

# CHAPTER 7: STRUCTURING THE DOCUMENT

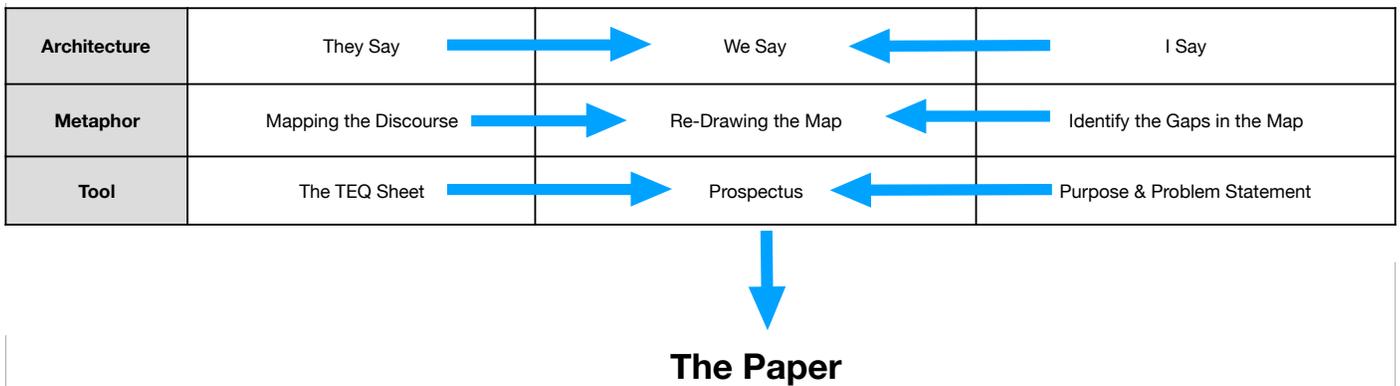
This chapter presents six concepts for an *academic* paper:



- **Writing to Learn**
- **Writing to Communicate**
- **Why the five-paragraph paper is NOT acceptable**
- **Parallels between the four-function paragraph and the pivot structure**
- **Citations, credibility, and discovery**

## WRITING TO LEARN

TEQ Sheets, Purpose and Problem Statements, and Prospectuses are steps toward the writing of an academic paper. These tools map the discourse, discover problems, and propose new ideas. But remember that they are steps toward the paper, not the paper itself. The tools help writers to connect what “they” say (the discourse community) and the “I” say (personal insight) to produce something new: a sort of “we say” that will make your paper part of the academic discourse. The process looks like this:



### *Tools for writing to learn*

TEQ Sheets, the Purpose & Problem Statement, and the Prospectus require you to read, find credible resources, keep useful notes, and continually develop your own idea. Such writing is for the writer. It explores new intellectual territory, and it finds ways to access the discourse. It understands that the writer's claim will grow and change through the process. It includes:

- notes to yourself about unclear issues, evidence, conclusions, contradictions, etc. in the existing expert discourse, new terms, names of important journals and key researchers.
- scribbles, diagrams and other marginal jottings about information in your books, articles, videos, podcasts. Items in your browser's bookmarks. Links to review articles with useful bibliographies or works cited.
- questions you post to other students and/or your teacher on a list serve.
- Twitter accounts of scholars who distribute information about key disciplinary knowledge, problematic issues, or emerging evidence.
- Calls for papers (CFPs) in the discipline and topic of your paper
- key terms from article titles, class lectures, teacher advice, *Wikipedia* entries.
- TEQ Sheets, Purpose & Problem Statement, Prospectus

*Discussion:* Writing-to-learn is a complex task that requires intelligence and hard work. It produces the ideas that make a paper valuable. If a paper is worth 100 points, how many of those points should be allotted to each of the following? Why? What do your teachers typically assign points for? Why?

