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ONLINE VERSION

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Chapter 1: Using APA Style in College Courses

APA Style

APA style is the standard in a range of academic disciplines, including the social sciences, nursing, education, and criminology. It is currently used by over a thousand research journals to guide writers submitting articles for publication. APA is designed for formal academic writing and publication. Even though student assignments may not necessarily be destined for publication, colleges and universities have requirements for writing papers. Some departments base their guidelines on APA style. The examples included in this guide will help you compose papers for courses at Lethbridge College that require you to use APA.

More than that, APA style helps you acknowledge when you are using words and ideas that come from other writers, speakers, and researchers, and to give these individuals credit for their work when it appears in your essay, report, paper, or presentation.

APA style has an established history. The American Psychological Association (APA) began publishing a manual of guidelines for writers in 1952. Subsequent editions reflect changes in such things as language use, research methods, and technology.

The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, now in its sixth edition, is a 272-page book of instructions on grammar, mechanics, presentation of data, and formats. It also contains a detailed system of handling references. The sixth edition is the primary source of information for this brief student guide.

Writers looking for more detailed explanations will find them in the complete manual, which is available in academic bookstores, libraries, and most online bookstores. Writers will also find supplemental materials on the APA website (apastyle.org). The APA website also offers tutorials on APA style, answers to Frequently Asked Questions, and a blog hosted by editors of the latest edition of the publication manual.

Purpose of This Student Guide

The goal of following a style manual is to make your message clear and understandable to your readers. This means logically arranging the information—and revealing that organizational pattern—and clearly identifying the sources of that information. It also means reducing confusion by presenting your work in a way that looks familiar to your readers.

When you meet your readers’ expectations, you are more likely to have your message understood as you intend. If you can put yourself in the role of an editor or instructor who is looking at hundreds of papers a year, you will see how helpful it is to skim through meaningful headings to get a sense of a paper’s contents, or how beneficial it is to easily understand a paper’s list of references at a glance.

Following APA style is just one way to set up a paper. Depending on your field of study, you may need to use another system in the future, such as one from the Modern Languages...
Association (MLA), the Council of Science Editors (CSE), or the University of Chicago. The good news is that once you understand one system, you will know what kinds of things matter and be able to adapt successfully.

**Importance of Citing Sources**

As a researcher, you are assessed on your ability to locate, understand, and evaluate sources. **Your readers want to understand how your researching and thinking have been influenced by the work of others.** You can show this by doing two things:

1. Distinguishing between your own ideas and information that comes from others.
2. Showing your readers the sources of your information.

Accurate documentation of sources is also **an issue of integrity.** In the academic world, honest acknowledgement of others’ work is a key ethical principle. Failing to represent your sources accurately is as dishonest as faking lab results in an experiment.

It may be helpful to think a little about the purpose of academic scholarship. Scholars learn the work of others, think about it, and add to it by critiquing it, correcting it, and expanding on it. This is how new knowledge is created. Even when authors disagree with each other, they are engaged in a cooperative process of building knowledge in their field of study. For this process to work, readers must be able to keep track of the authors’ information trails. They must be able to trust that writers are honestly and clearly indicating what is the work of others and what is their own.

**Failing to properly cite sources is a form of plagiarism.** It may not be as blatantly dishonest as buying a paper from a web page or turning in another learner’s work as your own, but it violates the same ethical obligation to your sources and your readers.

**Information that Should be Cited**

Any time you use information from another source, you need to cite that source. This includes

- facts, ideas, opinions, and interpretations that have influenced your paper’s contents, even if you put the information in your own words;
- information you copy directly, whether full sentences or phrases; and
- graphics or illustrations created by someone else, such as tables, charts, maps, and pictures.

**Information that Should not be Cited**

Facts considered to be **common knowledge** do not need to be cited. This designation requires judgement. Think of “common” in terms of the general public rather than in terms of specialists in your field of study. Is this the kind of information you would find in most quick reference material or would you find it only in more specialized sources?
Examples

Common knowledge (no citation needed):

Martin Luther King, Jr., was a leader in the civil rights movement in the United States.

Not common knowledge (needs a citation):

Martin Luther King, Jr., was arrested nearly 20 times and was assaulted at least four times (Hartford, 1988).

If you are not sure, cite the source; when in doubt, check with your instructor.

Giving Credit to Sources

To give credit to your sources, you must meet two requirements:

1. In-text citations – In the text of your paper, identify your source with brief information that directs your reader to the reference page entry for that source. For more on in-text citations, see chapter 4.
2. Reference page entries – At the end of your paper, list all your sources with full bibliographic information. For more on reference page entries, see chapter 5.

This guide will equip you with a basic understanding of APA style and will provide you with formatting and page layout (chapter 2), a sample APA paper (chapter 3) examples of in-text citations for paraphrasing, summarizing, and direct quotations (chapter 4), reference entries (chapter 5) and a figures citation guide (appendix).
Chapter 2 – Formatting and Page Layout

Unless your assignment instructions tell you otherwise, you should follow APA guidelines for formatting and page layout. The sample paper in the next chapter will demonstrate APA style formatting, layout, and citation guidelines for a common type of college-level paper.

Formatting

*Use your word processing application to set up formatting guidelines. If you are not familiar with your word processing tools, ask for help.* At Lethbridge College, the Digital Learning Team (commonly known as the Canvas Desk, located in the Buchanan Library) can help you learn about the best ways to use apps as a student. Staff in the library and Learning Café can also help with some aspects of word processing.

Font

Use 12-point serif font (Times New Roman is recommended for APA style) for the text of the paper and use a sans serif font (i.e., Arial) for tables and figures.

Margins

Use uniform margins, typically one inch (or 2.54 cm, top, bottom, left, and right). Microsoft Word often defaults to these settings. Maximum line length is 6.5 inches, and maximum amount of text per page is 27 lines.

Justification

Centre the main information on the title page. Left justify the text of the abstract, body, and reference page. Do not justify the right margin and do not hyphenate words at the right margin. Most word processing apps automatically default to left justification.

Line Spacing and Indents

Double space the whole paper, including quotations, but single space tables and figure captions. Indent each paragraph by tabbing over, except for the abstract, which is not indented. Use a hanging indent for each reference entry.

Running Head and Page Numbers

In the header section of your pages, insert a running head (top left) and page numbers (top right). The running head will be your title or a shortened title in FULL CAPS (50 characters maximum, including spaces and punctuation). On the title page, use a “different first page” header so that the words “Running head” appear before the full caps title (or shortened title). Insert page numbers in the top right corner. Number pages continuously from the title page though the reference page and appendices.
Page Layout

Title Page

Begin with a title page that includes a “different first page” header for the running head (see above), the title of the paper, and a byline containing the author’s name and institution. Centre the title and byline on the page (top to bottom and left to right). Your title should state the main topic concisely (no more than 10–12 words). Although APA style only requires the author’s name and institutional affiliation in the byline, some instructors want more information, like course name, section number, date of submission, word count, etc.

Some instructors prefer different formatting details on the title page (different font, font size, spacing, etc.). Although these instructor preferences do not strictly follow APA guidelines, you should always follow the format requested by your instructors.

Section Titles

The three parts of a paper that have a section title are the Abstract, the paper itself (labelled with the paper’s title), and the list of sources (References). Each of these sections begins on a new page in the paper. These three titles are centred.

Abstract

An abstract provides a brief, comprehensive summary of the paper’s contents. The abstract should be double-spaced, and is typed as one paragraph with no indent at the beginning. The abstract is not often a requirement for undergraduate papers.

