it meant to retreat, Ignatian-style, into the inner self for private imaginings:

It is better therefore to contemplate the Deity, and to conceive of him, not with reference to human passions, that is, after the manner of men, who are never weary of forming subtle imaginations respecting him, but after the manner of Scripture... (CE xiv. 33)

Who are these ambiguous men who “never weary of forming subtle imaginations”? St. Ignatius Loyola? St. Bernard of Clairvaux? St. Bonaventure?

Writing a Formal Outline

WHY CREATE A FORMAL OUTLINE?

A research paper is too involved for you to plan mentally. Therefore, you will organize your notes into a formal outline; think of it as a type of graphic organizer. This is where you show the relationship among the ideas you’ve learned throughout your research. For example, is one idea similar to or different from another? Is one a cause of another? An effect? An example? Is one idea the solution to another? Do two points represent different categories of a larger idea? In other words, do your ideas fall into one of the conventional approaches to thinking about an issue: cause-effect, problem-solution, comparison-contrast, definition, classification? You can use these standard approaches to help you think through your ideas and come up with a logical plan. This plan then becomes your outline. If done well, you will find that writing the paper is simply a matter of adding transitional words and phrases.

The outline in any form is not a sacred, unchangeable document. It can and should grow and change to accommodate your growing expertise on the subject; however, the outline must always fit and support your thesis statement. It makes sense for your outline to evolve during the research stage, as it is a "working" outline that should be revised continually. Topics will be added, dropped, and changed as your research continues, and you will be able to see where you have gaps in your research.

Before you sit down to create your formal outline, you should physically organize your note cards or power point slides into categories. Follow these steps:

- **Organize**: Group related ideas together.
- **Order**: Arrange material in subsections in the order that you plan to use them.
- **Label**: Create main and sub headings for the outline.
IMPORTANT POINTS TO REMEMBER ABOUT OUTLINING:

- ANY DIVISION OF A TOPIC MUST ALWAYS HAVE AT LEAST TWO (2) PARTS. THEREFORE, ANY "A" MUST HAVE A "B." ANY "I" MUST HAVE A "2," ETC.
- CAPITALIZE the first letter of the first word in the outline topic or phrase, but not the subsequent words, unless they are proper nouns. You should be writing in sentence case (just like I am in creating this document).
- Do not use an end mark unless you have a complete sentence.
- There is not a "certain magic number" of major points (Roman numerals) that an outline must have. Unlike the 5-paragraph essay, which must always have three major points or paragraphs, the research paper may have 10 or 13 paragraphs, or as many as you need to fully and persuasively prove your thesis. A major point may have one or several paragraphs devoted to it.
- Your ideas are arranged from broad to very specific: Section title→sub-title→topic of paragraph→details/evidence
- The alphanumeric outline is the most common type of outline and usually instantly recognizable to most people. The formatting follows these characters, in this order:
  - Roman Numerals (I, II, III, IV, V, etc.). (These are simply capital letters in Times New Roman font.)
  - Capitalized Letters
  - Arabic Numerals (1, 2, 3, 4 etc.)
  - Lowercase Letters

FOUR MAIN COMPONENTS FOR EFFECTIVE OUTLINES (adapted from information on Purdue OWL)

Division: Each heading should be divided into 2 or more parts. Example:

I. Introduction
   A. Students who attend college are more likely to find a satisfying career.
   B. State thesis statement

Parallelism: Each heading and subheading should preserve parallel structure. If the first heading is a verb, the second heading should be a verb. Example:

II. Choose desired colleges
III. Prepare application

("Choose" and "Prepare" are both verbs. The present tense of the verb is usually the preferred form for an outline.)

