

***Academic
Writing
Handbook***

Let's eat Grandma!



Let's eat, Grandma!

**PUNCTUATION
SAVES LIVES!**

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Types of Writing

COMPOSITIONS

Analysis

Quite simply, an analysis essay examines the parts of a topic in order to understand the whole. This is probably the most common type of writing done in high school and college. In literature, history, and science, writers are asked to take a complex topic and break it down into its components.

Argumentation

This type of writing is used to persuade someone to agree with the writer. An argument must always give reasons. The argument stresses the use of logical, rational thinking to convince the audience of a specific idea.

Cause and Effect

This kind of essay analyzes a situation from one of two directions: it may examine the cause or causes of a situation, and/or it may examine the effect or effects of the situation.

Comparison/Contrast

In this type of essay, a writer must show similarities in unlike subjects and differences in otherwise similar subjects. Some teachers will ask the writer to offer only comparison, some will ask for only contrast, and some will ask that the essay contain both clearly defined similarities and differences.

Definition or Classification

This type of writing is useful in dealing with abstract terms. The essay should contain the term, the class or larger group it occupies (for example, a conifer is a tree, acrylic is a type of paint), and the differences between it and other similar terms.

Description

Good description is often the precursor to other modes of writing. It stresses sensory detail – sights, sounds, tastes, smells, and feelings connected with the subject.

Narration

This type of writing is a short retelling of an occurrence that actually happened or that was gleaned from the imagination of the writer. Narrative writing follows the chronological approach in the retelling.

COMPOSITIONS (Cont'd)

Problem-Solution

This type of essay is especially useful for interdisciplinary units and is also used in much of the new testing done in writing. Sometimes the problem will be well known, and the emphasis will be on solving the problem. Sometimes the problem is not recognized and must be solved; in this case the focus will be on recognition that the problem exists. Some of these essays can lead to many solutions, some to a single solution or recommendation, and others leave the solution to the reader.

Process

This method of writing is sometimes known as process analysis. It explains how something is or was done.

OTHER TYPES OF WRITING

Book Report

Each teacher usually has his or her own preference for book reports, but a few general ideas should always be included. Book reports usually include: the title of the book and the author's name; mention of the characters, setting, and point of view used; a short summary of the plot; and the reader's reaction to the book, emphasizing anything new that has been learned.

Summary or Precise

In this method of writing, the writer presents only major ideas and omits details. It generally reduces the length of the passage being summarized by about two-thirds and expresses the author's ideas without the writer's opinion.

Scientific or Technical Writing

This method of writing is also left to the discretion of the teacher, but there are certain general principles to follow. The writer must present facts clearly and without personal opinion. The writer may use a variety of methods to inform, persuade, or help the reader solve a problem or make a decision. This style of writing follows chronological order, order of importance, or spatial order. Distinguishing features of this style are headings to direct the reader's attention; charts, graphs, tables, and illustrations; and oftentimes supplements (abstracts and appendices) and documentation.

Steps in the Writing Process

1. Read the prompt and figure out what it is asking.
 - What kind of writing are you going to be doing?
(see *"Types of Writing – Compositions"* pages 4-5)
 - Is the prompt asking you to do more than one thing?
2. Write a preliminary thesis statement.
3. Complete a pre-write:
 - 1 thesis statement (revised as necessary)
 - 2 topic sentences (minimum)
 - 4 pieces of evidence/concrete details (minimum)
4. Complete an outline, adding:
 - Explanation/Analysis/Commentary
 - Transition and concluding sentences
 - Introduction
 - Conclusion
5. Write the first draft.
6. Evaluate:
 - Peer Response
 - Revision
7. Proofread:
 - Check spelling and grammar
 - Check essay formatting
8. Revise final draft.

MLA-style Essay Formatting Basics

Page Numbers

- Include your last name and the page number in the TOP RIGHT margin of ALL pages of your essay.
- 12 pt. Times New Roman, no punctuation

Example: Smith 2

Header

- 1st page ONLY, LEFT side of page, DOUBLE-SPACED, no extra space between lines
- Place this header *before* the essay title

The Header must contain the following information and should look like this:

Your Full Name

Teacher Full Name

Class Name, Hour

Date (Day Month Year) (*Note:* This is the date your essay is DUE.)