If your assignment requires an abstract, you would title it as “Abstract,” and include it on a separate page.

Abstract

The populations of Alberta and Saskatchewan have increased, however, the water supplies to both provinces are on the decline. Diminished supply conflicts with an increased demand for water, especially for bitumen mining and well-fracking. Current approaches to logging, off-road motorized recreation, hydropower production and trapping damage Alberta headwaters. Researchers emphasize the role climate change plays in these issues. For example, the accelerated rate of glacier melt is depleting water from these sources much faster than it can be replaced.
The key to improving the water supply from Alberta’s foothills and mountain headwaters is to capture as much of each winter’s snowfall as possible and to delay the release of snowmelt and rainwater from the high country until well in the summer. Another solution is that logging companies promote regrowth when possible, especially of aspens and poplars. However, no amount of careful resource stewardship and business innovation can restore Alberta’s headwaters to their full potential.

**Headings**

You may use headings to indicate topics and subtopics (and sub-subtopics and so on). Headings can be very useful for indicating the way you’ve organized your ideas and structured your paper. However, you should be careful not to overuse headings. Unless you have good reason or your assignment requirements dictate, you should not use a heading for just one paragraph. Also, headings usually come in pairs. That is, if you use one heading for part of your paper, you should have at least one parallel heading for the other part(s) of your paper. You might, for example, have three parallel (level 1) headings for your three main supporting points, especially if you need multiple paragraphs to elaborate on each of those main points.

College papers usually need no more than three levels of headings in the body of the paper; often one or two levels will suffice. They are formatted in this way:

- Level one is centred, bolded, and uses headline style capitalization. Your indented paragraph starts on the next line.
- Level two is left aligned, bolded, and uses headline style capitalization. Your indented paragraph starts on the next line.
- Level three is indented from the left margin, bolded, uses sentence style capitalization, and ends with a period. Your paragraph starts on the same line as the heading, right after the period.

If headings extend over two lines, they should be double-spaced. Do not start a new page for each new heading in the paper (unless the heading happens to fall on the last line of a page).

See the example on the next page.
NHL Teams

The following paper provides an overview of the geographical zones, competitions, and teams in the National Hockey League (NHL). The NHL consists of 31 teams. 24 of those teams are in the United States, and seven of those teams are in Canada. The league is divided into the Western and Eastern Conferences, which are then subdivided into divisions.

Western Conference

The Western Conference consists of two divisions: the Pacific Division and the Central Division. There are fifteen teams in the Western Conference. Eight teams from the Western Conference compete in the Stanley Cup playoffs each year.

Pacific Division

The Pacific Division consists of the following eight teams: Calgary Flames, San Jose Sharks, Vegas Golden Knights, Arizona Coyotes, Vancouver Canucks, Anaheim Ducks, Edmonton Oilers, and Los Angeles Kings.

Vancouver Canucks. The Vancouver Canucks are based out of Vancouver, BC. They joined the league in 1970. Their Stanley Cup run in 2011 led to riots in Vancouver on June 15, 2011 (CBC News, 2011).

Central Division

The Central Division consists of the following even teams: Nashville Predators, Winnipeg Jets, St. Louis Blues, Dallas Stars, Colorado Avalanche, Chicago Blackhawks, and Minnesota Wild.
Eastern Conference

The Eastern Conference consists of two divisions: the Atlantic Division and the Metropolitan Division. There are sixteen teams in the Eastern Conferences. Eight teams from the Eastern Conference complete in the Stanley Cup playoffs each year.

Atlantic Division

The Atlantic Division consists of the following eight teams: Tampa Bay Lightning, Boston Bruins, Toronto Maple Leafs, Montreal Canadiens, Florida Panthers, Buffalo Sabres, Detroit Red Wings, and Ottawa Senators.

Montreal Canadiens. The Montreal Canadiens were founded in 1909. They are one of the “Original Six” teams in the NHL, which means they were part of the franchise between 1942 and 1967 (Klein, 2016).

Metropolitan Division

The Metropolitan Division consists of the following eight teams: Washington Capitals, New York Islanders, Pittsburgh Penguins, Carolina Hurricanes, Columbus Blue Jackets, Philadelphia Flyers, New York Rangers, and New Jersey Devils.

Figures

Figures present information visually. Maps, charts, diagrams, photographs, illustrations, and other graphics are all types of figures. In most academic papers, these are inserted within the body of the paper right after the paragraph in which they are first discussed. Refer to the figure by number when you discuss its meaning in the text of the paper. Put a figure caption below the figure. In the figure caption, include these details:
Figure number – Number the figures in the order in which they appear in the paper. Put the word “figure” and the digit in italics: *Figure 1.*

Title or description – Give each figure a detailed title or description that explains what it shows.

Source information if you did not create the figure yourself. For more information about citing visual information that comes from other sources, please see the figure citations guide.

*Figure 1.* A depiction of insect orders present in Pincher Creek, AB.

**Tables**

Tables arrange information in columns and rows and are handled much the same as figures. In most academic papers, these are inserted within the body of the paper right after the paragraph in which they are first discussed. Refer to the table by number when you discuss its meaning in the text of your paper.

- Number the tables in the order in which they appear in the paper.
- Give each table a detailed title that explains what it shows.
- Put the table number and title *above* the table.
**Example in APA Format**

**Table #**

**Title of Table**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stub head$^b$</th>
<th>Column spanner$^a$</th>
<th>Column spanner</th>
<th>Column spanner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>data$^*$</td>
<td>data**</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. General notes appear here, including explanations of abbreviations and acknowledgements that a table is reproduced or adapted from another source. IV=independent variable. Adapted from *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (p. 129), by American Psychological Association, 2009, Washington, DC: Author. Copyright 2010 by the American Psychological Association.*

$^a$Specific notes appear on a separate line below the general notes. These notes refer to a particular column, row, or cell in the table which is identified by a superscript, lowercase letter. A column spanner is a heading that identifies entries in two or more columns of table.

$^b$A stub head is a heading for the leftmost column of a table. The stub head usually identifies the category for the independent variable.

*A probability note ($p$ value) appears on a separate line after any specific notes. **Any more probability notes follow immediately after a first note.

**Variation on APA Format**

**Table 1 Physical Attribute Summary of Pothole and Pincher Creek**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Attribute</th>
<th>Pothole Creek</th>
<th>Pincher Creek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Width (m)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Depth (m)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Velocity (m/s)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Discharge (m³/s)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Slope</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gradient</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stream Order</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References

Always begin a new page for the list of references. **Only works cited in the text can be listed on the reference page.** These sources must be cited at least **once** in the text of the paper.

Here are four steps to creating the page:

1. Centre the title “References” (no quotation marks) at the top of the page.

2. Create a full citation for each source, including every type of media. The only sources that do not appear on the reference page are personal communications (e.g., interviews, e-mail correspondence).
   - Use **hanging indents.** This means the first line of each entry is at the left margin and all subsequent lines are indented five to seven spaces.
   - **Double-space** the entries.
   - **Capitalize** according to these guidelines:
     - For article titles, book titles, and subtitles, use sentence style capitalization (i.e., capitalize only the first word of the title and subtitle, plus proper nouns such as “Canadian”)
     - For journal titles, use headline style capitalization (i.e., capitalize the first word and all significant words)
   - **Italicize** titles of all stand-alone items, including books, reports, and movies.
   - **Italicize** newspaper, journal, and magazine titles and volume numbers.
   - **Invert** authors’ names and use initials rather than first names. Keep them in the order in which they were named in the original publication.
   - **Use accepted abbreviations** wherever possible.
   For more detail about and examples of reference entries, see Chapter X

3. Arrange the citations
   - List entries **alphabetically** according to authors’ last names, followed by their initials.
   - If you used **more than one publication by the same author**, arrange them in chronological order as well, beginning with the earliest publication.
   - If **no author** is named, put the title in the author position and alphabetize the entry by the first significant word in the title.
   - If you used **more than one publication by the same author in the same year**, arrange them alphabetically by the next distinguishing information, their titles; then add lower case a-b-c behind the year to distinguish between them.

