

**POLITICAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENTAL GUIDELINES FOR WRITING
A GOOD RESEARCH PAPER**

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I. PLAGIARISM: A LEGAL WARNING

All term papers submitted for courses in this department must be written entirely by the student claiming credit for it and must be original for that specific class unless otherwise stated by the instructor. A student who wishes to write on a similar topic for two different classes must obtain permission from both instructors and must write either a substantially larger paper or two papers which are substantially different. Students must also exercise care in giving proper credit to all sources used in their research.

All ideas or statements borrowed from other sources, and all factual or historical material not common knowledge, must be properly cited in the text and references. You may not merely change a few words in a source and call that rewriting; direct quotations must be shown as such, with quotation marks (or single-spaced, indented text for longer quotations). No more than ten percent of the paper should be direct quotation. Students should avoid excessive reliance upon any one source of information, and normally at least five or six sources (not including your textbooks) should be employed in writing a 10-15 page paper. However, for longer papers and/or for upper division and graduate courses more sources will be necessary--see your instructor for specific guidelines.

PLEASE NOTE: Section II-A of the Student Disciplinary Procedures of The University of Akron forbids plagiarism. Students guilty of this offense may be penalized by failure in the course, formal disciplinary probation, suspension or dismissal from the University. For further details on the Student Disciplinary Procedures, visit the university website:

http://www2.uakron.edu/studdev/student_conduct.htm

Definition of Plagiarize: to steal and pass off as someone's own (the ideas or words of another); to present as one's own an idea or product derived from an existing source (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary).

Avoiding Plagiarism

(The following is excerpted from Kirszner G. Laurie, and Mandell R. Stephen, "The Pocket Holt Handbook," 2000, pp 126-128).

Plagiarism is presenting another person's words or ideas - (**either accidentally or intentionally**) - as if they are your own. In general, you must provide **documentation** for all direct quotations, as well as for every opinion, judgment, and insight of someone else that you summarize or paraphrase. You must also document tables, graphs, charts, and statistics taken from a source.

Common knowledge, information that is generally known and that can be found in a number of general reference sources, need not be documented. Information that is in dispute or that is one person's original contribution, however, must be acknowledged. You need not, for example, document the fact that John F. Kennedy graduated from Harvard in 1940 or that he was elected president in 1960. You must, however, document a historian's analysis of Kennedy's performance as president or a researcher's recent discoveries about his private life. You can avoid plagiarism by using documentation wherever it is required and by following these guidelines.

(1) Enclose Borrowed Words in Quotation Marks

ORIGINAL: DNA profiling begins with the established theory that no two people, except identical twins, have the same genetic makeup. Each cell in the body contains a complete set of genes. (Tucker, William. "DNA in Court." *The American Spectator* Nov. 1994: 26)

PLAGIARISM: William Tucker points out that DNA profiling is based on the premise that genetic makeup differs from person to person and that each cell in the body contains a complete set of genes (26).

The preceding passage does cite the source, but it irresponsibly uses the source's exact words without placing them in quotation marks.

CORRECT (BORROWED WORDS IN QUOTATION MARKS): William Tucker points out that DNA profiling is based on the premise that genetic makeup differs from person to person and that "[e]ach cell in the body contains a complete set of genes" (26).

CORRECT (PARAPHRASE): William Tucker points out that DNA profiling is based on the accepted premise that genetic makeup differs from person to person and that every cell includes a full set of an individual's genes (26).

(2) Do Not Imitate a Source's Syntax and Phrasing

ORIGINAL: If there is a garbage crisis, it is that we are treating garbage as an environmental threat and not what it is: a manageable-though admittedly complex-civic issue. (Poore, Patricia. "America's 'Garbage Crisis.'" *Harper's* Mar. 1994: 39)

PLAGIARISM: If a garbage crisis does exist, it is that people see garbage as a menace to the environment and not what it actually is: a controllable-if obviously complicated-public problem (Poore 39).