Coordination: All the information contained in the headings should be of equal significance. The same goes for the subheadings (which should be less significant than the headings). Example:

III. Visit and evaluate college campuses
   A. Talk to people in the advising office
   B. Talk to current students on campus
   C. Sit in on classes
   D. Check out the living arrangements

IV. Visit and evaluate college websites
   A. Note important statistics
   B. Look for interesting classes

Campus visits and web site visits are equally significant. They are part of the main tasks you would need to do. Finding statistics and classes found on college Web sites are parts of the process involved in carrying out the main heading topics.
Subordination: The information in the headings should be more general, while the information in the subheadings should be more specific. The information beneath the subheadings is even more specific. Example:

V. Describe the influential people in your life

A. Favorite high school teacher
   1. He taught me to think for myself.
      a. Research project junior year
      b. Analytical essays
   2. He encouraged me to take more challenging courses.
      a. Went from regular science to honors to AP
      b. Took additional courses online

B. Grandparents

PROBLEM-SOLUTION OUTLINE

Student Name

Class name

Teacher’s Name

Due date

Title of Paper

I. Introduction
   A. Hook—see your research packet for ideas
   B. Connection between hook and thesis (aka: bridge statement)—optional
   C. Thesis statement

II. Overview of the Problem
   A. Definition of problem
      1. Description
      2. Examples
      3. Who/what is affected by problem
   B. Background of the problem
      1. Where/how it originated
      2. Causes
   C. Severity of Problem
      1. Negative effects
      2. Consequences if left unsolved

III. Overview of the Possible Solutions
   A. Solution #1—Overview
      1. Process of implementation
         a. 
         b. 
      2. Positives
         a. 
         b. 

A favorite teacher and grandparent are from the generalized category of influential people in the writer’s life. What that favorite teacher actually did offers more specific details that will help the writer develop his paragraphs.

The introduction will make up one paragraph in your paper.

Each of the capital letters in sections II-IV (the body sections) should become a paragraph in your paper.
3. Negatives
   a.
   b.
B. Solution #2
   1. Process of implementation
      a.
      b.
   2. Positives
      a.
      b.
   3. Negatives
      a.
      b.
C. Solution #3 (optional)

IV. Thorough Explanation of the BEST Solution (from section III)
   A. What makes this solution different/better
      1.
      2.
   B. Implementing this solution (laws, costs, etc.)
      1. Process
         a.
         b.
         c.
      2. Positives
         a.
         b.
         c.
      3. Negatives
         a.
         b.
      4. Rebuttal to negatives
         a.
         b.
   C. Future implications with/without solution
      1.
      2.
V. Conclusion
   A. Summary statement
   B. Relate to the world today or future
   C. Call to action/final thought

Section V (or your concluding section) will be your final paragraph.
On Paragraphs (from Purdue OWL)

The Basic Rule: Keep One Idea to One Paragraph
The basic rule of thumb with paragraphing is to keep one idea to one paragraph. If you begin to transition into a new idea, it belongs in a new paragraph. There are some simple ways to tell if you are on the same topic or a new one. You can have one idea and several bits of supporting evidence within a single paragraph. You can also have several points in a single paragraph as long as they relate to the overall topic of the paragraph. If the single points start to get long, then perhaps elaborating on each of them and placing them in their own paragraphs is the route to go.

Elements of a Paragraph
To be as effective as possible, a paragraph should contain each of the following: a topic sentence, unity, coherence, and adequate development. All of these traits overlap. Using and adapting them to your individual purposes will help you construct effective paragraphs.

A topic sentence (aka main idea)
A topic sentence is a sentence that indicates in a general way what idea or thesis the paragraph is going to deal with. An easy way to make sure your reader understands the topic of the paragraph is to put your topic sentence near the beginning of the paragraph. (This is a good general rule for less experienced writers, although it is not the only way to do it).
Regardless of whether you include an explicit topic sentence or not, you should be able to easily summarize what the paragraph is about. Every paragraph should relate back to your thesis.

Unity
The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus. If it begins with a one focus or major point of discussion, it should not end with another or wander within different ideas.

Coherence
Coherence is the trait that makes the paragraph easily understandable to a reader. You can help create coherence in your paragraphs by creating logical bridges and verbal bridges.

Logical bridges
→ The same idea of a topic is carried over from sentence to sentence
→ Successive sentences can be constructed in parallel form

Verbal bridges
→ Key words can be repeated in several sentences
→ Synonymous words can be repeated in several sentences
→ Pronouns can refer to nouns in previous sentences
→ Transitional words can be used to link ideas from different sentences

Adequate development
The topic (which is introduced by the topic sentence) should be discussed fully and adequately. Again, this varies from paragraph to paragraph, depending on the author's purpose, but writers should beware of paragraphs that only have two or three sentences. It's a pretty good bet that the paragraph is not fully developed if it is that short.