1. TEQ Sheets
2. Purpose & Problem Statement
3. Prospectus
4. The finished paper

## WRITING TO COMMUNICATE

Writing to communicate has a specific audience: members of the discourse community. It uses the shared language and format of both reader and writer. In short, it is public and needs to do these things:

- Orient the reader to existing expertise, often through citation and summary
- Identify a guiding question acceptable to the discourse community. Identify problematic issues and avoids true/false, pro/con, good/bad questions
- Relate its new insight to the work of others in the discipline
- Use the vocabulary, concepts, and history of the discipline
- Use standard formats, grammar, citations, etc.

*Discussion:* Go back to the rubric at the end of Chapter 2 (“Toolkit”). How would you revise the rubric to better reflect Writing to Learn and Writing to Communicate?

## WHY THE FIVE-PARAGRAPH PAPER DOES NOT WORK



Many students come to college armed with a truly horrible and dishonest tool called “the five-paragraph paper.” It leads to intellectual catastrophe, and should be avoided. The vile little model works like this:

- Paragraph 1: asserts a thesis and lists three reasons why the thesis is “true” or “false”
- Paragraph 2: takes the first reason mentioned in paragraph one, adds examples, a healthy dollop of padding, and restates the thesis
- Paragraph 3: takes the second reason mentioned in paragraph one,

adds examples, a healthy dollop of padding, and restates the thesis.

- Paragraph 4: takes the third reason mentioned in paragraph one, adds examples, a healthy dollop of padding, and restates the thesis
- Paragraph 5: restates the thesis.

This structure ignores the need to participate in a discourse community. It makes the writer appear naive and ignorant. It leads to horribly mistaken papers like this:

The Five-Paragraph Strategy	Sample Five-Paragraph Paper	Limits
Paragraph 1: the thesis and a list of three “proofs” of the thesis.	Adolf Hitler was a great man. He <b>stopped inflation</b> in Germany after World War I. He <b>stopped unemployment</b> in Germany after World War I. <b>Citizens read his autobiography</b> even more than they read the Bible. Hitler was a great man.	Note that the introduction does not orient the reader to the discourse community and its understanding of Hitler’s significance. There is only a pro / con statement about a perfectly understood issue: the utter depravity of Hitler, and the nature of evil.
Paragraph 2: a discussion of the first item on the list of “evidence” in the introduction.	After World War I, Germans had to pay war reparations. Their economy was bad. Hitler’s economic plan stopped inflation. Hitler was great because he stopped inflation.	The paragraph presents one piece of pre-selected “evidence” that does not have an intrinsic connection to the thesis. Inflation is complex and not “stopped” by an individual
Paragraph 3: a discussion of the first item on the list of “evidence” in the introduction.	After World War I, Germans faced widespread unemployment. By re-starting industries, he put people back to work. Hitler was great because he stopped unemployment.	The paragraph presents the second bit of evidence, but without sufficient detail. Note that it cites nothing, and there is no relation to an established discourse community.
Paragraph 4: a discussion of the second item on the list of “evidence” in the introduction.	Everyone in Germany read <i>Mein Kampf</i> , Hitler’s autobiography. It offers a detailed plan to make Germany prosperous and powerful. By giving people a sense of purpose, Hitler proved he was great.	The paragraph continues the pattern of using evidence that does not provide support for the claim. This represents a failure to establish a clear understanding of what creates an acceptable link between evidence and claim.
Paragraph 5: a summary of the previous paragraphs and a repetition of the claim	Hitler was great because he did so many thing for Germany. His ability to take economic control and give people a vision of the future made him a great man.	The paragraph summarizes what has already been said. In abstract language, it repeats the claim and the evidence. It does not name issues that cannot be resolved or why they cannot. It does not identify an expanded guiding question, a problematic issue, a need for nuanced evidence, etc. By repeating the introduction, the paper becomes a circular structure. There’s no opening for future writers.

These sorts of errors are ethical. They say terrible things about you because they lead to ignorant statements like the ones above, statements whose dishonesty permits abominable distortions.

As you might expect, professors don't respect an argument that begins with an assertion and then seeks to "prove" it. Professors spend lots of time trying looking for "anomalies" in their subject area, and then they try to explain what doesn't make sense. The five-paragraph model fails because it omits interesting questions, discoveries, and problems that should have come before the first draft of the paper.

