The Concise APA Handbook

APA 7th Edition

By

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Rachael Ruegg
Mark de Boer
Naoko Araki
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PREFACE

We, the authors of *The Concise APA Handbook: APA 7th Edition*, are all experienced teachers of writing, especially in teaching students whose first language is not English. We have never found the ideal book to help our students understand how to format their paper according to the format that is prescribed by our university, the guidelines spelled out by the American Psychological Association (APA). Consequently, we came together and pooled our many years of experience as teachers of English learners and university professors to write this handbook, with the hope that it will be a user-friendly, concise resource that gives students the "nuts and bolts" of writing academic papers with easy-to-understand language.

The topics we chose to address are all issues that we have found to be common concerns in helping our own students learn how to use references appropriately. As you will see, we have provided the basic ideas behind why using references is necessary, understanding the avoidance of plagiarism, finding and evaluating sources, citing sources in the text, creating a references list, and formatting your paper according to APA 7th edition guidelines. Where appropriate, we have included a variety of images and examples to help illustrate the points being made.

As this is a concise APA 7th edition handbook, we have only included the most important points and most common examples in writing an academic paper, based on our own personal experiences. For more in-depth information about APA 7th edition, you should refer to the *Publication*

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Manual of the American Psychological Association (https://apastyle.apa.org), which you may find in your local library or easily purchased through your favorite bookstore. There are also a couple of very useful websites that provide more details and examples for citing less commonly used sources. One of them is OWL, Purdue University's Online Writing Lab APA website: (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/apa_style/apa_formatting_and_style_guide/general_format.html). The other is the APA Style Blog, which is sponsored by APA (https://apastyle.apa.org/blog?_ga=2.65105710.146129117.1582775348-1532754420.1469240022).

WHAT IS REFERENCING AND WHY DO WE NEED IT?

When we join the academic setting as students, we adopt the language and expectations of behavior in a learning and researching community. As we learn how to write formal papers in university writing classes, we rely on some traditions of studying rhetoric and how to write original texts, as well as a body of published knowledge. Much of what we discuss or write about in the academic or literary community is shared public information. As students rely on their powers to think, reason, and articulate their learning through their academic experiences, they become scholars who realize the importance of knowing and acknowledging what other informed thinkers have said about topics in all fields of study. Whether students are writing papers about their various interests in mathematics or science, literary topics, the arts, engineering, medicine, law, political and social sciences, or fields of business, economy, and finance, they will come to understand the importance of seeking, reading, and knowing about what other informed thinkers have researched about a multitude of fields of study.

As students become more experienced, they are expected to discover what other learned people have said about their fields of interest by doing library research. Years ago, all of that research was done in books and journals, but in the Information Age, most published knowledge has been

catalogued and collected in academic data bases. University students come to rely on these data bases as they pursue their studies. They also master the skills of how to use the ideas of others without claiming them as their own. Such an activity is the accepted way of relying on others' ideas to support and enhance our own. The way to reference or cite others' text is called referencing. When we rely on a specific author or his or her ideas, we write a citation to give credit to the person who published or wrote the idea originally. Referencing, in general, serves a dual purpose—first, to acknowledge within the actual body of the students' writing the source of information, and second, to provide at the end of the students' texts a more detailed alphabetical listing of the students cited references' sources. As the authors of this *Concise APA Handbook*, we have collaborated to assemble a handy reference manual for students to use as they navigate their university lives.

We have purposefully written this guide as a user-friendly collection of explanations, illustrations, and models that can promote students' academic writing skills. As all of us develop our academic skills, and even when we are quite familiar with creating texts that will be read by other scholars in our midst, we use a style guide to ensure that we reference our writing consistently. We expect that you will be able to use this simplified compilation of information provided by the 7th edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (the newest revision of the APA guidelines). In this second edition of our manual we have taken suggestions of our colleagues and former students to improve the manual, as well as to adapt it to reflect the new stylistic requirements of the manual.

Referencing, according to *Webster's New World College Dictionary*, is referring to a greater authority than ourselves on certain topics and bodies of information when we are writing about or using ideas that are not our own or that we have found in some reputable resource, especially when we are doing research (Agnes & Guralnik, 2010, p. 1203). The reasons that we reference in our writing include the following:

- to show sincerity,
- to demonstrate ethical behavior, and
- to reveal that we have joined the academic community's communication system on which we rely to provide us with the information about similar academic pursuits that others have done in that past.

Referencing shows sincerity by revealing that we have relied on others' work to help us do our own. Such acknowledgment demonstrates ethical behavior because in doing so we are acting in an ethical or correct way, which is to share with others the sources from which we derived assistance with our work. We act in such a manner because those who made the

research available to us deserve credit. By referencing others' knowledge, we also exhibit our mastery of one of the academic community's discourses or languages of intercommunication. We show through the conventions of citing our sources of knowledge or information that we understand how the academic community functions by acknowledging others' expertise in many subject areas.

Relying on the research and writing of other experts is what the researcher does routinely. As students become researchers, they are working within the realm of information gathering. The research papers usually assigned in advanced levels of language learning are the long reports with a specific rhetorical goal—usually to cover some body of information, to define a concept, or perhaps to combine many resources that reveal academic work or significant areas of investigation and findings. Referencing is done according to different rules and guidelines.

All institutions and the many disciplines within them have their own research traditions and citation systems. The biggest difference in all the reference systems is style; otherwise all of them focus on similar components: authors, titles or names of articles, books or websites, dates, and names of publishers. Your institution relies on its own reference system, and you should try to master what is needed in order to use it wisely and well. In essence, we get out of the effort to do good referencing in our writing what we put into it. When we do not know how to credit someone for their ideas that we have included in our work, we go to the *Concise Manual* to look it up.

There is an expression in the computer world that says "garbage in and garbage out." We do not wish for our learning and the projects that take many of our efforts in the learning process to be inferior. Therefore, we must take pride in the citing and referencing act. We must also appreciate the problems that can result from not taking pride in our work done through the vehicles of speaking, reading, and writing. When we rely on others' knowledge and information to accomplish our tasks, we must make available various kinds of information regarding the sources of our information.

Usually we include an author's name in a reference. There is also a way to provide a reference when the author's name is not given in the materials or text that we are using, such as citing the title of the source in the place of the author. Anonymous works, in general, should be avoided as sources, although anonymous data is often used in research writing. It is also best to avoid such generic statements as "It can be said that …". Instead, it is better to cite the original source. Another aspect of the reference that we must include in a reference is the title of the work, for example *The Japan Times*. Usually there is some kind of title—be it a book, newspaper, pamphlet, website, or video file. A third characteristic of the reference is a date of

publication. If there is no date included in the work, then we are advised to indicate there was no publication date available to us by the following kind of information—(n.d.) which means "no date." Also, we include the publisher's name if it is a book or document. The publisher is the organization that printed the work and disseminated it to the public.

Throughout this book, you will see examples of the proper way to cite works both in text and in your references list, to help you avoid committing the serious violation of plagiarism. You will learn by seeing these examples of how to do referencing and citing. You will also exercise your new learning about referencing and citations by persevering and understanding the specific ways in which to cite the kind of resources that you are using. We must all remember that citations and references take effort on our part as a learner and writer, in order to effectively become a researcher and member of the academic community. As in most of our learning and mastery of life experiences, we derive the greatest results when we work hard at something.

Enjoy your journey in becoming a scholar and researcher and learning the APA guidelines. It is one that will keep you on the proper path of learning and that is actually fun to implement in your writing, because it is a challenge that the best of all academic community participants understands and relies on routinely. We hope this handbook will be a useful resource to help you achieve this goal and join the academic community.

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CHAPTER 2

PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is a form of passing off something that is not ours as our own. Simply put, it is a form of stealing. In the world of academic work, ideas are abstractions. Taking someone's ideas can be difficult to prove sometimes; however, there are many ways that an experienced teacher or researcher can discern if someone has plagiarized or taken others' work in an unethical manner. One instance of plagiarism can be accomplished by paying another person to write an essay or to do an assignment. An archetypal example of plagiarism is doing a Google search on a chosen essay topic and finding a readymade essay online which can be submitted to the teacher with minor changes such as reformatting, or taking an essay written by another student and submitting it as one's own. However, these examples are far from a complete illustration of plagiarism. In reality, like many aspects of writing, plagiarism is a very complex and subjective issue, with few simple black and white answers. Many students may think that if they did not plagiarize on purpose, they are innocent of plagiarism. In reality, the majority of cases of plagiarism are unintentional. People commit plagiarism because they do not realize that what they are doing is a form of plagiarism, because they are not careful when using in-text citation and referencing, or even because of weak language skills. The purpose of this chapter is to deepen the reader's understanding of the issue of plagiarism, of what constitutes plagiarism, and of writing practices to be careful of. The

reasons that we learn what plagiarism is and how to avoid plagiarism are to prevent us from being accused of plagiarism and to benefit as much as possible from the learning process.

TWO BASIC RULES TO FOLLOW TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

At the most basic level, there are two rules which need to be followed to avoid committing plagiarism. Many people believe that to avoid plagiarism they should write their own ideas and, if any of their ideas do come from another source, they should acknowledge the source where the ideas came from, using an in-text citation and a reference. This is true, but writing one's own ideas and acknowledging the ideas of others is only one of the two basic rules.

Another important basic rule is for students to use their own words in their writing. There are many cases in which a writer may have thought of original and unique ideas, but still plagiarize by not writing the ideas in their own words. Some examples of plagiarism of language include the following:

- using translation software, without clearly indicating which part of the text was translated and which software was used for the translation work (of course using a dictionary to translate individual words or phrases is perfectly fine, indeed learners with additional languages should do so),
- patch writing, and
- having your writing corrected by someone who is better at writing.

A MORE DETAILED EXAMINATION
OF AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

According to Williams and Carroll (2009), the following activities are forms of plagiarism:

- someone else searching for and choosing materials for you to use in your writing,
- using someone else's notes as the basis for your writing,
- talking to others and copying the ideas they say into your writing, and

- getting help with proofreading/checking or editing, if the writing is for a language or writing class, which entails evaluating the quality of the writing.

Having someone else search for and choose materials for you falls under the first rule. Searching for and selecting appropriate materials for your writing is a part of the writer's job. If someone has chosen which materials you will focus on in your writing, then they have influenced what you will say about the topic in an important way. For example, imagine you are writing an argument essay about the death penalty and the person has chosen only materials that argue against the death penalty. This will limit your ability to understand the topic fully and may also influence what you include in your essay as the main points. One exception to the idea of searching for and selecting your own materials is when the teacher who sets the assignment asks you to focus on specific readings. They may do this in a writing class as a way of making the process easier for you (not having to search for and find materials means one less thing you need to worry about) or because they are teaching about in-text citation and referencing (if you are referring to a material that teachers are familiar with, it will be easier for them to see how well you've understood and how appropriately you've used the information in your writing). In a content class, teachers may do this because having a solid understanding of those particular readings is important to understanding the topic. More often than not, even when you are asked to refer to particular readings by your teacher, your teacher would be pleased to see that you had read and included additional materials about the topic in your writing.

Using someone else's notes is more problematic than someone else choosing the materials for you to read because there is the possibility that the person misunderstood the reading or lecture and this wrong information will be included in your essay. Some notes may also be the note taker's original opinion about the topic rather than having come directly from another source. Talking to others about the topic and then copying their ideas into your writing is closer to the archetypal definition of plagiarism in that it is taking someone else's ideas and representing them as your own. Ideas gleaned from others through conversations can be used to gain a broader understanding of other people's opinions about the topic. However, one person's opinion should not be conveyed in writing exactly as they have explained it. Rather it should be a point of interest that leads the writer to do further research on a particular aspect of the topic, through which they can form their own opinion and formulate it in their own words.

Getting help from others constitutes plagiarism if what the person does could be described as "correcting" or "editing" your writing. However, this

is usually only the case when your writing will be assessed for its quality, such as in a language or writing skills class. In a language or writing skills class, the teacher needs to evaluate your writing skills (which includes aspects such as tone, writing style and appropriate register) and/or the grammatical and lexical accuracy of your writing. If someone else has edited your writing, then the teacher cannot see writing which has been written by you, which would enable them to evaluate your skills. On the other hand, this does not mean that you should not ask other writers for help. Indeed, asking other writers for help is one of the best ways to improve your writing skills. When you ask for help from other writers, they should offer you advice or explain points to you (such as grammatical rules). If they pick up a pen (or use the keyboard) to write on your draft then there is a strong chance that what they are doing is correcting, rather than offering advice (i.e., writing for you, rather than helping you to write). The difference between doing the first action and the second is not always obvious, yet we need to be careful about the ways that we seek help with our writing and also about the manner in which we offer our assistance to others. However, basically helping you would entail explaining aspects of grammar or writing style to you and plagiarism would entail providing you with suitable expressions, phrases, or sentences that can be inserted directly into your text. Quantity also plays a part in distinguishing help from plagiarism. If another writer suggests one word, which can be used to convey the meaning you are trying to convey, then it is much like using a dictionary and is clearly not problematic. On the other hand, if the writing adviser or helper goes through your draft and offers a number of words that would be better alternatives to the ones in the current draft, then the help reaches a point where it could be said that not all of the language in the revised version of the essay is your own. Especially if you are writing in an additional language, be careful not to let others help you too much with the language in your writing.