See the following example:

Although it is difficult to resist the temptation of a caffeinated beverage or Mom’s homemade brownies, **there are several physiological effects that result from consuming caffeine which many fail to consider.** “Caffeine Nation,” an article by CBS reporter Rome Neal, states that “caffeine works its magic by blocking something called adenosine, a chemical the body releases to tell the brain it's tired.” **Blocking**
adenosine often hinders healthy sleep patterns, keeping the caffeine crazed among us from getting a full night’s sleep. In extreme cases, large doses of caffeine can lead to insomnia, and possibly night terrors. In one study, scientists tracked a man from Great Britain who drank at least eight cups of coffee a day, consumed multiple chocolate bars between meals, and drank two cans of caffeinated soda with each meal. They found that his night terrors were due to his overdosing on caffeine (Neal). This man’s story is just one example of how easy it is to consume caffeine without recognizing the terrible health effects it can have.

Some methods to make sure your paragraph is well-developed:

- Use examples and illustrations
- Cite data (facts, statistics, evidence, details, and others)
- Examine testimony (what other people say, such as quotations and paraphrases)
- Use an anecdote or story
- Define terms in the paragraph
- Compare and contrast
- Evaluate causes and reasons
- Examine effects and consequences
- Analyze the topic
- Describe the topic
- Offer a chronology of an event (time segments)

How do I know when to start a new paragraph?
You should start a new paragraph in the following instances:

- **When you begin a new idea or point.** New ideas should always start in new paragraphs. If you have an extended idea that spans multiple paragraphs, each new point within that idea should have its own paragraph.
- **To contrast information or ideas.** Separate paragraphs can serve to contrast sides in a debate, different points in an argument, or any other difference.
- **When your readers need a pause.** Breaks in paragraphs function as a short "break" for your readers—adding these in will help your writing more readable. You would create a break if the paragraph becomes too long or the material is complex.
- **When you are ending your introduction or starting your conclusion.** Your introductory and concluding material should always be in a new paragraph. Many introductions and conclusions have multiple paragraphs depending on their content, length, and the writer's purpose.

Transitions
One very important elements of paragraphing is transitions. Transitions are usually one or several sentences that "transition" from one idea to the next. Transitions can be used at the end of most paragraphs to help the paragraphs flow one into the next.

Organization
Since the clarity and effectiveness of your transitions will depend greatly on how well you have organized your paper, you may want to evaluate your paper's organization before you work on transitions. In the margins of your draft, summarize in a word or short phrase what each paragraph is about or how it fits into your analysis as a whole. This exercise should help you to see the order of and connection between your ideas more clearly.

Types of transitions

1. **Transitions between sections**—Particularly in longer works, it may be necessary to include transitional paragraphs that summarize for the reader the information just covered and specify the relevance of this information to the discussion in the following section.
2. **Transitions between paragraphs**—If you have done a good job of arranging paragraphs so that the content of one leads logically to the next, the transition will highlight a relationship that already exists by summarizing the previous paragraph and suggesting something of the content of the paragraph that follows. A transition between paragraphs can be a word or two (however, for example, similarly), a phrase, or a sentence. Transitions can be at the end of the first paragraph, at the beginning of the second paragraph, or in both places.

3. **Transitions within paragraphs**—As with transitions between sections and paragraphs, transitions within paragraphs act as cues by helping readers to anticipate what is coming before they read it. Within paragraphs, transitions tend to be single words or short phrases.

**Transitional expressions**

Effectively constructing each transition often depends upon your ability to identify words or phrases that will indicate for the reader the *kind* of logical relationships you want to convey. The table below should make it easier for you to find these words or phrases. Whenever you have trouble finding a word, phrase, or sentence to serve as an effective transition, refer to the information in the table for assistance. Look in the left column of the table for the kind of logical relationship you are trying to express. Then look in the right column of the table for examples of words or phrases that express this logical relationship.