Title

Your title is the reader's first impression of your essay. Work to make it interesting so your audience wants to keep reading.

Titles should be:

- 12 pt. Times New Roman
- Centered
- Initial Letters Capitalized
- NO Underline, NO **bold**, NO "quote marks"
- No extra space between header and title, or title and first line of essay

Text

In academic writing, always use:

- 12 pt. Times New Roman
- Double spaced
- Left aligned
- 1-inch margins
- NO EXTRA SPACE BETWEEN PARAGRAPHS!!

Sample Essay – First Page

On the following page, you will find a sample of what an MLA-style first page of an essay should look like.

Sarah Jones

Ms. Waitrovich

World Literature: Hour 4

1 September 2015

← Note: Even though this is called a "Header," DO NOT type it in the page header box.

Interesting Title Here

Make sure your paper looks identical to this. This is MLA format. If you do not know how to do something, please follow the instructions here, look through this packet for further instructions, or ask your teacher. Your introduction should have the following: 1) **Attention Getter:** This introduces the basic message you will be arguing. 2) **Transition to thesis:** Explain how your attention getter ties to your topic. 3) **Thesis Statement:** State your argument for your paper. 4) **Preview:** State the ways you will prove your thesis.

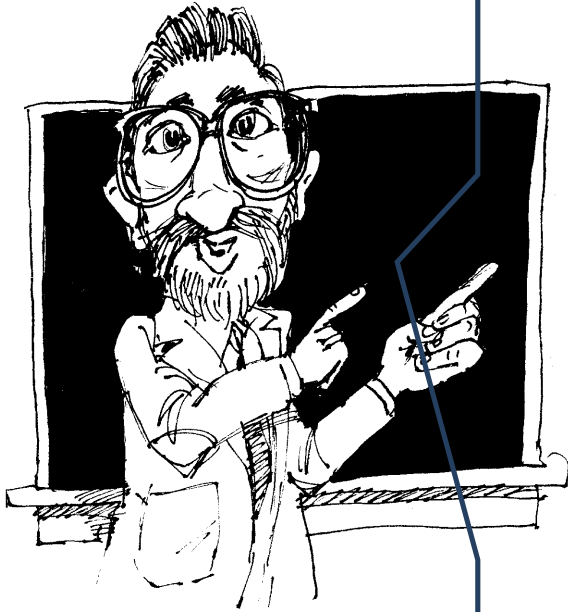
Each body paragraph should start with a **topic sentence**. This is a sentence that mentions your thesis and the first way you will prove your point (the main idea of this paragraph). After your topic sentence, you want to **establish the setting** or the context of where you are pulling your quote/evidence from. It is important to give readers some background as to what is happening at that moment or on the research you have found. You also want to make sure you lead into your quote. Now, insert your quote, but never start a sentence with a quote, and make sure your quote is part of a sentence. Then, include your **in-text citation**. Remember to cite correctly in MLA format. After you state your proof, you need to **explain**. Here is where you must use your thesis words and ideas to explain how your quote proves your thesis. It is very important here to reference your thesis. Finally, **restate** your topic sentence to wrap up your body paragraph. (*For more information, see "Guidelines for Writing Body Paragraphs" page 14.*)

Academic Writing Conventions

- Never use “I, you, me, we, us” language in your essay.
- Never use slang, informal, or texting language.
- Write in **present tense**.
- Never use contractions: “can’t,” “they’ll,” “won’t,” etc.
- Do not use the statements: “I think,” “I feel,” or “I believe.”
- Never say, “This shows that...” or “This quote means...”
- Never use, “This essay will be about.”
- Never start a sentence with: “and,” “but,” “so,” or “so then.”
- Avoid “dead” words: good, bad, nice, important, thing, etc.
- Numbers Rule:
 - Spell out numbers one through nine.
 - Use numerals for numbers 10 and above.
 - BUT, do not start sentence with a numeral (spell it out or rewrite).
- Names Rule: When writing about people or characters, use their full name/title on first mention. After that, use last name only. Never use first name only.
- Spell out symbols (% = percent, etc.)
- Do not use a semicolon unless you are absolutely sure you know how.
- Avoid starting sentences with the vague “this” or “that,” or “it.”