From these points made by Williams and Carroll (2009), we can see that writers need to have done all aspects of the writing process themselves in order to truly avoid plagiarism: finding source materials, selecting appropriate ones, making notes, writing the draft, revising the draft, and proof-reading the final draft before submission. There is another kind of plagiarism not included in the list above—self-plagiarism.

SELF-PLAGIARISM

Many students are surprised to hear about the concept of self-plagiarism and have an entrenched belief that as long as the ideas and words in an assignment are their own then they cannot be accused of plagiarism. It is true that self-plagiarism applies mainly to academics, professors, or

researchers who publish their writing in a magazine or journal and then resubmit the same content for publication in another journal or magazine. This is because a journal or magazine article is supposed to be an original contribution to the field of study. If the article has already been published, then it is clearly not original.

Similarly, though, what students submit for an assignment is supposed to be their own original work. Therefore, if a student submits the same essay to two different teachers for two different courses, the student has committed self-plagiarism. Essentially the student is getting double credit for the work. Although clearly using the same topic and some of the same ideas for multiple assignments is fairly common, there is a point at which even two different essays can exemplify self-plagiarism.

Once again, the boundary between acceptable reuse of ideas and self-plagiarism comes down to quantity. Each writer tends to have their own writing style and their wording is likely to be similar, even when they are writing about completely different topics. On the other hand, if a chunk of writing is exactly the same, word for word, as what the student wrote in another essay, then they have committed self-plagiarism. A sentence or two is acceptable, but several sentences crosses the boundary. Similarly, if a student writes two essays in two different classes in which exactly the same main points are used, even if one essay has been paraphrased into different words, this constitutes self-plagiarism. On the other hand, it would usually be considered acceptable for one or two of the main points from one essay to be reused in another essay as long as they are expressed differently (provided the essay has a number of other main points).

PATCH WRITING

The act of taking the writing of others and maintaining the sentence structure, while substituting the original words with others is called patch writing, and is another form of plagiarism. Patch writing does not include the ideas of the original author, and therefore is different from paraphrasing. Rather, only the sentence structure is incorporated into another text. See the following example:

> Original text:
>
> In order to find out whether religion had any effect on people's attitudes towards sex before marriage, a questionnaire which asked about participants' religious affiliation as well as their attitudes towards sex before marriage, was disseminated and analyzed. The results indicated that religious affiliation had no effect on attitudes towards sex before marriage.

> Patch written text:
>
> In order to find out whether income had any effect on people's drinking habits, a questionnaire which asked about participants' income as well as their drinking habits, was disseminated and analyzed. The results indicated that income had a significant effect on drinking habits.

Flowerdew and Li (2007) found that many students believe that "as long as the work is their own, the language can be borrowed … from one text into another" (pp. 459–460). However, as explained above, avoiding plagiarism means both writing one's own ideas and using one's own language. Therefore, this belief Flowerdew and Li's students had (and that probably many other students around the world have) is incorrect.

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY-RELATED PLAGIARISM

In addition to all the different kinds of plagiarism mentioned so far, for students who are learning in an additional language, there are other kinds of plagiarism which are caused by weak language skills. In order to avoid plagiarism, not only should the ideas and the words be the writers' own, but also any ideas or words that do come from another source, such as a book, journal, or website, should be either quoted or paraphrased, with a corresponding in-text citation and reference.

Moreover, it is important that paraphrased information correctly conveys what the original author intended. It is not enough to simply maintain the original sentence structure and replace words with synonyms, rather the sentence structure should also be changed so that the language is the writer's own, although the idea has come from another source. This poses a number of problems for students who are learning in an additional language. First, it is important that source materials which are read by the writer are fully understood. At least, any ideas which the writer would like to use in their essay need to be understood fully to be successfully paraphrased into the writer's own words. Also, the writer needs a relatively broad knowledge of grammar and vocabulary to ensure that the paraphrased sentence they write actually does mean what they intend it to. It is the writer's responsibility to make sure that what they write in a paraphrase has the same meaning as that which was conveyed in the source material. If the paraphrase misrepresents what the original author wrote, due to a lack of complete understanding, or a lack of grammatical or vocabulary knowledge, that misrepresentation is another kind of plagiarism. Although writers might not intentionally plagiarize, if they commit plagiarism,

even unintentionally, there will often be very serious consequences. The following section will explain some of the possible consequences of plagiarism, giving specific examples of past cases of plagiarism.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF PLAGIARISM

We might be surprised at how painful and harsh the consequences of plagiarism can be. The ways in which plagiarism is dealt with vary from place to place. Informing ourselves about what plagiarism is, as well as our local school or university's consequences for plagiarism, is something that we can all do by looking in the institution's policy handbook. The simplest punishment for plagiarism has implications for one's career and livelihood, and in some cases for one's professional career and life. Because plagiarism usually means the revoking of academic credentials, the professional position of a person working in the university can be taken away in punishment by an institution. When plagiarism was committed intentionally, many people punish themselves by feeling shame and guilt and in the most extreme cases this can lead to suicide. In the case of student plagiarism, the most common punishment applied by universities around the world for plagiarism is to expel the student from the university, just as they do for committing other unethical behavior such as cheating on assignments, exams, or projects. Even if the punishment is not so severe, it can cause hardships. For example, sometimes a university will deny all course credits during the semester in which the offense was committed, to students who are guilty. Such a punishment may translate into wasted time, money, and study efforts, in addition to a setback in academic and work projections.

If we look beneath the surface of the obvious turmoil that verified cases of plagiarism can cause, we can understand that the act of plagiarism usually involved a theft—a stealing of ideas, of words, of theories, of research findings, or some other falsification that essentially means that a writer or researcher has claimed ownership or discoveries that are false. As for the student who is accused of plagiarism, he or she has used words or ideas that were not original and claimed them unethically in writing compositions or research projects.

In the case of professors or high-ranking administrators in universities losing their posts in a university system, we must understand such individuals are supposed to model exemplary behavior and ethics for all of the people in the institution from the teachers and researchers, to the staff, and to the students. Because unethical behavior results from the bad decision to make false claims about one's work, the plagiarist who has attained a high-ranking position has done so under false pretenses. Thus, the example set for all of the other professionals, staff, and students who

are often paying for their education is not a good one. In fact, the plagiarist is the opposite of the kind of person who would set the behavioral or ethical standard for others to follow in an educational system. However, even when plagiarism is committed unintentionally, revoking the academic credential and the corresponding demotion or termination of employment is still considered justified as the plagiarism makes it unclear whether the person has attained the level of expertise that would have been required to have gained that qualification without plagiarizing. Thus, we should all remember that even if a plagiarist used others' work unintentionally, the consequences are harsh, nonetheless.

A FINAL WORD ABOUT PLAGIARISM

As can be seen throughout the discussion of plagiarism, plagiarism is difficult to avoid. It is especially difficult for students who are struggling with a large amount of reading and writing in an additional language. Yet the consequences of plagiarism can also be severe. With an increased understanding of plagiarism, you might feel that it will be incredibly difficult to avoid and be unsure how to proceed.

As a general rule, a writing tutor would be a good place to turn. If there are no writing tutors available to you, then turn to your teacher for help. Explain to them what kinds of troubles you have and what you need help with. Most importantly, if you have completed an assignment and feel like you might have unintentionally plagiarized, it is important to discuss this with the tutor or teacher **before** you submit the writing. Once the writing has been submitted, any procedures which the school or learning institution implements in cases of plagiarism can be applied. On the other hand, if you have not yet submitted the writing, no consequences will usually be applied and you will have a chance to resolve the problem before submitting the assignment, if time permits. Indeed, the sooner you discuss any problems you have, the earlier you will be able to receive help to avoid plagiarism and the more effective that help will be.

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CHAPTER 3

EVALUATING SOURCES FOR ACADEMIC WORK

When you look for general information online, you will probably use Google to search for specific information. Google is a useful site to find any general information. It gives you news, visual images including videos, but when searching for *academic* standard materials, these (.com) sites are not so reliable.

If you google the words "World Heritage," the site shows 85,500,000 results (see Figure 3.1). This includes personal opinions of "World Heritage." These days, anyone can create a website and upload any information online. Of course, you can find international organization (.org) or government sites (.gov) by using Google.

Another popular site that students tend to use is Wikipedia, a free encyclopedia. It is available in a range of languages, but it is not a reliable site for writing an academic paper. Wikipedia is created based on a belief that everyone should have access to knowledge for free; therefore, the site has an Edit button on the right-hand corner to allow users to add, omit, and change any information on the site. Even if a person is not an expert on "World Heritage," she or he can easily manipulate the information on Wikipedia. In this sense, it is not a reliable site.
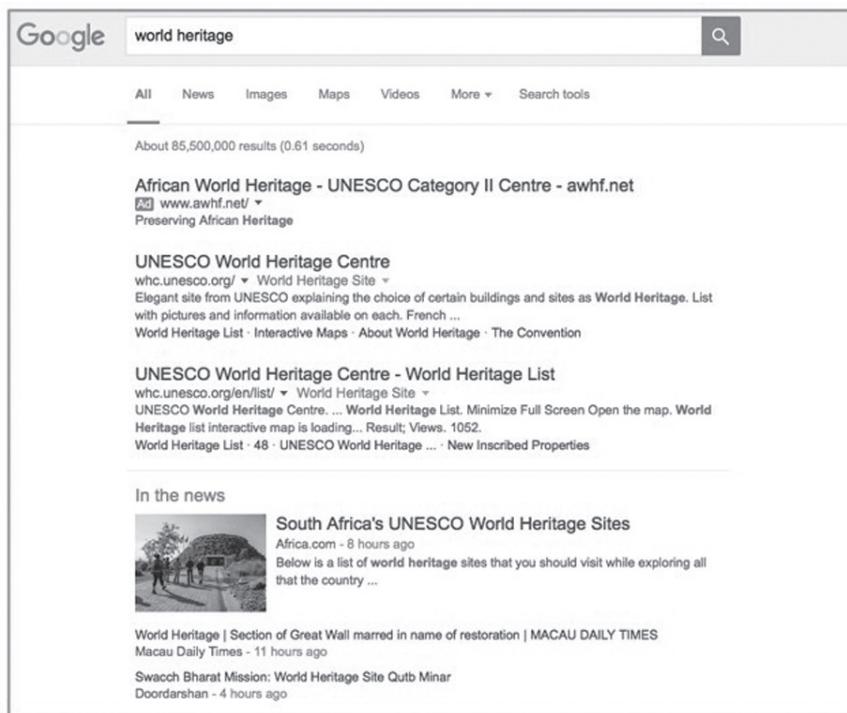
Figure 3.1.   Example of a basic Google search.

For academic sources, there are useful and academically specific sites that students can go to. One of the sites is called Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com). You can find academic books, e-books, journals, online journals, theses, and reports in various academic fields. See Figures 3.2 and 3.3 for a comparison of the main Google and Google Scholar pages.
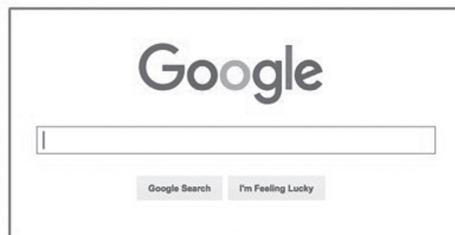

Figure 3.2.   Google.   **Figure 3.3.**   Google Scholar.

Using the same key words, "World Heritage," in Google Scholar, it shows 2,380,000 results. If you compare that reduced number of results to the greater number found in Google's general search, the dramatic difference suggests most materials are non-scholarly work.

DETAILS ABOUT HOW TO ACCESS GOOGLE SCHOLAR

The results of a search in Google Scholar (see Figure 3.4) include books, e-books, and journals in academic fields. A source followed by [PDF] means that a Full-text version of the source is available, but free availability depends on your institution's database packages. In some cases, full-text sources might only be available for a fee. It is best to click the ones that you are interested in and read an abstract or summary of the source before purchasing or downloading the material. You may also wish to consult with your librarians about other means for acquiring the sources you wish, such as through another available database or through interlibrary loan.