Beginning the writing process with the claim already decided creates bias. You're likely to seek out only materials that fit with that idea. Rather than adding to the existing conversation among experts, you simply repeat a partial view of a complex question. A one-sided argument is not an academic argument. It's immature and keeps your ideas from passing the gatekeepers and entering the city of discourse.

Some students are told to expand the five-paragraph paper into a six-paragraph paper. The additional paragraph is called a "refutation" or a "concession." Note that this strategy assumes the writer believes that her/his paper is one side of a pro-con argument. Valuable papers are not pro-con documents. Valuable papers discover a problematic issue. A problematic issue is one that affects many views of a topic, and by recognizing how all viewpoints lead back to this issue, the issue itself becomes the focus of the paper.

All the "messing around" you do as you think about a topic is a crucial part of writing. Remember, professors love unanswered questions, flawed observations, and unsolved problems. They love to describe the oddball thing and try and fit it into the way their discipline (chemistry, history, English, whatever) makes sense of things. Your exploratory writing takes you through some of the first steps of such critical thinking.

So if you've been told that a five-paragraph model "works," that's sort of true, but it's like walking on the freeway. It works for a while, but then you get run over. Let's think of writing as

falling into two types: writing to learn and writing to communicate. Do both. Do them in that order.

*Discussion:* Jennifer Gray's "What Do Students Think About the Five-Paragraph Essay," and Matthew Malady's "We Are Teaching Students to Write Terribly," describe problems with the five-paragraph paper. Complete a TEQ Sheet for each.

Once you have completed the TEQ Sheets, read the SAT's description of what it now asks. Do these changes show that the test is measuring something different from what is described in Malady and Gray's essays?

## ***THE PIVOT PAPER: AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE FIVE-PARAGRAPH PAPER***

Students often cling to the five-paragraph paper because they don't have an alternative. Not



only do they not have an alternative, but the five-paragraph model is easy and produces a chunk of text that teachers often accept. The price for this simplicity is high. Your work reaches the minimum requirements, but it never embodies your intelligence, skepticism, thoroughness, and insight. Simply as a matter of pride, you need a better structure.

### ***The Four-Function Paragraph as a Miniature Paper***

In the chapter "Writing Effective Paragraphs," you learned that a paragraph has four functions. Their job is to make four things happen. These four functions make a paragraph understandable.

- *Function #1:* A paragraph has to introduce the topic and/or provide transitions to the paragraphs that come before and after.

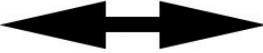
- *Function #2:* A paragraph has to present important facts, data, descriptions, or other highly specific pieces of evidence.
- *Function #3:* A paragraph has to comment on the evidence in #2 above. Facts can not be assumed to “speak for themselves.” It is the job of the paragraph to speak about the importance of the evidence. The Hitler paper fails to perform this function.
- *Function #4:* A paragraph has to return to the central idea of the paper. Using the evidence, it has to expand, enlarge, correct, limit, or nuance the major idea. The thesis grows throughout the paper, and it grows in these sentences.

These are functions. There are four of them. This does not mean that a paragraph has four sentences. Each function may take several sentences to perform, and sometimes a single sentence can perform several functions.

Return to Chapter 4, pages 11-14 and review the examples so that you clearly understand how a paragraph has serves the readers’ needs. Using the example of the basketball team, expand the paragraph by adding sentences that further develop each function.

Now, imagine that you are organizing an academic paper that requires research. You already know two key things: 1) how to organize a paragraph using the four functions; 2) *not* to use the five-paragraph model.

The organizational problem is solved by using the same structure for the paper that you use for a good paragraph. Each function of a paragraph becomes the function of a section of the paper:

Four Paragraph Functions		Sections of a Pivot Paper
Orient the Reader		Abstract and/or overview of document
Present Evidence		Literature review and additional discoveries
Comment on the Evidence		Clarification and discussion of problematic issues
Develop the Claim		Discussion; expansion of claim

Paragraphs are miniature versions of the paper. Papers are expanded versions of four-function paragraphs. Each of them performs — makes visible — the thinking that makes your own ideas mature and useful. Both perform the steps of critical thinking and thus strengthen the credibility of what you write.

