



Writing Guide



KEUKA COLLEGE
WRITING CENTER

Sept. 2022

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Ch. 1: INTRODUCTION

This Keuka College *Writing Guide* is a one-stop resource for some of the most common writing issues encountered in academic writing. Take a few minutes to look through the Table of Contents to see what this guide has to offer. Topics are listed alphabetically, and there are diagrams related to the topics that may provide additional aid, especially for visual learners.

Getting information from the web can be confusing. Is a source correct? Is it credible? Are the citation guidelines correct? Does the information meet Keuka College standards? This handbook will assist with all of these questions, eliminating lengthy web searches and guesswork.

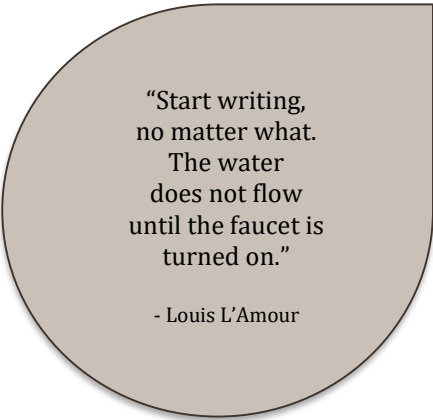
In addition to the *Writing Guide*, the Keuka College Writing and Tutoring Studio is always ready to provide assistance. Please stop in to see us in Hegeman 107 or email us at writinghelp@keuka.edu.

Kind regards,

Catherine Agar

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“Start writing,
no matter what.
The water
does not flow
until the faucet is
turned on.”

- Louis L'Amour

Ch. 2: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES CONTENT

Content

An annotated bibliography is a list of articles or books to be used as reference material for a paper, with a summary of their main points and an evaluation of each one.

Instructors may give students additional instructions about specific types of information to discuss. Instructors may also provide length requirements and specify the amount of detail required and the number of sources to be evaluated.

General instructions

1. Reference → Just like on a references page, give the publication information.
 - Begin with the reference for the source, formatted as your normally would for your citation style (this is usually APA or MLA)
 - Use the hanging indent (see next page for layout)
2. Summarize → In this section, explain the main point(s) of the article.
 - What is this article about? What is the authors' conclusion?
 - How did they arrive at their overall conclusion?
 - What types of evidence are included in this article?
 - Did the authors conduct original research, review literature, study a phenomenon, or something else?
 - The title, abstract, introductory paragraph, concluding paragraph, and subheadings are all excellent places to look for the authors' main ideas.
 - The longer the annotation, the more detailed the summary should be.
3. Evaluate → In this section, think about the *quality* of the information presented in the article.
 - What are the authors' credentials and experience? Are they well qualified to address the issue?
 - Is the article logically arranged?
 - Is it clearly written?
 - Are the conclusions valid?
 - How big was the study group?
 - Can the results be generalized or do they only relate to a specific population?
4. Explain → Here, explain why you chose this article.
 - How will this source will fit into the research you are doing?
 - Avoid generic statements such as "This article is great and will be very useful."
 - Explain which *specific* aspects of the research will fit into the work you will be doing as you write your own paper, and how.

Ch. 3: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY FORMAT, APA

Annotated Bibliography, APA Format → Follow this model.

Only the first line of the reference goes all the way to the left margin. List sources alphabetically, as you would do on a references page. Note that the first paragraph does not get indented in APA, and there are no extra spaces between paragraphs.

Annotated Bibliography

Adams, A.A., Alter, A.B., & Aardvark, A.C. (2015). Harmony among the geese: Bond-pairing for life.

Journal of North American Wildlife, 12(1), 668-672. [doi: 10.1037/0728-6133.24.2.225](https://doi.org/10.1037/0728-6133.24.2.225)

In this article, which is based on the authors' two-year research project among Canada geese in the northern wilderness, the researchers tagged mating pairs and tracked them both visually and with tracking devices to determine the amount of time the pairs spent together. The researchers found that geese migrated in close proximity to their mates, nested together, raised their offspring together, and were generally inseparable except by death. The authors found that such strong pair bonding enabled geese to better ensure the life and safety of goslings since one parent could search for food while the other defended the nest.

Adams, Alter, and Aardvark are all PhD biologists, have a combined forty years of experience with wild fowl, and have spent the last ten years studying Canada geese. They acknowledge that providing information about goose emotion would be pure speculation but observe that the bond between mates seems to provide the animals with both physical and social well-being. This study is thorough and well-explained and will provide me with one example of lifelong pair bonding in the animal kingdom.

Barbicon, B.B. (2019). Elemental functions of geese in the wild. *Journal of Geese*, 14(9), 32-48.

<https://www.journalofgeese.elementalfunctions-2019>

Barbicon's study of geese in the wild involved a migrating flock from a small lake in northern Ontario, which he observed annually for a period of ten years. Barbicon, with the help of the

Ch. 4: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY FORMAT, MLA

Annotated Bibliography, MLA Format → Follow this model.

Only the first line of the reference goes all the way to the left margin. List sources alphabetically, as you would do on a works cited page. Don't indent paragraphs, but do skip an extra line between them.

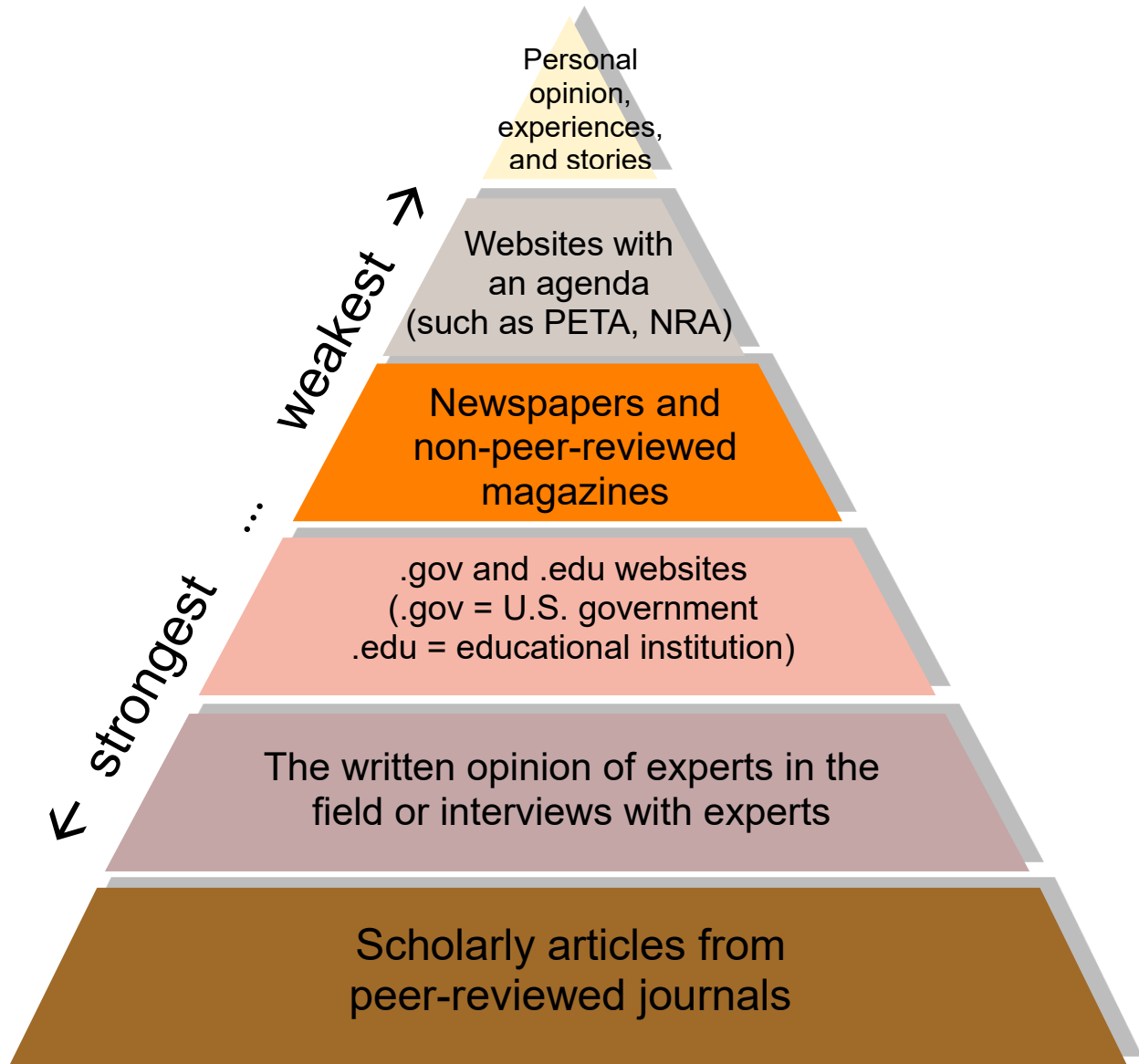
Annotated Bibliography

Adams, Adam A., Abraham B. Alter, and Allen Carl Aardvark. "Harmony Among the Geese: Bond-Pairing for Life." *Journal of North American Wildlife*, vol. 12, no. 1, 2015, pp. 668-672.