BROADENING AND NARROWING THE SEARCH

On Google Scholar, you can broaden or narrow the search using the general combine connectors. Common combine connectors (often called

Figure 3.4.   Sample Google Scholar search.

operational commands) for searching sources are AND, OR, and NOT. Each term has a specific function in searching outside sources. "AND" gives you results which show both terms you typed. If you type "Education AND Literacy," the results suggest sources that cover **both** terms. "OR" offers a wider search and means you will receive results that have each term as well as both terms. For example, "Education OR Literacy" will suggest sources including Education only, Literacy only, as well as Education and Literacy sources. The last one, "NOT," specifies sources within particular keywords searches to leave out. "Education NOT Literacy," for example, means all sources on Education but excluding the ones with the keyword "Literacy." Figure 3.5 illustrates how these terms are used.
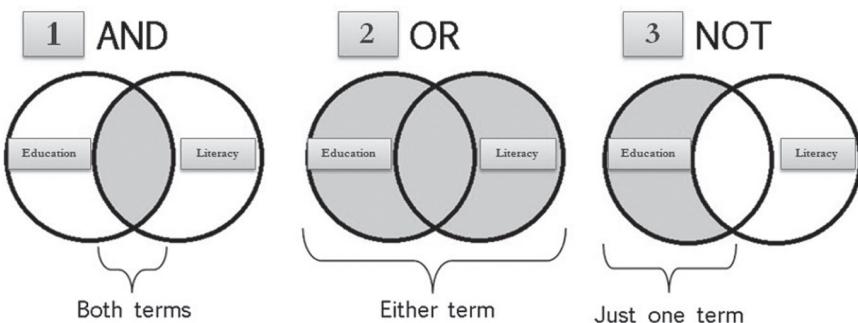

Figure 3.5.   Example using combine connectors.

Let's have a look at how the terms are actually used in Google Scholar. The first term, "AND," is useful when students want to search combined both keywords, for example "World Heritage and Japan." In Google Scholar, the results show 636,000 hits and these results have two words "World Heritage" as well as "Japan" in the content (see Figure 3.6).

Another useful signal is the use of double quotation marks "…." This will help students to search an exact phrase search and will specify the search to a very narrow area. Putting the keywords, World Heritage Japan, in the double quotation marks, "World Heritage Japan," will give narrow search results of 21 academic sources on Google Scholar (see Figure 3.7). With the use of double quotation marks, you can further narrow your search by combining the following signal abbreviations (Table 3.1). Typing a combination of title (ti:) and keywords with double quotation marks ("bilingual education) will give limited results of six (see Figure 3.8).

It is often recommended to use recent academic materials for writing academic papers unless there are convincing reasons to use dated materials (i.e., researching on Albert Einstein and focusing on his original books). When research results show a large number of academic materials, you

Figure 3.6. Results in Google Scholar.

Figure 3.7. Example of Google Scholar and quotations.

Table 3.1. List of Signal Abbreviations	
Abbreviation	**Returns Results from**
jo:	Name of Journals
ti:	Title
au:	Name of Authors
ca:	Illustration caption
ty:fla	Full length article
vo:	Volume of items
no:	Issue or number of items
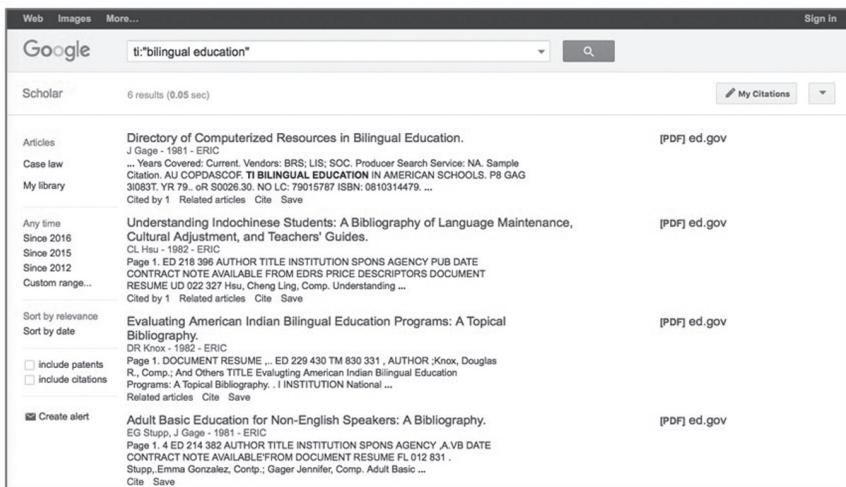
Figure 3.8.   Combination of quotations and signal abbreviation.

can also narrow your search to recent publications. In Google Scholar, you can further limit the search by clicking a section on the left side of the page (e.g., since 2016, since 2015, and since 2014). You can also use the "custom range" function on the left and specify the year of publication (e.g., 2010–2016).

SEARCH ENGINES FOR
ACADEMIC MATERIALS AT THE LIBRARY

Other online search engines are available through your university library. Each search engine has its strength. JSTOR, for example, contains journals,

primary sources, and books, whereas Science Direct is an academic database for Science and Technology related areas. Nexis Uni is also known as Lexis Nexis. This search engine is useful for finding newspaper articles on current issues in the world. JSTOR and Science Direct are introduced in detail below, and you will find that most search engines follow similar patterns, although the interface may appear to be different.

JSTOR
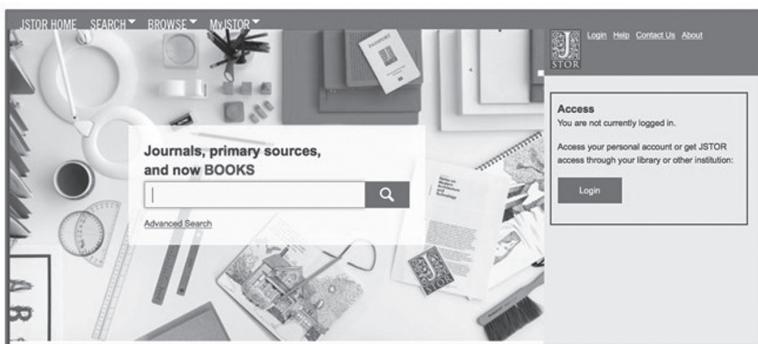
Figure 3.9.   Homepage of JSTOR.

Clicking on "Advanced Search" at the center of the screen seen in Figure 3.9 will take you to the page seen in Figure 3.10.
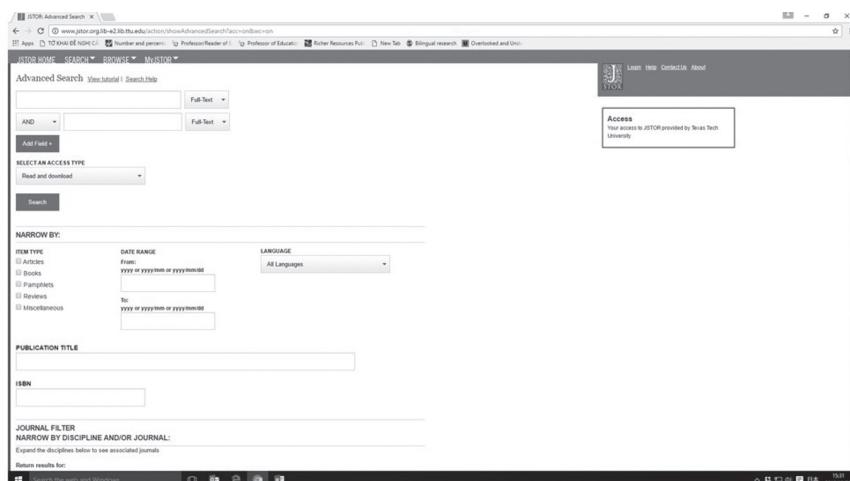
Figure 3.10.   Advanced search page of JSTOR.

It is recommended to search keywords with "Full-Text" in order to find sources in a full text form (see Figure 3.11).
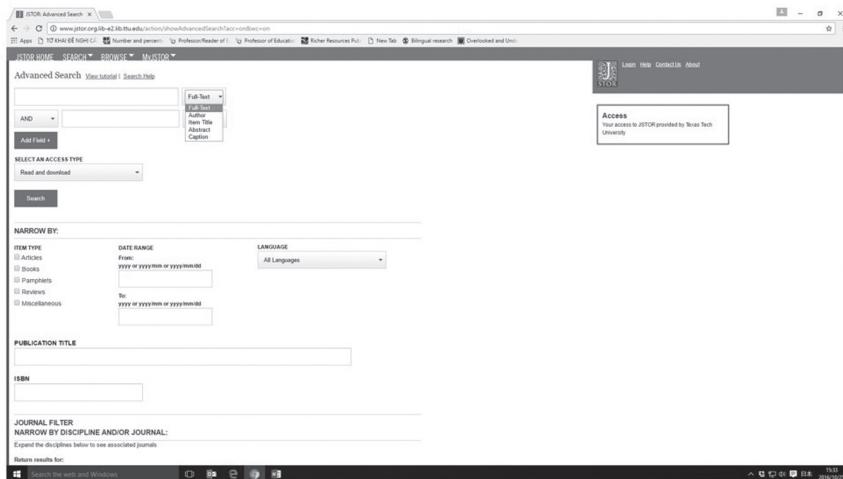
Figure 3.11.   Searching for full-text sources.

For example, you type the following key words, "economics" AND "financial literacy." Using the advanced search, you can further narrow your search by types of sources (articles and books), publishing date, and language (see Figure 3.12).
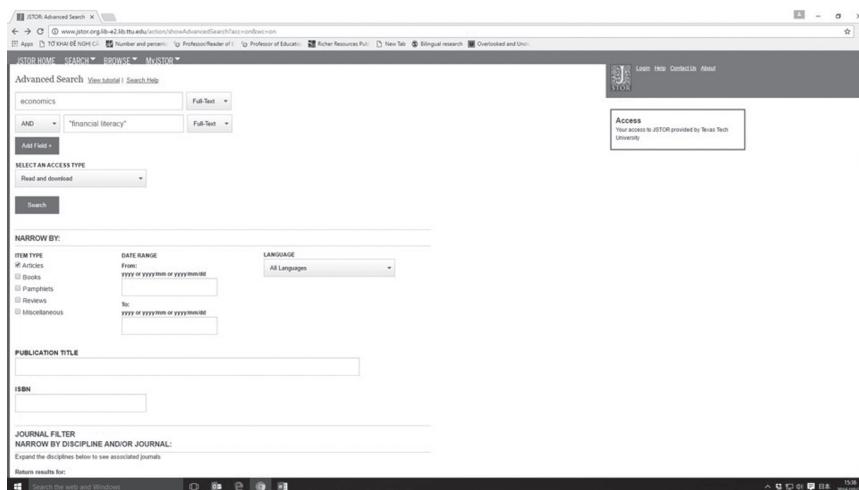
Figure 3.12.   Example of advanced search.

The search result shows 272 sources with these key words (see Figure 3.13).

Figure 3.13.   Search Results in JSTOR.

ScienceDirect

When searching for academic references in the areas of Science, Technology, Medicine, and Social Science, ScienceDirect is a highly recommended site to use (Figure 3.14). Typing the key words, construction engineering, for instance in ScienceDirect (Figure 3.15), it will show a list of relevant materials. Then, you can use the refine filters on the left side of the screen to narrow the search (see Figure 3.15).