4. As a final check, go back through the listings on your reference page and **make sure there is a corresponding in-text citation** within the paper.
Chapter 3 – The Sample Paper

Running head: ALBERTA TEACHERS SUPPORTING ELL LITERACY

The running head is a shortened version of the paper’s title. The running head should not be longer than 50 characters.

Center the title – it does not need to be bolded, underlined, or italicized. Your title should state the main topic concisely.

Alberta Teachers Supporting Literacy for English Language Learners

Jane Student
Lethbridge College

APA style only requires the author’s name and institutional affiliation.
ALBERTA TEACHERS SUPPORTING ELL LITERACY

Alberta Teachers Supporting Literacy for English Language Learners

Students in Alberta classrooms reflect the diversity of Canada’s multicultural embrace. Many of these culturally diverse students are also English Language Learners (ELLs) who struggle with English language acquisition and literacy. More and more ELLs are attending school in Alberta every year. In the Edmonton Public School board, Superintendent Robertson and Assistant Superintendent Liguori (2014) report that the number of ELLs nearly doubled from 9,597 to 18,278 students in just five years (from 2008-2009 to 2013-2014). For teachers, the challenge is how to best support all Alberta students, including ELLs. In fact, the Alberta Teachers’ Association (2018) Code of Professional Conduct mandates that teachers work to address all students’ educational needs and specifically notes that teachers must act “without prejudice as to... linguistic background” (p. 1). These expectations highlight significant challenges for teachers. Helfrich and Bosh (2011) argue that many teachers supporting literacy ELLs have a poor grasp of literacy in other cultures, cannot properly differentiate instruction, and place too little value on peer interactions. Helfrich and Bosh further explain that differentiating instruction can be problematic because teachers can single out ELLs and take them away from other students. In order to avoid this pattern and overcome the challenges to supporting ELLs, teachers should use diverse strategies that scaffold the learning of all students; such strategies include creating an inclusive classroom, building a literacy-rich environment, involving peers, and utilizing explicit instruction.

To support all students, Alberta teachers must establish inclusive classrooms and contexts. This expectation is detailed by the Government of Alberta, Alberta Education (2018) in the Teaching Quality Standard, which states that teachers will provide “inclusive learning environments where diversity is embraced and every student is welcomed, cared for, respected...”
and safe” (p. 6). Teachers working to welcome, care for, and respect diverse students may need to develop their cultural awareness. Bondy, Ross, Gallingane, and Hambacher (2007) suggest that many teachers can improve cultural knowledge and the ability to analyze the role of culture in perceptions of student behavior. To develop cultural awareness and create environments that recognize the benefits of diverse languages and cultures, the Edmonton School Board employs intercultural consultants who work with teachers and other school staff (Robertson & Liguori, 2014). Intercultural consultants can help teachers understand why students from other cultures might exhibit behaviors like avoiding eye contact or copying passages for writing assignments. This understanding helps teachers consider their perceptions of students’ behaviors and creates opportunities for explaining unspoken Canadian cultural expectations. Bondy et al. (2007) also note that teachers can use culture to create classroom contexts that support, nurture, and respect students. In Lethbridge, teachers have used the cultural practices of the Bhutanese community to create supportive, nurturing and respectful contexts. T. Rodzinyak (personal communication, March 2, 2019) helped organize a Holi celebration at Chinook High School to celebrate the widely-practiced, colourful custom and create an inclusive environment. These culturally inclusive contexts support language development for ELLs and enrich the learning experience for all students.

Including culturally diverse students also involves an understanding of the unique characteristics of each student. As with all students, teachers should ascertain an understanding of each learner’s base knowledge and ability. ELLs come from diverse educational backgrounds and teachers should learn as much as possible about each student’s educational history. When teachers investigate a student’s educational history, they are more able to create a “connection between the background knowledge [students] possess and the academic requirements of the
classroom” (Helfrich & Bosh, 2011, p. 264). As teachers investigate educational histories, they should strive to understand literacy development in each student’s first language. Dressler and Kamil (2006, as cited in August, McCordle, & Shanahan, 2014) suggest “there is a relationship between many literacy skills in the second language and knowledge acquired in children’s first language” (p. 495). In Edmonton, Robertson and Liguori (2014) report that Reception Centres welcome immigrant and refugee students, including an interview with families in their first language. These interviews collect information about students’ background and experiences before coming to Canada (Robertson & Liguori, 2014). This information helps teachers learn more about each of their students and develop cultural awareness, which encourages an inclusive classroom.

To further support the diverse needs of all students, teachers can create classrooms that are not only inclusive, but also literacy-rich. In such an environment, teachers immerse students in literature and text of various formats, from instant messaging and “hang in there” posters, to full-length novels. Immersing students in these different textual formats will help all students develop literacy skills. Teachers can also use literature to increase the awareness and understanding of several cultures. For example, teachers can make a conscious decision to feature texts with diverse characters and cultural themes (Helfrich & Bosh, 2011). A literacy-rich environment is especially beneficial to ELLs as they are less likely to have access to English language materials and experiences away from school; providing ELLs with an everyday environment rich with English literature and text gives them more equal access to a literacy-rich experience (August et al., 2014). Although the literacy-rich environment has more impact on ELLs, such immersion benefits all students.
In an inclusive, literacy-rich classroom, peer interactions come more naturally and can support literacy development in all students. Helfrich and Bosh (2011) argue that successful teachers integrate ELLs as much as possible with their peers. However, it is not enough to simply group ELL students in with their peers. Helfrich and Bosh (2011) suggest that teachers “should use partner-share, group activities, and peer tutoring, including other ELLs whose knowledge and use of the language is further progressed than others” (p. 264). Struggling students can benefit from the experiences of more advanced students who have overcome similar struggles. Putting advanced ELLs in the role of tutor gives those students more confidence and demonstrates that ELL students can take leadership roles in the classroom. As classroom leaders, those ELL students are more likely to reinforce an inclusive culture and form connections with non-ELL peer leaders, to the benefit of all students. August et al. (2014) also emphasized the importance of peer relations and recommend “peer-assisted tutoring, in which higher performing readers are paired with lower performing readers” (p. 292). This approach benefits both the higher and lower performing students because lower performing students get direct, one-on-one attention, and higher performing students learn to verbalize their own reading strategies, reinforcing those strategies. Often, these pairings involve one ELL and one non-ELL student, which connects peers across cultures. During the various peer interactions, teachers should “strive for acculturation, rather than assimilation” (Helfrich & Bosh, 2011, p. 261). Rather than encouraging ELLs to adhere to local cultural norms, cultural differences should be recognized and respected. For example, students could discuss different family structures and relationships. Diverse family structures are informed by culture, but transcend cultural boundaries. Recognizing and respecting familial differences exemplifies acculturation. Talking, reading, and writing about these differences engages students as peers and develops literacy skills. Teachers
should encourage peer interaction, including all students, to provide a quality learning experience for all.