Keep in mind that each of these words or phrases may have a slightly different meaning. Consult a dictionary or writer's handbook if you are unsure of the exact meaning of a word or phrase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOGICAL RELATIONSHIP</th>
<th>TRANSITIONAL EXPRESSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similarity</td>
<td>also, in the same way, just as ... so too, likewise, similarly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exception/Contrast</td>
<td>but, however, in spite of, on the one hand ... on the other hand, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, in contrast, on the contrary, still, yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence/Order</td>
<td>first, second, third, ... next, then, finally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>after, afterward, at last, before, currently, during, earlier, immediately, later, meanwhile, now, recently, simultaneously, subsequently, then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>for example, for instance, namely, specifically, to illustrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis</td>
<td>even, indeed, in fact, of course, truly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place/Position</td>
<td>above, adjacent, below, beyond, here, in front, in back, nearby, there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
<td>accordingly, consequently, hence, so, therefore, thus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional Support or Evidence</td>
<td>additionally, again, also, and, as well, besides, equally important, further, furthermore, in addition, moreover, then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion/Summary</td>
<td>finally, in a word, in brief, in the end, in the final analysis, on the whole, thus, to summarize, in sum, in summary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Writing an Introduction and Conclusion

I. Introductions

A. The introduction is the most important paragraph of the paper, so make a strong first impression by presenting your reader with a direct, energetic, concise paragraph.

1. Your introduction should grab attention and present the thesis that the paper will develop.
2. Both elements of the introduction must flow together; this often requires one or more bridge statement(s). The purpose is to CONNECT the hook and the thesis.

B. Some guidelines for introductions:

1. Don’t state the obvious.
   a. Never say “My paper” or “This paper.”
   b. Never say “I am going to . . .”

2. Don’t make sweeping generalizations.
   a. “Everyone has an opinion about something.”
   b. “Since the beginning of time, people have been eating meat.”

3. Use a powerful quotation that addresses your topic.

4. Open with a story, joke, or anecdote.

5. Open with a thought-provoking question. Do NOT use questions that can be answered “yes” or “no.”

6. Use an interesting comparison.

7. Use a strong statistic rather than one that mildly represents a point.
   a. “One out of every three high school graduates can read no better than a third grader.”
   b. “Over 50% of the population of Malawi is HIV positive.”

8. Startle the readers with the scary or shocking.
   a. “The air you breathe is filled with cyanide.”
   b. “Doctors removed a football-sized tumor from a man’s face.”

9. Challenge a universally accepted truth.
   a. “Drinking milk does not necessarily lead to good health.”
   b. “Adults should take a nap in the middle of the afternoon.”

C. Don’t waste time agonizing over the introduction. If nothing comes to you, type your thesis and move on. You will probably think of something effective while you’re working on the body of the paper. . . or in the middle of the night. . . or when you’re driving to school.

D. Above all, remember that the attention-getter must be connected to the thesis. This means that you may need to add a couple of sentences add context and to “bridge” the hook to the thesis.
See the following example:

Americans love their caffeine. This love affair costs Americans, on average, more than $2000 a year. According to a recent survey of American workers by Huffington Post, Americans who regularly buy coffee throughout the week spend on average $1,092 on coffee annually and another $850 on soft drinks. Caffeine, which is consumed daily by at least 90% of Americans, is psychoactive stimulant that targets the body’s central nervous system to make the brain feel more awake (U.S. Department of Food and Drug). Moreover, it is a key ingredient in many beloved foods and drinks, such as coffee, tea, soda, chocolate, and even America’s favorite cookie, the Oreo. Since Americans cannot seem to get enough of their sweet, sugary, syrupy treats, businesses like Coca-Cola and Hershey may never need to fear bankruptcy. Most caffeine consumers are addicts, unable to avoid the physiological, neurological, and sociological effects of caffeine.

II. Conclusions
A. An effective conclusion is essential to the success of your paper.
   1. Most readers will remember the last paragraph over any other part of your document.
   2. Like an attorney’s closing appeal to the jury, a conclusion is your last chance to convince the reader of your argument or emphasize your main point.
   3. It should leave the reader with a clear understanding of what you have been trying to show in the paper.
   4. It should represent the paper’s content without repetition.
B. Try these steps to writing a good conclusion.
   1. Take a break—if you have worn out your creativity, the conclusion could likely be bland and boring.
   2. When you come back, reword your thesis and jot down the main points of your paper.
   3. Ask yourself what new information or ideas your paper has taught your readers.
C. Elements of a good conclusion.
   1. It should restate, but not repeat, the thesis. (If restating the thesis is difficult, perhaps the paper has wandered away from the thesis.)
   2. It should briefly sum up, but not repeat, the main points.
   3. It should provide a sense that the essay is done.
   4. It should provide an emotional closure to the paper.
D. Avoid these problems:
   1. Do not introduce completely new ideas in the conclusion.
      a. If the new idea requires involved discussion, do not use it as the last paragraph.
      b. If the idea is short and can be handled in one sentence, it can be included in the conclusion.
2. Do not preach or scold readers in the conclusion.
3. Do not state the obvious.
   a. Do not use the words “In conclusion.”
   b. Do not use the words “My paper has just shown you” or something similar.