Each university has recommended search engines and databases for students. Some of these tools are designed for a specific discipline. Individual professors will have recommended search engines and databases, so it is best to ask them for suggestions in specific areas of study. Remember librarians are expert at locating sources and can help you with finding the academic materials you are looking for. They will also help with appropriate keywords if the search has not been so successful. When you need help in the library, do not hesitate to ask librarians for help. If you are searching online outside of the library, it is best to use the help functions on each search engine online or download the user manuals of the system.
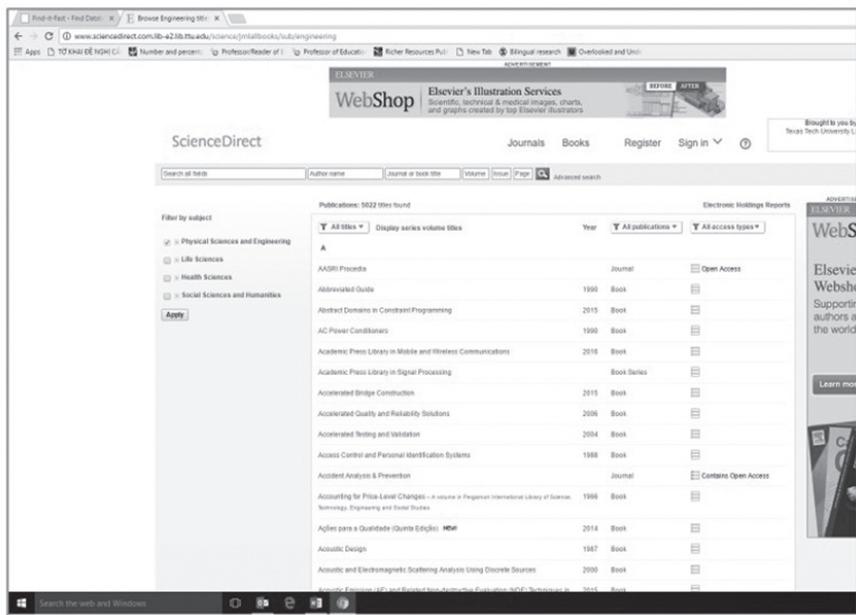
Figure 3.14.   ScienceDirect home page.
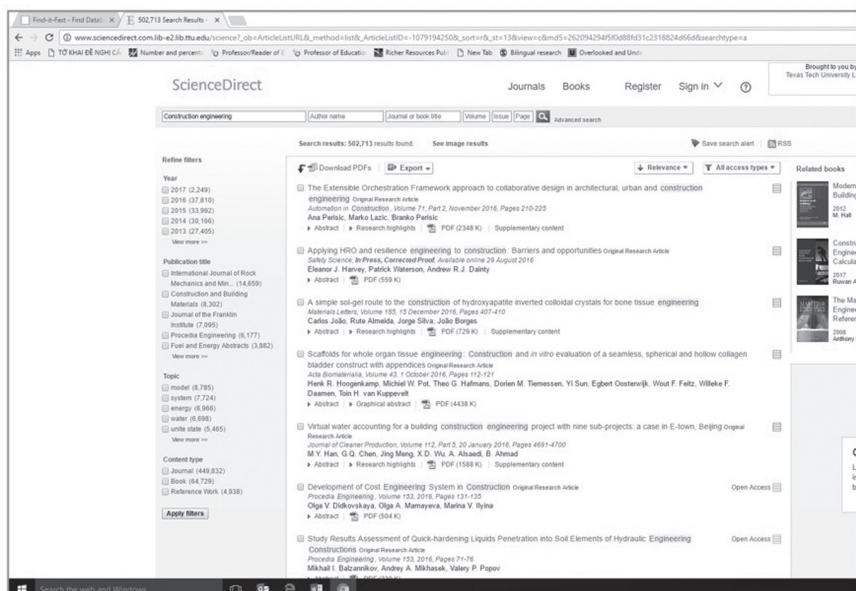
Figure 3.15.   Example search results of ScienceDirect.

FINDING RELEVANT SOURCES

Although the search engines are useful for finding academic sources, you still need to critically select sources from the search results. For example, if a source published in the 1980s appears on the first page of a search result with the key words "intercultural communication," blindly selecting the top five sources from the results is not recommended. Being listed on the first page does not mean that the sources are the most relevant ones you need for your assignment. You need to use your critical judgement when selecting appropriate sources. If a section of your assignment is on a history of "intercultural communication," the source published in the 1980s you found might be relevant to your assignment. However, if the focus of the assignment is on the current issues of "intercultural communication" and you are not discussing any history at all, the source published in the 1980s is not relevant as supporting evidence. Critical thinking skills are required for a selection of academic materials for your assignment. It is best to ask yourself the following questions: Is it relevant? How relevant is it to my assignment?

CHAPTER 4

IN-TEXT CITATION

This chapter will explain how to cite a source material in one's writing. In-text citations are very important in order to avoid plagiarism and using them correctly is equally important. Incorrect use of in-text citations can lead to unintentional plagiarism.

There are two different ways of incorporating information taken from source materials into one's writing: quotation and paraphrasing. Regardless of whether text is quoted or paraphrased, both an in-text citation and a corresponding reference are needed. However, the information required in the in-text citation sometimes differs between quoted and paraphrased information.

QUOTATION AND PARAPHRASING

Quotation

Quotation is when words are taken from a source material and copied directly into one's writing. When a writer has done this, it is indicated by quotation marks around the copied words. Be careful not to use quotation too much in your writing because it can be difficult to follow writing that contains too many quotations. The following are some examples of quotation:

Original:

If learning style is influenced by one's sociocultural environment, it follows that teachers and students from similar backgrounds may have greater likelihood of similarity in ways of learning. Accordingly, teachers from minority backgrounds may be better prepared to meet the learning needs of an increasing proportion of the school population than teachers from other backgrounds.

Writing with in-text citation:

Zapata (1988) suggests that teachers who are of similar linguistic or racial groups as the students may serve as role models and "may be better prepared to meet the learning needs of an increasing proportion of the school population than teachers from other backgrounds" (p. 19).

Notice that the information for the entire sentence came from the source material. Therefore, the citation spans the entire sentence, with the name and year of publication of the original material at the beginning of the sentence and the page number from which the quotation was taken at the end of the sentence. The name provided in an in-text citation is always the author's family name, rather than their first name. It may be difficult to determine which is the family name. In English, the family name is always written last. For example, in "Samuel John," John is the family name and Samuel is the first name. If the names have been reversed, usually a comma is added to show the reversed order (i.e., "John, Samuel). Looking out for the comma will help you to determine which is the family name.

In the above example, part of the information was written in the author's own words, so that part is not included in quotation marks. On the other hand, all of the words that appear exactly as they were in the original material are within the quotation marks. In this way, even though the information for the entire sentence came from the original material, the writer has demonstrated which information is written in their own words and which words are taken directly from the original material.

Original:

Inclusion of people of color must have at its core the recognition of the multiple ways in which we participate, see, and are in the world.

Writing with in-text citation:

Dillard (1994) argues, teacher education programs, administrators in school districts and others must recognize and acknowledge the richness that a diverse population of teachers brings, in the way they "participate, see, and are in the world" (p. 9), rather than merely focusing on numbers.

As in the previous example, this example includes both the writer's own words and words which were taken directly from the original text, except that the words taken directly from the original text are in the middle of the sentence rather than at the end. This example demonstrates the placement of the page number, directly after the quotation.

Alternatively, the author could have quoted all the information as follows:

Writing with in-text citation:

Dillard (1994) argues, "inclusion of people of color must have at its core the recognition of the multiple ways in which we participate, see and are in the world" (p. 9).

Let's look at another example:

Original:

Yamagata Prefectural Museum was established at Kajo Park in 1971. It is a general museum affiliated with the Yamagata Prefectural Education Museum and the Nature Study Garden.

There are many exhibits on natural history, history and culture in Yamagata Prefecture, including the *Jomon no Megami* (a goddess figure from the Jomon era, known as the Nishinomae ceramic figure), a nationally designated important cultural property, and *Daikaigyu* (Yamagata sea cow fossil), a prefectural natural monument.

Writing with in-text citation:

This museum houses Jomon-no-Megami, a *dogu* that has been designated a National Treasure of Japan and has received attention from experts throughout the world for its beautiful form and interesting stylization. A visitor to the museum's English webpage would have no idea how important this artifact is, as the only mention of the figure is on the homepage: "There are many exhibits on natural history, history and culture in Yamagata Prefecture, including the Jomon no Megami (a goddess figure from the Jomon era, known as the Nishinomae ceramic figure), a nationally designated important cultural property" (Yamagata Prefectural Museum, n.d., para. 2).

In this example, all of the information taken from the original material is quoted. The beginning of the sentence "A visitor to the museum's English webpage would have no idea how important this artifact is, as the only mention of the figure is on the homepage:" is the writer's original idea. In this case, since all the information from the original material is quoted, all components of the in-text citation appear together at the end of the sentence. Notice that instead of an author's name, this in-text citation has the name of an organization. This is done when the author's name is not provided in the original material. Notice also the use of "n.d." instead of the date. This is done when the publication date is not provided in the original material. Finally, notice that the in-text citation gives a paragraph

number ("para. 2") instead of a page number. This is done when the original material does not have page numbers.

Finally, if a quotation is more than 40 words in length, the formatting is different. In that case, instead of using quotation marks, the quotation is indented to set it apart from the rest of the text. Note also that the punctuation goes after the sentence, rather than after the citation. See the following example:

Original:

Learner autonomy is a complex system, in which psychological factors of an individual—the learner autonomy capacity, motivation, and agency—interact with elements of the sociocultural and political context, including peers, teachers, parents, policies, cultural norms and ideologies. Emerging from these interactions are varying degrees of self-direction over learning, a high degree of which enable individuals to pursue personally meaningful goals and make an impact on their social context.

Writing with quotation:

The most concise and comprehensive definition of learner autonomy is as follows:

> Learner autonomy is a complex system, in which psychological factors of an individual—the learner autonomy capacity, motivation, and agency—interact with elements of the sociocultural and political context, including peers, teachers, parents, policies, cultural norms and ideologies. Emerging from these interactions are varying degrees of self-direction over learning, a high degree of which enable individuals to pursue personally meaningful goals and make an impact on their social context. (Sykes, 2016, p. 82)

Overall, it is clear that although previously learner autonomy had been considered in the domain of education, it moved more specifically into the domain of language education during the twenty first century.

If the text you would like to quote includes information which is not important to your writing, that information can be omitted using ellipsis (…). This shows readers that a part of the original text has been omitted in the quotation. See the following example:

Writing with quotation:

The most concise and comprehensive definition of learner autonomy is as follows:

> Learner autonomy is a complex system, in which psychological factors of an individual … interact with elements of the sociocultural and political context.… Emerging from these interactions are varying degrees of self-direction over learning, a high degree of which enable individuals to pursue personally meaningful goals and make an impact on their social context. (Sykes, 2016, p. 82)

Overall, it is clear that although previously learner autonomy had been considered in the domain of education, it moved more specifically into the domain of language education during the twenty first century.

If any aspects of the quoted material need to be slightly changed for accuracy, such changes can be made by the writer and indicated with square brackets [ ]. Anything between square brackets should be recognized by readers as being slightly changed for the original version. See the following example:

Original:

Barack Obama, president of the U.S.A., succeeds in impressing his electors through simple words, but with maximum impact and a positive and achievable final message.

Writing with quotation:

As an example of this idea, Burtea-Cioroianu (2009, p. 36) explains that "Barack Obama, [former] president of the U.S.A., succeed[ed] in impressing his electors through simple words, but with maximum impact and a positive and achievable final message."

Since Barack Obama is no longer the president of the U.S.A., the writer used the quotation, but added the word "former" for accuracy and changed the verb tense to the past tense.

Notice that in all these examples, all three pieces of information are present: the author's/organization's name, the date of publication (or n.d. if the date is unavailable) and the page number where the information came from (or paragraph number if the material is not paginated). When using in-text citation for quotation, all three aspects are required.

If a material has three or more authors, only the first name should be included in the in-text citation, followed by "et al." For example, the book you are currently reading should be cited as "Iida et al. (2020)."

Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing information means giving the same information as in the original text, but in different words. Most source material that is mentioned in one's writing is paraphrased. It is preferred that writers use paraphrasing rather than quotation because the reader wants to know what the writer thinks. The writer takes the idea from the source material but writes it in their own words in their writing. In this way, they can emphasize the parts that they feel are important. Although the words and emphasis are their own, the idea has come from a source material they read. Therefore, in-text citation is required. Paraphrasing is more difficult than quotation, because the words cannot be taken directly from the source material; rather, the writer needs to change the words substantially, without changing the meaning.

Keck (2006) created a taxonomy of paraphrase types to evaluate student paraphrasing (p. 268). This taxonomy demonstrates what we mean by

"substantial revision." In general, this means that every word should be paraphrased except for particular terms or phrases that are unique to that topic or discipline. Every other word should be paraphrased—not only the words, but also the sentence structure has been substantially changed.

Take a look at the following two examples:

> Original:
>
> The tangible results of these developments are to be found in the rising tide of violence inflicted on refugees and asylum seekers - incidents which are reported in the headlines of the very same newspapers that have whipped up such xenophobic sentiments: "Thugs attack asylum seeker." "Refugee hurt in city gang attack." "Afghan man beaten to death after night out." "Refugee fled Saddam's torture, only to be attacked by racists."

> Writing with in-text citation:
>
> This negative labelling has discredited refugees in their efforts to be integrated into a host society. Due to this labelling, these displaced people may encounter hostilities as unjustified entrants (Crisp, 2003, p. 11).

In this example, there are three sentences. However, only the information in the second sentence comes from the original material. Thus, the writer has included an in-text citation only in the second sentence. The information in the first and third sentences is the writer's own ideas and thus does not require an in-text citation. The placement and frequency of in-text citations should make it clear to readers which ideas come from the cited material. Any sentence that does not have an in-text citation or a clear indication that the material is still being discussed will be assumed to be the writer's own ideas. To indicate that the ideas in a new sentence come from the same material as the previous sentence, phrases such as the following should be added such as:

"The author goes on to say that…"
"The authors also mention…"
"He concludes that…"
"She believes that…"

> Original:
>
> I am determined to make Japan a country where opportunities for women abound, and glass ceilings are a thing of the past. Already, the number of working women has grown by 800,000 over the past two years, exceeding 27 million as of January…. (three paragraphs later)… To keep more Japanese women in the workforce, we need to provide them more support outside the workplace. This is why I expanded the number of openings at child-care facilities by 200,000 since 2013 and increased assistance for families raising children. Last year, a new parental leave system went into effect, making it easier for both mothers and fathers to take time with their families.