Along with strategies for inclusion, immersion in a literature-rich environment, and interaction between peers, teachers should provide explicit instruction in literacy fundamentals. August et al. (2014) assert that all students can benefit from explicit instruction in the core components of literacy “phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, and writing” (p. 491). Among the core components of literacy, oral practice is a good place to start, as spoken language is immediately relevant to ELLs in Alberta, where English is the incontestably dominant language. Tompkins (2015) insists the inclusion of activities that develop oral language is essential, as oral language is foundational to literacy learning. Oral practice and instruction can help students understand sounds and pronunciation. Teachers can then connect the understanding of sound and pronunciation to letter symbols using direct instruction of phonics and phonological awareness. According to August et al. (2014), “the explicit teaching of phonological awareness and phonics benefited ELLs, much as it had native English speakers” (p. 291). As students connect letter-symbols and sounds, they are more able to decode effectively, no matter which language they started speaking first. Explicit instruction also plays an important role in the development of writing skills. Multiple studies (Prater & Bermudez, 1993; Sengupta, 2000, as cited in August et al., 2014) found that explicit instruction, particularly in revising, helped improve the quality of ELL students’ writing. Lessons on writing revision help students develop a deeper understanding of English grammar and sentence structure. This deeper understanding helps students revise their own or their peers’ work. With direct instruction in literacy fundamentals like pronunciation, phonological awareness, phonics, and revision, teachers can develop literacy skills for all students, especially ELLs.
Although there is no single answer to best support the development of literacy and language in ELLs, teachers can improve practice by creating an inclusive, literacy-rich learning environment that involves peer interactions and explicit instruction. Used effectively, these strategies will reinforce and build on each other. For example, if a teacher creates a literacy-rich environment with respectful texts about different cultures, the classroom naturally becomes more inclusive. In this inclusive environment, peer interactions are more frequent and genuine, and when peers are comfortable interacting, they can engage in activities like peer writing revision, applying and refining skills learned through explicit instruction. This classroom environment then becomes a culture of its own, one in which all students engage in profound learning experiences.
References


Chapter 4: In-text Citations: Summarizing, Paraphrasing, and Direct Quotations

When you use information or ideas from a source, you must give credit to your source with an in-text citation. Your reader must know exactly which information or ideas comes from which source. In-text citations perform that function by signalling the sentences that have information or ideas from your sources. In-text citations also direct your reader to the full source of information found in the references list, which you will include at the end of your paper. Most often, in-text citations work on a sentence-by-sentence basis. That is, in most cases, each in-text citation applies to one sentence (not a whole paragraph or passage).

You may present information or ideas found in a source by summarizing, paraphrasing, or quoting. The in-text citations for summarized or paraphrased material are slightly different than those for quoted material. This chapter provides details about in-text citations for a variety of situations, including summarized or paraphrased material, quoted material, and special cases.

Summarizing and Paraphrasing

Summarizing and paraphrasing are strategies for incorporating information from your sources into your writing. These strategies allow you to use your own words to describe information or ideas that come from someone else. Most of your paper should be written in your own words because doing so helps you:

- mentally process the information while you take notes,
- develop the discussion by synthesizing information from various sources, and
- express your paper’s message in your own writing style.

Even though you use your own words, you must cite the source in an in-text citation. The examples in this section demonstrate appropriate in-text citations for summarized or paraphrased information: in APA style, these types of in-text citations almost always identify the author and year of publication of your source.

Put the Message in Your Own Words

Paraphrase = express the information in your own words without shortening the message.

To paraphrase effectively, you must significantly change the sentence structure and vocabulary, as seen in this example.

Example


“There are other developments that may elevate the likelihood that the poverty rates of Canada and the United States will remain high, at least for a while: the declining income of the middle classes, and the rising concentration of wealth of the upper classes.”
Paraphrase

Kazemipur and Halli (2000) argue that as economic ground is lost by the middle classes and gained by upper classes, Canada’s poverty rates will probably continue to be high.

Note: If the paper is about poverty in Canada, it would be irrelevant to mention the United States, so that part can be omitted without skewing the original meaning. Notice that the page number is not usually cited when the information is paraphrased.

Summarize = condense the information into a briefer form.

Summarizing is ideal, for example, when you read a study and determine how its findings relate to your topic. The authors of the study may devote several pages to this discussion, but you may want to sum up the key findings in one paragraph of your paper. Summarizing is useful for all kinds of information.

Example


The term, participatory culture, contrasts with older notions of passive media spectatorship. Rather than talking about media producers and consumers as occupying separate roles, we might now see them as participants who interact with each other according to a new set of rules that none of us fully understands. Not all participants are created equal. Corporations—and even individuals within corporate media—still exert greater power than any individual consumer or even the aggregate of consumers. And some consumers have greater abilities to participate in this emerging culture than others.

Summary

According to Jenkins (2006), participatory culture means both producers and consumers interact with and create media, although producers often have more influence over this content than consumers.

Using Signal Phrase Citations

Aim to use your own words to introduce another person’s ideas into the body of your paper. Typically, you use a signal phrase, a statement or phrase that leads into or introduces information from another source.

These are a few words that may be useful in setting up signal phrases that accurately reflect the material you are citing:

noted
stated
showed
explored
advised

found
argued
agreed
observed

concluded
contended
emphasized
questioned
confirmed

investigated
suggested
demonstrated
asserted
refuted

reported
discussed
compared
pointed out
reviewed
A signal phrase will often include an action word (verb) like those listed above, but it will also generally include the last name of the author and the year that author’s information or idea was published. You might also include a justification for including that person’s idea. For example, that individual might be a prominent researcher in his/her field.

Please see the following examples of signal phrases below. All examples paraphrase or summarize information that originates from another person.

**Indicate in your signal phrase that information comes from another source:**

Radway (1984) suggested that reading romance novels provides women with private and individual time while also addressing needs that a male partner could not.

Bourdain (1999) reported that chefs often make one of three decisions when encountering a steak that is tough or old: 1) throw it in the trash, 2) serve it to the restaurant staff; or 3) serve it to a customer who orders his/her steak well done.

Magary (2018) noted that user discontent caused Facebook stock to plummet sixteen percent between February and March.

**Indicate in the wording of your signal phrase that your information is not factual:**

Lo (2013) speculated that YA novels often deliver more accessible, emotional, and fast-paced stories than those written for adults. She also noted that YA novels tend to be more optimistic or hopeful.

**Indicate through the wording of your signal phrase that you are presenting someone else’s analysis:**

According to Eggers (2018), American presidents have often promoted a focus on the arts during their presidencies. He observed that Reagan, Obama, Carter, Clinton, Bush, and Nixon routinely hosted cultural events at the Whitehouse, inviting artists, musicians, writers, and poets to share their art.

**To cite a specific part of a source (a figure or table, for example, in an article), indicate the specific source of your information after the date in your in-text citation:**

The organization We Need Diverse Books (2016) allocates $18,000 of its total operating budget of $181,000 for outreach and advocacy (Figure 2).

**Indicate that the source is authored by more than one author:**

Mahat and Anderson (2013) suggest climate change has the potential to radically affect the physical, chemical, and biological characteristics of streams in North America.

Finger et al. (2013) found that lower rates of glacial melt can contribute to water scarcity.
Patchwriting and Misrepresenting the Source’s Message

Representing source material accurately is vital in academic writing. You need to be honest in distinguishing between your own words and those of your sources. You also need to accurately convey the information you have gathered from your sources.