Although the preceding passage does not use the exact words of the source, it closely imitates the original's syntax and phrasing, simply substituting synonyms for the author's words.

CORRECT (PARAPHRASE IN WRITER'S OWN WORDS; ONE

DISTINCTIVE PHRASE PLACED IN QUOTAION MARKS): Patricia Poore argues that America’s “garbage crisis” is exaggerated; rather than viewing garbage as a serious environmental hazard, she says, we should look at garbage as a public problem that may be complicated but that can be solved.

PLAGIARISM AND INTERNET SOURCES

Any time you download text from the Internet, you risk committing plagiarism. To avoid the possibility of plagiarism, do not simply cut and paste blocks of downloaded text directly into your paper. Take the time to summarize or paraphrase this material, copying it into your notes (which may be stored in another file) before you use it in a paper. If you do use the exact words of your source, enclose them in quotation marks and include documentation to identify the source.

(3) Document Statistics Obtained from a Source

Students sometimes assume that statistics are common knowledge. Statistics, however, are usually the result of original research and therefore deserve acknowledgement.

CORRECT: According to one study of 303 accidents recorded, almost one-half took place before the drivers were legally allowed to drive at eighteen (Schuman et al. 1027).

(4) Differentiate Your Words and Ideas from Those of Your Source

ORIGINAL: At some colleges and universities traditional survey courses of world and English literature...have been scrapped and diluted....What replaces them is sometimes a mere option of electives, sometimes “multicultural” courses introducing material from Third World Cultures and thinning out an already thin sampling of Western writings, and sometimes courses geared especially to issues of class, race, and gender. (Howe, Irving. “The Value of the Canon.” *The New Republic* 2 Feb. 1991: 40-47).

PLAGIARISM: At many universities the Western literature survey courses have been edged out by courses that emphasize minority concerns. These courses are “thinning out an already thin sampling of Western writings” in favor of courses geared especially to issues of “class, race, and gender” (Howe 40).

Here it appears that only the quotation in the last sentence is borrowed when, in fact, the first sentence of the passage also owes a debt to the original. A running acknowledgement should come before the borrowed material to mark where it begins.

CORRECT: According to critic Irving Howe, at many universities the Western literature survey courses have been edged out by courses that emphasize minority concerns (41). These courses, says Howe, are “thinning out an already thin sampling of Western writings” in favor of “courses geared especially to issues of class, race,

and gender” (40).

II. BASIC RESEARCH PAPER FORM

While professors may assign a special paper format for book reviews, literature reviews, or article analysis, the normal research paper follows a standard format:

First, an introduction and clear statement of the researcher's purpose in writing the paper. This section should include an explanation of why this topic is interesting, and how it is relevant to political science theory. It normally includes a discussion of research done in the past on the subject, which sets the context for the current effort. This is also the place to define important concepts, and to state the hypotheses to be tested --that is, what you hope to show in the body of the paper. If the paper is thematic and descriptive rather than a quantitative test of hypotheses, a clear statement of the theme is substituted.

Second, a description of the data collection procedures, data sources, measures of variables and methods of analysis. This section may be omitted if your paper does not involve quantitative analysis.

Third, a presentation of the findings. If the paper is descriptive and thematic, this section carries out the theme, presenting the detailed evidence for it. If hypotheses are being tested, the results of the tests are presented and discussed here. Counter-evidence or counter-arguments should also be presented and discussed.

Fourth, a discussion of the inferences and conclusions to be drawn from the findings. They should be related back to the theoretical statements of the first section, so that it is clear how much ground has been gained by the research. Additional implications for policy making, if applicable, and remaining problems for future research should be discussed here.

Fifth, a very brief summary, if it seems useful.

III. SELECTING A SUBJECT AND DEVELOPING HYPOTHESES

(The following is excerpted from Thomas A. Cronin, "The Write Stuff," in News for Teachers of Political Science 49, Spring, 1986, pp. 1-5.)