Academic Writing Conventions (cont'd)



- Delete “that” wherever possible.
Example: Never forget **that** you are studying writing so **that** you can write well in college.
Better: Never forget you are studying writing so you can write well in college.
- Watch for subject/pronoun agreement.
Example: “a student” ≠ “they”
(but “students” = “they”)
- Avoid “The reader...”
Example: The reader can tell the man is selfish.
Better: The man is selfish.
- Avoid “one.” “People” can almost always be substituted for “one.” (Make it plural.)
Example: Throughout one’s life, an individual...
Better: Throughout people’s lives, they ...
- Punctuation goes INSIDE quotation marks.
Wrong: They want to be “good guys”, not “bad guys”.
Right: They want to be “good guys,” not “bad guys.”
Unless: If you are quoting material followed by an in-text citation, the punctuation goes after the citation.
Example: The man and the boy “carried the fire” (McCarthy 14).
- For added credibility, always introduce your source.
Example: Approximately “one-half of all students oversleep at least twice a week” (Smith).
Better: According to Mary Smith, Children’s Hospital of Wisconsin sleep expert, “One-half of all students oversleep at least twice a week” (3).
- Use in-text parenthetical citations to cite ALL source material (direct quotes and paraphrase).

Thesis Statements

Patterns

All good thesis statements must have an argument, and most of those **arguments** come from observations.

In this section on thesis statements, observations are underlined; **arguments are in bold**.

<u>Observations about your subject:</u>	Argument about that subject:
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• People do good deeds for college credit• People receive benefits from doing good deeds	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• <u>There is no such thing as a good deed</u> because there will always be a self-serving component at the base of the deed.

There are many different ways to structure a thesis statement. The structure you choose will often come from the type of argument that you make.

Cause-Effect:

Thesis Example: When children have less time for unstructured play, they lose their imagination; **this causes them to become passive acceptors of media and information as opposed to independent critical thinkers.**

Problem/Solution:

Thesis Example: People may not be able to escape poverty; **however, they can improve their lives by creating hope through small changes.**

If/Then:

Thesis Example: If students at GHS do not have a genuine purpose for community service or extra curriculars, **then they should not be allowed to use them on a college application.**

Opposition:

Thesis Example: Although Americans often believe in the fallacy that freedom leads to creativity and inventiveness, American ingenuity has tapered **because of GDP decline.**

Explanation:

Thesis Example: Those who are vulnerable have the capacity to make a difference **because they are not so rigid that they resist change.**

Thesis Statements (cont'd)

Useful Thesis Statement Words

consequently, therefore, although, even though, despite, however

Tests for your Thesis Statement

- Can someone argue with you? (Yes=GOOD! No=BAD!)
- Do you have enough evidence to prove it? (Yes=GOOD! No=BAD!)
- Do you make some commentary about human nature that matters to people? (Yes=GOOD! No=BAD!)
- Could somebody say “duh” after reading your thesis statement? (Yes=BAD! No=GOOD!)

Tips for Writing a Thesis Statement

- Avoid factual statements
- No announcements (I think...)
- Avoid broad statements
- Narrow and selective
- Avoid “you”

Now you try it:

Unique observations about my topic:	Unique, creative argument:

Polished Thesis Statement: _____

Guidelines for Writing – Introductions

The title of your essay aside, your introductory paragraph is your first point of contact with your reader. The impression you make on your reader at this point will have a substantial impact on how the rest of your essay is perceived, so you want to impress.