### ***CITATION DEMONSTRATES CREDIBILITY AND ENABLES FURTHER DISCOVERY***

Remember:

1. The purpose of citation is to demonstrate your credibility *to the reader*. Citation makes your expertise visible, and it *shows readers* your paper can enter the City of Academic Discourse.
2. The works cited assumes that others will want to use your work to further develop the topic. The readers must be able to use the entry to find material for use in their own work.

Citations are the passport that gatekeepers examine to decide if your work can enter the City of Academic Discourse.

### ***A THREE-PART FRAMEWORK: NOTES - PAPER - WORKS CITED***

Many students think of “research papers” as having only two parts: the paper and its list of works cited. These students become frustrated when they have valuable information and sources that cannot be included because they are either slightly off-topic or too similar to what

has already been cited. Students rightly feel that they won't be rewarded for the work they've done. How can we solve this problem?

The answer to this problem is to re-think the structure of documented papers. You need some sort of transition from the *processes* of TEQ Sheets, P&P Statements, Prospectuses, and summaries to something quite different: a *product*. They are transformed into a *product* — the paper — in three ways:

1. The *paper* provides the claim
2. The *citations* provide the context for the claim
3. The *notes* recognize and sometimes repair the (in)completeness of the claim and context.

Your product is the paper, and by understanding that it has three parts, you make a mature transition *from process to product*.

### **The Notes**

Let's wait for a moment to discuss the text of the paper and the works cited. Instead, let's begin with the part of a paper called the "notes."<sup>1</sup> A paper refers to notes with superscript numbers (numbers that sit above the line of the words). A reader sees a superscript number and goes to the endnote or footnote and reads some additional information. For example, a paper about Samuel Beckett might want to say something about how one of his plays uses symptoms of Parkinson's Disease. It would be off the topic, but it is still useful to the paper's argument. A note would put this in a small statement, usually only a few sentences including citations.

---

<sup>1</sup> The notes are "endnotes" if placed between the end of the paper and the works cited. Or, it is called the "footnotes" if placed at the bottom of the pages. What you're reading right now is an example of a footnote. Remember: endnotes and footnotes do the same thing; the difference in their names is the difference in where they are printed in the paper. Both are "notes."

The body of the paper should have a sentence that refers to the endnote. (See the note in the paragraph above). Note the following:

1. the superscript number sends the reader to the notes to find out additional information.
2. the notes are a list of numbered entries. Each one begins with the superscripted number from the paper that refers to it.
3. both writer and reader understand that it is not as directly connected to the argument as the parenthetical citations.
4. there are no parentheses connected to the superscript in the body of the paper.

A sentence with a note attached might look like this:

Samuel Beckett's interest in neurology has its roots in both his mother's struggle with Parkinson's disease and his more abstract interest in the neurology of language (neurolinguistics).<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Young chronicles the rise of the idea of function in neurology, a possibility opened by Descartes' separation of mind and body. The cultural context for that change is the subject of DeGiustino.

Note the following:

- the note names two sources: 1) Young, and 2) DeGiustino. Both sources now must appear in the list of works cited at the end of the paper.
- the note demonstrates that the writer knows additional background material; this raises the credibility of the claim.
- the note respects the paper's argument by not distracting readers with supplementary material.

Notes are usually endnotes. Endnotes come after the paper, and they begin on a new page. The

page is titled “Notes” (no quotation marks). Margins remain at one inch, and the running header continues the pagination from the body of the paper. Spacing continues to be double. Each note is indented five spaces. Readers expect that the citations will briefly explain a source or provide additional citations. Use them to strengthen credibility, serve the needs of readers, and receive recognition for research.

