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Introduction

You have an assignment to write. Perhaps it is a research report, or maybe it is an essay. You have brainstormed ideas and drafted a thesis statement. Now, you are ready to research your topic. But where will you find information to support your thesis? And, once you find information, how do you refer to it in your paper? This documentation guide is intended to help you with these and other questions you may have when you are writing a paper.

Documentation Style

Documentation styles are systems writers use to provide information about their resource material. A number of documentation styles have been created to fulfill the needs of various academic disciplines. While styles are often similar, they differ in their formatting, spacing, and punctuation.

MLA (Modern Language Association) refers to a style created to standardize citations and formatting in academic papers. Today, MLA is the most commonly used citation style in the liberal arts and humanities. **It is the MLA style that most of your teachers will require you to use, which is why this guide focuses on MLA citations and formatting.** The MLA style employs in-text citations in parentheses and calls for a list of **Works Cited** at the end of the document, not References or Bibliography.

APA (American Psychological Association) style is used for social science documents. APA also uses in-text citations and bibliographies, but its punctuation and spacing requirements are different from MLA.

CM (Chicago Manual) style is used in the humanities. This style uses a combination of in-text citations and endnotes or footnotes. It must include a bibliography.

COS (The Columbia Guide to Online Style) was created to document online research sources. COS builds on other print-based styles while adding elements suitable for citing electronic resources.

Depending on the subject of your document, you may find another documentation style to be more suitable for your paper. However, you should always check with your teacher before choosing a documentation style.

Examining Research Material

After you choose a topic to write about, you will need to research your subject. But where do you start? In this section, you will learn about the importance of using credible resources and read about some of the types of materials available to you.

Variety, Reliability, and Point of view

Using *varied* and *reliable sources* will strengthen your paper's analysis, argument, or comparison.

- *Varied sources* means using different types of resources. For example, if you are writing about the use of alternative fuel sources in Canadian industries, you might look for information in brochures and magazines, and on the Internet.
- Choosing *varied sources* gives you a wider range of information. In a brochure, you may read a list of alternative fuels that environment agencies support. You might then read a magazine article about a project to use one of the supported fuels in the textile industry. Finally, you could search the Canadian government's Web site to learn about government incentive programs for industries that employ alternative fuel.
- You can see that by using different types of information, your research becomes stronger and more interesting.
- In addition to providing you with different types of information, varying your sources allows you to examine your topic from different points of view. If all your research came from a single source, your information would be very narrow. Using the example from the previous paragraph, if your research only presented the textile industry's point of view, you might not come across any discussions regarding the environmental benefits of alternative fuel sources. Similarly, if your research was based solely on material found on an environmental agency's Web site, you may not encounter any information about the costs of converting to new fuels. Again, by varying the types of resource material you use and researching different points of view about the topic, you will have the basis for a strong paper.

Linked closely to *variety* is *reliability*. *Reliability* means your sources are accurate and dependable.

- One way of evaluating a source's reliability is to check the information in other sources. If the same information appears elsewhere, it is likely reliable.
- Check, too, that the information is current. Research that was accepted ten years ago may be replaced by more up-to-date information.

- Some sources are automatically considered to be more credible, or believable, than others. Works published by a university press and academic journals carry a high level of credibility. These publications are accountable for the work they publish, and are, therefore, careful to ensure that their articles are accurate. Other publications such as magazines and newspapers are often reliable, but you should cross-check facts from articles when you can.

Another thing to consider is the publication's *point of view*. Often, we expect newspapers and journals to present information without bias. Most of the time, this is the case.

- But some are published for a particular audience and they present information in a manner that is preferable to that audience. There is nothing wrong with that, as long as the publication states its point of view openly in its title, on the front page, or in its mission statement.

However, sometimes that does not happen, and you will have to figure out the point of view for yourself.

Although it is a handy research tool, the Internet is considered a less credible resource than other media.

There is a simple reason for this: anybody can put anything on the Web. What does that mean to you as a researcher?

- It means you must be aware of who is posting the information and, if possible, why. Also, you should double check information you find on the Web with other, more credible sources.
- You are fairly safe sourcing sites maintained by government organizations, museums, national organizations, etc.
- Accessing an unknown individual's blog may not give you accurate information.
- Be wary of sites like Wikipedia. This is an online encyclopaedia with entries for almost everything. However, anyone can add or edit information on Wikipedia. If you chose Wikipedia as your only source without checking its information, how confident could you be that your paper was accurate?

Research Material

So, now you know what to look for in research material, but where do you find the material itself? Nowadays, finding information is as easy as clicking your mouse, but the Internet should not be your only resource. The best place to find a variety of reliable research material is in the library. Libraries have more to offer researchers than books and encyclopedias. They provide not only access to a variety of reference materials, but also access to databases. Most of the research materials described in the following paragraphs can be found in your library.