Patchwriting, a form of plagiarism, exists when instead of paraphrasing, a writer substitutes, deletes, or rearranges a few words but retains the original source’s core structure. You can avoid doing this by ensuring that you understand your source information well enough to make point form notes in your own words and then writing your paper from your own notes rather than from the original text.

Example


The term, participatory culture, contrasts with older notions of passive media spectatorship.

Unacceptable paraphrase – patchwriting

The notion, participatory culture, is different from past ideas of passive media viewing.

Most of this phrasing is copied from the original passage, making this an example of patchwriting. If you use the original source’s phrasing, you must show that you are quoting.

Misrepresenting information demonstrates a weakness in a writer’s understanding of the material she or he is presenting. Again, you can avoid such errors by reading carefully to ensure that you are fully understanding what your sources are saying and then writing carefully to ensure that you are presenting their views fairly.


The term, participatory culture, contrasts with older notions of passive media spectatorship. Rather than talking about media producers and consumers as occupying separate roles, we might now see them as participants who interact with each other according to a new set of rules that none of us fully understands. Not all participants are created equal. Corporations—and even individuals within corporate media—still exert greater power than any individual consumer or even the aggregate of consumers.

Unacceptable paraphrase – misrepresentation of the original meaning

Only corporations have the power to participate in the creation of media content.

The original passage does not say that only corporations participate in creating or participating in the creation of media content; it states that they have greater influence.

Reference

Direct Quotations

In academic writing, each time you include information from a source, you must identify that source with an in-text citation. As you saw with paraphrased or summarized ideas, your in-text citations identify the author and year of your source. For direct quotations, in-text citations also include the page number (or paragraph number or other locating information) from that source.

While you should almost always use your own words to summarize and paraphrase information from other sources first, there are some instances where direct quotations are appropriate. Use direct quotations mainly for certain purposes, such as,

- in literary analysis papers, where the specific wording of the literature is the subject of your analysis
- in research writing when you are making a point about the wording of the original passage
- in any situation in which the original wording is essential, such as a definition, a mandate/mission statement, or legal wording
- in any situation in which the original wording is significant or distinctive for some reason

Try quoting short passages (phrases, sentences) rather than whole paragraphs so that your use of direct quotations emphasizes the central point you are making with the passage. The more you can integrate direct quotations into your own paragraphs and sentences, the better your paper will read. Signal phrases may help you to introduce quotes and integrate ideas into your sentences. As with paraphrases and summaries, you can use either a signal phrase or a parenthetic citation when quoting.

Direct quotation = present another person’s ideas word-for-word from the original

Example


Corporations – and even individuals within corporate media – still exert greater power than any individual consumer or even the aggregate of consumers.

In participatory culture, corporations, and those who work for them, “still exert greater power than any individual consumer or even the aggregate of consumers” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 3).

Note: Only the key phrase is quoted directly. Notice, too, that with direct quotations, the page number must be cited. In APA style, the abbreviation for ‘page’ is the letter ‘p’ and a period.

Short Quotations

Short quotations (fewer than 40 words) – incorporate the quotation into your paragraph and cite the author, year, and page number using a signal phrase (like the first two examples) or a parenthetic citation (like the third example):
Signal phrase
According to Jenkins (2006), “_________” (p. 3).
Jenkins (2006) defined the problem as “_____________” (p. 3).

Parenthetic
The study showed “_________” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 3).

Notice that in each variation here, the year is beside the authors’ names.

Long Quotations

Long quotations (40 words and longer) should be avoided. You should summarize the main ideas in your own words. When a long quotation is necessary, type the quoted section as a double-spaced block, indented half an inch (or 1.27 cm) from the left margin, with no quotation marks. End with a period, and then give the citation in parentheses. The example below cites the author and year in a signal phrase before the quotation, so only the page number is cited at the end of the block.

Young (1996) focused on the connections between individuals and the community.

Although her study examined the individual testimonies of only 16 homeless people, she saw this kind of public testimony as having profound impact on the community as a whole:

A collective analysis of this testimony resituates individuals, placing individuals at the centre, removing them from the margins. . . . Situating testimony in this way ultimately empowers the homeless, for only they can articulate their own experience. Publicly sharing individual experience is a means of developing social understanding of that experience. In this postmodern age, characterized by separation and alienation, elaborating the role of communication in forming community may be more vital than ever. (p. 338)

Even a small sample, Young argued, can provide insights into the larger community.

Quoting from Electronic Sources (Digital Document or Video)

If you are using an electronic source that does not number pages but does number paragraphs, use the paragraph number preceded by the abbreviation “para.”
When writing about the 2019 college admissions bribery scandal in the United States, Hess (2019) writes, “We still like to picture our higher-education system as the linchpin of a meritocracy, like a public utility that sorts the accomplished from the rest” (para. 8).

If neither paragraph or page numbers are visible, direct your reader to the location of the quoted material by citing the heading and the number of the paragraph (you’ll need to count the paragraphs in that section).

On her blog, Lo (2017) drummed up excitement for her new publications, but also noted, “I also have more things coming! I can't tell you about them yet, but I'm hoping to have a new short story out relatively soon” (“Things That Will Be Published in 2018,” para. 1).

Use quotation marks to indicate the section heading. If the section heading is too long, use just the first few words to identify the section for your readers.

If the source is a video, include a timestamp for a citation of quoted information.

In his commencement speech for Kenyon College, author David Foster Wallace (2005) told graduates, “This, I submit, is the freedom of a real education, of learning how to be well-adjusted. You get to consciously decide what has meaning and what doesn’t” (17:40).

**Omitting or Adding Words in a Direct Quotation**

Insert an ellipsis, three spaced dots ( . . . ), to show where you have omitted words from the original text. If your omission passes over a period, use four dots, as the first one indicates a period at the end of the first quoted sentence. An ellipsis should not be used at the start or end of a quoted passage.

The Pew Research Center defined the Millennial as “an adult born after 1980. . . . In 2012, Millennials were 18 to 31 years old” (Fry, 2013, para. 14). The term is favored when articulating the experiences of these age groups.

Use square brackets around any words that you add to a direct quotation to clarify something or make the grammar flow within your surrounding sentence.

Maggie Stiefvater (2015), for example, is famous for sharing the playlists that she created while writing her books to “reinforce the mood or help [her] through a scene” (“Playlists,” para. 1).

*In this quotation, [her] is a replacement for "me."*

Jenkins (2006) defines transmedia storytelling as “the art of world making” where consumers “chas[e] down bits of the story across media channels, compar[e] notes with each other via online discussion groups, and collaborat[e] to ensure that everyone who invests time and effort will come away with a richer entertainment experience” (p. 21).

*In this quotation, "chasing," "comparing," and "collaborating" are changed to “chas[e], compar[e], and collaborat[e] to make the entire sentence—the writer’s words and the quoted words—grammatically correct.*
Special Cases

Citing several statements in one paragraph from the same source: Be clear about the source in your wording of the information. Use a signal phrase to introduce and cite the source in your first sentence. When referring to the source with a signal phrase in subsequent sentences, you do not need to repeat the year.

Buis (2006) found that 87% of students writing a research paper for the first time experience frustration and anxiety when they begin. However, Buis also noted that this frustration diminished as students saw their papers begin to take shape.