1. **Topic Introduction** – Begin your introduction with a *topic introduction* (attention-getter). This is often the most challenging part to create. There are a number of ways to write an effective attention-getter: a quotation, a striking fact or statistic, or an analogy. However, the most effective type of attention-getter is usually an engaging anecdote. Your topic introduction is not specific to your text, but rather comments on a real-world theme related to your topic.

DO NOT:

- Use *generalizations* (“No one should ever...”).
 - Use *rhetorical questions* (“Have you ever wondered...”).
 - Begin with a quote you do not understand or cannot connect to the broader idea of your essay.
2. **Connect (Title/Author/Characters)** – Connect your *general* real-world concept to the *specific* topic of your essay. Provide the author’s name and the title of the work you are discussing. For example, “In Sherman Alexie’s *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian*...”
 3. **Background** – Following the author and title of the work, provide any background information you consider necessary to the understanding of your essay. Often this is a one- or two-sentence summary of the novel’s plot or the issue you plan on discussing.
 4. **Transition** – Transition to thesis statement.
 5. **Thesis Statement** – The last sentence in your introduction should always be your thesis statement. This statement clarifies for the reader exactly what the essay will be about and gives them a sense of direction in their reading.

THESIS TIP: Circle any words in your thesis which may need explaining and make sure you have done so somewhere in your introduction.

Guidelines for Writing – Body Paragraphs

A body paragraph typically consists of 8-10 sentences. Your breakdown should look something like this:

1. **P**oint: Transition and Topic Sentence: 1 sentence
2. Set the stage for your evidence: 2-3 sentences
3. **Q**uotation: Include quotation: 1 sentence (*See “Integrating Quotations” pages 17-19.*)
4. **E**xplanation: 3-5 sentences
(Need two pieces of textual evidence per paragraph? Repeat steps 2-4 here.)
5. Last Sentence: Sum up the ideas of your paragraph and transition to the next point

(For more information, see “Sample Essay – First Page” page 8.)

Body Paragraph Structure – Terms to Know

- **A transition** is a part of a sentence that makes a connection between the main idea of the previous paragraph and the main idea of the present paragraph. Transitions are always placed at the beginning of a body paragraph. (*See “Creating Transitions” page 20.*)
- **A topic sentence** is a declarative statement that states the argument of the thesis plus the subtopic of the paragraph and tells the reader the main idea of the paragraph.
- **Points** are your thoughts supporting or backing up your topic sentence.
- **Quotation** is support taken from the text in the form of summary, paraphrasing, or quotation. Remember, a quotation is not necessarily something someone *says*, but can be any text copied word-for-word from a source. All evidence **must be cited**. (*See “Integrating Quotations” pages 17-19.*)
- **Explain** is where you offer a more in-depth explanation of your supporting points. **THIS IS THE MOST IMPORTANT PART OF YOUR ESSAY.** Explain **HOW OR WHY** your quotation supports the argument of the thesis and topic sentences. Tell your audience what to think about your evidence. Make sure to use your thesis words.

Guidelines for Writing – Conclusions

1. Begin by restating your thesis statement (using different words from the original thesis statement in your introduction).
2. Then, wrap it up:
 - What is your most effective point?
 - Why does your topic matter and why should the reader care?
 - Go back to the beginning and reference your introductory thought (your anecdote or real-world theme). Tie in your anecdote or real-world theme with your conclusion. This way, your analysis comes full circle.
 - Draw some closure and promote further thought; end with a thought-provoking statement or idea.

DO NOT:

- Begin your conclusion with “In conclusion...”
- Simply summarize your paper and/or the novel.
- End with generalizations (“No one should ever..”) or rhetorical questions (“Have you ever...”).

Summarize, Paraphrase, or Quote?

A **SUMMARY** is a relatively brief, objective account, in your own words, of the main ideas in a source passage.

When to Use:

- Summarize plot details right before a quote.
- Summarize the novel in your introduction.
- *To condense the material.* Condense or reduce the source material to draw out the points that relate to your paper.
- *To omit extras from the material.* Omit extra information from the source material to focus on the author's main points.
- *To simplify the material.* Simplify the most important complex arguments, sentences, or vocabulary in the source material.