Although the MLA generally advises against using notes to further explain the paper’s claim, the organization does accept them as a means to providing bibliographical information. The Purdue OWL summarizes the use of notes in MLA style here: [https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research\\_and\\_citation/mla\\_style/mla\\_formatting\\_and\\_style\\_guide/mla\\_endnotes\\_and\\_footnotes.html](https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/mla_style/mla_formatting_and_style_guide/mla_endnotes_and_footnotes.html).

The APA also generally advises against notes because of the expense they impose on publishers. However, they approve notes for purposes of content and copyright. Content notes clarify details and add context. Content notes should be very brief. Copyright notes usually reflect the use of longer (more than 500 words) quotations, the use of charts, tables, graphs, etc. Such notes have a regular citation. In a scholarly, published document, the letter of permission for using the material is included, but this requirement is almost never part of a first-year writing course. For samples and information about formatting in APA style, see: [https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research\\_and\\_citation/apa\\_style/apa\\_formatting\\_and\\_style\\_guide/footnotes\\_and\\_endnotes.html](https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/apa_style/apa_formatting_and_style_guide/footnotes_and_endnotes.html)

*Discussion:* Both the MLA and the APA are skeptical of notes. Some of that skepticism rests on the fear that they will be misused.

1. What are the risks of using notes? How can you control these risks?
2. Check the Purdue OWL to compare the APA format for notes to the MLA format for notes.

## MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION (MLA) FORMATS

### *MLA in-Text Citations: Parenthetical Citations*

Writers use parentheses to enclose snippets of information that direct the reader to the list at the end of the paper. The in-text snippets do two things: 1) they strengthen the credibility of the paper by showing the connection of your ideas to others' work, and 2) they give the reader a "pointer" to the full description of the source you provide in the Works Cited.

Good writers know how to place these "pointers" in their sentences. A mix of sentence strategies shows respect for the reader. There are several ways to steer readers to the right item in the list of Works Cited:

1. Author's name can be included in the writer's own sentence:

Jones argues that "the sum of the square of the sides of a right triangle are equal to the square of the hypotenuse" (15).

The number in parentheses is the page number of the source. There is no need to use (Jones 15) because the reader already knows that Jones is being quoted.

2. Author's name can be excluded from the writer's own sentence:

A common argument is that "the sum of the square of the sides of a right triangle are equal to the square of the hypotenuse" (Jones 15).

The author's name, Jones, has to be included in the parentheses so that readers can turn to the list of works cited and find complete information about the source. Note that there is no comma between the name and the page number; neither is there a "p." or a "page."

3. Author's name is cited for paraphrases:

Jones makes the usual argument that the Pythagorean theorem ( $a^2 + b^2 = C^2$ ) is important (15).

Paraphrases require in-text citations. Note that the format is the same as for quotations.

In this example, the author's name, Jones, is in the writer's sentence so it does not need to be in the parentheses that show the page number.

OR

The usual argument that the Pythagorean theorem ( $a^2 + b^2 = C^2$ ) is important is found elsewhere (Jones 15). Note that “Jones” is now in parentheses because it is not in the writer’s sentence.

Parenthetical citations are different for government documents, e-books, dictionaries, library databases, documents with several authors, and many other characteristics. The Purdue OWL is a quick, accurate, and clear source of examples and explanations of how to do MLA, in-text citations. Review the examples above to understand the general notion of an in-text citation.

Remember: for specific MLA formats for specific types of publications, consult the *Purdue OWL*’s comprehensive listings [HERE](#).

Remember: the citations within the paper refer readers to the list of resources at the end of the document. If there is an in-text citation, there has to be a corresponding entry in the Works Cited. Similarly, if something is in the Works Cited, it must be cited within the paper or notes.

First-year students often panic when they attempt an in-text citation to an unpaginated website or to a website with no author. The rule for this is simple: if there is no author, then the citation cannot name one; if there are no page numbers, then there are no pages to cite. Writers can name the site and/or title. That is sufficient to point the reader to the original material in the works cited. Don’t make up page numbers, and don’t invent author names.