First you will conduct a search for a worthy topic. What are your criteria? Perhaps something has been puzzling you, or a topic has been inadequately covered in an earlier course or short paper assignment. Topics arise out of discussions with friends, teachers, parents or from your observations gained in job or intern experience. Curiosity is the source of many topics--the urge to understand something better, to resolve or at least to better understand a puzzle, paradox, dilemma or set of previously unsolved, unanswered questions. Much of my own research arises from questions students ask me and from question-and-

answer sessions on the lecture circuit. This is especially true when I find myself giving an answer I'm not wholly satisfied with and say to myself, "That's a good question, and it deserves a better answer."

Be as clear as possible about what it is you want to discover, prove or disprove. What is the central issue? Define it. Explore its origins and historical development. Explain its consequences. If it is a policy, process or constitutional interpretation, you may want to explain its effects on current and future political behavior. Try to discern the underlying assumptions held by groups advocating change or the status quo. In what ways do different schools of thought define the problem differently--and why?

You will want to clarify the topic by gathering and comprehending as much material, qualitative and quantitative, as you can acquire. Be sure to conduct a thorough search of library literature and documents. Doubtless you will sometimes discover works that have already answered or at least addressed parts of your topics. Explore the availability of survey and polling data that may shed light on the problem. You may find, too, that interviewing knowledgeable professors, experts and present or former public officials will be necessary and productive. Never underestimate the talents of the school's librarians, especially those who are specialists with reference works and government documents. They can become your greatest allies.

Prepare a list of likely solutions or likely answers to your research questions. Formulate competing explanatory propositions or hypotheses and subject them to the most rigorous testing you can undertake. Be as clear as you can about cause-and-effect relationships. Clarify your dependent and independent variables. Don't be constrained by conventional wisdom, or the dominant mind-set or paradigms of the day. The way we look at problems and possible solutions is extraordinarily conditioned by how we have been socialized by the fashionable cultural norms of the day. Yet inventions, scientific breakthroughs and better answers often come only when we can step outside the prevailing paradigms, the prevailing way we have been taught to look at things. Disregard the received wisdom and ask bold questions and pose fresh possibilities. This is easier to suggest than to do.

Logical reasoning is important at this point. You will want to test, as systematically as you can, the plausible explanations you have raised. With a bit of ingenuity, you can test solutions to difficult problems without making each particular test a two-year enterprise. Please appreciate, however, that empirical tests and the most rigorous forms of logical reasoning are indispensable to building the body of reliable knowledge needed to arrive at your conclusions.

Remember, too, that information is merely a distant cousin of knowledge. Information and findings are important as intermediate phases of your research. You are asked in addition, however, to make sense of what you have found.

Description yields understanding; understanding yields or can lead to explanation; the best explanation can lead to models and predictions; and predictions that work lead to theory. We continually search for the predictable--to discover, describe, and, if possible verify the basic

laws of politics and governance. Although political science in some ways is an ancient discipline, it is also in several ways a youthful social science: Rigorous efforts to learn enough to allow us to explain and predict and develop models really began only in the last generation.

Most topics undergraduates tackle have already been written about by one or more scholars. Some of you will be put off by this. Your challenge...however...is to examine the problem with a fresh eye. Come at it differently. Place it in a fresh context. Genius is the ability to recombine, rethink, revise, "recontextualize," to see new linkages, discover new paradigms, put forth audacious new and more relevant explanations. The job of research and writing is to push things beyond where they are, to raise new questions, to bring the freshness that clarifies and points in promising new directions.

IV. SOURCES FOR POLITICAL SCIENCE RESEARCH

The following is a list of the Political Science Journals that are available in the Bierce Library and that you can use for writing papers.