There are additional ways to clearly credit the source without repeating his/her/their name every time. For example,

Buis (2006) surveyed students about their experiences of writing research papers for the first time. He found…Buis also noted…His study showed…Students reported…

Citing a source found in another source: When you are reading an academic article, you might find that you want to use information or ideas that have been taken from yet another (original) source. Ideally, you would find the original source and use it as another distinct source. Finding the original source has many benefits, like improving your research skills, adding more context and perspective to your research, confirming the original author’s intent, and more! However, you may not always be able to find the original source. (It may be out of print or otherwise unavailable. Or let’s face it, you just might not want to bother finding it because you’ve got, like, a million things to do.) When you do not find the original source, your in-text citation gives credit to both the original source (the one you did not find) and the secondary source (the source you read). These are called secondary citations. Secondary citations are shown within the text of your paper but the original source is not on the reference page. The secondary source must be on the reference page.

Secondary citations look like this:


This reference tells your reader that your source, Erickson, Lanning, & French (2017), contained information from Ritchhart (2015), which you are now bringing into your paper. In this example, only Erickson, Lanning, & French (2017) would be listed on your reference page.

Erickson (2008) describes synergistic thinking as bringing together alternative perspectives on a particular topic in order to make the best use of individualistic and group thinking (as cited in Erickson, Lanning, & French, 2017).

OR

Erickson (2008, as cited in Erickson, Lanning, & French, 2017) describes synergistic thinking as bringing together alternative perspectives on a particular topic in order to make the best use of individualistic and group thinking.
Citing information stated by multiple authors:

List the authors alphabetically and separate the citations with semicolons:

Several recent studies (Fenton, 2011; Grignard, 1999, 2007; Lyon, 2012) investigated the importance of introductory writing courses to first year postsecondary students.

Note: The two dates after Grignard show that two different publications by Grignard are relevant; these are separated by a comma and listed chronologically after the author.

Signal phrase example:

Iliopoulou-Georgudaki et al. (2003) and Arismendi et al. (2013) studied the benefits of utilizing aquatic invertebrates as bioindicators of stream health.

Citing information gathered through personal interviews, email messages, or phone conversations:

Interviews, letters, memos, e-mail correspondence, and phone conversations are cited only in the text of the paper; they are not listed on the reference page. Include three things in the parentheses: the author’s initials and surname, the phrase “personal communication,” and as exact a date as possible.

Quality notetaking was the determining factor in student success (P. Day Chief, personal communication, April 22, 2006).

P. Day Chief (personal communication, April 22, 2006) stated that notetaking was a determining factor of student success.

Citing a group author: When a group or organization is named as an author, rather than an individual person, the name of that group will go into the author position. This situation is especially common with websites.

Alberta Environment and Parks (2019) lists several air quality objectives, including to “assess compliance near major industrial air emission sources” (para. 2).

Citing a source with no author: First, look carefully to find an author or group author (see above). However, if no author is named, put the title in the author position. If the title is for a standalone document, that is, something with its own covers like a book or report (often found as a pdf document), use italics for the title. If the title is for an article or a smaller part of a bigger publication (like a page on a website), put quotation marks around the title. You may shorten titles for the in-text citation if the title is too long (more than about 4 or 5 words).

Jati Sidhu, MP for Mission-Matsqui-Fraser Canyon, plans to host town halls in several communities in his riding (“MP Jati Sidhu to Visit,” 2018).

OR

According to “MP Jati Sidhu to Visit” (2018), the MP for Mission-Matsqui-Fraser Canyon plans to host town halls in several communities in his riding.
Examples of In-text Citations

Although we use the word ‘author’ in this chart, the role could be artist, editor, producer, etc., depending on the type of source.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Signal phrase citations</th>
<th>Parenthetic citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First citation</td>
<td>Subsequent citations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three through five authors</td>
<td>Cloke, Milbourne, and Widdowfield (2001)</td>
<td>Cloke et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six or more authors</td>
<td>Lahey et al. (1999)</td>
<td>Lahey et al. (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article (or other document that is part of a bigger publication) with no author – use title of article within quotation marks</td>
<td>(“MP Jati Sidhu to Visit,” 2018)</td>
<td>(“MP Jati Sidhu to Visit,” 2018)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 5: Formatting Reference Page Entries

In-text citations track the sources you use throughout the body of your report, paper, or essay. However, you must also create a reference page that includes full citations for these sources. These reference entries provide full source information that allows your readers to search for and find the source on their own. You should first learn about the four main parts of reference entries; once you understand the four-part approach, you can look for specific details in the sample categories.

Getting Started – A Four Part Approach

Most reference entries have four parts:

- **Position A – Who?**
- **Position B – When?**
- **Position C – What?**
- **Position D – Where?**

**Position A (Who?)** identifies the significant contributor(s), which is most often the author(s), but could list the editor(s), photographer(s), producer(s), director(s), or any other creator(s). See examples in Table A.

**Position B (When?)** identifies the date of publication, which is most often a year, but could also include the season, month, or exact calendar date. If no publication date is available, APA style uses the abbreviation n.d. for “no date.” See examples in Table B.

**Position C (What?)** identifies the title of a document. If no title is available, create a short description of the document and enclose it in square brackets. See examples in Table C.

**Position D (Where?)** provides locating information for the document. Commonly, this information could be periodical details, like volume, issue, and page numbers; retrieval information, like a DOI or URL; or publication information, like the location and name of the publisher. See examples in Table D.
The Four-Part Template

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A</th>
<th>Position B</th>
<th>Position C</th>
<th>Position D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Who?</strong></td>
<td><strong>When?</strong></td>
<td><strong>What?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Where?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose appropriate variation from Table A (below).</td>
<td>Choose appropriate variation from Table B (below).</td>
<td>Choose appropriate variation from Table C (below).</td>
<td>Choose appropriate variation from Table D (below).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example journal article:**


Combine the four parts and use a hanging indent to finish your reference entry:


The Four Parts in Charts

These four charts show some of the most common variations for the four parts of a reference entry. For a variety of complete entries, see the sample reference entries starting on page 35.

**Table A. Author/Contributor Variations**

Although we use the word ‘author’ in this chart, this position might list any other significant contributor(s) to the source, such as editor(s), photographer(s), producer(s), director(s), or any other creator(s).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A (Who?)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One author</td>
<td>Lewis, S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two authors</td>
<td>Odom, S. L., &amp; McEvoy, M. A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three through seven authors (name all authors)</td>
<td>Cloke, P., Milbourne, P., &amp; Widdowfield, R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight or more authors (name the first six, add an ellipsis, end with the last author)</td>
<td>Lahey, B. B., Goodman, S. H., Waldman, I. D., Bird, H., Canino, G., Jense, P., . . . Applegate, B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author known only by an alias (common with screen names or user names)</td>
<td>CGP Grey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Group author (an organization, association, company, agency, etc.) | Heart and Stroke Foundation of Alberta.
---|---
Editor, no author | Morning Owl, J. (Ed.).
Contributor with a different role than author or editor (name the contributor and include the role in parentheses). | Van Nuys, D. (Producer).
No author | Move the title to Position A.

**Finding the Author of a Webpage**

Finding the author of a webpage can often require a little digging. Authors can be listed directly on the page, either at the top or bottom of the article. When an author is not named, look for a group author. These are often governments, organizations, or companies.

For example, the footer on https://www.mayoclinic.org shows “© 1998-2018 Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research (MFMER). All rights reserved.” Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research is the author of most of the content on the site. (Some content is attributed to a generic and enigmatic Mayo Clinic Staff.)