> Writing with in-text citation:
>
> Prime Minister Shinzo Abe, in his commentary to *The Japan Times* (2015), insisted that his social policy reforms designed to allow women to fulfill their potential as contributors to Japan's economic growth had caused the working women population to grow to its present point, exceeding 27 million—a rise in 800,000 workers over the past two years.

Notice that rather than just the name of the author or organization, an extended introduction is used here. This is done for people who hold important positions that make them an authority on the subject, usually presidents, prime ministers, or departmental ministers. If the author you are citing does not have this kind of important position, then only use the family name in the in-text citation, as in the example that follows.

> Original:
>
> Meanwhile, the international federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) has made reference to people moving as a result of severe economic and social distress. The combination of livelihood collapse, environmental disaster and state failure is increasingly contributing to non-refugees leaving their country of origin because of an existential threat for which they have no domestic remedy.

> Writing with in-text citation:
>
> Although "refugee" has a clear legal definition, it has been found lacking as many of today's situations of forced displacement are more complex than this definition allows. For instance, many people have had to move from their homes due to environmental disasters, state failure and socio-economic marginalization of ethnic groups (Betts & Kaytaz, 2009, p. 26). Moreover, these types of displacements are likely to become significantly more frequent in the future, creating a clear need for a revised legal definition.

INTRODUCING QUOTED AND PARAPHRASED INFORMATION

Basically, there are two ways to introduce information which has been quoted or paraphrased from another source. The first is to introduce the citation information using a signal phrase that includes the name of the author or organization. The second is to add the citation at the end of the sentence, in parentheses.

Signal Phrases

Signal phrases can be used for both quotations and paraphrased infor-
mation and are chosen when the name of the author or organization is
important. See the following examples, both of which have the signal
phrase in bold:

Quotation with a signal phrase:

Ting-Toomey (1985, p. 72) **stated that** "intercultural misunderstanding and potential
conflict arise when two individuals, coming from two distinctive cultures, have two
different ways of expressing and interpreting the same symbolic action."

Paraphrase with signal phrase:

Van Hear (1998) **and Richmond** (1994) **have argued that** the term allows analysis of the
interaction of structural factors and degrees of individual choice to explain displacement.

Note that only the family name is used. The person is introduced in the text
(for example stating their position) only if this information is important
(usually for presidents or prime ministers of countries, religious leaders,
etc.).

The choice of verb to use in a signal phrase is an important consider-
ation. In the examples above, the verbs "stated" and "argued" have been
used. However, different verbs indicate a different relationship between
the writer and the source material. Table 4.1 gives examples of verbs
used to indicate a positive relationship between the writer and the source
material (i.e., the writer agrees with the idea of the source material), a
neutral relationship between the writer and the source material (i.e., the
author indicates neither agreement nor disagreement with the idea in the
source material but merely lets the reader know the idea from the source
material), or a negative relationship between the writer and the source
material (i.e., the writer is sceptical of the idea in the source material or
disagrees with it).

The simplest form of signal phrase is "According to." This is a neutral
signal phrase that is used to introduce another writer's idea. See the
following example:

Paraphrase using "according to":

According to the OECD (2015), seventy-two percent of women are employed on a full-
time basis with thirty-one percent at senior management level.

Table 4.1. Examples of Verbs Used to Show the Relationship Between the Writer and Source Material			
Positive	**Neutral**		**Negative**
Demonstrate	State	Report	Claim
Show	Argue	Explain	Contend
Confirm	Indicate	Note	Maintain
Point out	Emphasize	Describe	Insist
Agree	Believe	Define	Assert
Illustrate	Suggest		Declare

Parenthetical In-Text Citation

Parenthetical in-text citation is the more common of the two methods and is used when it is the idea, rather than the author, that is of primary importance. It is used for both paraphrased and quoted material and is the preferred method. When citing more than one material at the same time, a semicolon is used to separate the information of two in-text citations. See the following examples:

Quotation with parenthetical in-text citation:

From a purely psychological perspective, learner autonomy is "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 58).

Paraphrasing with parenthetical in-text citation:

Team teaching in the field of English language education in Japan has become a broadly familiar educational innovation in recent decades, largely through the establishment of the JET programme in 1987, which places non-Japanese Assistant Language Teachers (AETs) in school classrooms with Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) for team teaching purposes (Brumby & Wada, 1990; Miyazato, 2006).

These previous in-text citation examples include citation for two different source materials, both of which include the same idea. The first material was written by two authors: Brumby and Wada, while the second material was written by Miyazato. Notice the semicolon between the two in-text citations as well as the use of ampersand (&) between the names of the two authors of the first material. In APA style, ampersand is always

used in parenthetical in-text citations, whereas the word "and" is used in signal phrases.

Citing Information That Has Been Cited by Others

Students are not the only ones who use in-text citation. Most of the academic source materials you read will cite source materials that they have read. Therefore, sometimes when reading academic source materials about your topic, you will come across in-text citations for other materials. If the information that has been cited from another source is relevant to your writing, rather than citing the information directly, you should use the information in the reference section of the material to find the original material and read it. If the information is used in your writing, you would then use the citation and reference information from the original material, not the material which cited the original.

This is done for two reasons. First, it is important not to take information out of context. In addition, it is also possible that the author of the citation may have made a mistake in the information they have provided, thus constituting plagiarism. If you copy material which has been quoted by someone else into your own writing as a quotation, and even if you paraphrase the information into your own words, without checking the information in the original material, you will also be guilty of plagiarism if such a mistake is present. Even if such a mistake is not present, when paraphrasing information which has been cited by someone else, it is extremely difficult not to take the information out of context without having read the original to understand the intention of the idea.

The only exceptions to this rule are when the original material is not available in a language that you can understand and when the original material is no longer available (such as very old materials which are out of print or historical documents). In these exceptional cases when we cite information which was cited in another source, we need to write information for both materials in the in-text citation. This takes the form *Name* (*Year,* as cited in *Name, Year*) in a signal phrase and (*Name, Year,* as cited in *Name, Year)* in a parenthetical in-text citation. The former information citing the original material, while the latter information cites the material which the writer read. See the following example:

Citation of a citation using a signal phrase:

In terms of the quality of the feedback itself, Nakanishi and Akahori (2005, as cited in Hirose, 2008) compared high level Japanese students' point-scale evaluations of their peers' writing as well as descriptive feedback.

In this example, Hirose (2008) included a citation of Nakanishi and Akahori (2005). The writer of the above sentence read the material by Hirose (2008) only, not the material by Nakanishi and Akahori (2005) because the material written by Nakanishi and Akahori (2005) was written in Japanese and the writer of the above sentence did not understand Japanese.

Citation of a citation using parenthetical citation:

It has been stated that less direct feedback methods are superior to more direct methods because of the additional cognitive processing involved (Lyster, 2002, as cited in Sheen, 2004).

In this example, Sheen (2004) included a citation for Lyster (2002). The writer of the above sentence read the material by Sheen (2004) only, not the material by Lyster (2002).

Note that only the materials actually read by the writer (Hirose, 2008; Sheen, 2004) appear in the references list. No material which was not read by the writer should ever be included in the references list, although credit is given to the original author of the idea in the in-text citation.

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CHAPTER 5

MAKING YOUR LIST
OF REFERENCES

WHY DO I NEED A LIST OF REFERENCES?

Including a list of references is necessary for two primary reasons. First, it tells the reader that you have done your research as the writer on the topic you have chosen. This makes you more credible on the topic. Second, a references list gives readers enough information to help them find any of your sources that they might be interested in reading on their own. Without this information, it might be very difficult for the reader to find your sources.

WHAT SHOULD I INCLUDE IN MY LIST OF REFERENCES?

Other than a few exceptions, everything you cite in the text should be included in the list of references. Some of the most commons examples that are cited in the text, but **not** included in the list of references, include any personal communications (e.g., interviews, e-mails, among others), as well as quotations from research participants. Another important rule is that everything in your list of references should be cited in the text. If you did not cite the material in your text, then you should not include it in your list

---

of references. At the same time, as noted in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4, it is important to avoid plagiarism. With that in mind, every source you consult and from which you take information and include in your own writing must be cited in the text and included in the references list. It is also important to only cite and reference sources you have actually read. If you are citing a source that has been cited in another source, but you have not read that original source, you only reference the source you read (See Chapter 4 for how to cite such information in the text).

WHERE DOES THE LIST OF REFERENCES GO IN MY ESSAY?

Your list of references goes at the end of your essay. Typically, the list of references should start on a new page, not on the last page where your conclusion ends. However, you may wish to ask your instructor where they prefer the references to start. To help conserve paper and save the environment, some instructors may tell you it is okay to simply start your reference list immediately after the conclusion.

HOW SHOULD I FORMAT MY LIST OF REFERENCES?

There are several key points in formatting your list of references:

1. Your references should start with the word "References" (without quotation marks) centered at the top of the page. This word should be bolded, but *neither* underlined nor written with capital letters. It should look *exactly* like this:

References

2. References should be listed in alphabetical order by whatever appears first in each entry.
3. Your references should be formatted the same as the rest of your paper with 1-inch margins.
4. Your references should be double spaced all the way through. This means that each line of each entry should be double spaced, not just between entries.
5. No extra line space should be inserted between entries.
6. Although APA does not have a specific required font, fonts that are difficult to read or not commonly accessible on most computers should be avoided. Typically, instructors recommend using 12-point Times New Roman font, but check with your instructor and follow their guidance.

7. Your references should be formatted with a hanging indentation set to 0.5 inches (see Chapter 6 to learn how to set a hanging indentation).

HOW SHOULD I FORMAT EACH REFERENCE?

There are several basic rules to follow to format each reference. It is important to understand that each type of reference does have slightly different requirements. Below are examples of the most common types of references, but first, let's look at the basic rules that apply to most references.

There is some important basic information you should look for in your sources that you will need to include in each reference. This information must be provided in a particular order, but sometimes this information is not relevant to some types of references. There are other sources that might also require different or additional information, such as music, film, television, and digital sources. However, most sources used in academic papers will typically follow this order:

1. Author(s) name(s) in the order they appear in the source [See the note below]
2. Publication date
3. Title of the source
4. Title of the book/journal/website the source comes from
5. Volume and issue number (usually only journals, magazines & newspapers)
6. Page numbers (except for some online sources and entire books)
7. DOI number or CrossRef link for an academic journal source
8. URL for a website source
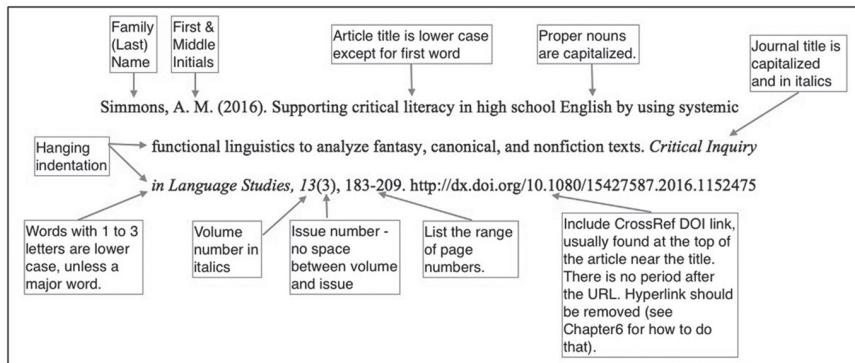
NOTE: Western sources typically print names in the order of first (given) name, middle name (if there is one), then family name at the end. On occasion, Western sources do print them with family name first. You can often tell that the family name is listed first, because there will be a comma separating the names. If there is no comma, it is likely in order of first name and family name. Also note that many sources published in Asia and some other places in the world print names reverse order: family name first, then first (given) name. Regardless of the order in which they appear in the source, in your list of references, you must always list them with the family name, and then given name initials. If you are not sure which is the family name and which is the first name, see if you can find the author cited in other sources and follow that.