E. A good conclusion will leave readers satisfied with the paper.
   1. Readers need to feel good that they have read the paper.
   2. A good conclusion will be logical and unified.
   3. A good conclusion makes readers feel that the paper was worth reading.

See the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bolded = Restated Thesis Statement / Italicized = Synthesis (Summary) / Underlined = Extension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Caffeine’s nature makes it one of America’s most popular drugs, though it does not have the negative stigma of substances like alcohol or cocaine. It can prevent sleep, make consumers hyper and shaky, and impede optimal rates of metabolism, yet Americans continue to purchase soda and chocolate because it makes them feel good. It provides them with a surge of energy and makes their diet a little tastier, and Americans are all about the taste. Although caffeine can hinder many of the body’s natural functions, what an anomaly it would be if Americans ceased their daily ritual at the Starbucks’ drive-thru window.

Parenthetical Citations

In MLA style you briefly credit sources with parenthetical citations in the text of your paper. Generally, a parenthetical citation includes the author’s last name and the page number(s) of the information used: (Cloud 7D). It is very important that the information in the parenthetical citation MATCHES the Works Cited page.

Whether you are using information that you have paraphrased or directly quoted, you must include a parenthetical citation to let your reader know where the information came from. The information in the citation will include the FIRST WORD of a citation from your Works Cited page. The following is an example of a direct quotation:

“Children who are obese in the primary years are at serious risk of developing health problems by the time they enter secondary school” (Cloud 7D).

Or, place the author's name within the sentence using a signal phrase (refer to pages 21-22):

After conducting a nationwide study of students aged 5-12, John Cloud concluded that “children who are obese in the primary years are at serious risk of developing health problems by the time they enter secondary school” (7D). Because the author’s name appears in a signal phrase, only a page number is recorded in the citation. If there is no page number, there would be no parenthetical citation.
Other things to keep in mind when creating a parenthetical citation:

- For **two to three authors**, give all last names: (Worchel and Cooper 557). To ensure that order of the names in the parenthetical citation match the Works Cited, list the names as they appear in the source: (Mayer, Toppo and Eisen 27).*
- For **more than three authors**, give the first author’s last name followed by *et al.*: (Worchel, et al. 65).
- When there are **different authors** with the **same last name**, differentiate between them by adding their first initials: (K. Lee 291); (H. Lee 106)
- For a source with **no page numbers**, such as a web site or video, use the creator’s name alone (Burns*), or when there is **no author**, cite by an abbreviation of the title and the page number: (“Are You” 11). If there are no page numbers, cite just an abbreviation of the title: (“How To”)*.
- For two or more works by the **same author**, add the title or abbreviated title after the author’s name: (Thomas, “Lawmakers” A3)*; (Thomas, “Should”).*
- **Indirect source**: to quote words you found quoted in someone else’s work, put the name of the person whose words you are quoting into your own sentence. Indicate the work where you found the quotation in a parenthetical citation beginning with *qtd. in*: Scorcese maintains, “. . . . . .” (qtd. in Gianetti 397). [*qtd. in is an abbreviation for the words quoted in]*

*These citations match the entries on the sample Works Cited page. Note that I have placed in parentheses the information that “sticks out” to the left. That is the purpose of what is called a hanging indentation.