Other sites are less obvious. The footer on https://autismcanada.org does show “© Autism Canada 2018,” but this just seems to repeat the name of the website. The URL provides some guidance with the .org domain. Digging deeper, there is an “About Us” page that explains who Autism Canada is, an organization that works for those with Autism. Citing Autism Canada as the author makes sense.

But, other sites are even less obvious! Math ∞ Blog is a site found at https://mathblog.com/ that accepts “external submissions and contributions by guest writers” ("About," para. 2). It has its own domain, and a footer with copyright claims (Math ∞ Blog Copyright © 2018), but is it an organization?

**Table B. Date Variations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position B (When?)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most documents (especially journal articles and books)</td>
<td>(2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documents published seasonally (like other magazines, trade journals, newsletters, etc.)</td>
<td>(2007, Spring).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documents published weekly or daily (like many newspapers and online articles)</td>
<td>(2007, July 14).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No date (dates are commonly unavailable for online documents)</td>
<td>(n.d.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table C. Title Variations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position C (What?)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Periodical articles (no italics)</td>
<td>Fetal alcohol syndrome in Canada: A case study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books (italicize and include an edition number, if applicable)</td>
<td>Early childhood programs in community colleges (3rd ed.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documents that stand alone, such as reports, movies, etc. (use italics)</td>
<td>Looking at old photographs: Investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers bring with them (Report No. NCRTL-RR-92-4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documents that are part of a larger work, such as book chapters, web pages, encyclopedia and dictionary entries, songs, etc. (no italics)</td>
<td>Literal voice: Observations about the human voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonroutine information in title (use square brackets to describe format)</td>
<td>The Pez dispenser [Television series episode].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No title (use square brackets around a description, no italics)</td>
<td>[Interactive Budget Planner].</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Italics and Capitals in Titles

APA style uses italics for titles of stand-alone documents (like books, periodicals, reports, movies, etc.) and does not use italics for documents that are part of a larger work (such as periodical articles, book chapters, blog posts, encyclopedia and dictionary entries, songs, television episodes, etc.).

If you cannot determine whether an online source is part of a larger work, do not italicize the title.

Most titles use sentence-style capitalization. That is, capitalize the first word of the title and the first word in a subtitle, if one exists. Always capitalize proper nouns. Leave other words lowercase. For periodical titles (the periodical itself, not the article), use title-style capitalization. That is, capitalize all the important words.

Table D. Locating Information Variations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position D (Where?)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Periodical article retrieved online, with DOI (Include the periodical title and the volume, issue, and page (VIP) numbers. Add the DOI. Note the italics and capitals for formatting.)</td>
<td><em>Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 27</em>(4), 247-251. doi:10.1023/A:1022661224769</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Books and other printed and bound publications (Provide location and name of publisher. Note the abbreviation for province or state and punctuation.) | Vancouver, BC: Seal Press.
---|---
Online documents that are likely to change (Include the retrieval date—note commas—and URL.) | Retrieved August 20, 2007, from http://www.pc.gc.ca/docs/r/pca-acl/index_E.asp
Online documents that are unlikely to change (Only include the URL.) | Retrieved from http://www.campaign2000.ca/res/Poverty_healthbackgrounder.pdf

**The Digital Object Identifier (DOI) and Universal Resource Locator (URL)**

APA style prefers a digital object identifier (DOI) because it provides more reliable locating information than a universal resource locator (URL). If an article has a DOI, use it. For documents with no DOI assigned, provide a URL or other publication information (see examples below and in *Sample reference entries*).

**Guidelines for choosing the URL or publication information:**

- If the document is open-access (available without cost), give its exact URL.
- If the article can be searched for within the publisher’s site, give the homepage URL of the publisher.
- If your instructor prefers database information or the database is the only place the material is available, you have two options:
  1) Database name and article identification number
  
  
  2) Database URL – many instructors prefer the permalink or document URL found on the database
  

**No Author, Date, or Title – If You Can’t Find All Four Parts**

Check out this chart. Note that the in-text citation includes only the information in positions A and B. This table was adapted from a chart found through the APA blog: http://blog.apastyle.org/files/missing-pieces---apa-style-reference-table.pdf
### Problem | Solution
--- | ---
No author | Use title in the author position
No date | Use n.d. for “no date”
No title | Create a descriptive title, and put it in square brackets.
A combination of the above | A combination of the above, as necessary

| Position A | Position B | Position C | Position D |
--- | --- | --- | ---
Title. | (date). | n/a | Publishing or retrieval information. |
Author(s). | (n.d.). | Title. | Publishing or retrieval information. |
Author(s) | (date). | [Descriptive title]. | Publishing or retrieval information. |
Author(s) OR Title. OR [Descriptive title]. | (date). | (n.d.). | Title. OR [Descriptive title]. OR n/a |

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**The Samples and Categories**

Different types of documents require different information for each of the four parts, and many documents have unique characteristics that change the reference entry, so it helps to know which category of examples to follow. The examples in this student guide are categorized into:

I. **Periodicals (including academic journal articles, magazine articles, and newspaper articles)**

II. Books

III. Internet resources

IV. Audio/Visual resources

V. Miscellaneous resources

**I. Periodicals (academic journal articles, magazine articles, and newspaper articles)**

The four-part periodical template:

| Position A | Position B | Position C | Position D |
--- | --- | --- | ---

---

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All together:


This template will cover most scenarios. Fill in all the information you have available. Some periodicals (especially online ones) may not have volume, issue, or page numbers. If you can't find that information, it won't be part of the reference entry. The samples show many scenarios with variations on this template. Details are explained in notes.

**Academic Journal Articles**

- Online journal article, **one author**, DOI assigned


  *Note the capitalization of the article title as compared with the journal title. Also note that the journal title and the volume number are italicized, including the comma before the volume number. Any time the DOI is available, include it in your reference entry.*

- Online journal article, **two authors**, no issue number, DOI assigned


- Online journal article, **three through seven authors**, DOI assigned


  *Note: Name all the authors when there are three to seven listed on the article.*

- Online journal article, **eight or more authors**, DOI assigned


  *Note: Name the first six authors, insert an ellipsis, and name the last author listed.*
Online journal article, no DOI assigned, **open-access — exact URL**


*Note: The URL links to the freely accessible full text of the article.*

Online journal article, no DOI assigned, **URL of journal homepage**


*Note: This example was obtained from an online database, but the article is available (usually by subscription or purchase) to a wider audience through the journal homepage. Search for the homepage and the article to confirm availability.*

Online journal article, no DOI assigned, **database information or URL**


OR


*Note: Use one of these options if your instructor prefers database retrieval information or if the article is only available on the database. Although APA style recommends the journal homepage for most articles that do not have a DOI, many instructors prefer this database information because they have access to the articles through the databases. If you use the URL, your instructor may prefer the permalink or document URL. Feel free to ask your instructors about their preferences.*

**Abstract only** of online journal article, DOI assigned


*Note: Although it is always preferable to locate and read the entire text of an article, abstracts can be used as sources if necessary. If you use only the abstract, though, you must indicate this detail in square brackets after the title.*
Journal article, one author, accessed in **print copy** (hard copy of the journal itself, usually through subscription or on the library shelves)


*Note: In this entry, there is no retrieval information (DOI or URL) because you had the journal itself in hard copy.*

**Magazine Articles**

- **Online** magazine article, one author


*Note: The publication date is as specific as possible.*

- Magazine article, one author, accessed in **print copy**


*Note: For magazines, newspapers, and newsletters, add the full date after the year, if it is available.*

**Newspaper Articles**

- Online newspaper article, **one author**


*Note: Since the article is not available on the newspaper’s website, we used the database URL. However, try to locate the article through the newspaper website first.*

- Online newspaper article, **group or staff author**


*Note: Give the newspaper’s homepage because the article can be found from that page.*

- Online newspaper article, **no author**

Note: Because no author is listed for this article, begin the reference entry with the title and alphabetize in your list using the first significant word. For the in-text citation, use the shortened title, in quotation marks, along with the publication year. Do not use quotation marks in the reference entry.