In this article, which is based on the authors' two-year research project among Canada geese in the northern wilderness, the researchers tagged mating pairs and tracked them both visually and with tracking devices to determine the amount of time the pairs spent together. The researchers found that geese migrated in close proximity to their mates, nested together, raised their offspring together, and were generally inseparable except by death. The authors found that such strong pair bonding enabled geese to better ensure the life and safety of goslings since one parent could search for food while the other defended the nest.

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FIGURE A



QUALITY OF EVIDENCE PYRAMID

Ch. 5: APA FORMATTING

Title page:

The diagram shows a title page layout. A large light gray rectangle represents the page. In the top right corner is the page number '1'. Centered on the page is the title 'Title of Your Paper, Capitalizing the Main Words'. Below the title is the author's name 'Your Name', followed by the department 'Department of English, Keuka College', the course 'ENG110: College English II', the instructor 'Dr. Jill Smith', and the due date 'November 10, 2020'. A purple arrow points from the text 'Your title should be original and interesting' to the title. Another purple arrow points from the text 'Due date' to the date.

1

Title of Your Paper, Capitalizing the Main Words

Your Name

Department of English, Keuka College

ENG110: College English II

Dr. Jill Smith

November 10, 2020

Due date

Your title should be original and interesting

First page:

The diagram shows a first page layout. A large light gray rectangle represents the page. In the top right corner is the page number '2'. Centered on the page is the title 'Title of Paper in Upper and Lower Case'. Below the title is a paragraph of text: 'Begin the text of your paper here. Leave only two lines between the title and text. Do not skip extra lines between paragraphs or between sections. If your instructor requires an abstract, it would go on page two and then the centered title and beginning of your paper (as shown above) would go on page three.' Below this is another paragraph: 'Choose a title that is concise, descriptive, and interesting. Avoid words that don't add anything, such as "a study of."' Below that is a final paragraph: 'On your title page, put your course number and course title (an example is shown above), your instructor's preferred form of their name (examples: Prof. J. Smith; Dr. Jill Smith; Jill Smith, PhD), and the assignment due date (not the date you write it). Write the month out completely—don't abbreviate it.'

2

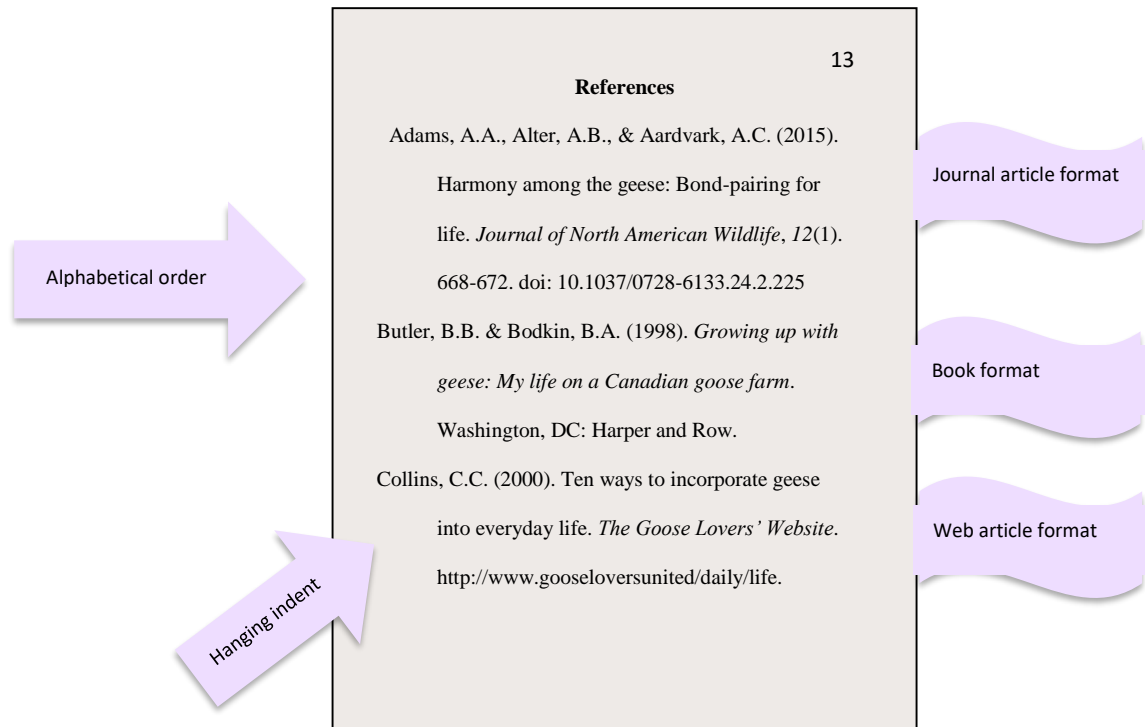
Title of Paper in Upper and Lower Case

Begin the text of your paper here. Leave only two lines between the title and text. Do not skip extra lines between paragraphs or between sections. If your instructor requires an abstract, it would go on page two and then the centered title and beginning of your paper (as shown above) would go on page three.

Choose a title that is concise, descriptive, and interesting. Avoid words that don't add anything, such as "a study of."

On your title page, put your course number and course title (an example is shown above), your instructor's preferred form of their name (examples: Prof. J. Smith; Dr. Jill Smith; Jill Smith, PhD), and the assignment due date (not the date you write it). Write the month out completely—don't abbreviate it.

References page:



Ch. 6: AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Properly crediting sources is fundamental to respecting another person's intellectual property. Plagiarism is a serious error that can result in an F on a paper or for the course. Consult the Keuka College Student Handbook for the College's complete academic dishonesty policy.

Plagiarism is avoided by giving citations for all quotations and paraphrases **AND** enclosing all quotations in quotation marks. Citations + quotation marks = acceptable use of sources.

Quotation, paraphrase, patchwriting

What is a **quotation**?

- A quotation is the exact words of a source.
 - can be as few as two words in a row
 - must be enclosed in quotation marks

What is a **paraphrase**?

- A paraphrase is a restatement of a section of text into one's own words.
 - must be entirely in your own words
 - sentence structure should be different from the original
 - should not be enclosed in quotation marks.
 - must still be cited, since the ideas belong to someone else.

What is **patchwriting**?

- Patchwriting is when one uses some phrases from a source and mixes them in with one's own words.
 - Patchwriting is not an acceptable way to paraphrase
 - Patchwriting is plagiarism.

APA

APA uses the author-year style, in which the year always comes right after the author name. Note that the author name and year only appears once per sentence:

Quotation:

Split: Smith (2012) explains, "We studied over 1,000 males currently receiving medical treatment" (p. 19).

End: The study was quite rigorous, including "over 1,000 males currently receiving medical treatment" (Smith, 2012, p. 19).

Paraphrase:

Split: Smith (2012) explains some of the factors that went into the test results, including statistical analysis of a database of over 1,000 hospitalized participants (p. 19).

End: The author explains the data used, including statistical analysis of a database of over 1,000 hospitalized participants (Smith, 2012, p. 19).

MLA uses the author-page number style, with the author name appearing only once per sentence:

Quotation:

Split: Clingerman wrote that organic food was a "multi-billion dollar industry" (458).