A **PARAPHRASE** is a restatement, in your own words, of a passage of text. Its structure reflects the structure of the source passage (you paraphrase each sentence). Paraphrases are sometimes the same length as the source passage, sometimes shorter. In certain cases – particularly if the source passage is difficult to read – the paraphrase may be even longer than the original. Keep in mind that only an occasional word (but not whole phrases) from the original source appears in the paraphrase, and that a paraphrase's sentence structure must be different from that of the original source.

When to Use:

- *To change the organization of ideas for emphasis.* Change the organization of ideas in source material so you can emphasize the points that are most related to your paper. Be careful to be faithful to the meaning of the source.
- *To simplify the material.* You may have to simplify complex arguments, sentences, or vocabulary.
- *To clarify the material.* You may have to clarify technical passages or specialized information into language that is appropriate for your audience.

A **QUOTATION** uses the exact words of the original source.

When to Use:

- *Accuracy:* You are unable to paraphrase or summarize the source material without changing the author's intent.
- *Authority:* You may want to use a quote to lend expert authority for your assertion or to provide source material for analysis.
- *Conciseness:* Your attempts to paraphrase or summarize are awkward or much longer than the source material.
- *Unforgettable language:* You believe that the words of the author are memorable or remarkable because of their effectiveness or historical flavor. Additionally, the author may have used a unique phrase or sentence, and you want to comment on words or phrases themselves.

Integrating Quotations in Body Paragraphs

A quote cannot be simply “plopped” into a paragraph, nor can it stand alone as a sentence by itself. There are two other necessary elements when incorporating a quote into your paragraph: a **signal phrase** and an **explication**.

Let’s take a hypothetical thesis statement from *The Scarlet Ibis*:

Pride ends up being a destructive element in *The Scarlet Ibis* when it leads the narrator to treat his brother, Doodle, with cruelty.

In order to prove this thesis, we need to provide adequate support (evidence). Let’s use this quote from the story:

“When Doodle was five, I was embarrassed of having a brother at that age that couldn’t walk” (93).

First, we should ask ourselves, what is this quote demonstrating? Someone might say it shows that the narrator’s actions were motivated by pride. Does this idea help support our thesis statement? In this case, yes.

Next, before we can insert the quote into our paragraph, we have to provide some *context* so the reader understands where in the story this quote takes place and who is saying it. This is called a **signal phrase**.

The quote we’ve chosen is from near the beginning of the story when the narrator is explaining why he wanted to “help” Doodle in the first place. The reader will need a reminder of this in the form of a signal phrase:

Early in the story, the narrator describes how “when Doodle was five, I was embarrassed of having a brother at that age that couldn’t walk” (93).

Note how the signal phrase leads *directly* into the quote. This keeps the pace of the writing smooth and fluid for the reader.

[Continued on next page]

Integrating Quotations (cont'd)

Finally, we need to explain to the reader *why* this quote is important. This is called **explication**. As we decided earlier, the quote shows that the narrator's actions are motivated by pride. This explanation should be tagged on after the end of the quote

Early in the story, the narrator describes how “when Doodle was five, I was embarrassed of having a brother at that age that couldn't walk” (93). **This admission of embarrassment demonstrates the early effects of pride on the narrator and his desire for Doodle to be normal like everyone else.**

The above sentences complete one quote integration, and the process should be repeated every time you incorporate a quotation into a body paragraph.

Leading Into Your Textual Evidence

Verbs that describe what the writer does:

emphasizes	implies	demonstrates	alludes to
defines	juxtaposes	maintains	claims
compares	observes	argues	illustrates
expresses	reinforces	parallels	reinforces
exemplifies	provides	echoes	implies
asserts	suggests	argues	observes
points out	states	explains	

Methods of Quote Integration

There are at least four ways to integrate quotations into your own sentences:

1. Introduce the quotation with a complete sentence and a colon.

If you use a complete sentence to introduce a quotation AND the quotation is a complete sentence, use a colon between the sentence and the quotation.