1. THE AMERICAN ENTERPRISE
2. AMERICAN JOURNAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE
3. THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE REVIEW
4. AMERICAN POLITICS RESEARCH
5. THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF CANADIAN STUDIES
6. THE ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE
7. ANNUAL REPORT / THE BROOKINGS INSTITUTION
8. ARMED FORCES AND SOCIETY
9. ARMS CONTROL TODAY: A PUBLICATION OF THE ARMS CONTROL ASSOCIATION
10. ASIAN SURVEY
11. BRITISH JOURNAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE
12. THE BROOKINGS INSTITUTION MEDIA GUIDE
13. BROOKINGS PAPERS ON ECONOMIC ACTIVITY
14. BROOKINGS PAPERS ON EDUCATION POLICY
15. THE BROOKINGS REVIEW
16. BROOKINGS TRADE FORUM
17. BROOKINGS-WHARTON PAPERS ON FINANCIAL SERVICES
18. BROOKINGS-WHARTON PAPERS ON URBAN AFFAIRS
19. CAMPAIGNS & ELECTIONS
20. CANADIAN JOURNAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE. REVUE CANADIENNE DE SCIENCE POLITIQUE
21. CANADIAN PUBLIC POLICY. ANALYSE DE POLITIQUES
22. CHINESE LAW AND GOVERNMENT
23. COMMONWEALTH & COMPARATIVE POLITICS
24. COMPARATIVE POLITICAL STUDIES
25. COMPARATIVE POLITICS

26. COMPARATIVE STRATEGY
27. CRIMINOLOGY
28. ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL WEEKLY
29. EUROPE-ASIA STUDIES
30. FOREIGN AFFAIRS
31. FOREIGN POLICY
32. GLOBAL ENVIRONMENTAL POLITICS
33. GOVERNANCE
34. GOVERNMENT AND OPPOSITION
35. HUMAN RIGHTS QUARTERLY
36. INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
37. INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION
38. INTERNATIONAL POLITICAL SCIENCE REVIEW: IPSR = REVUE
39. INTERNATIONALE DE SCIENCE POLITIQUE: RISP
40. INTERNATIONAL SECURITY
41. INTERNATIONAL STUDIES PERSPECTIVES
42. INTERNATIONAL STUDIES QUARTERLY: A PUBLICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL STUDIES ASSOCIATION
43. INTERNATIONAL STUDIES REVIEW
44. JOURNAL OF DEVELOPING SOCIETIES
45. JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS
46. THE JOURNAL OF POLITICS
47. JOURNAL OF PUBLIC POLICY
48. JUSTICE QUARTERLY: JQ / ACADEMY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE SCIENCES
49. LATIN AMERICAN POLITICS AND SOCIETY
50. LAW AND SOCIETY REVIEW
51. LEGISLATIVE STUDIES QUARTERLY
52. THE MIDDLE EAST JOURNAL
53. MIDDLE EAST QUARTERLY
54. NEW PERSPECTIVES QUARTERLY: NPQ
55. ORBIS
56. PACIFIC AFFAIRS
57. THE PARLIAMENTARIAN
58. THE PEOPLE
59. PERSPECTIVES ON POLITICAL SCIENCE
60. POLICY SCIENCES
61. POLICY STUDIES JOURNAL
62. POLITICAL BEHAVIOR
63. THE POLITICAL QUARTERLY
64. POLITICAL RESEARCH QUARTERLY
65. POLITICAL SCIENCE
66. POLITICAL STUDIES
67. POLITICAL THEORY
68. POLITY
69. PRESIDENTIAL STUDIES QUARTERLY
70. PS, POLITICAL SCIENCE & POLITICS

71. PUBLIC BUDGETING & FINANCE
72. PUBLIUS
73. THE REVIEW OF POLITICS
74. RUSSIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE REVIEW
75. SOCIETY
76. SOUTHEASTERN POLITICAL REVIEW
77. SPECTRUM / THE COUNCIL OF STATE GOVERNMENTS
78. STATE GOVERNMENT NEWS
79. STATE LEGISLATURES
80. STRATEGIC SURVEY
81. THE SUPREME COURT REVIEW
82. SURVIVAL
83. THIRD WORLD QUARTERLY
84. WOMEN & POLITICS
85. WORLD POLITICS
86. THE WORLD TODAY

Indexes

Apart from the various books and journals, indexes are available, which provide you with references to periodicals. You can access the Political Science Indexes/Databases at the university website:

<http://www.uakron.edu/library/gateway/look-for-articles/social.html>

A list of the Political Science Indexes/Databases is provided below:

- 1) **Political Science & Government Abstracts.**
- 2) **CIAO:** Columbia International Affairs Online (CIAO) is a database for theory and research in international affairs. CIAO provides access to the full-text of a wide variety of materials, including: conference proceedings, working papers, occasional papers, books and policy briefs. CIAO also indexes a selected group of journals in the area of international relations.
- 3) **Congressional Universe:** Part of Lexis-Nexis. Great source for the study of United States government. Includes the full-text of Congressional testimony, bills, committee reports and the congressional Record.
- 4) **National Journal Group's Policy Central:** Provides full-text access to the National Journal, the Almanac of American Politics and other resources for the study of United States government.
- 5) **PAIS:** Selective index of journal articles, reports and other materials covering a wide range of areas within political science. Some full-text.
- 6) **Social Sciences Citation Index:** Covers the journal literature of the social sciences. Useful for evaluating the influence and relevance of a particular article over time.
- 7) **Sociological Abstracts:** Includes articles from many journals in political science. Some full-text.

The aforementioned works are not the only good indexes. The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature is helpful, but it is useful primarily as a reference to popular magazines (Times, Newsweek, etc.), rather than to scholarly journals. In most instances, one should avoid very much reliance on such magazines. There are also a variety of specialized indexes and abstracts, which may occasionally be helpful to you.

The Congressional Quarterly Almanac, an annual publication, and the Congressional Quarterly Weekly Reports are good sources of information. They describe many of the activities of Congress, the President, executive agencies, and the federal courts.

Taking Notes

In addition to general reading on your selected topic, it will be necessary to collect information from specific sources. When you find information in books, journals, or public documents, it is best to record it either on index cards or on separate sheets of paper. The information drawn from each source should be briefly summarized on each card, with the source correctly and completely cited (including page numbers). Thus, when you are ready to write your paper, you can readily refer to the information that you have collected. Some people place a subject heading at the top of each card, thus making it easier to organize the data. If you quote statements taken from a work that you have read, you should clearly show that it is a direct quotation when you record it.

V. WRITING AND STYLE SUGGESTIONS

Outlining

Whether or not you place it in the paper as the base of a table of contents, an outline is absolutely essential for good writing. As Cronin (1986) says:

No wind is the right wind if you don't know where you're headed. In the past you may have just sat down and typed out a first draft, throwing it together by cutting and pasting odd descriptions and definitions and tagging on a rough description. This is unacceptable for papers in your major.

If you need further convincing, let us point out that it is much easier to change your outline than to rework the fully written version.

Writing and Revising

Even with the best outline, most papers do need revising anyway. Writers follow different practices here. Cronin argues that it is best first just to get one's ideas down on paper, then write out a version freely, and then "revise, revise, revise." Other writers prefer a more careful crafting the first time around, in hopes of avoiding a complete rewrite. Which of these works best for you is probably an individual matter. But in either case, remember one thing: Every writer needs an editor. As you will probably have to be both, you will have to make a conscious effort to change hats. One strategy is to let the draft sit for as long as possible and try to read it critically and coldly. Another, suggested by Cronin, is to read your early efforts out loud --to yourself if no other audience can be found. You will immediately discover all

sorts of errors, awkwardness, and just plain gabble you would never notice on paper. Reading aloud will also encourage you to write more naturally, with less stilted language.

What sorts of things should you look for in terms of potential revision? Cronin presents a good list of questions to ask yourself:

What is the problem? What is my main theme? How clear is my thesis? Have I presented it clearly and forcibly in the first few pages? Is there an apt, imaginative and fresh title? Have I stated clearly and early the questions that guided my research? Is there a unity that integrates the flow of problem development, argument, evidence presentation and logical reasoning? Is there a clear pattern of analysis? Have I provided adequate and balanced evidence? Have I provided adequate documentation and footnoted the major sources, documents, and interviews used in the paper? Do I present a convincing case and is this well summarized in the conclusion? Does my conclusion flow smoothly from the body of analysis and earlier discussion? Have I leaped to any premises, jumped to any conclusions? Is this an objective and scholarly exploration, or is it merely an exercise, as in the case of the trial lawyer who enters court and announces "these are the conclusions upon which I shall base my facts."