End: Organic food production is "largely unregulated" (Clingerman 458).

Paraphrase:

Split: Clingerman researched and wrote about the economic impact of the craze for organic food (129).

End: Organic food sales have skyrocketed in the past ten years (Clingerman 129).

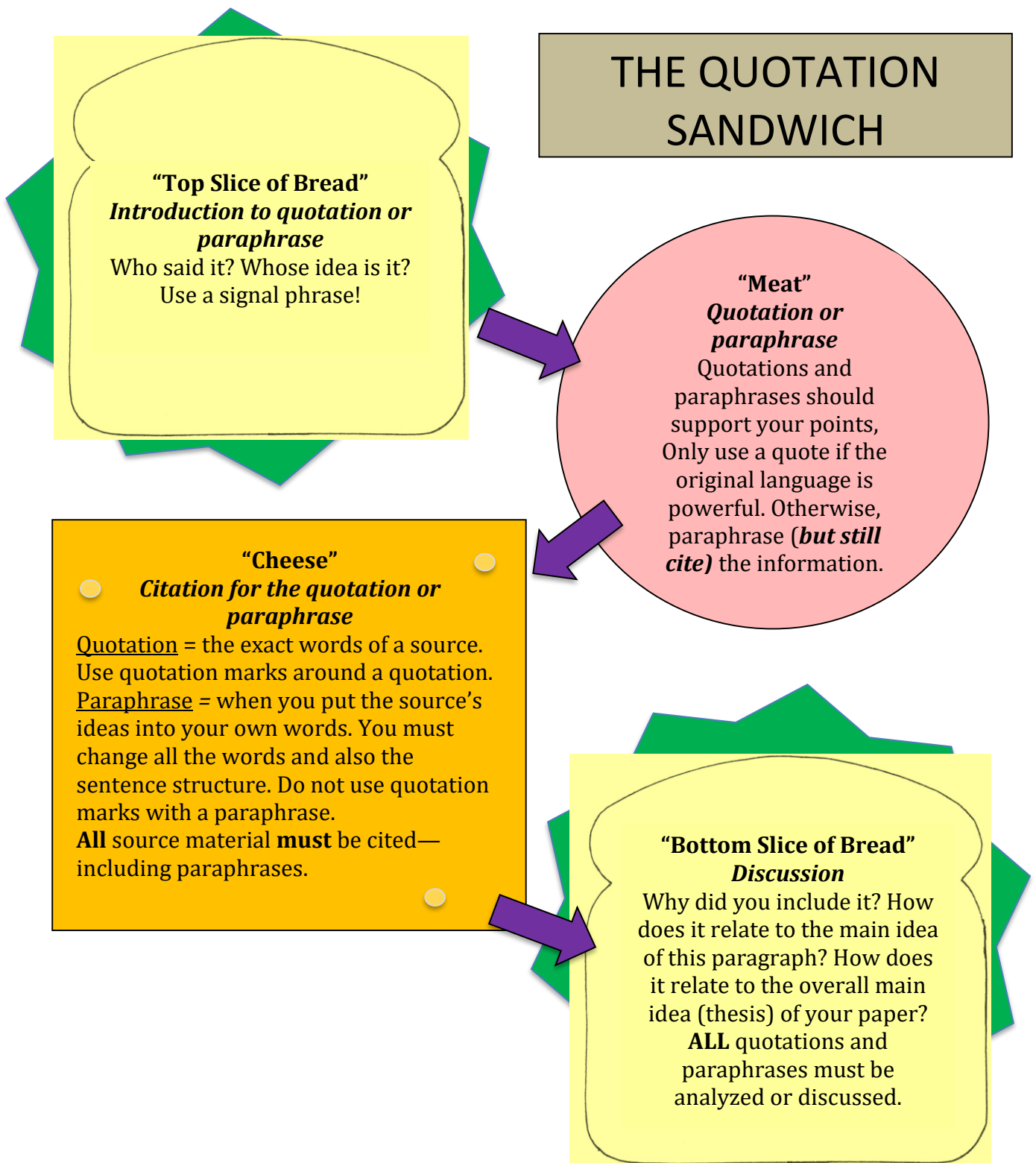
The examples above tell readers what page number to find the information on in the work by Clingerman. If readers want to know more, your Works Cited page tells them where to find the Clingerman book.



Titles: Italics or Quotation Marks?

- We put **quotation marks** around the titles of shorter works, such as articles, case studies, and essays (example: Anne Marie Slaughter's 2012 article "Why Women Still Can't Have It All").
- With longer works (books, movies, newspapers, magazines, journals), we put the titles in **italics** (examples: *Moby-Dick*, *USA Today*, *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*).

FIGURE B



Ch. 7: COMMAS

At the Keuka College Writing and Tutoring Studio, comma problems are the errors we see the most in student papers. Here is a very short, basic guide to the most common comma scenarios.

1. **Use a comma in dates and locations:** September 30, 2014. Rochester, New York.
2. **Use a comma to separate items in a series:** I love apples, blueberries, and watermelon.
3. **Use a comma after an introductory element.** That element can be very short, as in:
Generally, I do not like anything spicy.
It can be medium-length, as in:
After a while, we all got tired of waiting.
And it can be extremely long, as in:
Although half of all the people who answered the poll said they didn't care about football, the ratings for the show still demonstrated a lot of interest.
(This is also called a dependent clause—dependent because it cannot stand alone.)
4. **Use a pair of commas to set off an appositive phrase.** An appositive phrase is something that renames or describes the noun. It can be removed from the sentence without changing the grammatical correctness of the sentence. Here's an example:
My brother, **who is a police officer in Duluth**, calls me almost daily.
In this sentence, "who is a police officer in Duluth" describes or renames "my brother."
Removing "who is a police officer in Duluth" would not alter the meaning of the sentence; it would be: *My brother calls me almost daily.* It still means the same thing. The phrase that renames or describes the noun takes a comma on both sides of it. Here's another example:
That animal, **a raccoon**, was digging through our garbage cans.
In this example, "a raccoon" further describes the noun "animal." You can remove it from the sentence without changing the meaning. Therefore, set it off with commas.
5. **Use a pair of commas to set off a nonessential element.** A nonessential element is something that can be removed from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.
That movie, **I believe**, was terrible.
The brothers, **shopping for the best bargain**, spent all afternoon at the store.
I left my hat, **which I didn't like anyway**, on the subway.
6. **Use a comma to separate two independent clauses ONLY when there is also a FANBOYS words.** An independent clause is *a complete sentence that makes sense all by itself*. Here is an example of two independent clauses in one sentence:
My dog loves to play, I bought him a chew toy.
My dog loves to play is an independent clause or complete sentence. *I bought him a chew toy* is also an independent clause or complete sentence.

Separating two independent clauses with a comma, as we did above, is *incorrect*. It is a comma splice. **Only** use a comma with two independent clauses when there is also a FANBOYS word (official name: coordinating conjunction). FANBOYS is an acronym to help one remember which

words are used with a comma if—and only if—there are also two independent clauses.

FANBOYS stands for: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so.

If there are not two independent clauses but there is a FANBOYS word: *no comma*. Here's an example of that:

I love the beach and long walks.

And is the FANBOYS word in that sentence, and *I love the beach* is an independent clause, but *long walks* is NOT an independent clause. Therefore, the sentence takes no comma.



Semicolons: There is often confusion about when a comma is appropriate and when a semicolon is appropriate. There are just a few rules about semicolons:

- (a) Use them to separate items in a list that contains internal punctuation, such as commas. For example:
I would like to visit Paris, France; London, England; and Stockholm, Sweden.
- (b) Use them to separate independent clauses when you do not want to use a FANBOYS word. Do this only when the sentences are closely related. Example:
My hair is a mess today; I guess I should have stayed out of the wind.
There is no FANBOYS word, so a semicolon is appropriate. (You can also use a period here if you would rather.)
- (c) Semicolons and commas team up when used with a *conjunctive adverb* like *however, moreover, in addition, therefore, for example, nevertheless, accordingly, in fact, besides, otherwise*—and there are many, many more. Here's how this looks in a sentence:

I will go with you; however, Allison can't come.

My dog loves to play; therefore, I bought him a chew toy.

Everyone loves semicolons; in fact, you are reading about them right now.