### Setting up the Works Cited Page

- The Works Cited page is a part of your paper, so it should have a header and a page number, a 1” margin, and use size 12 Times New Roman font.
- The words *Works Cited* are centered and are not underlined, italicized or in quotation marks. Do not bold, use a larger font, or all caps.
- If you have done a good job on your Annotated Bibliography, all you have to do is cut and paste the citations (no paragraphs) onto the Works Cited page.
- Entries that carry over to a second or third line are indented. You may need to press the “Ctrl” key at the same time that you press the “Tab” key in order to do this, or you can set up a hanging indentation, using the page layout tab.
- Entries are double spaced with no additional spacing in between entries.
- Entries are **alphabetized** by the first important word of the entry. If there is no author, alphabetize by the first significant word in the title (“the,” “a” etc. are not significant).
- Do NOT number the entries.
- If you have two or more works by the same author, the second entry would begin with three dashes (- - -) instead of listing the author’s name again. Alphabetize by the title of the source.
- Include as much information on one line as possible; break between words or after a mark of punctuation.
- It is not necessary to include web addresses.
See the example:

The title of the page, Works Cited, is centered. It is in 12 point, Times New Roman. It is not bolded, underlined, or in quotation marks.

Last name and page number are in header because the Works Cited IS A PART OF THE PAPER!

Sources are alphabetized by the first significant word. That word also appears in parenthetical citations.


These sources would look like this in parenthetical (in-text) citations:

(Burns) (Mayer, et. al 27)
(Cloud 7D) (Thomas, “Lawmakers” A3)
(“How to Build”) (Thomas, “Should")
MLA Formatting

- Create a new Word document.
- Select Times New Roman font, size 12.
- Click on the Layout Tab
  - In the Page Setup box, click margins. Check the margins; they should be one inch.
  - In the Paragraph box, set spacing to 0 pt for “Before” and “After.” (Save this as your default so that you do not have to do it again.)
  - Click the arrow to the right of the word “Paragraph”; set your line spacing at Double.
- Click on the Insert tab and click “Page Number” (beneath Header & Footer). Click on “Top of Page”; select “Plain Number 3.”
  - Type your last name in front of the page number. There should be a space between your last name and the page number.
  - Select “Different First Page” from the Options box. (Your header will disappear. It will appear on page 2.) Close the header by clicking on the X in the red box.
- Do not make a title page for your paper; instead, in the upper left-hand corner of the first page (NOT in the header), type your name, my name, the course, and the due date.
- The title of your paper will be centered just below your heading. Do not italicize, bold, underline, use quotation marks or a larger font size. See below:

Student’s name

A. Teacher

Class Name

Due date

Title of Research Paper: Not the Topic!

Begin typing the paper directly beneath the title. Do not leave additional spaces.

The paper should start with a catchy hook (see information on introductions and conclusions) that will interest one’s reader. The hook must relate to the thesis statement.

Generally, one’s thesis statement is the last sentence of the introduction.

One should use one’s formal outline to develop the paper. The first body paragraph should come from Roman Numeral II, Letter A from the outline. The Roman Numerals represent sections of the paper, not paragraphs. It is okay if the paper is slightly different from the outline.
Citing sources in the paper is a very important part of the research process. This is done through the use of parenthetical citations. It is easier to cite correctly if one creates the Works Cited page before starting the paper. The FIRST word or words in the citations on the Works Cited page make up the parenthetical citations (See the examples.)

Good writers cite the sources as they write the paper. Citing afterward never works out for anyone. Word has a “References” function that one can utilize to speed up the process.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Works Cited


MLA CITATION EXAMPLES: 7th Edition

The Modern Language Association (MLA) Style is widely used for identifying research sources. It identifies each source you consulted in preparing your paper, the specific information you used, and where in the source that the information was found. The following examples are based on the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 7th ed.; this is the version that I prefer and ask you to use.

Keep track of the sources you use as you do your research by creating a citation for each source. Make sure that you have all of the publication information for each source. It can be helpful to have a backup of the computer file and/or a print-out. Although it is not needed for the Works Cited, it may also be helpful to keep a record of how you located each source, such as the call numbers of books and URLs of web sites.

Use the following examples to cite your sources, or use them to check the accuracy of a citation that you find on a page.

SECTION ONE: BOOKS

Books in Print

Author’s Last name, First name. Title of Book. City of Publication: Publisher, Year Published. Print.