Reference Materials

Reference materials are often the best place to begin your research. They provide you with summaries of information across a broad spectrum of topics. General reference books include dictionaries, encyclopaedias, almanacs, atlases, and gazetteers. Almanacs are annual publications that contain overviews of a year's events and data regarding politics, economics, weather, demographics, and other subjects. Gazetteers contain geographical information, data about climates, topography, crops, natural resources, and more. There are also specialized reference collections that contain detailed information about specific topics. Two examples of specialized references are The Dictionary of Family Law, and Magill Medical Guide.

Many reference materials are now published online or on CD-ROM. Often, the electronic version of a reference collection is more current than the printed version. Check with your library staff to see if you are able to access collections electronically.

In many cases, printed reference materials have borrowing restriction . They may be for use in the library only, temporary reference, or overnight loan. Be sure to plan your research time accordingly.

Books and Textbooks

Do not overlook books and textbooks when you are researching your topic. Books provide more detail about subjects than most other research materials do. However, take note of the book's publication date. Books can become dated quickly because of the time it takes to publish them.

Periodicals

Periodicals are publications that are issued at regular intervals. Newspapers, scholarly journals, magazines, and trade magazines are periodicals. To find periodical articles that relate to your research topic, consult a periodical index in electronic format. Periodical indexes are lists of article citations, organized by subject headings. Like a catalogue, they allow you to find articles about your research topic without having to check through each journal. The next paragraphs provide descriptions of three types of periodicals.

Scholarly journals contain studies, reviews, and research articles written by subject experts for other members of their field. Journals are often published by a scholarly association and are available by subscription only. Before being published, research articles are reviewed for accuracy by scholars and field experts. *Current History* is an example of a scholarly journal.

Magazines are published more frequently than journals and are available without a subscription. They are written by professional writers to entertain and inform a general audience. Magazines tend to be glossy publications that contain many images. Most include advertisements. Examples of magazines are *Maclean's*, *National Geographic*, and *Hockey News*.

Trade magazines fall between journal and magazine. They are written for a specific industry or professional community and are usually published by a trade or professional organization. However, their content is closer to that of mainstream magazines, featuring articles that entertain as well as inform. Trade magazines also have the appearance of mainstream magazines, with glossy pages and lots of images. *Canada Poultryman* and *Northern Aquaculture* are Canadian trade magazines.

Electronic Databases

Electronic databases are CD-ROM and Internet-based catalogues of bibliographic citations for books, periodicals, reports, and other documents. This means that each record includes the document's title, author, and publisher. Similar to periodical indexes, databases are organized by subject, so you search for your topic using keywords. Most databases provide abstracts for their entries, and many offer complete texts of entries. Many online databases can only be accessed through libraries. You can access the South Carleton Library databases using either the school library computers, or offsite through the library Web page, providing you have the passwords. Other databases, like the government databases are accessible for free by anyone.

Search Engines

Search engines are computer programs or systems that conduct keyword searches on the Internet. The engine looks for documents that contain the keywords you enter in its search box. It then creates a list of sites based on its search. Choose your keywords carefully or you may not find what you are looking for. In fact, you will probably need to revise your keywords a few times as you search. Also, try more than one search engine using the same keywords. You may find that they list different sites. In addition to the popular Google

<www.google.ca>, try other sites like AltaVista <<http://www.altavista.com/>>; or Kartoo <<http://www.kartoo.com/>>, which displays web lists in a mind-map formation.

Government Documents

Government documents are publications issued by a government office for its employees and the public. They present information about a variety of subjects: environmental issues, economics, population, agriculture, industries, education, and, of course, government issues. You can find collections of government documents in the library reference section, or access current federal publications on the Government of Canada Web site <<http://www.canada.gc.ca/>>. Check for documents issued by provincial and municipal governments, too.

Multimedia

Though the majority of your research materials are likely to be texts, consider using multimedia sources when appropriate. Multimedia sources include:

- audio and visual recordings
- radio and television broadcasts
- podcasts
- interactive websites
- audio files
- images
- interviews

Other Electronic Resources

People are exchanging information and communicating electronically at an increasing pace. As email, blogs, and discussion groups become norms of communication, they also become resources for researchers.

If you use information from personal emails in your research paper, be sure to cite the source and save a copy of the document. Be wary about using information from blogs or discussion groups. In general, blogs should not be considered reliable sources. However, online journals are gaining credibility, as a growing number of journalists, public figures, and corporations post blogs. Discussion groups within academic communities or professional organizations may provide some information about your subject. Most of the time, though, their usefulness and reliability will be limited.

Plagiarism

Academic integrity is respect for the intellectual community in which you are participating as a student and the standards governing it. This means that you are accountable for the honesty and the quality of the work that you submit (“Writing Kit: Avoiding Plagiarism”).

The rights of **intellectual property** must be respected by properly acknowledging the original author’s ownership of any words, phrases and ideas that are used in academic writing (“Writing Kit: Avoiding Plagiarism”).