The best way to proofread your paper
is to read it out loud.
Often, we can hear errors
that we cannot see.

Ch. 8: CONCLUSIONS

Many students struggle with conclusions. They feel that by the time they've gotten to the end of their paper, they've already said everything they wanted to say. They often fall back on repeating their main points. However, there are much better ways to end a paper.

One thing that a conclusion should accomplish is tying together everything that was said in the body of the paper. This isn't mere repetition, but rather an analysis of how all the individual pieces fit together. There's no need to write "In conclusion" (in fact, that's kind of a clunky way to end a paper), but you should be drawing conclusions for your reader. At this point, the picture drawn should be "the big picture," the larger implications of the argument. This is a good time to return to the "so what?" and "who cares?" questions and discuss them in more detail, spelling out for your reader exactly who should care and why. For example, if you wrote a paper about the health risks of people refusing to have their babies vaccinated against common illnesses, you could conclude by discussing what might happen if the trend grew and *many* people didn't vaccinate their children.

Another good way to conclude is to sandwich the paper's body in between two halves of an anecdote. The introduction might include the first part of an illustrative, interesting story, but not the end of it. Instead, you return to conclude it at the very end of the paper in the concluding paragraph. In the vaccination paper example, you could begin with the story of someone who did not get their child vaccinated against measles, and then move into the discussion of the larger issue. The end of the paper would return to the story and tell the reader what happened in this particular child's case and how it relates to the overall discussion.

When concluding a paper, bear in mind that "last impressions last." That is, whatever you leave the reader with is likely to stay in their memory, so it's a good idea to finish strong. If you comes across some particularly striking, unusual, or surprising anecdote or fact during research, you might want to save it for the very end of your paper.

You will leave the reader satisfied that you have done a thorough job on your paper if you:

- ✓ tie up all the loose ends
- ✓ discuss the larger implications of the argument
- ✓ go out with a bang – something interesting that will stick in the reader's memory



"Affect" is usually a verb (action).
"Effect" is usually a noun (result).

Ch. 9: INTRODUCING SOURCE MATERIAL

What is *source material*?

- Quotations (the exact words of a source)
- Paraphrases (putting the source's ideas into one's own words)
- Ideas that come from someone else
- Anything that is not from one's own head is "source material"

Why does source material need to be *introduced*?

In order to avoid plagiarism, you need to make it very clear to the reader which are your ideas and which are someone else's ideas. Readers won't be able to tell the difference unless you explicitly point it out.

How is source material introduced?

Source material should be introduced with a *signal phrase*. That is a word (or several words) that describes the author's attitude or intent. Here are some examples from *They Say/I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing with Readings*, 2nd edition (2012) by Gerald Graaff, Cathy Birkenstein, and Russell Durst:

Verbs for making a claim:

Argue
Assert
Believe
Claim

Emphasize
Insist
Observe
Remind us

Report
Suggest

Verbs for expressing agreement:

Acknowledge
Admire
Agree
Celebrate the fact that
Corroborate

Do not deny
Endorse
Extol
Praise
Reaffirm

Support
Verify

Verbs for questioning or disagreeing:

Complain
Complicate
Contend
Contradict
Deny

Deplore the tendency to
Qualify
Question
Refute
Reject

Renounce
Repudiate

Verbs for making recommendations:

Advocate
Call for
Demand
Encourage

Exhorts
Implore
Plead
Recommend

Urge
Warn

Here are some examples of signal phrases (underlined> in sentences.

APA

A *quotation* (using word-for-word source information):

Smith and Jones (2014) argue that “more people should eat beets, since they are a good source of vitamin C and iron” (p. 12).

A *paraphrase* (putting source information into one’s own words):

Smith and Jones (2014) believe that beets will help support people’s health by adding much-needed vitamin C and iron to their diets (p. 12).

MLA

A *quotation* (using word-for-word source information):

Smith and Jones argue that “more people should eat beets, since they are a good source of vitamin C and iron” (12).

A *paraphrase* (putting source information into one’s own words):

One cup of beets provides 37% of a person’s daily folate requirement (Smith and Jones 12).

It’s important to use signal phrases to introduce quotes, but it’s *critical* to use them when introducing paraphrases. Why?

- ☒ For a quotation, the quotation marks show the reader that the idea and words are from someone else.
- ☒ When there are no quotation marks (as with a paraphrase) there is no way for the reader to know whose ideas they are unless it is clearly indicated with signal phrases.

Some signal phrases to avoid:

- a. **States.** This word is way, *way* overused in student papers and sounds stuffy. Even something simple such as “writes” is a better choice.
- b. **Talks about.** The authors are writing, not speaking. (It is okay to use *discusses*, however, since a discussion can be text-based.)
- c. **Goes on to say.** Same as above: the authors are not “saying” anything. Also, by writing “goes on to” or “then,” you are signaling to the reader that you are just giving a list, instead of conveying that you have a deeper understanding of the material.

Ch. 10: INTRODUCTIONS

A paper without a proper introduction leaves the reader scrambling to figure out what the paper is about. The last thing a writer should do is confuse the reader before they've even gotten to the second paragraph! Every paper needs an **introduction** that establishes context or background before moving into the specifics of the discussion. Your introduction will include your paper's main idea or thesis—the primary thing you want your paper to convey.

Here are some introduction do's and don'ts:

DO'S

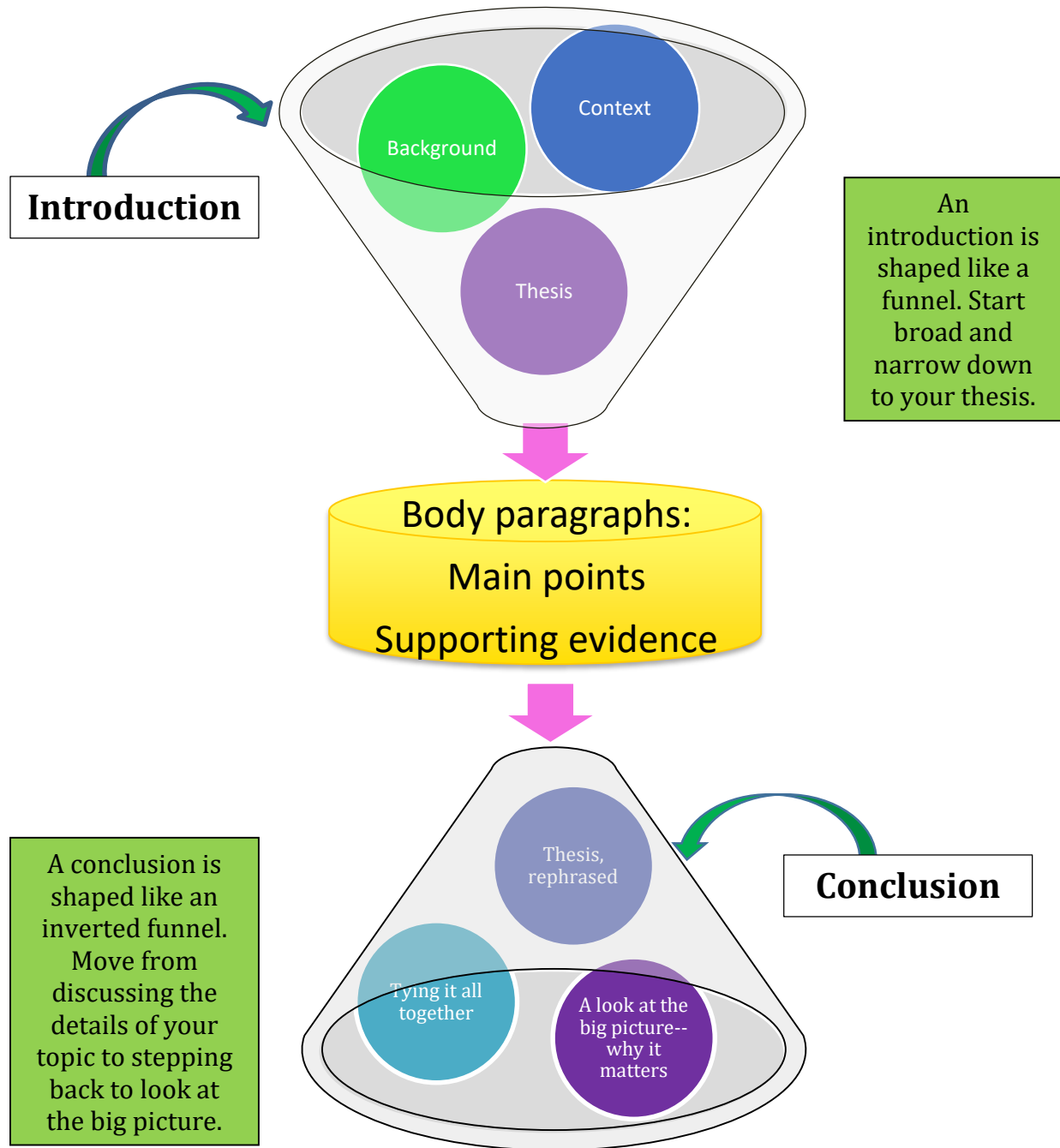
- a) **Do** begin with something interesting. When we read something, the first few sentences need to grab our attention or else we won't keep reading. A surprising anecdote, a shocking statistic, a little-known fact, the story of one person whose individual situation could be representative of many people's situations—these are all good ways to begin a paper.
- b) **Do** choose something relevant. A story about a newborn hippopotamus at the zoo may be interesting, but if the paper is about insurance rates, it's difficult to see the connection.
- c) **Do** establish context by giving some background information. Assume the reader knows nothing whatsoever about the topic and they need a few key details so that they can understand the rest of the discussion.
- d) **Do** include a thesis, the main point or argument of the paper. Every paper **MUST** have a main point or argument and it must be expressed clearly in a single sentence. This is called the thesis statement. It belongs in the introductory paragraph and is often found as the final sentence of an introductory paragraph. (For more information, see page 28.)
- e) **Do** offer definitions of key terms and phrases if they might be unfamiliar to the reader.