- *Example:* Albert Einstein reminds us all to never waste our life being selfish: "Only a life lived for others is worth living."

2. Use an introductory or explanatory phrase, but not a complete sentence, separated from the quotation with a comma.

Use a comma to separate your own words from the quotation when your introductory or explanatory phrase ends with a verb such as "says," "said," "thinks," "believes," "pondered," "recalls," "questions," and "asks" (and many more). You should also use a comma when you introduce a quotation with an attribution phrase such as "According to Mr. Ditch..."

- *Example:* Homer Simpson shouted, "I am so smart! I am so smart! S-M-R-T! I mean, S-M-A-R-T!"

3. Make the quotation a part of your own sentence without any punctuation between your own words and the words you are quoting.

When the word "that" is used, it replaces the comma which would be necessary without "that" in the sentence. You have a choice, then, when you begin a sentence with a phrase such as "Thoreau says..." You either can add a comma after "says," or you can add the word "that" with no comma.

- *Example:* Jerry Seinfeld once said that "there are Four Levels of Comedy: make your friends laugh, make strangers laugh, get paid to make strangers laugh, and make people talk like you because it's so much fun."

4. Use short quotations – only a few words – as part of your own sentence.

When you integrate quotations in this way, you do not use any special punctuation (besides the quotations marks). Instead, punctuate the sentence just as you would if all of the words were your own.

- *Example:* An Irish saying reminds people that friends that "gossip with you" may also be friends that gossip about you.

Creating Transitions

Transitions are links between paragraphs that create *continuity* in your essay (they show how major points are connected). They are a small but essential part of a literary analysis and can be added to your essay at just about any stage of the writing process.

Think of your essay as a large body of water and each of your body paragraphs as small, isolated islands. In order for your reader to “travel” from one island to the next, the author must create a bridge. That bridge is a common idea that links the two together.

Creating transitions is a relatively simple process. First, determine what the main point of each body paragraph is (essentially your topic sentence from each paragraph). Next, find a common or linking idea between the main point of one paragraph and the main point of the next.

Remember, you are not summarizing one paragraph or the next; you are creating a *link*.

Sample Essay With Transitions

Three Tips to Becoming a Sports Agent

Every sports agent should carry a picture of their dog in their back pocket. In order to be a great sports agent, a person must have confidence, the power to dream, and the ability to be responsible.

To become a successful sports agent, a key characteristic is confidence. In the sports agent business people need to be on top of things because athletes’ careers are in their hands. Confidence helps in making quick decisions, like how much money to negotiate for in an athlete’s contract. This confidence allows an agent to be able to walk into a room and have everyone know he is the best agent there.

In order to become a confident sports agent, a person has to have the power to dream. The power to dream is what enables a sports agent to have vision in their clients. It also allows agents to use their imagination and creativity to choose the best route for their clients.

Even with the power to dream and great confidence, a critical factor to becoming a great sports agent is responsibility. Sports agents are responsible for every aspect of their clients’ careers, including salary, what teams they play for, and public image. Without responsibility, agents will not be trusted by any client to carry out the duties they require.

With these three characteristics—confidence, the power to dream, and responsibility – a person can rise to the top of the sports agency business. Sports agents are a key factor in all of sports today; they are the unseen partners in an athlete’s success and the hidden necessity to the industry as a whole.

This is the author's thesis statement and supporting reasons.

This is the topic sentence of the first body paragraph.

Note how the topic sentences of the 2nd and 3rd body paragraphs connect to the main idea of the previous paragraph.

The conclusion connects all of the main ideas of the essay and draws a single point from them that reinforces the original thesis.

Summary vs. Analysis

Most of your writing assignments will require analysis, not summary. When you summarize something, you merely retell what happened or what is already known without adding your own interpretation or explanation. In most academic writing assignments, summarizing will not be enough. Instead, you often will be writing analytic essays, which take things apart and explain how or why they work, or else produce some kind of comment on the item being discussed. Analysis often contains an implied thesis, i.e., “Such and such is this way because of these reasons,” or “...is important for these other reasons,” or “...is often perceived as being X when in actuality it is Y, for these reasons.” As such, analysis contains elements of an argument: it takes a side or has opinions and evidence. The following example of both a **summary** and an **analysis** of the same topic may help clarify this distinction.