Plagiarism is defined by the Oxford Canadian Dictionary as “taking and using the thoughts, writings, inventions, etc. of another person as one’s own.” In other words, if you quote or paraphrase someone else’s work without crediting that source, you are committing plagiarism.

In our society, plagiarism is a serious offence. A person caught plagiarizing loses her/his credibility with peers, instructors, and/or employers. Added to that, a plagiarist may be expelled from university or dismissed from his/her job. It is important to know that if you do not credit your sources, you can be accused of plagiarism, even if you did not mean to be dishonest.

Here are some examples of actions that are regarded as plagiarism:

- submitting someone else’s paper as your own
- purchasing or stealing a paper
- paying another person to write your paper
- copying in part or full the work of others, including peers
- copying in part or full work found on the Internet
- copying parts of writings from resource material without using quotation marks or citations
- using ideas or information that originated from someone else
- submitting one of your own papers or assignments for more than one class
- changing some key words and phrases but still keeping the essential content of the source.

Note

Inaccurate citation is also considered plagiarism:

- giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation

- mentioning the author's name but not the specific details of the source of the material referenced
- leaving out quotation marks for quoted material
- paraphrasing an author's work without personal comment or analysis – no original work

Writers must also make sure they do not plagiarize material such as images or sound recordings. Just as with written works, if the material is created by someone else, you must include a citation crediting the source. Some examples of material you may need to credit include:

- charts, diagram, images, illustrations, and other visual material
- maps
- songs
- information or lines from movies, radio, television, etc.
- spoken information such as face-to-face or telephone interviews or conversations

How do you make sure that you do not plagiarize someone else's work? Start by crediting accurately all your source materials, both in the body of your work and in a bibliography. You will find that there are a number of standard citation styles you can follow, the most common of which will be discussed in more detail in the section titled Parenthetical Citations.

Find more about avoiding plagiarism at <www.sass.uottawa.ca/writing/kit/plagiarism.php and www.plagiarism.org.

Be aware though, there are some sources that you do not document. If you are unsure about whether information needs to be documented, check with your teacher. In general, you do not have to document:

- ideas, thoughts, experiences, or observations that you originated
- myths, folklore, or urban legends
- historical events
- adages and proverbs
- commonly accepted facts (e.g., the earth is round)

In addition to crediting your sources, you can avoid plagiarism by quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

Quoting

Quotations are passages of source material that you reproduce word-for-word in your paper. They should correspond exactly with the originals in wording, spelling and punctuation. Use quotes sparingly and keep them fairly short. For example, you may find it helpful to quote text that is difficult to put into your own words or that employs special terms. You may also want to include an expert's quote that supports your paper's ideas. However, avoid using quotes in your thesis statement or main points. Most of the words in your paper should be your own. You will read more about how to format and cite quotations in the next section.

Paraphrasing

When you paraphrase, you accurately rephrase information from a research source in your own words. You may change the verb tense, sentence structure, and punctuation, but the meaning of the passage should remain the same. Remember to check your paraphrasing against the original to ensure that you have not changed any information or added your own ideas to the passage.

Summarizing

Similar to paraphrasing, summarizing allows you to present the main point from a passage in your own words. Summaries are shorter and more general than paraphrases, including only the central idea of a passage.

South Carleton High School Policy for Academic Honesty

Learning institutions have their own policies regarding academic honesty and plagiarism. South Carleton High School's policy for Academic Honesty states:

If a student participates in academic fraud he/she will be disciplined in accordance with the school's Code of Conduct (p. 22-23 Student Planner 2008-2009).

Parenthetical Citations

Most universities recommend using parenthetical citations to document the works of others that you refer to in the body of your paper. A parenthetical citation is made up of the author's last name followed by a space and the applicable page number(s), all set in parentheses.

Parentetical citations must also be completely documented in the bibliography or Works Cited list at the end of your paper. (You will learn more about bibliographies in the section title Resource Lists.)

Basic Citations

Place the citation at the end of the sentence, before the end punctuation.

The zoologists noted that the giraffes took approximately six days to adapt to their new surroundings (Fisher 252).

However, if a quote is near the beginning of a long sentence, place the citation immediately after the quote.

The film dealt with the topic of Indians in a new way. Because "changing societal mores are often anticipated in the choice of subjects for feature films," (Lawton 45) the sympathetic view towards native peoples was not surprising.

If you cite the author's name in the sentence, place only the page number(s) in the parentheses.

Lawton argues that "changing societal mores are often anticipated in the choice of subjects for feature films" (45).

Indirect References

Use the same format for indirect references.

This point has been argued before (Lawton 178).

Richard Lawton presents an interesting analysis of films as a reflection of society (195).

More than one source by the same author

Add the title (underlined> after the author's name and before the page number.

Giraffes adapted in six days (Fisher, Captive Giants 252), while smaller animals took two to three days to become accustomed to the new surroundings (Fisher, Acclimatization 116-124).