Title
- Take the title from the title page, not the cover.
- The book title should be italicized. (You will underline it on your source card.)
- Capitalize the first letter of the first word, last word, and all major words of the title and subtitle, including words that follow hyphens, e.g., English-Speaking, and colons, e.g., The Sting of Justice: A Tale of Medieval Ireland.
- The following terms should not be capitalized when they are in the middle of a title: articles (a, an, the), conjunctions (and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet), prepositions (e.g., in, of, to, between, against), and the "to" in infinitives, e.g., How to Solve It.

Publisher
- Give the city of publication and the publisher’s name, generally taken from the title page. The state or country is not necessary.
- Shorten the publisher's name when possible by omitting business abbreviations such as Corp. and words such as Books and Publishers.
- For publisher's names that are personal names, use the last name only, e.g., for John Wiley, use Wiley.
- For university presses, use U for University and P for Press, e.g., Princeton UP.
- For online sources with no publishing information, use the abbreviation N.p.

One Author
- Write the author's name as Last Name, First Name.

Two or More Authors
- List the names in the order they appear on the title page, with commas between authors, and a period after the last author's name.
- Only the name of the first author should be reversed (Last Name, First Name); the other name(s) should be written in regular order.
- For more than three authors, either give only the first author and add et al., or give all the names.


**Editors, Compilers, Translators**

- If the persons named on the title page are editors, compilers, or translators, add a comma and a descriptive label, e.g., *eds.*, *comps.*, *trans.*


**Corporate Author**

- Cite a book by corporate author when a group, such as an organization, committee, or association, rather than individual persons, is the author. Cite the corporate author even if this group is also the publisher.


**Government Publications**

- Generally, give the name of the government first, then the name of the agency.


**Edition**

- If a book is identified as being other than the first edition (e.g., 2nd edition, Revised edition), give the edition just before the publication information.


**Books Online**

Include the same information as a regular book. Add as much as the original publication information as possible. After citing the original publication information, add the electronic publication information. This includes the title of the internet site, the editor of the site (if given), the date of electronic publication (if given), and the sponsoring institution (publisher) or organization. Also, be sure to include the date accessed.

**Author’s Last name, First name. Title of Book. City of Publication: Publisher, Year. Website Title. Web. Day Month Year Accessed.**


Encyclopedias and Reference Books in Print

- Cite an article in an encyclopedia like a work in an anthology, above.
- Give the edition (if available) and the year of publication.

Author’s Last name, First name (if given). "Article Title." Title of Reference Book. Editor (if given). Vol. number (if any). City of Publication: Publisher, Year. Page(s). Print.


Encyclopedias and Reference Books Online

Author’s Last name, First name (if given). "Article Title." Title of Reference Book. Editor (if given). Vol. number (if any). City of Publication: Publisher, Year Published. Website Title. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.


SECTION TWO: PERIODICALS

Magazine Articles in Print

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." Title of Magazine Date: Page(s). Print.

Author
- Write the author's name as Last Name, First Name.
- If no author's name is given for an article, begin with the title of the article.


Title
- The title of a long work, such as the magazine itself is italicized (or underlined.)
- The title of a short work, such as an article in the magazine (or a poem, short story, song, etc.) is in quotation marks.
Date
- For magazines issued every week or every two weeks, give the complete date in this order: Day Month Year, e.g., 21 Jan. 2009. Do not use commas. Abbreviate the months (except May, June, July).
- For magazines issued monthly or bi-monthly, give the month(s) and year.
- For magazines published online without a date, use the abbreviation n.d.


Volume and Issue Numbers
- Do not give volume and issue numbers for magazine articles. (Volume and issue numbers are given for scholarly journal articles, however. See below.)

Page Number(s)
- If the article is on consecutive pages, specify the page numbers of the entire article, e.g., 16-20. Give just the last two digits of the second number, when possible, e.g. 188-89, but 196-200.
- If the article is not on consecutive pages—for example, it begins on page 27, then skips to page 30, and continues on page 32—write only the first page number, followed by a plus sign: 27+.
- If the article is published online and there are no page numbers given, use the abbreviation n.pag.


Magazine Articles Online

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Magazine* Date Month Year Published. *Web Title*. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.


Scholarly Journal Articles in Print

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Journal* Volume number. Issue number (Year Published): Pages. Print.

Author
- Write the author’s name as Last Name, First Name.