EXAMPLES
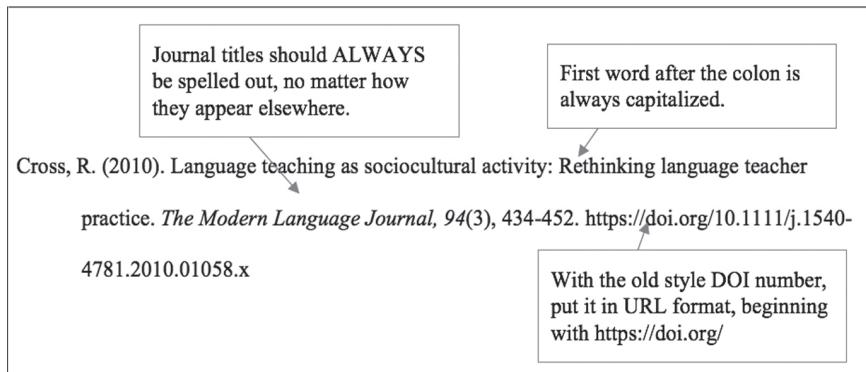
This section illustrates examples of the most common sources used in academic papers, along with notes to highlight important points in formatting your references list. If in doubt or your type of reference is not included here, visit Purdue University's OWL cite for guidance (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/apa_style/apa_formatting_and_style_guide/general_format.html)

Academic Journal Articles
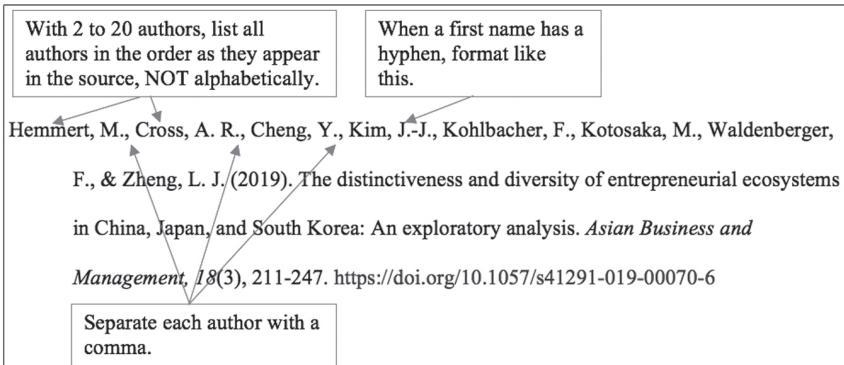
One Author With CrossRef DOI
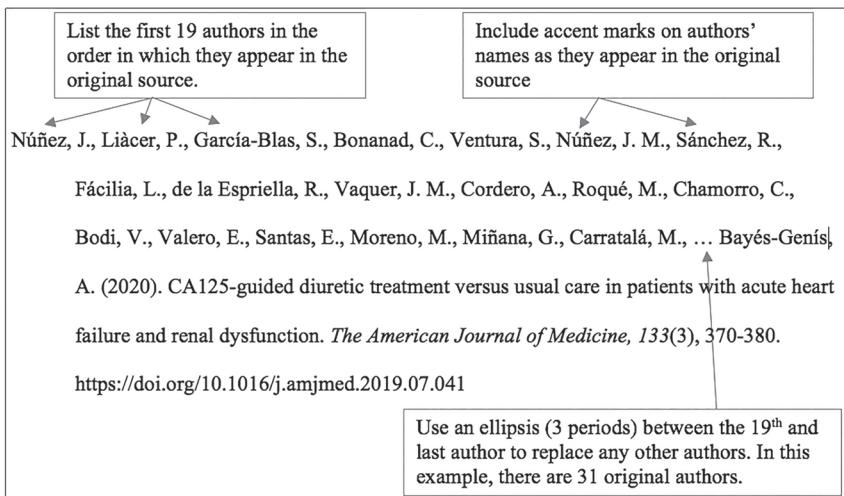
One Author With Old Style DOI

Two to Twenty Authors

| With 2 to 20 authors, list all authors in the order as they appear in the source, NOT alphabetically. | When a first name has a hyphen, format like this. |

Hemmert, M., Cross, A. R., Cheng, Y., Kim, J.-J., Kohlbacher, F., Kotosaka, M., Waldenberger,

F., & Zheng, L. J. (2019). The distinctiveness and diversity of entrepreneurial ecosystems

in China, Japan, and South Korea: An exploratory analysis. *Asian Business and*

Management, 18(3), 211-247. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41291-019-00070-6

Separate each author with a comma.

Twenty-One or More Authors

| List the first 19 authors in the order in which they appear in the original source. | Include accent marks on authors' names as they appear in the original source |

Núñez, J., Liàcer, P., García-Blas, S., Bonanad, C., Ventura, S., Núñez, J. M., Sánchez, R.,

Fácilia, L., de la Espriella, R., Vaquer, J. M., Cordero, A., Roqué, M., Chamorro, C.,

Bodi, V., Valero, E., Santas, E., Moreno, M., Miñana, G., Carratalá, M., … Bayés-Genís,

A. (2020). CA125-guided diuretic treatment versus usual care in patients with acute heart

failure and renal dysfunction. *The American Journal of Medicine, 133*(3), 370-380.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2019.07.041

Use an ellipsis (3 periods) between the 19th and last author to replace any other authors. In this example, there are 31 original authors.

An Online Journal Article (with non-DOI URL)

Ruegg, R., & Iida, P. (2020). A meta-investigation of the use of the labels "longitudinal" and

"long-term" in studies of feedback on writing. *Journal of Second Language Teaching and*

Research, 8(1), 1-22. http://pops.uclan.ac.uk/index.php/jsltr/article/view/588/218

Do not include "Retrieved from" or any other text before the URL as was common in older versions of APA.

Do not put a period after the URL.

An Article in a Language Other Than English

> First, insert the title in the original language. NOTE: If the original language does not use the Roman alphabet, phonetically spell out the words in Roman letters (This is an example originally in Japanese).

Shibata, S., & Yokota, T. (2013). Nihongo gakushusha no tameno nihon bungaku: Haiku to

tanka o kyozai toshita nihongo dokkai katsudo no jissen hokoku [Exploring Japanese

literature for Japanese language learners: A report of teaching haiku and tanka]. *Journal*

of Canadian Association for Japanese Language Education, 14, 35-53.

http://www.cajle.info/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/volume-14.031-053.pdf

> This journal only has an annual volume, not separate issues. In that case, just provide the volume number like here.

> Inside square brackets, [ ], BEFORE THE PERIOD, provide an English translation of the title.

Books

An Authored Book

> Author(s) and year are listed in the same manner as a journal article.

> Book titles follow the same pattern as a journal article, in title case no matter how it appears in the original source, except they are italicized.

Keith, T. (2020). *The bro code: The fallout of raising boys to objectify and subordinate women.*

Routledge.

> Remember that the first word after the colon is capitalized.

> Only the name of the publisher is needed, no city or country.

An Edited Book (Whole Book)

The only difference between an authored book and an edited book is that you must insert "(Eds.)." after the last editor's name, but before the publication date.

Winton, S., & Parekh, G. (Eds.). (2020). *Critical perspectives on education policy and schools,*

families, and communities. Information Age.

A Digital Book for a Specific Electronic Device

Include the format version of the book in [brackets].

Phillips, K. U. (2020). *The future of feeling: Building empathy in a tech-obsessed world* [Kindle

edition]. Little A. https://amzn.to/2Jt3nfW
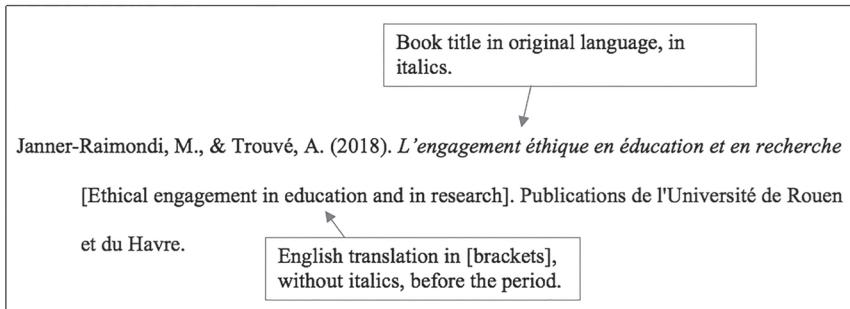
Provide the URL of the digital source. If the link is long, you can create a short link using a website like https://bitly.com

An Online Book

When the digital book is a PDF of the print version, there is no need to include the format after the title. Just include the URL as in this example.
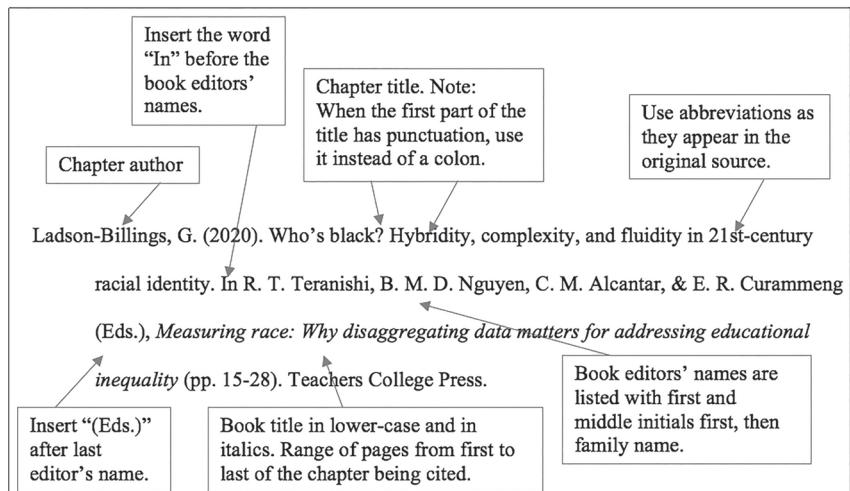
Oh, Y. (2018). *Pop city: Korean pop culture and the selling of place.* Cornell University Press.

https://cornellopen.org/9781501730719/pop-city/

A Book in a Language Other than English

Book title in original language, in italics.

Janner-Raimondi, M., & Trouvé, A. (2018). *L'engagement éthique en éducation et en recherche*

[Ethical engagement in education and in research]. Publications de l'Université de Rouen

et du Havre.

English translation in [brackets], without italics, before the period.
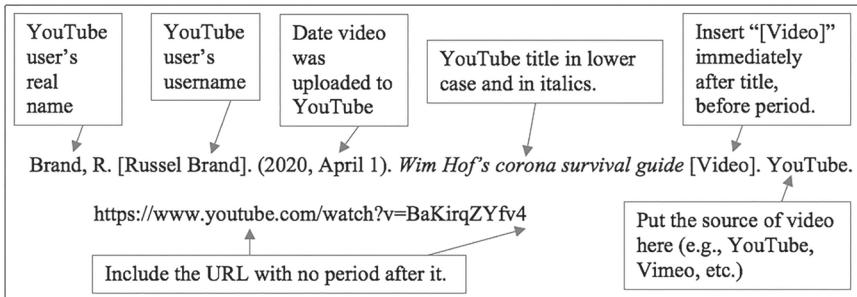
Book Chapters

A Chapter in an Edited Book With Different Editor(s) and Author(s)

Insert the word "In" before the book editors' names.

Chapter author

Chapter title. Note: When the first part of the title has punctuation, use it instead of a colon.

Use abbreviations as they appear in the original source.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2020). Who's black? Hybridity, complexity, and fluidity in 21st-century

racial identity. In R. T. Teranishi, B. M. D. Nguyen, C. M. Alcantar, & E. R. Curammeng

(Eds.), *Measuring race: Why disaggregating data matters for addressing educational*

inequality (pp. 15-28). Teachers College Press.

Insert "(Eds.)" after last editor's name.

Book title in lower-case and in italics. Range of pages from first to last of the chapter being cited.

Book editors' names are listed with first and middle initials first, then family name.

Miscellaneous Online Sources

YouTube Video—User's Real Name Known

| YouTube user's real name | YouTube user's username | Date video was uploaded to YouTube | YouTube title in lower case and in italics. | Insert "[Video]" immediately after title, before period. |

Brand, R. [Russel Brand]. (2020, April 1). *Wim Hof's corona survival guide* [Video]. YouTube.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BaKirqZYfv4

Include the URL with no period after it.

Put the source of video here (e.g., YouTube, Vimeo, etc.)

YouTube Video—Only User's Username Known

When only the username is known, use it as the author's name.

MsMojo. (2020, March 31). *Top 10 best coming out scenes in movies* [Video]. YouTube.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ywLFLc_8u0Q

A TED Talk Retrieved Directly From the TED Conferences Website

Insert "TED Conferences." just before the URL.

Hannibal, M. E. (2019, December). *How you can help save the monarch butterfly – and the planet* [Video]. TED Conferences. https://www.ted.com/talks/mary_ellen_hannibal_how_you_can_help_save_the_monarch_butterfly_and_the_planet

Online Data Report With Known Author(s)

Authors, publication date, and title follow the same format as a book.

Kosciw, J. G., Greytak, E. A., Zongrone, A. D., Clark, C. M., & Truong, N. L. (2018). *The 2017 national school climate survey: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer youth*. GLSEN. https://www.glsen.org/sites/default/files/2019-10/GLSEN-2017-National-School-Climate-Survey-NSCS-Full-Report.pdf

Include the name of the agency publishing the report.

Online Report From an Agency or Working Group With no Individual Authors

Agency who wrote the report.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2020, March). *Expulsion from school as a disciplinary action* (Data Point No. 2020-026). U.S. Department of Education. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2020/2020026.pdf

If there is a report or publication number, include it in parentheses after the title, before the period.

The governing body that oversees the authoring agency.