More than one author

For two authors, record the names in the order they appear in the work. For three or more authors, use commas between each name. If you prefer, you may note the first author's name only, followed by the term *et al.*, with a period after *al.*

Giraffes adapted in six days (Fisher and Blake, 252), while smaller animals took two to three days to become accustomed to the new surroundings (Watanabe et al. 116-124).

No author given

If your material does not include an author's name, cite the material by its title instead. In a sentence, use the main title only, omitting subtitles. In the parenthetical citation, shorten the title as much as possible.

Zoologists found that the giraffes took approximately six days to adapt to their new surroundings (Captive 252).

Web Sites

The information available on Web sites varies. If possible, use section headings or page names instead of page numbers in the citation. Or, cite the paragraph numbers if they are accessible.

Zoologists found that the giraffes took approximately six days to adapt to their new surroundings (Fisher "Introduction).

Zoologists found that the giraffes took approximately six days to adapt to their new surroundings (Fisher, pars. 28-32).

Formatting Quotations

Parenthetical citations apply to all referenced material – quotations, paraphrases, summaries, etc. But when you quote someone exactly, there are some additional instructions to keep in mind.

Short Quote, Prose

Incorporate short prose quotations into your text and enclose them in double quotation marks.

Brenton argues "there is always a direct correlation between low taxes and violent crime in modern society" (55).

Long Quotation, Prose

If your quote is longer than four lines, start the quote on a new line, indent it on the left by one inch (2.5 cm).

Do not use quotation marks. Place the parenthetical citation after the end punctuation.

Anderson, who commanded the regiment for most of its tour of duty, wrote to his good friend, Brassard:

I have just come back from the local railway station where I went to see your people off . . . and I should like to write and tell you how very sincerely sorry I am that they have left. We have soldiered together for seven months and during that time a firm bond developed. (Vanwel 162)

Short Quotation, Poem and Play

If you are quoting from a poem or a play an excerpt of between one and three lines, incorporate the excerpt in the text, enclosing it in quotation marks.

In his final soliloquy, Hamlet expresses his determination to act with vigour and resolve: "O! from this time forth,/ My thoughts be bloody, or be nothing worth!" (4.4.95-96).

If a quotation ends in an exclamation point (like the previous example) or question mark, put the punctuation mark before the closing quotation mark. Then record the parenthetical citation, followed by a period.

Long Quotation, Poem and Play

When quoting more than three lines of a poem, start the quote on a new line, indent on the left by one inch (2.5 cm). Do not use quotation marks. Place the parenthetical citation after the end punctuation.

John Keats' "The Eve of St. Agnes" is rich in evocative detail:

*And still she slept an azure-lidded sleep,
In blanch'd linen, smooth, and lavender'd
While he from forth the closet brought a heap
Of candied apple, quince and plum, and gourd;
With jellies soother than the creamy curd,
And lucent syrops, tinct with cinnamon; (262-267)*

Omitting Words and Phrases

An ellipsis mark shows you have left out a word or phrase from a quoted sentence. An ellipsis mark is a set of three spaced periods.

Original text:

At that moment Marilla had a revelation. In the sudden stab of fear that pierced to her very heart she realized what Anne had come to mean to her. She would have admitted that she like Anne – nay, that she was very fond of Anne. But now she knew as she hurried wildly down the slope that Anne was dearer to her than anything on earth. (Montgomery 213)

"At that moment Marilla had a revelation. In the sudden stab of fear . . . she realized what Anne had come to mean to her" (Montgomery 213).

Use a fourth dot if you need to show the end of a sentence in your ellipsis.

"At that moment Marilla had a revelation. . . . Anne was dearer to her than anything on earth" (Montgomery 213).

To show you are omitting a line or more from a poem, use a single line of spaced periods.

Original text:

*Hey diddle diddle,
the cat and the fiddle,
The cow jumped over the moon,
The little dog laughed to see such sport,
And the dish ran away with the spoon.*

Omitted lines:

*Hey diddle diddle,
the cat and the fiddle,
.....
And the dish ran away with the spoon.*

Adding or Changing Words and Phrases

Sometimes, you may need to add or change a word in a quotation for it to fit into your text. For instance, you may need to change the tense of a verb or change nouns from plural to singular. You are able to do so as long as you put square brackets around the word you add or change. The brackets clearly show your reader that you have altered the quote.

Marilla is suddenly faced with the realization that “Anne [is] dearer to her than anything on earth” (Montgomery 213).

Resource Lists

At the end of your paper, you will include a list of your research sources. A resource list provides your readers with specific information about your resources. By documenting your resources, you are indicating to your readers that you are a credible researcher and writer. Your resource list clearly shows your reader which passages are your original ideas and which belong to other writers. If you do not include a resource list, readers will assume that all the ideas in your paper are your own. Intentional or not, this is considered plagiarism. For more information, read the section titled Plagiarism.

Resource lists have different titles, depending on their content. If your list includes all the works you read or consulted, title it Bibliography, References, or Works Consulted. If it includes only those works that you referred to in the paper, title it References or Works Cited.