DON'TS

- f) **Don't** begin with a dictionary definition of a common word. This is a cliché. A student wants his or her paper to stand out, not look just like a dozen (or hundred!) other papers that the instructor has read before.
- g) **Don't** start off with an interesting or amusing story or anecdote when writing a research paper. For research papers, students should "stick to the facts," writing more formally.
- h) **Don't** apologize. Writing such things as "I'm not sure about this, but," "I'm no expert, but it seems to me that," "In my humble opinion" and so on signal to the reader that the writer's conclusions are unreliable.

FIGURE C

THE SHAPE OF AN ESSAY



Ch. 11: LITERATURE REVIEWS

The purpose of the literature review is to provide information about what others have written on the topic and to describe how one's own work fits into this picture.

- ☑ **Survey:** Let's say as an example that you decide to write a paper on the topic of "a social worker's 'best practices' response to elder abuse." First you should search professional journals using key terms. You should start broad: you might not find articles that directly address your specific topic, but the articles may still be relevant. In this example, articles about elder abuse in general, social workers' response to abuse in all age populations, and the psychology of abusers might work well. (If you need help with research, the librarians at Lightner Library are wonderfully helpful!)
- ☑ **Skim:** Once you have found appropriate articles, skim them for pertinent information. Start by reading the abstract, which gives a summary of the entire paper. That will tell you whether the paper is worth reading further. Then read the introduction and the conclusion. Key ideas are expressed in these two areas. If there are section headings, read those, as well as paragraph topic sentences. All of this should give you a good overview of the article's substance.
- ☑ **Read:** Once you have read those sections and determined that the article is, in fact, useful, you should read the whole article. **Most academic articles require more than one reading.** This is common even for people who are very familiar with academic writing. Getting something wrong signals to the instructor either that you just skimmed the article, that you didn't understand it, or that you read carelessly.
- ☑ **Analyze:** As you read, ask some questions:
 - What method did the researchers use?
 - What were their biases, if any?
 - What were their conclusions?
 - What was their sample size?
 - Are their results generalizable to a larger population? Why or why not?
 - Your instructor may give you additional or different evaluation criteria.You should take careful notes as you read, since you will need to refer back to the information and correctly cite it.
- ☑ **Organize:** Next comes deciding how to organize the discussion of these sources. You will want to provide some background information about the topic in the introduction. After that you can discuss the sources:
 - chronologically (oldest to newest)—how people have thought about the topic through time—or
 - thematically (how each topic relates to their own topic).For our example, if we are working with a *chronological* organization scheme, we can write about the evolution of elder care from the days when most elderly people lived with extended family, to the emergence of social work as a profession, to today's intersection of elder care with social work practice. If working *thematically*, we can write about elder abuse in general, social workers' roles in dealing with abuse for all age groups, and then the specific issues around social workers dealing with elder abuse.
- ☑ **Write:** Be sure to demonstrate to readers how each article connects to the other articles and to your own research topic. You will provide a summary or overview of each article, but that's not all. You are

also providing a critical analysis of each article's effectiveness and methodology. You will also discuss in some detail how your own research will add to what has already been written on the topic.

- ☑ **Cite:** Unlike with an annotated bibliography, you will be expected to provide examples from your sources. Those examples will take the form of quotations and paraphrases and of course, they must all be properly cited. Cite as you go, since it is nearly impossible to go back after the paper has been written to add citations. You can always go back and fix the citations, but you don't want to accidentally plagiarize something because you forgot to note that it was taken from a source.

Example literature review (APA format):

4

Through a systematic review of empirical studies on Complicated Grief (CG), Lobb et al. (2010) identified a number of key predictors of the condition. Two of those factors relate to the circumstances of the death the CG sufferer endured: whether or not it was sudden or violent, and the quality of caregiving the deceased received. Other factors pertain more to the relationship between the deceased and the bereaved; the closer the relationship between the two, the more likely the bereaved was to suffer from CG (Lobb et al., 2010). Wayment and Vierthaler (2002) found that dependency was an important factor, with bereaved spouses and partners who were highly dependent upon the deceased much more likely to suffer from CG; perhaps unsurprisingly, bereaved persons who showed a tendency toward dependency in other relationships (i.e., not just in their relationship with the deceased) were more likely to suffer from CG. Finally and significantly, the researchers found that a person's attachment style was an important predictor of CG (Lobb et al., 2010; Wayment & Vierthaler, 2002).

According to Wilson, Smith, and Maroney (2015), key predictors of CG included the individual's mental health prior to the death of their loved one. Lobb et al.'s (2010) research ...

Ch. 12: MISCELLANEOUS

Acronyms: This first time an acronym appears in a paper, write out the full name and immediately afterwards enclose the acronym in parentheses, like so: *Most of the people interviewed were members of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA)*. Then, in the remainder of the paper use the acronym alone: *AA meetings were held once a week*.

Author's name: Refer to authors by name. After all, the *article* didn't do the research or write up the results—the *author(s)* did. If author's name has not appeared for several sentences, and particularly at the beginning of a paragraph, remind the reader whom you are writing about.

Contractions: Generally, avoid using contractions in formal writing (unless one is supplying a quotation that contains a contraction). However, it is up to the instructor whether or not—and how rigidly—to abide by this recommendation. To be safe, avoid contractions.

Degree names: Degree names are as follows. Note capitalization and punctuation:

- ♦ associate degree (not associate's or associates)
- ♦ bachelor's or bachelor's degree
- ♦ master's or master's degree
- ♦ PhD

Only capitalize if you are using the complete title: Bachelor's of Nursing, Master's in English.

Majors are capitalized only when derived from proper nouns: Spanish, English, French. Thus, social work, organizational management, occupational therapy, nursing, and so on are not capitalized unless they are written out formally with the degree name included.

Last names: When first referring to an author, source, or historical figure, use first initial or first name then last name. Thereafter, use last name only. Abraham Lincoln should be referred to as *Lincoln*, not *Abraham*. This applies to women, also. Florence Nightingale should be called *Nightingale*, not *Florence* or *Miss Nightingale* or *Ms. Nightingale*.