Online Raw Data Set From a Government Agency

Author/Researcher who compiled the data		Title of data set, table, etc.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2018). *Digest of education statistics: Number of*

teachers in elementary and secondary schools, and faculty in degree-granting

postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Selected years, fall 1970 through fall

2028 (Table 105.40) [Data set]. Institute of Education Science. https://nces.ed.gov/

programs/digest/d18/tables/dt18_105.40.asp? referrer=report

If there is a table number, document number, or other identifier, put it in parentheses after the title.	Insert "[Data set]" immediately before the period, no matter how the data is presented in the original source.	Overseeing agency is mentioned just before the URL.

Online Newspaper

Include full publication date in this order.

Nierenberg, A. (2020, April 2). New York's new soup kitchen has an upscale address: Eleven

Madison Park. *The New York Times*. https://nyti.ms/3dQrC5R

Proper nouns are capitalized.	Newspaper name is italicized and capitalized.

Online Newspaper, No Author

When no author, title comes first.

Newspaper title comes after the date.

Actor and singer Kenny Rogers dies at 81. (2020, March 21). *The Japan Times*.

https://bit.ly/2JB1BJJ

Miscellaneous Other Sources

Source With No Publication Date

When there is no publication date, put "(n.d.)" after the author. Note that there are no spaces.

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology – Japan. (n.d.). *2017 white paper on education, culture, sports, science and technology*. https://www.mext.go.jp/ b_menu/hakusho/html/hpab201701/1417254.htm

When the author is also the publisher, do not list it twice.

Document Where Author and Publisher are the Same

The American Psychological Association. (2019). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (7th ed.). https://doi.org/10.1037/0000165-000

> When author and publisher are the same, do not list it a second time.

Social Media Posts

Twitter Post With Text Only

> Name and username of person posting. Note: the username in [brackets] with "@" at the beginning.

> Full date of post.

> Tweet text up to 20 words, italicized and lower case other than proper nouns.

Phillips, D. [@domphillips]. (2020, March 31). *Facebook and Instagram have removed a Bolsonaro video from his Sunday walkabout. "We remove content on Facebook and Instagram that* [Tweet]. Twitter. https://twitter.com/domphillips/status/1244749141265321984

> After the 20th word, insert "[Tweet]" before the period.

> Insert the word "Twitter." Before the URL.

Twitter Post With Image or Video

Obama, B. [@BarackObama]. (2020, February 25). *After a lifetime of reaching for the stars,*

today, Katherine Johnson landed among them. She spent decades as a hidden

[Photograph attached] [Tweet]. Twitter. https://twitter.com/BarackObama/status/

1232061971148746754

> When a photo, video, or link with a thumbnail are attached to a Tweet, include that information in [brackets] before the word "[Tweet]".

Instagram Post With Image or Video

> Text below the video or photo is italicized and lower case. Include up to 20 words.

Lewis, J. [@jeniferlewisisforreal]. (2020, March 3). *Check your state, get into the debate...and*

vote! [Video]. Instagram. https://www.instagram.com/p/B9QIwppDLQ_/?utm_

source=ig_web_copy_link

> Type of media in [brackets].

> Insert "Instagram." after text, just before the URL.

Facebook Status Update

Center for Critical Gender Studies. (2020, February 29). *New article on gender roles and dating*

[Thumbnail with link attached] [Status update]. Facebook. https://www.facebook.com/

CenterCriticalGenderStudies/posts/3547520095289612

> Include in [brackets] just after the post (up to 20 words) the type of attachments, if any. In this case, there is a link to an outside source. Immediately following, separately, include "[Status update]."

CHAPTER 6

FORMATTING

Proper formatting is an important part of the writing process and APA provides a clear set of guidelines for creating a professional looking paper. This chapter will provide you with some of the basics of APA 7th edition formatting that you, as a student, should be aware of and should be using in your academic writing. Indeed, your content is important, but *how you present your writing* is equally important. This chapter is intended to serve as a very general outline of formatting to assist you with the basics. Specifically, we will outline the following formatting rules:

- Font and font size
- Line spacing
- Margins
- Page numbers
- Section titles
- Heading titles
- Bullet and lists
- Page breaks
- Putting diagrams, pictures, or graphs inline
- Indenting long quotations

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FONT AND FONT SIZE

Although APA does not have a required font, the general rule is that the font you choose should be easy to read and common on most computers. Most instructors will likely ask you to use Times New Roman 12 pt. The font you use must be consistent throughout your paper. Sometimes your text will require additional formatting, such as **bold** or *italics*, but the font, Times New Roman, and font size, 12pt, are consistent throughout your paper. To set this, click "Home" in the menu bar. The "Home" menu items will appear and will look something like what is seen in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1.   Example of a home menu bar (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Choose Times New Roman and 12 pt. size (Figure 6.2).
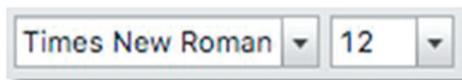
Figure 6.2.   Where to choose the font and appropriate size (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

It's a good idea to set this up before you start your writing.

LEFT ALIGNMENT

In Figure 6.1 above, there is a box around the button that looks like this (Figure 6.3):

Figure 6.3. The left alignment button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

This is called the "left alignment" button. When you type text, you want all the text in each of your paragraphs lined up along the left side of the margin. Yet, the text on the right side of the page is not evenly lined up. The figure shows this; the left side is very straight, but the right side is not. This is what your text on your own page should look like. This is important to do because it keeps the spacing between the words consistent. This is especially important for the list of references.

LINE SPACING

Throughout your entire paper, from start to finish (yes, even the list of references), the text should be double-spaced. This rule has been set because it also allows the editor/reader to easily determine the article length, and will allow some space for your instructor to make notes for you to improve your paper.

Under the "Home" menu, find the icon that looks like Figure 6.4:

Figure 6.4. Example button to change line spacing (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

When you click on it, you will be given a number of line options. Choose 2.0, as indicated in Figure 6.5.


Figure 6.5. Example of line space drop box menu (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If you have already typed some text, you can highlight that text and then set the spacing.

MARGINS

The next items that need setting are the margins. Margins are the top, bottom, right and left side "borders" of your paper that can be thought of like a frame around the text. This will be mentioned in the next section, but the top margin will contain your running head and your page numbers. This is separate from your text and they don't interfere with each other. To set your margins, choose "Layout" from the menu tabs, as seen in Figure 6.6.
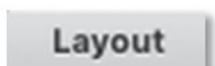

Figure 6.6.   Sample "Layout" button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Depending on your version of Word, this might look slightly different, but the most important item to realize is that you need to set your margins to "1 inch" or "2.54 cm," depending on whether you are working from Imperial Units or Metric.
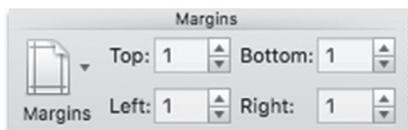

Figure 6.7.   Margins setting in inches (Used with permission from Microsoft.)
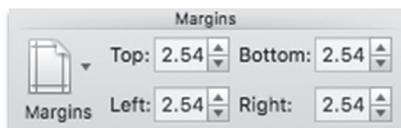
Figure 6.8.   Margins setting in centimeters (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Figure 6.7 shows the margins in inches, while Figure 6.8 shows them in centimeters. In summary, font, line spacing, and margins are three settings that should be done before you start your writing. These are settings that can be easily checked as you write but are just as easily forgotten.

CHANGING FROM INCHES TO CENTIMETERS

If you prefer working in inches over centimeters or vice versa, it is easy in Word to switch back and forth. In Windows, choose **Options** from the **File**

menu and then choose **Advanced**. If you scroll down to "Display" you'll see the option for changing the **units of measurement** (as seen in Figure 6.9).
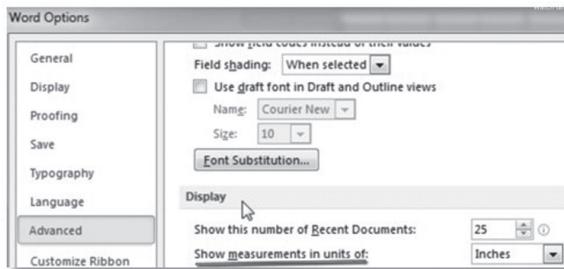
Figure 6.9.   Changing to centimeters or inches in Windows (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If you are using a Mac, go to "Preferences" under the "Word" menu. Click on "General" and you will see the "Show measurement in units of " and you can easily click to change your preference (as seen in Figure 6.10).
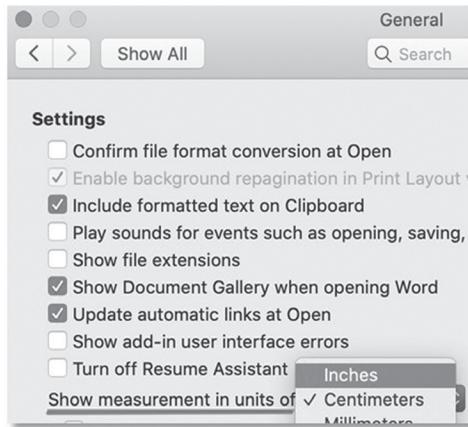

Figure 6.10.   Changing to centimeters or inches in Mac (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

PAGE NUMBERS

APA 7th edition requires you to use page numbers in your document beginning with the title page (for details on title page numbering please check

with your instructor). The page number should be in Arabic numerals (e.g., 1, 2, 3) and should be at the top right of the page.

Under the "Insert" menu, choose "Page number" and make sure the page number is set for "Header" and "Right" alignment.

SECTION AND HEADING TITLES

The next part of your formatting that you need to pay attention will be the section and heading titles within your paper. Each section or each part of your paper requires a heading, and the level of the heading requires a different type of formatting.

Before we start, here are a few formatting icons that you need to know (All images used with permission from Microsoft). They are located in the "Home" menu of Word.

This is the **Bold** icon on the home menu. You highlight the text and click on the Bold icon to make the text Bold, or click on the Bold icon to make the text normal again. You can also use Ctrl+B on the keyboard as a shortcut (Command+B on a Mac).

This is the *Italics* icon on the home menu. You highlight the text and click on the Italics icon to make the text italicized, or click on the Italics icon to make the text normal again. You can also use Ctrl+I on the keyboard as a shortcut (Command+I on a Mac).

This is the centering icon. Highlight the text you want to center and push this icon.

This is the left justify icon. Usually text is left justified as a default, but if you need to change the justify to left, highlight the text and click this icon.

Section Titles

Section titles are parts of your paper that are *not part of your actual content* (your writing). For the *section titles* of your paper, they should be bolded, but not italicized. Section titles should be centered and on their own line. A section also generally begins on a new page*. These include following:

Title of Your Paper

Author Note*

Abstract

****

References

Appendix/Appendices

Endnotes

* The author note section goes on the title page with the title of your paper, but it typically not included in a student paper.

** Between your abstract and your references is where you write your paper.

Each of these section titles should be capitalized (as you see in the list above), and your title should have all major words capitalized. These are the titles that make up the general structure of your paper. A section also generally begins on a new page. (The only exception is for the author note section, which goes on the title page.)

Heading Titles

Heading titles (see above **) are the titles you use in the areas where you write your actual content (your writing). These headings begin after the abstract and end before the reference section and their purpose is to lead the reader through the parts of your paper. The heading titles are different than the section titles and they are sometimes referred to as "signposting", or in other words, telling the reader information about what is coming in that section. These occur in the paper, specifically between the "Abstract" and "References" of the section titles.

Table 6.1 is a simple chart to help you with the formatting rules for headings.

Table 6.1.
How to Format Headings Based on Level

Level	Format
1	**Centered, Boldface, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading** Indented text starts a new paragraph.
2	**Flush Left, Boldface, Uppercase, and Lowercase Heading** Indented text starts a new paragraph.
3	***Flush left, Boldface Italic, Uppercase, and Lowercase Heading*** Indented text starts a new paragraph.
4	**Indented, Boldface Uppercase and Lowercase Heading Ending With a Period.** Paragraph text begins right away, in the same line as the heading.
5	***Indented, Boldface Italic, Upper and Lowercase Paragraph Heading Ending With a Period.*** Your paragraph begins right away, in the same line as the heading. * In the APA 7th edition, all headings are uppercase and lowercase and **bold**.