Example

Topic: Our "text" is the movie *Titanic*, directed by James Cameron.

Summary

This film tells the love story of Rose and Jack, as they cross the Atlantic in 1912 aboard a doomed luxury liner. In the movie – as in history – the ship hits an iceberg and sinks, with great loss of life. *Titanic* is one of the longest movies commercially released by a Hollywood studio, is one of the most expensive movies ever made, and is also one of the highest grossing movies of all time. It won 11 Academy Awards, including Best Picture.

Analysis

The 1997 movie *Titanic* has set records in almost every category – running time, initial cost, final profit, Academy Awards nominated for and received, audience loyalty, and on and on. The film is turning out to be a combination of *Gone With the Wind*, *Phantom of the Opera*, and *Star Wars*. Why has it been so popular? While some critics fault the cliché dialogue, the shallow characterization, and the egomaniacal excesses of production, most audiences do not care about that. They see it as something broader. First of all, there is the central visual metaphor itself, the vision of something huge and grand and tragic sliding out of sight beneath the water. From the story of Jonah in the Bible to the myths of Atlantis to Melville's *Moby Dick*, to disappear into the sea has been a very poignant and symbolic death. With exceptional cinematography and incredible special effects, the movie uses such images to brilliant effect.

MLA Style Guide – In-Text Citations

When you use a direct quotation, paraphrase, or summarize research material in your writing, you MUST cite your source in the text.

What Do I Include in the In-Text Citation?

- **When you use the author’s name in the text**, include only the page number of referenced material in the in-text citation.
Example: Dr. John Smith states, “This chemical has been known to cause multiple cancers” (118).
- **When you do not use the author’s name in the text**, include author name and page number in the in-text citation.
Example: After extensive research, scientists have found that “this chemical has been known to cause multiple cancers” (Smith 118).
- **If a source lacks page numbers**, use only author name.
Example: Scientists have found that multiple cancers may be caused by this chemical (Smith).
- **If the source has no author**, use the first word or two from the title of resource.
Example: After extensive research, scientists have found that “this chemical has been known to cause multiple cancers” (Cancer Research).
[*Note: Include quotation marks around title in the in-text citation.*]

Where Do I Put the In-Text Citation?

- Insert the in-text citation at the END of the sentence(s) of material you have quoted, paraphrased, or summarized.
- Sentence punctuation goes AFTER the citation.

Examples:

- A regulation Ultimate Frisbee field is “70 yards by 40 yards, with end zones 25 yards deep” (Ferguson 4).
- The official Ultimate Frisbee website states that “competitive play is encouraged, but never at the expense of respect between players” and following this code of conduct helps in the basic enjoyment of the game (Ferguson 5).
[*Note that the citation goes at the end of the sentence, not at the end of the quotation.*]
- If a player makes physical contact with another player a foul is called. When a foul disrupts possession, the play resumes as if the possession was kept (Ferguson 3).
[*Note that one citation is used at the end of all of this paraphrased material.*]

MLA Style Guide – Works Cited Page

A Works Cited page is a listing of all of the sources you have cited in your writing using in-text citations.

A Works Cited page is different from a bibliography. A bibliography will include all resource information you looked at whether you cite it in your writing or not. A Works Cited page will list only those sources you actually use in your text.

IMPORTANT: Your in-text citations and Works Cited entries MUST MATCH UP. If you cite a source and use an in-text citation, you must include an entry for that source on the Works Cited page. Every entry on your Works Cited page should be able to be matched up with an in-text citation.