Punctuation with quotation marks:

- Punctuation that goes INSIDE the ending quotation mark = commas and periods: *As someone wise once said, "It takes a village to raise a child."*
- Punctuation that goes OUTSIDE the ending quotation mark = colons and semicolons: *As someone wise once said, "It takes a village to raise a child"; we must agree with this sentiment.*
- IT DEPENDS = question marks and exclamation marks. It depends on whether the question mark or exclamation mark is part of the quotation (inside) or part of your sentence (outside): *As someone wise once said, "it takes a village to raise a child"!*
- These do not apply to quotations with a parenthetical citation, since the punctuation comes after the parenthetical citation.

APA: *As Jones (2017) explains, "Villages are funny things" (p. 29).*

MLA: *As Jones explains, "Villages are funny things" (29).*

Second person: Second person (*you* or *your*) is never used in academic writing. Instead, identify the person by name or title, use the word *one*, or rewrite the sentence to avoid the difficulty.

Ch. 13: MLA FORMATTING

First page:

The diagram shows a rectangular box representing a page. In the top right corner, it says "Johnson 1". On the left side, there is a purple arrow pointing right towards the box, labeled "Due date". On the right side, there is a purple arrow pointing left towards the box, labeled "Your title should be original and interesting". Inside the box, the text is as follows:

Anne Johnson
Professor Smith
English 110, Section 2
10 November 2020

Title of Your Paper,
Capitalizing the Main Words

Begin the text of your paper here. Leave only two lines between the title and text. Do not skip extra lines between paragraphs or between sections. Do indent all new paragraphs.

In your information block on the top left, include your name, your professor's name, your course number and section number, and the due date of your assignment.

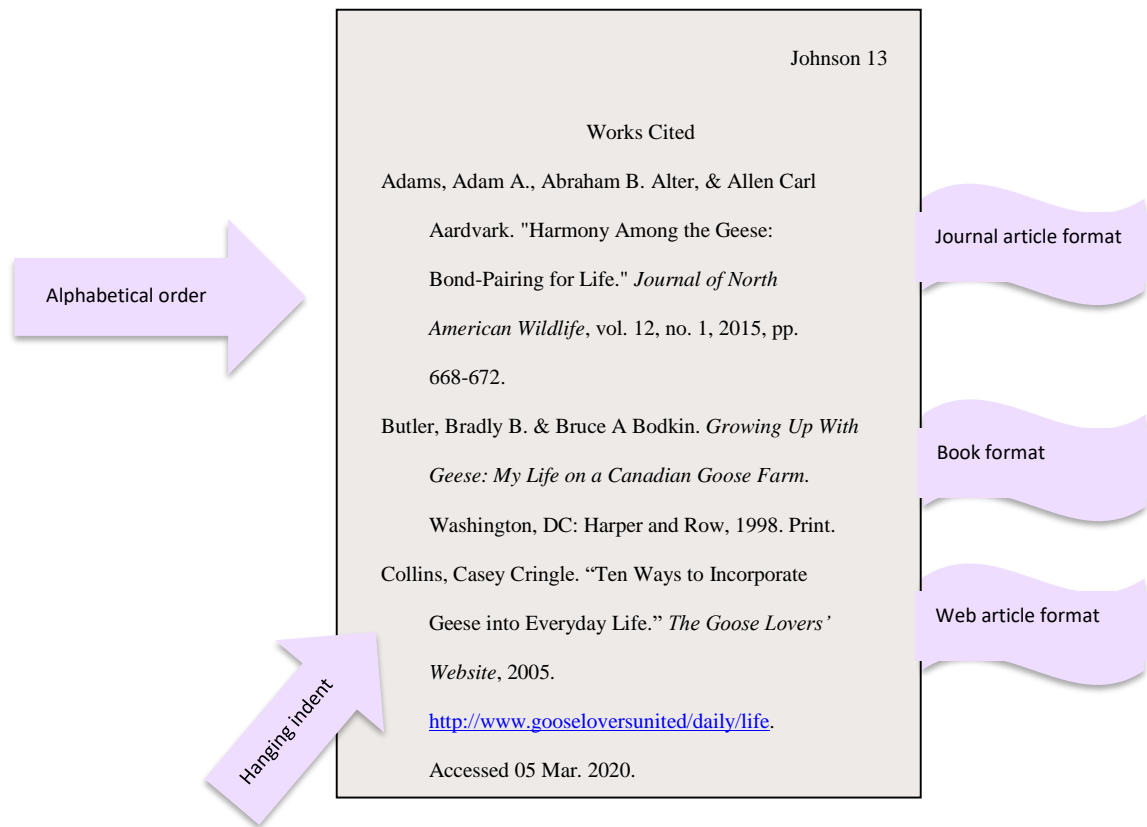
Subsequent pages:

The diagram shows a rectangular box representing a page. In the top right corner, it says "Johnson 2". On the right side, there is a purple arrow pointing left towards the box, labeled "Double-space everything, no exceptions". Inside the box, the text is as follows:

Choose a title that is concise, descriptive, and interesting. Avoid words that don't add anything, such as "a study of," and remember that an assignment name (such as "Essay One" or "Reflective Response") is not a title. Likewise, the title of an article you read cannot also be the title of your paper. Your paper needs its own title—preferably something that makes someone want to read your paper!

Set your margins to one inch all around, and use an easy-to-read font such as Times New Roman, Arial, or Georgia. Use the same font consistently throughout your paper and stick with 12-point font.

Works Cited page:



Ch. 14: POSSESSIVES AND PLURALS

Possessives take an apostrophe:

That is *Joe's* hat.

The researcher evaluated the *nurse's* criteria for calling in extra help.

Does something belong to the noun? Then it is possessive. In the examples above, the hat belongs to Joe and the criteria “belongs to” the nurse in the sense that the nurse generates or decides it—so an apostrophe before the “s” is required.

Plural possessives take an apostrophe after the “s,” not before it as with singular possessives:

We believe it is time to look at the social *workers'* reports.

The police *officers'* organizational skills were called into question.

Here is the same sense of belonging—the reports “belong to” or were generated by the social workers, and the organizational skills belong to or are possessed by the police officers—but now we’re not talking about one social worker or one police officer. We’re discussing more than one, so the noun must be plural. To show belonging, we use **plural possessive**.

Plurals take no apostrophe. Plurals are more than one thing:

I never saw so many *elephants* on parade before!

I ate twelve *pancakes* for breakfast.

There is no “belonging” here. These are straight plurals. Therefore, no apostrophe is required.

Its/it's: *Its* is the **one** possessive that does not take an apostrophe:

That koala is just protecting *its* young. [the young “belong to” the koala]

The team took a long time in presenting *its* report. [the report “belongs to” the team]

It's—with the apostrophe—is **always** a contraction of *it + is*. If you can substitute “it is” in the sentence, then you need the apostrophe:

It's time we went to bed. (*It is* time we went to bed.)

In California, *it's* almost always sunny. (In California, *it is* almost always sunny.)

Possessives that end in “s”: If you want to make a word or name that ends in “s” possessive, such as *Jesus's teachings* or *Socrates's life*, you can add an apostrophe-s (as shown) or just an apostrophe after the s on the end of the word. (Some say to use apostrophe-s for common nouns and s-apostrophe for names—so then you would have *the class's hours* but *Texas' legislators*.)

- To make a plural noun that does not end in “s,” such as *children*, possessive, add the apostrophe and the “s”: These are the *children's* parents.
- To make a **plural** noun that ends in “s,” such as *countries*, possessive, add an apostrophe only after the final “s”: Hanging from the ceiling were all the *countries'* flags.

Ch. 15: QUOTATION USE

Be careful not to rely too heavily on quotations. It is your job to synthesize the information and concepts in the sources you consulted. To put this another way, instructors want to know how you *interpret* the information in your sources—not what the original source says on the subject. To read quotations, the instructor could just go to the original source. There would be no reason to read your paper if you merely repeat information from your source without providing any analysis, commentary, or synthesis.

- A good rule of thumb is that 90% of the words in your paper should be your own and not much more than 10% of the words should come from other sources.