In short, will it persuade readers? Have complicated terms and concepts been explained in clear English? What have I learned? What is the significance of my findings? Is it highly readable? Have I brought a freshness to the analysis that both informs and enlightens? Do my findings help to develop predictive and theoretical models?

Stylistic Advice (Again, from Cronin)

Letting nouns and verbs do your talking helps you to be clear and precise. Short words, short sentences and short paragraphs are preferable to their opposites. The challenge is to avoid oversimplification as well as mindless complexification. Carefully selected nouns and verbs seldom need a string of adjectives and adverbs to amplify their meaning. When in doubt consult stylist E.B. White, who advised: Write with nouns and verbs; do not overwrite; do not overstate; avoid the use of qualifiers; do not explain too much; avoid fancy words; do not take shortcuts at the cost of clarity; prefer the standard to the offbeat; make sure the reader knows who is speaking; do not use dialect; and revise and rewrite.

Curb your use of phrasing that makes repetition necessary to keep the sentence on track; strings of nouns depending on one another; prepositions, conjunctions and adverbial expressions made up of two or more words: with reference to, in conjunction with, in the event that, in the nature of, as to whether. Also restrain the overuse of indefinite, vague introductory phrases or constant hedging such as: furthermore, moreover, the fact that, it is believed that, many, on the one hand, however, that which, notwithstanding, and to the contrary notwithstanding.

Omit unnecessary words. "First of all" (delete of all) "First and foremost" (delete and foremost). "Jack is a very strong hockey player" (delete very). The word very weakens the word strong. "He would claim that squash is easier than tennis" is better written "He claims

squash is easier than tennis." "My visit to Paris will always be remembered by me. "Try instead--"I will always remember my visit to Paris." Use now instead of of presently. Use thus instead of thusly. "When the Constitution was first adopted" can be shortened to: "When the Constitution was adopted." "It would do nothing of the sort" is better than, "This writer feels, though, that it would do nothing of the sort." Here are a few I particularly dislike: Needless to say, to say the least, that is to say, in summation.

Use the active voice. "Tom passed the bill," not "The bill was passed by Tom." "The White House slashed taxes," not "The taxes were slashed by the incumbent administration." The passive voice makes for sluggish reading. It slows the pace. "The active voice strikes like a boxer moving forward in attack" writes Theodore Bernstein in his book The Careful Writer. "The passive voice parries while backpedaling. "

Vary the length of sentences and paragraphs and vary how you begin sentences. Sentences all with seven words and paragraphs all with seven sentences bore your reader. Variety, counterpoint and change-up pitches grab the reader's attention. Always write directly to the reader. Keep your audience in mind--and awake. Nothing bores a reader more than a string of paragraphs of "Harry Truman said. ..." "Harry Truman declared. ..." "Harry Truman noted. ..." "President Truman pointed out..." Or "There was...." "There is...." "There are...." "There may be...." Innovate. Market your ideas.

Leads and conclusions are important. Your first two paragraphs are more important than you probably realize. Reporters often devote 60 percent of their energy to getting their leads right and jazzy. Why? Most readers never get beyond the first two paragraphs of most stories in newspapers and magazines. If journalists grab your attention up front, they are likely to hold your interest for the duration. Much depends on introducing vividly the theme, the major finding and the arresting angle or example that telegraphs the value or importance of the rest of the story.

Fortunately for you, dear student, your professor is being paid to read the rest of you paper. Don't count on a high interest level, however, unless you can make a case for its significance from the outset.

Use subtitles or subheadings to indicate transitions to new material or new sections. Subheadings can add to the paper's readability and, cleverly used, can help save words you might otherwise need to introduce a new section and explain transitions.