Your paper will have these headings, but do not number the headings (The numbering here is only to illustrate the level of heading). For example, in a research report following the APA style, Methods, Results, and Discussion are specific sections. These three sections are primary sections, and would be considered Level 1 headings. Subsections that are part of a Level 1 heading are considered Level 2, subsections that are of a Level 2 heading are considered Level 3, and so forth. This is an example:

<div align="center">

Methods (Level 1)

</div>

Context of Study (Level 2)

Participants (Level 2)

Teachers (Level 3)

Learners (Level 3)

<div align="center">

Results (Level 1)

</div>

Reading Ability Test (Level 2)

Short Text (Level 3)

   Words per Minute. (Level 4)

   Reading Comprehension. (Level 4)

Determining Fact Versus Opinion. (Level 5)

Speaking Ability Test (Level 2)

INDENTING

APA guidelines require the beginning of every paragraph to be indented 0.5 inches. To indent the first line of a paragraph (or heading), it is accept-able to use the Tab key by placing the cursor to the left of the text you want to indent and then by pushing the Tab key once. This indents your paragraph. When you push "Enter" or "Return" to begin a new paragraph, then the new paragraph will automatically indent. If you are going to do your indenting using the tab key, it is a good idea to make sure that the Tab setting is set to the correct indent amount, which is either 0.5" (0.5 inches) or 1.27 cm (1.27 centimeters). To do this, click on the paragraph and line spacing button as shown in Figure 6.11.

Figure 6.11.   Paragraph and line spacing button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Choose line spacing options at the bottom of the drop-down menu. When the options window appears, click on the "Tabs" button on the lower left. Once you do that, then you will be able to set your amount, depending on the units of measurement you are using. Figure 6.12 shows 1.27 cm. Make sure you push the OK button and from that point, your Tabs will produce the correct length indent.
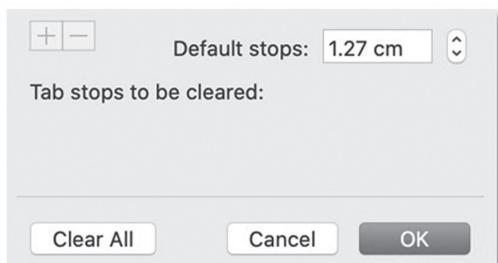
Figure 6.12.   Setting the tab spacing (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

BULLETS AND LISTS

The next items to cover are the bullet lists. If you need to create a bullet list, then there are a few simple rules you need to follow.

Figure 6.13.   Sample "Bullet" button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Figure 6.13 is the icon that you use when you want to make a bullet list. You can do this in two ways, first by making the list, then highlighting it and then clicking on the bullet list icon, or you can click on the icon, and start making your list. For the next bullet to appear, you need to push the "enter" or "return" key on your keyboard. For a bullet list to appear, you need a hard return at the end of each item on the list.

Here is an example of a bulleted list:

- You put one item here.
- You put the next item here.
- You put one more item here.

At the end of the list, just click on the bullet list icon to turn off the bullet function. In the list above, each of the items begins with a capital letter and ends with a period.

If you need to make a bullet list to emphasize a number of elements in a sentence, then you need to follow the capitalization and punctuation as if it were a sentence. If you wanted to make a bulleted list mid-sentence, then

- you should start with the first important item;
- then put the next item; and
- finally end with the last item as if this entire list was a sentence.

INSERTING A PAGE BREAK

Rather than pressing the "Enter" key repeatedly to move down to a new page, it is preferable to simply insert a "page break" between the end of the text on the current page and where you wish to begin the new text. A new page should be started using this feature to start the first page of main text (after the title page), the beginning of the references list, and at the beginning of each appendix. The following image (Figure 6.14) shows you where you may find this function.
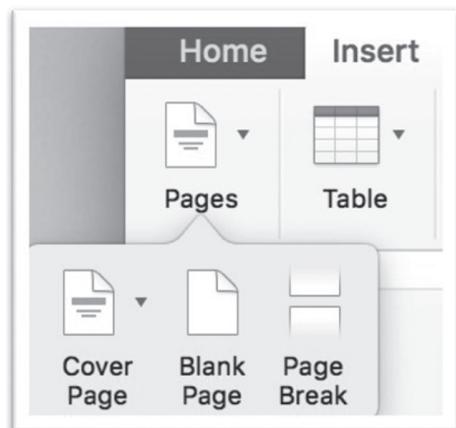
Figure 6.14.   Where to find the "Page Break" button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

   As an example, when you add an appendix to your paper, you'll need to make sure that the references and each appendix begin on their own new page. The appendix always occurs after the reference section. What you'll need to do is place your cursor by clicking at the end of the conclusion or references section. You might need to hit the "Enter" or "Return" key a few times. Then click on the Insert menu, choose Pages, then choose "Page Break." This will automatically put your cursor at the top of the next page. Then you can start your references section or appendix section. When you change your essay, even if the length of the text on the pages prior change, the page break feature ensures that the text after the page break occurs on the following page.
   Using the editing marks to show you, the following is an example of before and after applying a page break after the references section, creating an appendix on a new page.

Figure 6.15.   The "Editing Marks" button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Figure 6.15 is the editing marks button (if you click on this you can see various formatting marks). You can find this button in the Home menu.
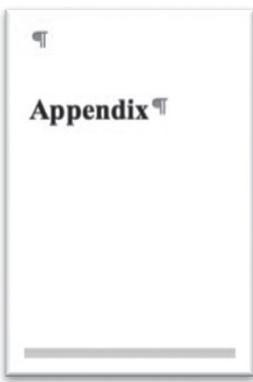
Figure 6.16.   Sample of what a page with the editing marks revealed (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

The word "Appendix" has been typed a few lines down from the last reference. The bottom of the page Figure 6.16 shows there is no new page at this point, but after we apply a page break, this is what we see in Figure 6.17.

Figure 6.17.   Sample of a page With a "Page Break" inserted (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

There is a "Page Break" indication (if you want to check this, click on the editing marks button in the "Home" toolbar. Notice that the "Page Break" is followed by a new page and the title "Appendix" begins on a new page, as it should.

PUTTING DIAGRAMS, TABLES, AND GRAPHS INLINE

When you put something other than text into the body of your paper, there are a few options to choose from to make sure that your diagram, picture, or table moves with the rest of the text. Sometimes a picture can be a floating picture, meaning that as you add text before or after the diagram, the diagram doesn't move "with the text". Here is an example using a simple object, to represent a diagram, picture, or graph, has been added to the document (Figure 6.18).
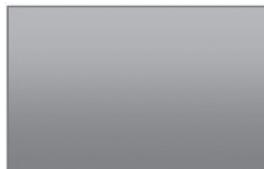
Figure 6.18.   Sample "Picture" (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If we click on that object, then in the menu bar, we would see "Format" or "~~~ Format." What we want to find is the "Wrap Text" icon, which can be found directly under the "Format" menu item, as shown in Figure 6.19:
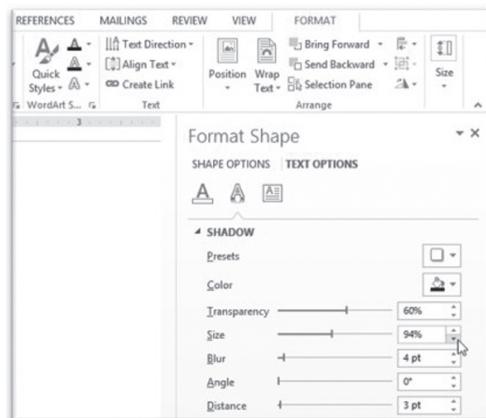

Figure 6.19.   Where to find the "Wrap Text" option in the image "Format" menu (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

Or it can be found under "Arrange" as shown in Figure 6.20.
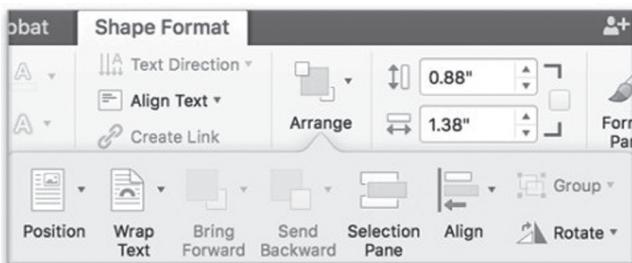
Figure 6.20.   Finding the "Wrap Text" feature through the "Arrange" button (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

The "Wrap Text" icon looks a little different depending on your version of Word. If you click on it, you'll be given a menu of choices of how the diagram, picture, or graph will move with the text, or how it will sit on the page. "In Line with Text" (see Figure 6.21) ensures that the object stays with the text and moves with the text, even if you were to add or remove text above the object. Your object in this case can be treated like a big text letter; in other words, if you put your cursor before it and press enter, it will respond like a word, and move to the next line. You can even choose to center it on the page using the "centering" icon in the "Home" menu.
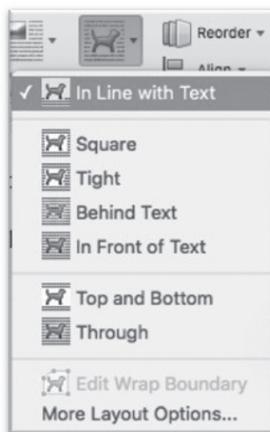

Figure 6.21.   Setting image to be in line with the text (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If you were to choose "Through," then the object just sits on the page and the text moves underneath it as shown in Figure 6.22.
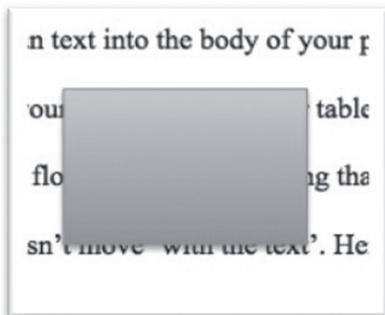
Figure 6.22.   Example of image set to "Through" text (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If you chose "Square," your text would move around the object. Figure 6.23 is an example where the diagram sits on the page and the text moves "around it."
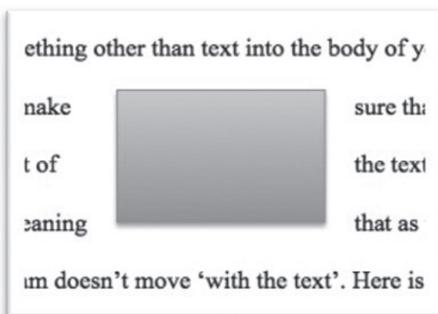

Figure 6.23.   Example of an image set to "Square" (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

For academic writing, the most appropriate would be "In Line with Text."

HANGING INDENTATION

As was presented in Chapter 5, your list of references looks different than the rest of your paper. You will notice that the first line of each reference in your list should start at the left margin, but the rest of lines of the same reference are indented 0.5 inches (1.27 cm). This is called a *hanging indentation*. To set the hanging indentation, place the cursor at the first line below the heading, "References". Then choose the "Format" menu and open the "Paragraph" option (the "paragraph" formatting menu might be located in a different spot, depending on the version of Word you are using). As will

you notice in Figure 6.24, in the "Indentation" section, choose "Hanging" from the "Special" options. The spacing should follow the rest of the paper, set to double space, with no extra spacing between references.

Figure 6.24.   Setting a hanging indentation (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

INDENTING LONG QUOTATIONS

The last item that will be discussed will be the indents (not to be confused with using the tab to indent the first line of the paragraph). The two icons for this can be found in the Home menu. They look like those in Figure 6.25.

Figure 6.25.   Sample "Indent" buttons (Used with permission from Microsoft.)

If I need to indent text, such as a long quotation (see Chapter 4), I would highlight the text and then click on the "Increase indent" button (the one with the arrow pointing to the right). This will push the text to the right 2.54 cm or 1 inch. Below, in the example, a long quote (more than 40 words), is indented. Note, too, there are no quotation marks used in a long quote and the final punctuation mark follows the text, not the closed parentheses.

> Here is an example of a long quote. Here is an example of a long quote.
> Here is an example of a long quote. Here is an example of a long quote.
> Here is an example of a long quote. Here is an example of a long quote.
> (Author, 2020, p. xx)

After the long quote, you would hit the enter or return key and then click on the "Decrease indent" button, to return the cursor to the left margin. The formatting of the text (double spaced and left justified) remains unchanged in the long quote.

Most students struggle with learning how to find references, use them effectively, and cite them appropriately in a required format. One of the most common formats is that of APA. The authors all have vast experience teaching writing courses to various levels of students from undergraduates to graduates in other countries. However, there was lacking a book that could explain the basics of APA in simple, easy-to-understand language for non-native speakers of English, who are often unfamiliar with using references and formatting an essay in a particular method. In order to offer English Learner student writers a source of information that is appropriate for their level, and is cost-effective, this updated APA 7th edition guidebook provides students with important information in clear, concise user-friendly language, as well as offer practical examples that will help them grasp the concept of secondary research writing.

Much of the published materials on the market targets native speakers of English. The problem with this is that they present the nitpicky details of APA in ways that do not make sense to native speakers of English, let alone to those for whom English is not their first language, because the information is presented in very technical terms that are not easy to understand. This handbook will present the same information in simplified terms with images and step-by-step instructions in ways that make sense to both native and non-native English speaking student writers. Additionally, student writers often struggle with understanding the concept of plagiarism, as well as how to find sources, evaluate the appropriateness of sources, and use sources in effective ways (e.g., how to integrate quotes, when to paraphrase, among others). This book provides this important information that is concise and easy to understand.