Most of the time, you will be expected to document using MLA style, so your resource list will be titled Works Cited. However, check with your teacher as he/she may prefer a different style of documentation.

Working Bibliographies

A working bibliography is simply a resource list you maintain while researching your topic. You will find it easier to compile your Works Cited list if you have kept track of your resource material as you research. Here are some tips to help you:

- Keep your list of resource materials on index cards, in a single computer document, or on your e-mail account.
- Include all the information you need for the document style you are using: author's name, title of the work, publishing information, and page numbers.
- Check that you have spelled all the information correctly.
- For journals and periodicals, record dates, volume and issue numbers, and pages.
- For online sources, note URLs and the dates you access information.
- As you write your draft, use a large clear mark to remind yourself which ideas come from a research source or are direct quotes. For example, the OWL at Purdue suggests marking your work with S for source and Q for quotation.

Creating a Works Cited Section

This section shows you how to cite your sources in an MLA-style Works Cited list. The Works Cited list supplies your readers with information about the sources cited in your paper. However, it does not include research materials that you consulted but did not cite. (These can be noted in a separate section titled Works Consulted.) As with all documentation styles, each entry on your Works Cited list is intended to provide three pieces of information: the author's name, the title of the work, and the publishing details.

The following paragraphs present guidelines for formatting citations in MLA style. Following that are examples of entries for books, periodicals, newspapers, and electronic media. The examples given cover most of the resources you will be citing. You can find more examples at <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/557/01/>.

Formatting MLA Citations

Here are some guidelines for entries in a Works Cited list:

Formatting

- Start a new page for this section and centre the title, Works Cited.
- Place the section at the end of your paper, keeping the page numbering in order. For example, if the last page of your paper is 12, Works Cited will be page 13.
- As in other sections of your paper, include your last name and the page number in the header.
- Maintain one-inch margins.
- Leave one space after punctuation. (Unless your teacher requests that you leave two.)
- Double space all lines, but do not insert an extra space between entries. The reader will know that each line that is flush left to the margin is a new entry.
- Position the first line of each entry at the left margin. If an entry is longer than one line, use a hanging indent. Indent the additional lines by one-half inch (approximately 1.25 cm). See the shaded textbox for more information about hanging indents.

Creating Hanging Indents

margin and indents all subsequent lines. You can format a hanging indent on your word processor by highlighting the entry and then selecting Hanging or Hanging Indentation on the paragraph formatting menu.

Alphabetizing entries

- Alphabetize by authors' last names. If an author's name is not known, alphabetize by title (not including *The*, *A*, or *An*).
- If a title begins with a numeral, alphabetize by the first letter of the numeral. For example, alphabetize *1984* as if it were spelled out *Nineteen-Eighty-Four*.

Authors' names

- Do not include authors' titles (Sir, Saint, Dr., Dame) or degrees (LLB, PhD, MSc). For example, the entry for Dr. Julia Levy, PhD would be Levy, Julia.
- Do include suffixes of authors' names (Jr., III).

Titles

- Capitalize the major words in titles.
- Capitalize an article, a conjunction, or a short preposition if it is the first word of the title (e.g. *Of Mice and Men* but *East of Eden*).
- Put titles of shorter works in quotations (poems, songs, short stories, television episodes, essays, articles).
- Underline or italicize titles of longer works (books, journals, periodicals, newspapers, television series). MLA prefers underlining because it is clearer for the reader. However, the current practice among many writers is to italicize. Check with your teacher for her/his preference.
- Do not underline a book title that appears in the title of another work. For example, Deconstructing MacBeth: The Hyperontological View.
- Keep the title of a short work in quotations when it appears as part of a book title. For example, "Walk On": The Spiritual Journey of U2.
- Omit *A*, *An*, or *The* if it is the first word of a periodical's title.

Publishing Information

- Include only the first city listed if the work has more than one city of publication.
- Add an abbreviation of the province, US state, or country if naming the city alone would be vague.
- Abbreviate the publication months (Nov., Jan.) except for May, June, and July.
- Include page numbers to show a cited work is part of a longer document (a chapter in a book, an article in a periodical). Record page numbers only, without the words *page*, *pages* or the abbreviations *p.* or *pp.*
- If a work appears over a range of consecutive pages, note the starting and ending page numbers, and connect them with a hyphen (23-34). For page numbers greater than 100, use only the last two digits for the second number when possible. For example, 216-25 is clear, but 298-09 should be written 298-309.
- If a work appears over a number of pages, but they are not consecutive, record the starting page followed by a plus sign (18+).

Electronic Sources

- When citing a work you retrieved from an online database (such as the Canadian Periodical Index), which originally appeared in print, include information about the original print form. This allows readers to locate works without having to access the database.
- Place URLs (website addresses) in angled brackets, and remove hyperlinks from URLs and email addresses. See the shaded textbox for instructions on removing hyperlinks.