### **MLA Works Cited**

The complete, book-length description of MLA style is published as *The MLA Handbook*. Key features are described at <https://style.mla.org/works-cited-a-quick-guide/>. While it’s useful to own the *MLA Handbook*, remember that it is frequently revised. These revisions apply to hundreds of types of publications, and most have a specific format for citations. You might also find out what format is preferred by the discourse community you seek to join. For example, psychology majors need to know APA format, and medical fields have specific expectations.

The MLA system is a bit mysterious, and occasionally complex, but remember the following:

1. Most professors understand that minor errors are likely in students' papers. There's an unstated understanding that fanatical accuracy is the job of established scholars, not of first-year composition students. Of course, the closer you come to fanatical accuracy, the more you impress your professor.
2. The MLA system changes for many reasons. Among these are the new forms evolving on digital media. Finding a way to cite these new forms is a daunting task. However, the MLA has accepted this task.

Even if the MLA system is complicated, it is guided by a simple template that adapts to your needs. The template has nine parts. They are listed below along with the punctuation that goes after each item (marked in red):

1. Author.

2. Title of source.

3. Title of container,

4. Other contributors,

5. Version,

6. Number,

7. Publisher,

8. Publication date,

9. Location.

Theoretically, your citation can be created by plugging in the appropriate items and stringing them together. While true, the result can be a bit off-kilter. Often, students do not know if a Netflix Series is a container or a source, if a location is a location on the Internet or a geographical place. The MLA forces students to become conscious of such categories and their criteria, but worry about formats can quickly take the place of other skills more foundational for beginning writers. How can students solve such problems? There are actually two solutions:

1. Use the *Purdue OWL's* superb explanation of the MLA template and look at its examples that fit your need. Follow the example that fits your case. Access that information [HERE](#).
2. Use a citation generator. These are online tools that use the material you submit. We recommend [Knightcite](#), the splendid citation generator from Calvin University. There are other wonderful citation generators, but this one is exceptionally friendly to use, and it is accurate.

However, there is still the problem of getting the information to plug into the template or generator. One way to do this is to go to [scholar.google.com](#) and search for the source. When it appears, there will be a set of quotation marks beneath it. Clicking on these produces a box of roughly formatted citations. These are valuable because they provide much of the material you need for an online citation generator.

*Question:* Will using a citation generator sometimes lead to errors? Will *not* using a citation generator sometimes lead to errors? How do your answers to these two questions shape your use of these tools?

The MLA also lists information that is optional: date of original publication; city of publication; date of access; URLs, DOIs. Previous versions of MLA format required some of these, so check with your professor to make sure your paper should use the MLA's 8th edition.

## AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION FORMATS

The complete, book-length description of American Psychological Association style is published as *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. Like the *MLA Handbook*, it is frequently updated to reflect the new types of publications that are emerging. APA style provides specific formats for citations, and it asks for information that makes electronic retrieval easier. APA format is often used in the social sciences, business, economics, and nursing.

### *Part I: the APA Title Page*

The title page orients the reader by giving not only the author's name, but also the institution with which s/he is affiliated. The author immediately is seen as part of a network of experts. At the top and flush-left in a header is the statement, "Running head:" This phrase is followed by the title of the paper. A page number appears against the right margin.

Below the running head and in the upper half of the page is the title. The APA recommends limiting the length of the title to no more than twelve (12) words. The title is centered, and beneath it is the author's first name, middle initial, and last name. No personal titles are used. Beneath the name is the institution where the scholarship was conducted.

Note that the margins are one inch except for the distance between the header and the top of the page. That margin is 1/2 inch. The font size, face, and effect is simple: 12 point, Times New Roman with no effects such as bold, italic, or underlining.

### *Part II: the APA Abstract*

APA format requires an abstract. It sets readers' expectations by summarizing the document's major points. It prepares the reader by summarizing the major parts of the paper in the order that they appear. Thus, it enables readers to better understand the document's claims. Not only does the abstract summarize what follows, but also it provides a list of the key terms that

structure the work. These two features -- summary and key terms -- enable readers to search other sources for related ideas.