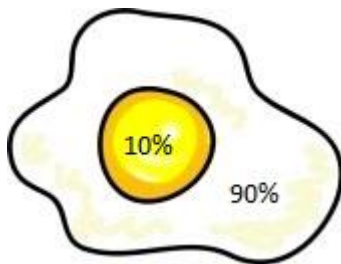
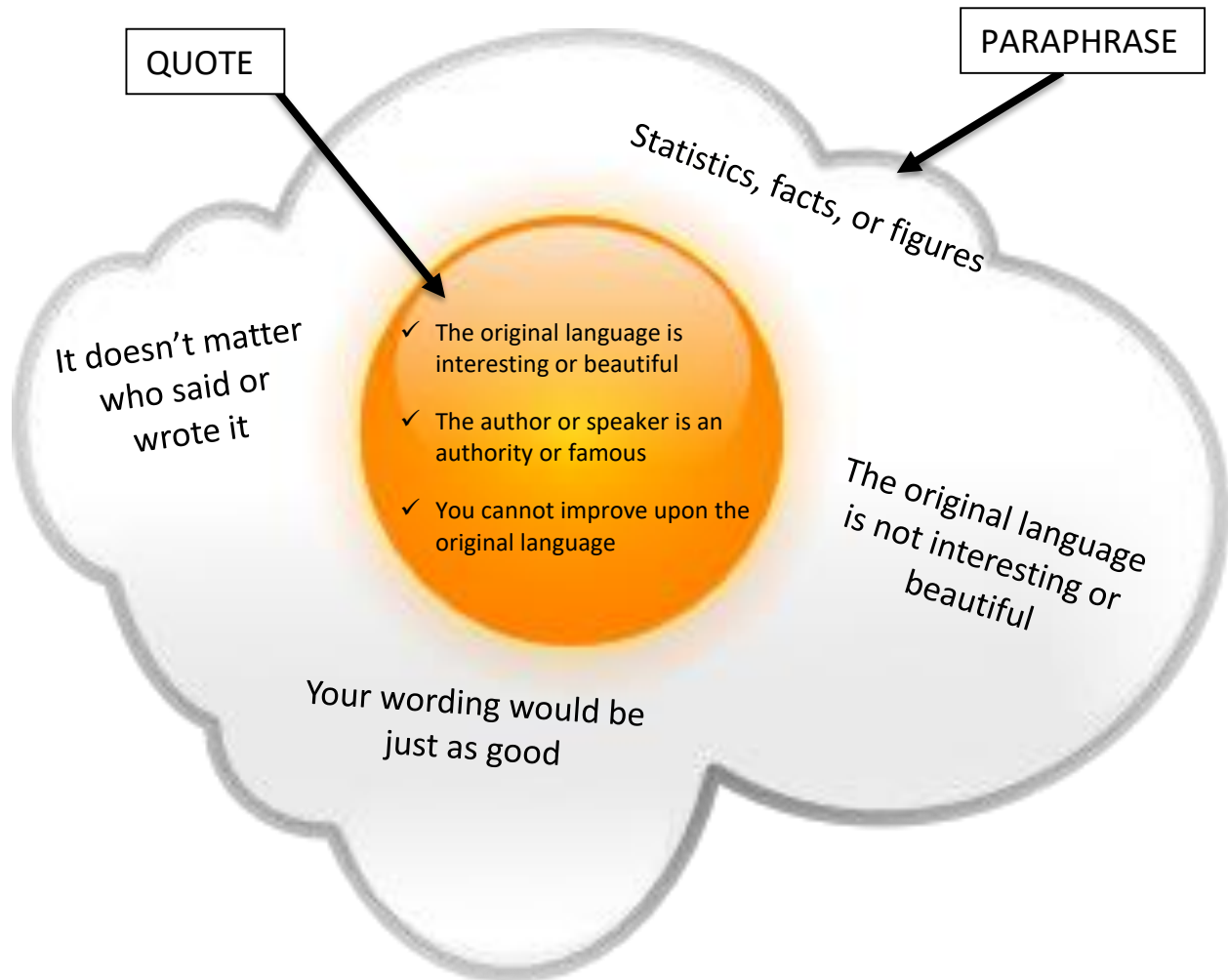
Generally speaking, you should only use a quote if your source has written something in a particularly memorable way, expressing the idea in such powerful language that the meaning would be lost or watered down if you tried to rephrase it. In addition, sometimes a quotation is worth using if the person who originally wrote (or said it) is an authority whose opinion holds a lot of weight. Otherwise, paraphrase (**but still cite**) the information.

Some good rules:

- Don't *begin* a paragraph with a quotation. Paragraphs should begin with topic sentences (see page 29 for more information about topic sentences).
- Don't *end* a paragraph with a quotation. This signals to your reader that you have not provided any analysis or commentary but have just dropped the quotation into your paper and immediately moved on to something else.
- Choose quotations wisely. A quotation should support or illustrate the point you are making. Don't use quotations just for the sake of having quotations in your paper.
- Don't quote information that is better paraphrased. For example:
People came from as far away as Ohio to visit the start-up technology business which was located on "a small side street in suburban Williamsburg, Pennsylvania" (Thompson, 32).
There is no reason to quote that information. It is not memorable or powerfully expressed.
Paraphrase it instead:
People came from as far away as Ohio to visit the start-up technology business which was located in a quiet neighborhood of Williamsburg, Pennsylvania, a suburb of Philadelphia (Thompson 32).
- Provide analysis for all quotations. Why is the quotation in the paper? What is its significance? How does it relate to your thesis? How does it relate to the topic of the paragraph? How does it relate to the sentence that came immediately before it? No quotation should be an "orphan." They should all be properly introduced and adequately explained.

FIGURE D

WHEN TO QUOTE



90% of the words in a paper should be your own.
Only 10% should be quotations.
Paraphrase (but still cite!!) other source information

Ch. 16: SCHOLARLY ARTICLE CRITIQUE

A scholarly article is an article that has been peer reviewed and appears in a reputable journal. If you are in doubt about whether your chosen article is scholarly, ask your instructor or a librarian.

First, read the abstract. Next read the introduction and then the conclusion. Then read section headings. All of these will give you a good idea what the entire article is about. If you still think it might be useful, read the entire article.

It is almost impossible to understand an article with just one reading, so read it as many times as necessary to be sure you fully comprehend it. Make notes in the margins and underline or highlight important points. (It is much better to print a copy out, rather than work on screen.) List the article's main points.

Your first step in writing your critique is to give an introduction to the article. Here you will tell the reader what article you are writing about. Give the article title in quotation marks (not italics) with all the main words capitalized, and also give the author(s) name(s). For APA, include the year of publication in parentheses. Give your reader some context about the issue being discussed, and provide your reader with the article's thesis (also called *main point* or *claim*). What is the research problem the authors address? Do not use any quotations or paraphrases in your introductory paragraph. Do not express any opinions here.

Next, summarize the article's main points. Be clear and focused. Make sure each of your paragraphs has a topic sentence so the reader can follow the orderly progression of ideas. You will need to use citations for quotations and paraphrases.

Now discuss the article's strengths and weaknesses. Here are some questions you can consider when evaluating your article: What was the authors' hypothesis? Is the research important to the field? Why or why not? What method did their research take—did they do field experiments, a study with subjects, a literature search, a quantitative analysis, something else? How large or small was their sample? Were their conclusions generalizable to a larger population? Did you notice any omissions that would have made their research stronger? Do the authors explain any shortcomings of their research and if so, what are they? After reading the article, can you think of ways in which it could have been improved? What might be a next step in research?

After your critical analysis, you will need a concluding paragraph. Do not repeat yourself here. Do step back and take a look at the larger picture. How does this article relate to the class you are taking, to your own career path, or to the field in general? Only discuss yourself if specifically asked to do so by your instructor. Otherwise, focus solely on the article and its relevance to the field.

Ch. 17: THESIS STATEMENTS

A thesis is the main argument, or point, of a paper. It should appear near the beginning of the paper—the last sentence of the introductory paragraph is a good place—and it should fit into a single sentence. A thesis statement lets the reader know what the paper is about. You won't just be stating your thesis; you will also be supporting it.