Removing Hyperlinks

To remove a hyperlink from your document:

- select the URL
- in Windows: press Ctrl-Z
- in Macintosh: press Command-Z

- The remainder of this section presents examples of citations for: books, encyclopedias, magazines and newspapers, Web sites, and other sources.

Books

Author (surname first). Title of Book. Place of publication: Publisher, Date of publication.

One Author

Pringle, Heather. The Mummy Congress: Science, Obsession, and the Everlasting Dead. Toronto: Penguin, 2001.

Two or Three Authors

Doob, Anthony N. and Carla Cesaroni. Responding to Youth Crime in Canada. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2004.

Three or More Authors

Barnet, Sylvan, et al. Aspects of the Drama. Toronto: Little, Brown, 1990.

Two Or More Books By The Same Author

Findley, Timothy. Not Wanted on the Voyage. Markham, ON: Viking, 1986.

---. The Piano Man's Daughter. Toronto: HarperCollins, 1995.

---. The Last of the Crazy People. London: Macdonald, 1967.

No Author

Perspectives on Earle Birney. Downsview, ON: ECW Press, 1981.

Editor

Thomas, David M., ed. Canada and the United States: Differences That Count. 2nd ed. Peterborough: Broadview Press, 2000.

Translation

Camus, Albert. The Plague. Trans. Stuart Gilbert. New York: Penguin, 1948.

Corporate Author

International Institute for Environment and Development. World Resources. New York: Basic Books, 1987.

One Volume of a Multivolume Work (not an encyclopedia)

Telgen, Diane, ed. Novels For Students. Vol. 1. Detroit: Gale, 1997.

Work in an Anthology

Burkhart, Charles. "The Cinderella Myth." Readings on Jane Eyre. Ed. Jill Karson. San Diego, CA: Greenhaven Press, 2000.

Play With an Editor

Shakespeare, William. King Lear. Ed. George Smith. London: Oxford University Press, 1961.

Previously Published Article in a Collection (Note, Rpt. in means reprinted in and refers to the publication in which the article originally appeared.)

Rosengarten, Herbert. "Preferable Paradise." Canadian Literature 1974: 109-11. Rpt. in Contemporary Literary Criticism. Ed. Jean C. Stine. Vol. 25. Detroit: Gale, 1983. 323-24.

Article in a Collection Previously Published with a Different Title (Note, Rpt. of means reprint of and refers to the article's original name, followed by the publication in which it originally appeared.)

Bangresh, Amelia. "Dogs in the Family." Pet Tales by the Humans Who Love Them. NY: FurPress, 2001. 29-36. Rpt. of "Who's Holding the Leash?" Dog World 1999: 88-92.

Government Document

Canada. Dept. of External Affairs. The Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement. Ottawa: Supply and Services, 1987.

Encyclopedias

Author (surname first). "Title of Article." Title of Encyclopedia. Latest edition date.

Signed Article (author known) in Print

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Radio or Television Program

"Apartheid." Frontline. Narr. Judy Woodruff. Prod. John Blake. PBS. WNPE, Watertown. 10 May 1986.

Interview

Smith, Mary G. Personal Interview. 4 Nov. 2003.

Sound Recording

Joel, Billy. "We Didn't Start The Fire." Storm Front. CBS Records, 1989.

Work of Art

Picasso, Pablo. Still Life With Chair-Caning. 1912. Musee Picasso, Paris.

E-mail Message

Buckley, Jo. "Book Club Discussion." E-mail to Ahn Myeong. 15 Apr. 2006.

The next page is a sample Works Cited section, with entries taken from the examples used in this section.

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- Burkhart, Charles. "The Cinderella Myth." Readings on Jane Eyre. Ed. Jill Karson. San Diego, CA: Greenhaven Press, 2000.
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Structuring Your Research Paper

Once you have completed your research, it is time to write your paper. Your first step should be revising your original thesis statement. Writers often make changes to their statements after learning more about the subject.

If you are presenting an argument about the subject, you need to write a thesis statement. The statement should clearly present your stand on an issue, and perhaps persuade readers to agree with your view. It should be a focused statement that summarizes the purpose of your paper.

If you are analyzing different aspects of the subject, you will write a research question. State your research question at the beginning of the paper, and then use the body of the paper to explore a range of answers.

After establishing whether your paper is argumentative (thesis statement) or analytical (research question), you need to determine the structure of your document. Actually, your teacher will determine the structure by asking you to write a research paper or a research report. You provide the similar information in both, but the formatting is different.

Research Paper

Usually, teachers will ask you to write research papers. Research papers are also called research essays and their structure is less formal than that of research reports. Research papers are made up three parts, not including the title page or the Works Cited section, which have already been discussed:

Introduction. The introduction's main functions are to capture your reader's interest and to present your thesis statement or research question. Generally, introductions are four to five sentences long. They begin with a general statement and become more specific about the topic with each sentence, ending with the thesis statement.