The abstract begins on a new page. Like the title page, it has a running head 1/2 inch from the top of the page. The body of the document has one-inch margins. The running head is the title of the paper. Unlike the title page, it does NOT include the phrase "Running head." The page number is against the right hand margin. The document identifies the document with the title, "Abstract" [no quotation marks].

A key difference from MLA is a required abstract: The abstract itself is a single block of text about 150-250 words long. It has no indentation, and the margins are one inch. The block of text can be followed by an indented line that begins thus: *Keywords:*. The list of key terms helps the reader locate the article in further searches, but more important is the value of the terms to readers who might conduct additional searches.

In the first stages of searching for information about a topic, abstracts quickly identify useful materials.

### **Part III: the Body**

APA format for the body of the paper begins with simple guidelines: the running head from the abstract continues; materials are double spaced; font features are simple and avoid italic, bold, and other special effects. Paragraphs are indented with no extra space between them.

Sometimes, a paper will have headings. APA has specific guidelines for the format of headings and subheadings. The formatting for each level of subheading is different. Students must be willing to consult the *Publication Manual* to make certain that the formatting of the paper is correct.

## APA in-Text Citations: Parenthetical Citations

APA style has writers use parentheses to enclose information that directs the reader to a list at the end of the paper with full information about the source. As with MLA style, there are several ways to steer readers to the right item in that list:

1. Author's name can be included in the writer's own sentence:

Jones argues that "the sum of the square of the sides of a right triangle are equal to the square of the hypotenuse" (1999).

The number in parentheses is the year of publication of the source. There is no need to use "Jones" within the parentheses because the reader already knows that Jones is being quoted. Note that APA uses the publication date, where MLA indicates the page number. The comma between the name and date is also a difference between the two systems.

2. Author's name can be excluded from the writer's own sentence:

A common argument is that "the sum of the square of the sides of a right triangle are equal to the square of the hypotenuse" (Jones, 1999).

The author's name, Jones, has to be included in the parentheses so that readers can turn to the list of works cited and find complete information about the source.

3. Author's name is cited for paraphrases:

Jones makes the usual argument that the Pythagorean theorem ( $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ ) is important (1999).

Paraphrases require in-text citations. Note that the format is the same as for quotations.

In this example, the author's name, Jones, is in the writer's sentence so it does not need to be in the parentheses that show the publication date.

OR

The usual argument that the Pythagorean theorem ( $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ ) is important is found elsewhere (Jones, 199).

Note that "Jones" is now in parentheses because it is not in the writer's sentence.

Parenthetical citations are different for government documents, e-books, dictionaries, library databases, documents with several authors, and other sources. Using the *APA Publication Manual* quickly proves a necessity.

## Part IV: The APA Reference List

When a paper refers to a source, it must provide complete information about that source in a list at the paper's end. APA requires a reasonable title for this reference list: "references." The list begins on a new page. Like the rest of the paper, it is double spaced. If something is cited in the paper, then it must be included in the list of references. The reverse is true: if something is in the list of references, then it must be cited somewhere in the paper. Both must be true for the documentation of the paper to be correct.

The list of references assumes that others will want to use your work to develop more insights about the topic. Each entry recognizes these components, sometimes by noting that the information is not available. The readers must be able to use the entry to find the material and use it in their own work. To enable the readers' further work, each entry has four basic components: 1) author name; 2) title; 3) publisher; 4) medium. These components are the same as in MLA style, but they require different punctuation, capitalization, and other details. Remember that each type of publication requires its own adaptation of these four pieces of information. Below are four major citation formats:

### *Printed Book:*

Author(s)	Title.	place published:	publisher; date published.	medium.
-----------	--------	------------------	----------------------------	---------

Burroughs, W. S. (1983). *The Place of Dead Roads* (pp. 55-57). New York, NY: Viking Press.

In this example, the source is a printed book, so there is no need to state the medium.