Volume and Issue Numbers
- Write the volume number, a period, then the issue number, e.g. for volume 22, issue 4 → 22.4
Page Numbers
- Specify the page numbers of the entire article, giving only the last two digits of the second number unless more are needed, e.g., 480-95, but 480-502. If an article is not on consecutive pages, give only the first page number followed by a plus sign: 480+.


**Scholarly Journal Articles Online**

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Journal* Volume number. Issue number (Year Published): Pages.

*Website Title*. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.


**Newspaper Articles in Print**

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Newspaper* Date Month Year Published: Page(s). Print.

*Title of Newspaper*
- Write the title as it appears on the masthead, omitting any introductory article: *Charlotte Observer*, not *The Charlotte Observer*.
- If the city of publication of a local newspaper is not part of the title, give it in square brackets, e.g., *News and Observer* [Raleigh]. The city of publication is not necessary for nationally published newspapers, e.g., *Wall Street Journal*.

**Date and Edition**
- Give the date in this order: Day Month Year, e.g., 31 Aug. 2008. Do not use commas. Abbreviate the months (except May, June, July).
- If an edition is specified on the masthead, add it after the date. If no edition is given, skip it.

**Volume, Issue, and Page Number(s)**
- If the article is not on consecutive pages, write only the first page number, followed by a plus sign: A1+.
- Do not give volume and issue numbers for newspaper articles.


Editorials

- Follow the format for articles, and add the term *Editorial* after the article title.


Newspaper Articles Online

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Newspaper* Date Month Year Published: Page(s). Website Title. Web. Date Month Year Accesssed.


SECTION THREE: INTERNET

Web Sites

- When citing web sites, include the author, title, and publication information as for print sources (see above), and add the date of access, because web pages are often updated or moved. All components in the format below may not be identifiable for a web site; include as much as is available.

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of the Web Page." *Title of the Overall Web Site*. Publisher or Sponsor, Date. Web. Date Month Year Accesssed.

Author

- Write the author’s name as Last Name, First Name.

- If no author’s name is given for a web page, begin with the title of the page.

Title

- Write the title of the web page (or the article) in quotation marks. Write the title of the overall web site in italics.

Publisher or Sponsor of the Web Site

- This information follows the title of the web page in the citation. It may be necessary to search for this information. Check the copyright statement at the bottom of the page, “About Us” sections, or the home page.

- If no publisher or sponsor is indicated, use N.p.

Date

- If a complete date is given, write it in this order: Day Month Year.

- If no publication date is indicated, write n.d.


**A Listserve, Discussion Group, or Blog Posting**
- Cite Web postings as you would a standard Web entry.

Author of work. “Title of Posting.” Website name. Publisher. Posting Date. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.

Include screen names as author names when author name is not known. If both names are known, place the author’s name in brackets. Remember if the publisher of the site is unknown, use the abbreviation *N.p.*

Salmar1515 [Sal Hernandez]. “Re: Best Strategy: Fenced Pastures vs. Max Number of Rooms?”

**Course or Department Websites**
- Give the instructor’s name. Then list the title of the course (or the school catalog designation for the course) in italics. Give appropriate department and school names as well, following the course title. Remember to use n.d. if no publishing date is given.


**SECTION FOUR: DATABASES**

Cabarrus Country Schools subscribe to services that provide full-text of publications on the Web (such as NCWiseowl). Source cards and Works Cited entries for these publications should include information about the original print materials (using the formats above), plus information identifying the online database and the date of access. The name of the database is very important for retrieving the publication. The access date should be specified because online content changes constantly. You may find the citation will print with the article, if you request it. (Choose MLA.)

**Magazine Articles from a Database**

Author’s Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Magazine* Date: Page(s). Online Database Name. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.

Articles on the web may not have page numbers; when page numbers are not given, write *n.pag.*


**Scholarly Journal Articles from a Database**


**Newspaper Articles from a Database**

Author's Last name, First name. "Title of Article." *Title of Newspaper* Date: Page(s). *Online Database Name*. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.


**Electronic Books from a Database**

Author's Last name, First name. *Title of Book*. City of Publication: Publisher, Year. *Online Database Name*. Web. Date Month Year Accessed.


**SECTION FIVE: MISC.**

**Personal Interview**

Last Name of Interviewee, First name. Type of Interview. Date Month Year of Interview.

An interview could be one of the following: Personal (face to face), Email, or Phone. For example,