Body. The body paragraphs present the meat of your argument or explore the answers to your research question. Each paragraph should have a single focus, stated clearly in a topic sentence. The topic sentence is supported by the other sentences in the paragraph. Create a logical order within the paragraphs. For instance,

begin with a general statement and become increasingly particular as you move to the end of the paragraph. Show the connection between sentences and ideas through the use of transition words (therefore, however, moreover), by repeating key words, and using pronouns.

Conclusion. Use the conclusion to draw attention to the implications of what you said in the paper. You can also briefly summarize your main points in the conclusion. Do not restate your introduction, but try to talk about the topic in a different way. You can also use the conclusion to suggest future research on the topic.

Research Report

A research report is also called a formal report, and it is usually a larger document than a research paper. Reports contain a number of titled sections, each of which begins on a new page.

Front cover. The front cover contains the same information as a title page. The date of publication is also included on the cover, as professional reports can undergo many revisions and republications. There is no page number on the cover. Ask your teacher if he/she would like you to use a front cover on your report.

Title page. The title page looks the same as the front cover, but it is paginated with roman numeral “i.” Sometimes, the title page also contains a brief summary or abstract of the report. Check with your teacher before adding a summary.

Table of Contents. The table of contents includes the report’s major headings, from the summary to the reference page. It also includes sub-headings that appear in the body of the report.

Summary. This page can be titled Summary, Abstract, or Executive Summary. It is about half a page in length, written in plain English and presents a summary of the report, so readers can understand the purpose of the report by scanning the page. The summary may contain some background information about the topic and an overview of the research methods. It usually introduces the thesis statement or research question, and presents the main results, conclusions, and recommendations.

Introduction. As in a research paper, the thesis statement or research question appears in the introduction of a research report. The introduction also provides an overview of the report's discussions and any background information the reader needs to have to understand the subject. The introduction page is paginated with an Arabic numeral "1."

Discussion. The heart of the paper is presented in the discussion section. Like the body paragraphs in a research paper, the discussion section supports your thesis statement. This section may also contain information about how you conducted your research and your results. Use descriptive lower-level headings to divide the discussion section logically.

Conclusion. In the conclusion you analyze and evaluate the results of your research. If your research has yielded any recommendations, include them in this section.

Appendices. Appendices are supplementary materials that you used while developing your report. If you conducted a survey, a copy of the survey would appear as an appendix. You could also place copies of research documents in the appendices, such as a copy of an email that you quoted. Begin each appendix on a new page, with a heading of "Appendix." If you have more than one appendix, add a letter to the heading, "Appendix A."

References. Your Works Cited section belongs at the end of the report. Format it in MLA style.

Presentation

Although your teacher evaluates your work primarily on content, she/he also considers your paper's presentation. For example, is your paper free of mechanical flaws, such as errors in spelling and grammar? Is it formatted as the teacher requested?

These are not difficult tasks to master and doing so shows your work at its best. By taking the time to present your paper in a professional manner, you enhance your credibility and keep your readers' attention where it belongs – on your text.

Formatting

Presented here are guidelines for formatting your paper in MLA style. As mentioned previously, there are other styles you can use, depending on the topic of your paper and your teacher's preference. Always check with your teacher before selecting a style.

General Guidelines

Following are general guidelines to format your research paper in the MLA style:

- Print your work single-sided on standard, white 8.5 x 11 paper.
- Type your work on a computer.
- Double-space your work, including your quotations and the Works Cited section.
- Use an easy-to-read font. A 12-point Times New Roman or Courier is standard.
- Set margins to one inch (2.5 cm) on all sides.
- Indent the first line of each paragraph by one-half inch (1.25 cm) from the left margin.
- Leave only one space after punctuation marks.
- Set up a header in the upper right-hand corner, one-half inch (1.25 cm) from the top and flush with the right margin. In the header, record your last name followed by a space and the page number.
- Centre your headings.

- Underline titles of longer works, unless your teacher asks you to use italics.
- Place titles of shorter works in quotation marks.