### *Printed Article from a Scholarly Journal*

Author(s)	"Title of Article."	Name of Journal	volume number.issue number (year published):
page numbers. medium			

Salisbury, L. (2008). What Is the word: Beckett's aphasic modernism. *Journal of Beckett Studies*, 17(2) 78-126.

Only the first word of the article's title is capitalized, but proper nouns ("Beckett") are also capitalized. Note that the second line of an entry is indented 1/2 inch.

*Article or Book from a Database: library, subscription, professional organization, etc.*

Author(s).	"Title" [use italics if a book]	publication information for print version.
Database.	Medium. Date accessed.	

Salisbury, L. (2008). What is the word: Beckett's aphasic modernism [Electronic version]. *Journal of Beckett Studies*, 17(2).

This example illustrates the format for a journal article identical to its print version. If the source is available only electronically, the format changes to include information about the database and the date retrieved. Imagine that the *Journal of Beckett Studies* is only available through JSTOR.

The citation format would become more complicated:

Salisbury, L. (2008). What is the word: Beckett's aphasic modernism. *Journal of Beckett Studies*, 17(2), 78-126. Retrieved June 27, 2012, from JSTOR.

Note that this article comes from the online version of the journal cited in the second example. The publications are identical, but each citation reflects the medium in which it was published.

### Sources for APA Citation Formats

The first chapter of this book offers a chart of different types of publications. However, the list is seriously flawed because it minimizes the many types of publications that are part of our contemporary digital culture: blogs, list serves, social media, crowd-sourced information, *ad infinitum*. These other types of publications often provide powerful evidence and ideas. Citing them is often vital to academic writing. Thus, citation systems have detailed systems for helping readers locate such materials via your references page. How can you find out how to cite almost any source in APA format? We recommend three splendid tools for this task:

1. *The APA Publication Manual's* [APA style web site](#) is complete and easy to use.
2. The Purdue OWL's guidance is detailed, easy to use, and offers students a clear rationale for the requirements of each format. Go to the "[APA Style Introduction](#)" page for easy paths to citation, paper format, etc.

3. Use a citation generator. These are online tools that format the material you submit. We recommend [Knightcite](#), the splendid citation generator from Calvin University. There are other wonderful citation generators, but this one is exceptionally friendly to use, and it is accurate.

However, there is still the problem of getting the information to plug into the template or generator. One way to do this is to go to [scholar.google.com](#) and search for the source. When it appears, there will be a set of quotation marks beneath it. Clicking on these produces a box of roughly formatted citations. These are valuable because they provide much of the material you need for an online citation generator.

## *CITATION IN A DIGITAL CULTURE*

### *Digital Object Identifiers*

Most students search online resources to make their work more acceptable to the discourse community. This shift to the Internet has immense advantages, but also brings new problems. For example, you have probably clicked on a link and received the frustrating HTTP 404 Error. The message tells you that the browser communicated with a given server, but the server could not find the requested file. Of course, the file hasn't evaporated; it has been moved to a new location. 404 errors remind us that there's a difference between the content of site and the location of the content. Your problem is to try and find the new location for the content. The solution to that problem is the **Digital Object Identifier (DOI)**.

A DOI is a permanent string of numbers and letters that become part of the essay, chart, image, or any other content. These numbers and letters lead to the location of an article even if the URL has changed. The system was the brainchild of both the Association of American Publishers and the Corporation for National Research Initiatives. Early on, they recognized a major problem: the location of an article wasn't stable. They created the DOI Foundation to manage a system

that re-directs requests to the new location of the file. The DOI goes to a directory<sup>2</sup> that sends the request to the new location where the information now sits. DOIs provide advantages beyond locating resources.

1. For writers, they locate resources that have moved.
2. They are part of citations for both MLA and APA research papers. They take the place of listing URLs.
3. When used in citations, they allow both the writer and reader to quickly check the accuracy of the citation.

---

<sup>2</sup> Before 2011, DOIs started with the number 10, and were not links. Now, any DOI becomes a URL when preceded with <http://doi.org> before the DOI.