Works Cited page formatting:

- The Works Cited page goes on its own page at the end of your essay.
- Page title is Works Cited (12 pt., centered, NOT bold/underlined/in quotations)
Note: If you are citing only one source, title is Work Cited (no “s”)
- Arrange the entries alphabetically.
- Entries do not have bullets or numbers.
- Double space all entries.
- No extra space between entries.
- Use a hanging indent (opposite of a paragraph indent, where the second and/or following lines is indented one-half inch)
HOW TO DO THIS: Select (highlight) all of your Works Cited entries. Open the Paragraph dialogue box. Under “Special,” change to “Hanging.” The “By” space should automatically change to .5”. Click OK.

HELPFUL TIP: Your Works Cited page is just as important to your essay as the first page. Do not put it in a separate document (and run the risk of forgetting to print it). Create this page in the same document as your essay.

Works Cited Entry Format

When using MLA style to create your Works Cited page, each entry in your list may be formatted differently depending on what type of source it is. A listing for a book will be different from a listing for a website or newspaper article. There are many credible websites you can use for help in figuring out the correct format for different types of sources. Try Easybib.com.

Sample Works Cited Page

On the following page, you will find a sample of what an MLA-style Works Cited page should look like.

Works Cited

- Angier, Natalie. "Chemists Learn Why Vegetables are Good for You." *New York Times* 13 Apr. 1993, late ed.: C1. *New York Times Ondisc*. CD-ROM. UMI-Proquest. Oct. 1993.
- Burka, Lauren P. "A Hypertext History of Multi-User Dimensions." *MUD History*. URL: <http://www.ccs.neu.edu/home/lpb/mud-history.html> (5 Dec. 1994).
- Christie, John S. "Fathers and Virgins: Garcia Marquez's Faulknerian *Chronicle of a Death Foretold*." *Latin American Literary Review* 13.3 (Fall 1993): 21-29.
- Feinberg, Joe. "Freedom and Behavior Control." *Encyclopedia of Bio-ethics*, I, 93-101. (MLA) New York: Free Press, 1992.
- Hennessy, Margot C. "Listening to the Secret Mother: Reading J.E. Wideman's *Brothers and Keepers*." *American Women's Autobiography: Fea(s)ts of Memory*. Ed. Margo Culley. Madison, WI: U. Wisconsin P, 1992. 302-314.
- Jones, V.S., M.E. Eakle, and C.W. Foerster. *A History of Newspapers*. Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge UP, 1987.
- Metheny, N.M., and W. D. Snively. *Nurses' Handbook of Fluid Balance*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1967.
- Pikarsky, M. and Christensen, D. *Urban Transportation Policy and Management*. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1976.
- Shaw, Webb. "Professionals are Required to Report Abuse." *Akron (Ohio) Beacon Journal*, Nov. 11, 1984 (Located in NewsBank [Microform]. *Welfare and Social Problems*, 1984, 51: D12-14, fiche).

Copyediting Marks

Text change	Copyediting example	Corrected text
apostrophe	my friends ^s poem	my friend's poem
boldface type	<u>Warning</u> : Do not disturb!	Warning : Do not disturb!
capital letters	Yeah, i'd eat cheeseburgers.	Yeah, I'd eat cheeseburgers.
close up	b ^e cause he's so cute	because he's so cute
comma	I come from glossy red sparkle lipstick	I come from glossy, red, sparkle lipstick
deletion	attended the the concert	attended the concert
insertion	three pieces ^{of} blueberry ^r pie	three pieces of blueberry pie
italic type	reading <u>The Odyssey</u> out-loud	reading <i>The Odyssey</i> out-loud
line break	I remember your face. You were bathing me when I asked.	I remember your face. You were bathing me when I asked.
lowercase	I called you at 3 A.M.	I called you at 3 a.m.
period	He went out. He bought a sandwich.	He went out. He bought a sandwich.
space	What are you talking about?	What are you talking about?
substitution	the Van Dyke ^{Gogh} exhibit	the Van Gogh exhibit
transpose	beginning, <u>end</u> , <u>middle</u> <u>comes after</u> and <u>before</u>	beginning, middle, end comes before and after

Credit: <http://teacher.scholastic.com/writeit/PDF/CopyEditingMarks.pdf>