Formatting a Title Page

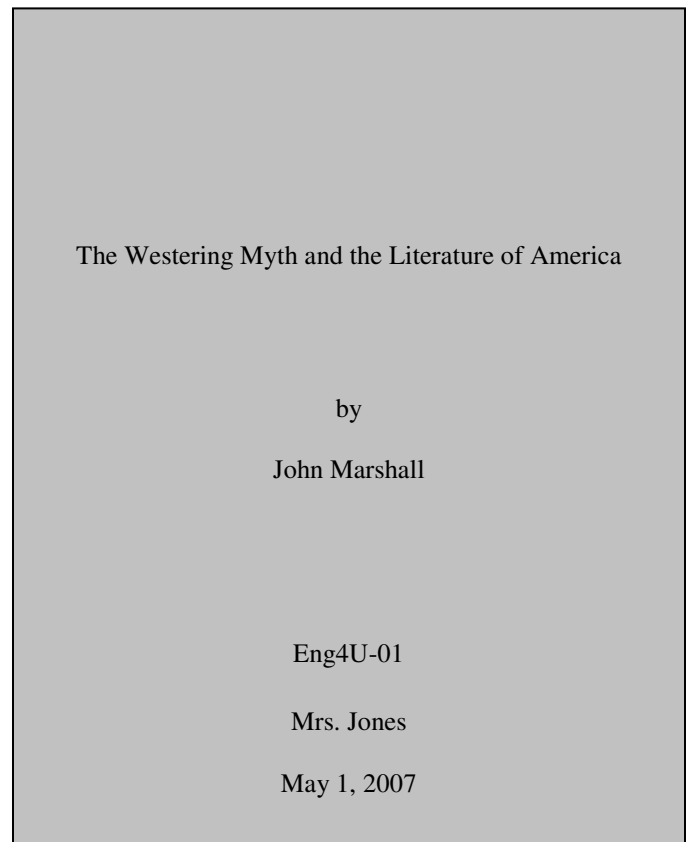
Often, but not always, the first page of an MLA-style paper is the title page. To format your first page as a title page:

- Double-space all lines on the page.
- Centre all text.
- Set the title one-third of the way down from the top of the page.
- Write the title in title case, not all capitals. Do not underline the title

or place it in quotation marks.

- Leave two double-spaces below the title, and record the word “by.” Leave one double-space and record your name.
- At the bottom of the page, record the subject and course number.
- One line below, record the teacher’s name.
- On the final line, record the submission date.
- Mark the page following the title page as page 1.
- Repeat the paper’s title at the beginning of page 1, centred on the page.

Sample Title Page



Formatting a First Page

If your teacher requests that you do not use a separate title page, format your first page using these guidelines:

- Place the header in the top, right-hand corner. Start with your last name followed by the page number.
- At the left margin, leaving a double space between each piece of information, write your full name followed by your teacher's name, the course name, and the submission date.
- Record the title below the date, centred on the page.

Sample Page 1 with title page

Marshall 1

The Westering Myth and the Literature of America

This is the first paragraph of the research paper. The first line is indented by five character spaces. The lines are double spaced. In the top, right-hand corner is the header. It is made up of the writer's last name followed by a space followed by the page number.

Sample Page 1 without title page

Marshall 1

John Marshall
Mrs. Jones
Eng 4U-01
May 1, 2007

The Westering Myth and the Literature of America

This is the first paragraph of the research paper. The first line is indented by five character spaces. The lines are double spaced. In the top, right-hand corner is the header. It is made up of the writer's last name followed by a space followed by the page number.

Editing your work

Editing is a habit that you should develop for all your written work. Take time and go over your work before submitting it. Even if you have researched your topic well and crafted a strong paper, your words will be far less effective if they are misspelled or punctuated incorrectly.

To edit your work, first print a copy of your paper. Editing a hard copy is much easier than working on the computer. Next, read your paper aloud. Reading your work allows you to hear if a phrase is effective or too complicated. If possible, listen while someone else reads your paper aloud. That gives you the opportunity to hear how a reader understands your writing. Finally, do not try editing in a rush before submitting your paper. As you will see in the next paragraph, you can edit your paper for a variety of items, but only if you leave yourself plenty of time.

Editing checklist

These are a few of the items to check when editing your work:

- **Spelling.** Especially names and specialized terms or phrases. Do not rely on spell check alone.
- **Punctuation.** For example, ensure that when you are quoting, the punctuation marks remain inside the quotation marks.
- **Grammar.** One thing to watch is the verb tense of your paper. It should remain the same throughout the text.
- **Abbreviations.** Remove all abbreviations except Mr., Mrs., Dr., Rev., Hon., Sr., and Jr. Spell out names of provinces and states and expressions of measurement (inches, kilograms). Spell out dates unless citing the information in your reference list. Spell out words like “chapter,” “page,” and “volume.”
- **Contractions.** Ask your teacher whether he/she wants you to use contractions or not. If the choice is yours, choose to be consistent: either use contractions all the way through or not at all.
- **Active verbs.** Wherever possible, use active rather than passive verbs.
- **Formatting.** For example, ensure that your pages are numbered in the header, your headings are clearly marked, and your title page follows suggested guidelines.
- **Citations.** Double check that your parenthetical citations and your reference list citations are correctly ordered, spelled, formatted, and punctuated.
- **Language.** Ensure that your language and word choices are inclusive of all people. Remove terms that support cultural, sexual, or ageist stereotypes or biases.

References

This is a list of print- and Web-based documents that were consulted and used to research and write this style guide. You may find them helpful when you are writing your own papers.

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Hacker, Diana. Research and Documentation Online. Bedford/St. Martin's. 3 October 2006 <
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Troyka, Lynn Quitman. Simon and Schuster Handbook for Writers. 3rd ed. Toronto: Prentice Hall, 2002.

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