> Newspaper article, one author, accessed in **print copy**


*Note: The letter "p." is shown before the page number to clarify that this is not a volume or issue number.*

### II. Books

The four-part book template:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A</th>
<th>Position B</th>
<th>Position C</th>
<th>Position D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

All together:

Author(s). (Year). *Title of book.* City, ST: Publisher.

This template will cover most scenarios. The samples show many scenarios with variations on this template. Details are explained in notes.

> Book, two authors, **third edition**


> Chapter in an **edited** book, **one author**, two editors


*Note: The editor or editors of a book are abbreviated as (Ed.) or (Eds.) while the edition of a book is abbreviated as (ed.).*

> Work in an **anthology**, Canadian edition, three editors

Note: An in-text citation for a book with two publication years will look like this: (King, 1958/2003).

- **Book, edited, no author**

- **Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) – print version**

- **E-book**

  *Note: Only include a reference for an e-book if the book has not been published as a print copy, or if the print copy is difficult to track down (or if the book is out of print). Otherwise, you can treat the book as a print source. That is, include publication information (location and publisher) instead of retrieval information.*

### III. Internet Resources

The four-part template for internet resources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A</th>
<th>Position B</th>
<th>Position C</th>
<th>Position D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>Title of page or article.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All together:

Author(s). (Year). Title of document. Retrieval information.

This template will cover most scenarios. The samples show many scenarios with variations on this template. Details are explained in notes.

- **Online document, one author**
Note: If the online resource is part of a larger website, the title is not italicized (for example, an "About Us" page). When the source stands on its own (such as a PDF), the title is italicized, as in this example.

- Online document authored by **government agency**


- Online **fact sheet**, group author


  Note: The words in this title are capitalized, as the fact sheet names a national park. However, if the fact sheet were called *Evaluation of Parks Canada’s National Park establishment and expansion sub-program*, not all words would be capitalized.

- Online **dictionary** entry (no author)


- Information from a **mobile app**


- **Wiki**


  Note: Wikis are collaborative Web pages, meaning anyone can write and edit them. Readers “referee” them. Because you have no guarantee that the information is authentic, be wary of using them for academic research.

**Retrieval Date**

Give the retrieval date (the date you accessed the information) only for Internet sources that may change with time, such as Wikis or other sites open to revision.

- Multiple web pages from the same site


*Note: When citing specific information from different pages on the same site, each page must be referenced separately. Notice that pages are first sorted by author, then by date, then by the title of the work (position A, then position B, then position C). Works that share the same year are distinguished with a letter (a, b, c, . . .) after the year. This includes works done on different days in the same year, because the year is all that appears in the in-text citation.*

**IV. Audio-Visual Resources**

The four-part template for Audio-visual resources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A</th>
<th>Position B</th>
<th>Position C</th>
<th>Position D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contributor(s). (role).</td>
<td>(year).</td>
<td><em>Title of stand-alone film or document</em> [format].</td>
<td>Location: Publisher. OR Retrieved from URL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>Title of piece [format].</td>
<td>In <em>Title of series or album</em> [format].</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All together:

Contributor(s). (role). (Year). Title(s). Publishing or retrieval information.

This template will cover most scenarios. The samples show many scenarios with variations on this template. Details are explained in notes.

- **DVD**


- **Movie**


  *Note: When citing a movie, it is only necessary to cite the country of origin, rather than both city and state.*
- **Television broadcast**

- **Single episode of a television series**

- **Music recording**

- **Audio podcast, producer named, show identified on website by title and number**

- **TedTalk, found on the TED website**

- **TedTalk, found on YouTube**

  *Retrieving a TEDTalk from the TED website is more reliable than retrieving a TEDTalk from YouTube.*

- **YouTube video (posted with a screen name)**
  SmarterEveryDay (2017, Dec 31). Exploding banana face (slow motion sound design) - Smarter every day 185 [Video file]. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rfKQXaT2ACY

  *Note: The name of the work is only italicized when the work is a standalone document. This video is a part of the channel’s ongoing content. Also, when work is published under an alias or screen name, that name can be used in the citation.*

- **YouTube video (posted by an organization)**
Republished YouTube video (when someone posts content that originated with another creator)


Note: When referencing the republished content in the body of your report or paper, give credit to the original creator by using a signal phrase. For example,


V. Miscellaneous

The four-part template for Miscellaneous resources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position A</th>
<th>Position B</th>
<th>Position C</th>
<th>Position D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contributor(s). (role).</td>
<td>(year).</td>
<td>Title of stand-alone document [format]. OR Title of part of a series or greater whole [format].</td>
<td>Location: Publisher. OR Retrieved from URL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All together:

Contributor(s). (role). (Year). Title(s). Publishing or retrieval information.

This template will cover most scenarios. The samples show many scenarios with variations on this template. Details are explained in notes.

➢ Conference presentation


➢ Artistic work

When citing an artistic work, it is your goal to guide your reader to its location. If you have observed the work in a museum, you will cite that museum as the location:

If you have observed the work online, you will include retrieval information that provides the URL:


**Brochure or pamphlet**, private organization as author, no date


*Note: When citing a brochure, if the publisher is the same as the author, you can place "Author" in the publisher location, rather than repeating the author’s name.*

**Government report**


**Unpublished manuscript**


**Canvas and Course Materials**

APA style cannot prescribe specific guidelines for every type of document. Canvas and course materials are perfect examples of documents not covered by APA guidelines. Some ideas presented in a course would be considered personal communications (no reference entry required); other information would more reasonably have a reference entry. In such cases, do your best to create a reference entry following the four-part approach (Who? When? What? Where?). The following examples show how you might apply that approach to these types of documents.

**Coursepack**

If you need to cite an article or book chapter included in a coursepack, you will be able to locate the copyright information for that article or book chapter in the coursepack itself. You will cite the article or book chapter, rather than the coursepack.


Often, instructors include original or unpublished material in their coursepacks. If this is the case for content you are citing from the coursepack, you must cite the coursepack itself. If no author is stated, you can cite the document as an unauthored work. That is, put the title of the document first. You can name the compiler (Comp.) of the coursepack in the same
position as the editor (Ed.) of other types of sources (see a work in an anthology or a chapter in an edited book). The title of the coursepack/compilation will be whatever is on the cover or title page (often includes the name of the course).


- **Unpublished lecture**


  *Note: You may need to ask about your instructor’s preferences when citing course materials.*

- **Canvas file with known author and date**

  

  *Note: Square brackets are used to guide the reader to non-routine document formats. There is no official list.*

- **Canvas file with unknown author and date**

  Evaluating your sources [PDF]. (n.d.). Retrieved from Lethbridge College ENG1150 Canvas site
  

  *Note: If your instructor does not put their name on documents in their Canvas course space, you cannot infer that they are the author. Simply use the name of the work in position A. You may need to note your instructor preference when citing course materials.*