A thesis statement:

1. **must be arguable:** A thesis statement is not a statement of fact. Instead, it must be something with which someone can reasonably disagree. For example, "People should not drive drunk" is not a thesis; it is merely a fact. Ask yourself if anyone could argue against your idea. If no one could or would, then it's probably not a strong thesis.
2. **must be interesting:** If no one cares about the topic, it will be hard to convince them to keep reading. It is your job to convince your reader that you have something interesting, important, or unique to say. For example, which thesis is more interesting?
 - (a) Americans are healthier than ever thanks to publicity about healthier lifestyle choices, and even more public education will result in greater health.
 - (b) Although the number of Americans requiring medical care has skyrocketed in recent years, overall, Americans are healthier than ever thanks to publicity about healthier lifestyle choices, and even more public education will result in greater health.The second one is a bit more interesting because the reader wonders how it is possible for healthcare needs to be "skyrocketing" at the same time Americans are getting healthier (answer: more Americans are living longer). It's the same assertion either way, but the first thesis frames it in a way that makes the reader wonder what's going on and want to read more.
3. **must be supportable:** You need evidence! A thesis statement differs from a statement of opinion in that you provide the reader evidence—right there in the thesis statement—that supports your assertion.
4. **must be focused:** A thesis statement is very, very specific. At first it may seem difficult to write a paper about a narrowly focused topic. A broader topic seems easier to tackle because there is so much information to choose from. However, the kind of writing students are asked to do in college is deep rather than broad. Instead of skimming over the surface of many things, you are asked to explore fewer things in more depth and closer detail.
5. **can, and should, change if the evidence changes:** A thesis should always start out as a "working thesis." It is the direction you **think** you will be taking. As you gather evidence and begin writing, you may become convinced of something different than your thesis statement says. That's perfectly all right! It is much better to change your thesis than to try to argue something you can't support.

Ch. 18: TOPIC SENTENCES

A topic sentence is like an umbrella. It should cover everything the paragraph discusses.

A topic sentence has two, sometimes three, jobs:

- It should tell the reader what the paragraph is going to be about.
- It should clearly relate to the overall thesis of the paper. If the connection is not obvious, the writer must spell it out for the reader.
- It can provide a transition from the previous paragraph.

The third one is a “sometimes” job for the topic sentence because the final sentence of the previous paragraph can provide the transition instead. (It doesn’t matter where it goes, but there **must** be a transition in one of those two places.)

One of the problems with writing is that we don’t think in neatly organized paragraphs, so we don’t write in them, either. Instead our thoughts flow from A, to B, to C, to D, maybe back to B, then to Q ... and so on. Thus, a paragraph that begins by discussing topic A can easily end by discussing topic G. It’s clear how we got from one idea to the next idea (sometimes!), but what’s not always clear is how A relates to G. In addition, if one paragraph discusses A, B, C, D, E, F, and G, we probably didn’t give enough discussion or consideration to any of them.

The better way to organize a paper is to **assign one topic to each paragraph**. In fact, that is the definition of a paragraph: a group of sentences that all relate to a single topic. The paragraph can be five sentences or it can be fifty. What matters is that the sentences all relate to a single idea. That one idea, in turn, relates to the thesis of the overall paper.

A topic sentence is also called a *focus sentence* because it helps to focus the reader’s attention on the material to be presented in that paragraph.

Quotations and paraphrases should never be paragraph topic sentences. Use your sources as support and illustration for the ideas in your paper.

- ✓ A neat trick for checking a paper’s organization is to take a separate sheet of paper and write down just the first sentence of every paragraph. You (or someone you have asked to look at your paper) should be able to follow the argument of the paper logically from topic sentence to topic sentence. If you can’t, something needs to be fixed: either the topic sentences need to be rewritten or the paragraphs need to be rearranged.

Ch. 19: TRANSITIONS

Good writing has transitions *between paragraphs* and also *between sentences*.

You must make connections for your readers rather than leaving them to wrestle with connections on their own. To do this, you should provide transitions. Writing needs transitions between paragraphs and also between sentences.

This can be done by incorporating **transitional words and phrases** such as:

- | | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| ✓ however | ✓ in the future | ✓ furthermore |
| ✓ moreover | ✓ on the other hand | ✓ incidentally |
| ✓ therefore | ✓ for the most part | ✓ now |
| ✓ and | ✓ for example | ✓ then |
| ✓ because of this | ✓ indeed | ✓ before |
| ✓ next time | ✓ otherwise | |

You can also use **pointing words**, words that point back to something in a previous sentence, such as:

- | | | |
|--------|---------|---------|
| ▪ this | ▪ such | ▪ those |
| ▪ that | ▪ these | ▪ their |

(Just be careful when you use a pointing word that it is quite clear to whom or what you are referring, since these words modify—or *refer to*—the **closest** noun.)

A paragraph transition can be at the end of one paragraph, in the concluding sentence, or at the beginning of the next paragraph, in the topic sentence. It doesn't matter where it appears, just that there is one. Transitions are required between sentences whenever there is a change of idea or wherever the reader might appreciate a little better sense of how ideas connect.



Your paper should have its own unique title.
An assignment name is not a title.
Your title should be descriptive, specific,
and interesting.

Ch. 20: VOICE

Passive voice is either *a sentence without a subject, or a sentence in which the subject is acted upon rather than being the actor*. Passive sentences often leave the reader wondering, “WHO is performing this action?”

These sentences can begin with:

- *It is* – as in It is known that the research took ten years.
- *There are*—as in There are many reasons to learn about passive voice.

Passive sentences can also contain verb phrases that begin with *was* or *were*, such as was taken, was learned, were seen, were purchased, and was studied:

- The material was learned.
- The latex gloves were purchased.

Passive voice is not wrong. It can be very useful when the person performing the action doesn’t matter:

- Some of the brightest stars were observed with the naked eye. (It doesn’t really matter who saw the stars—the important point is their visibility.)
- This phenomenon was studied extensively. (We don’t want to list everyone who studied the phenomenon, but the important point is that there were many studies.)

Passive voice is also useful when the thing acted upon is more important than the actor, or when the actor is unknown:

- The woman was mugged on Fifth Street. (Someone did the mugging, but we don’t know who.)
- The results of the study were shown to be inaccurate. (The fact that the results are inaccurate is more important than who discovered them to be inaccurate.)

If you choose to use passive voice, make sure you are doing so for a good reason. If you don’t have a reason to use passive voice, active voice is better.

APA and MLA both allow first person (“I”) when you refer to yourself. If you are deciding between “I chose to study an underrepresented population” or “This researcher chose to study an underrepresented population,” the first one sounds a lot less awkward. However, keep self-references to a minimum. Often you can rewrite sentences so that neither is necessary. (“An underrepresented population yielded the data for this study.”)

Awkward: This writer learned that four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.

Better: I learned that four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.

Best: Four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.

This last example foregrounds the information, not the person who gathered it. So while APA and MLA do allow the use of first person, only use it when necessary. Otherwise keep the information at the forefront.

Special note for nursing students: The Division of Nursing requires academic papers to be written in third person instead of using first person (I). In that case, “This writer” is acceptable.

Ch. 21: WRITING AND TUTORING STUDIO

The Keuka College Writing and Tutoring Studio supports good writing and thoughtful reading, helping to equip students for success both academically and professionally. We assist writers of every level, in every discipline, at every stage of the writing process. Our writing specialists and tutors are trained, knowledgeable, and interested readers, providing collaborative and interactive tutoring in a supportive environment.

In addition, the Writing and Tutoring Studio is a hub for all things word-related, helping to foster and encourage a culture of writing on campus. To that end, we:

- celebrate writing and reading through a variety of activities and events
- encourage faculty, staff, and students alike to come in for feedback on assignments and other written documents
- support Writing Across the Curriculum initiatives and goals
- provide professional development opportunities for student tutors and others in the campus community
- provide outlets, venues, and support for publications and writing groups.

The Keuka College Writing and Tutoring Studio provides assistance for all of our students. Here's how:

1. Go to keuka.mywconline.com
2. Create an account, if you don't already have one
3. Log in with your new account information
4. Choose the schedule you prefer. Do you want us to email a paper back to you with comments? Do you want an in-person appointment? A video appointment? We can do any one of the three!
5. Select any open square.
6. Fill out the appointment form that pops up.

The Writing and Tutoring Studio staff is friendly and accessible. If we can't answer your question, we'll direct you to someone who can. We maintain a list of reliable, user-friendly videos and documents that cover various writing issues and will select and share those as appropriate. We are available to support instructors as well as students with writing and writing-related questions.

Keuka College Writing and Tutoring Studio website: <https://keukacollegewritingcenter.weebly.com/>

keuka.mywconline.com