Conclusions are important. People carefully read the first and last paragraphs. Thus, treat your beginning and end as important opportunities. Properly crafted, they will invite a more serious reading of what lies between. Of course, if there is not much "beef" in between, you might as well as go ahead and botch your lead and summary.

VI. GRAMMAR, SPELLING, USAGE: PROBLEMS TO AVOID

Slovenly writing leaves just as bad an impression as slovenly dress. If you try to present yourself as an intelligent, educated person, while your writing reveals you as an ignoramus, an intellectual slob, or both, you have wasted at least four years and a lot of money. It is

therefore well worth your while for both your present grade and your long term development to keep your writing clean of errors in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. A good dictionary and a good style book are essential for this; so is the willingness to use them.

At the very least, you are strongly urged to commit the items below to memory, and write accordingly.

Terrible Pairs

Advice, Advise - **Advice** is a noun, while **advise** is a verb. Say, "Baker **advised** the President to sign the bill," but "He failed to follow the Secretary's **advice**."

Affect, Effect - Normally **affect** is a verb, and **effect**, a noun. Correct use, then, is: "The change in chairmen did not **affect** the committee's style," but "The **effect** was negligible." There are two relatively rare exceptions. **Affect** is a noun in some psychological jargon, and effect is a verb when it means "to put into **effect**," as in "The reorganization was **effected** on June 25."

Biennial, Biannual - **Biennial** means "every two years," just as centennial means "every hundred years." **Biannual** means "twice a year."

Capitol, Capital - **Capitol** refers only to the building, though it may appear in proper names like "Capitol Hill" or "Capitol Avenue." **Capital** refers to everything else, including **capital** punishment, business **capital**, and the city; Washington is the **capital** of the United States.

Continuously, Continually - **Continuously** refers to one uninterrupted sequence: "He represented Alabama **continuously** for 40 years." **Continually** means "again and again": "He **continually** interrupted."

Council, Counsel - A **council** is a group, such as the National Security **Council**, or a city **council**. **Counsel**, on the other hand, refers to advice, giving advice, or in legal terminology, a person (such as an attorney) who gives it: "unwise **counsel**," "to **counsel** the President," or "**counsel** for the defense."

Disinterested, Uninterested - **Disinterested** means neutral; **uninterested** is just bored or inattentive.

Fewer, Less - Used in adjective form, **fewer** typically refers to number, while **less** refers to quantity. Correct usage is: "He had **fewer** reasons to act," but "He had **less** reason to act"; "**Fewer** tanks were available," but "**Less** equipment was available. "**Less** may also be used as an adverb: "He was **less** willing to compromise on the abortion provision." But it is only rarely employed as a noun; do not use constructions like, "He had **less** of a reason to act."

Imply, Infer - To **imply** is to signify: "Johnson **implied** that he would not really object to the change. "To **infer** is to deduce: "Carter **inferred** that Begin would not compromise on the

point."

Irritate, Aggravate - To **irritate** is to irk or annoy; to **aggravate** is to make worse. Persons may be **irritated**, but only conditions (or assaults) can be **aggravated**.

It's, Its - **It's** is a contraction, meaning "it is." **Its** is the possessive pronoun: "**Its** purpose was to reduce the President's foreign policy powers." Note that in English possessive nouns always carry the 's (or s' if plural), but possessive pronouns never do ("their," "its," "hers").

Populace, Populous - The **populace** is a noun meaning the population: "The **populace** was up in arms." **Populous** is an adjective meaning heavily **populated**; China is the most **populous** nation in the world.

Predominate, Predominant - **Predominate** is a verb, **predominant** is an adjective ("The court ultimately **predominated** on this issue," but "It was the **predominant** theory.") The same goes for **dominate** and **dominant**.

President, Precedent - It is nearly impossible to believe students confuse the **President**, an official, with a legal **precedent**. But they do.

Principal, Principle - **Principal** usually an adjective meaning "main," as in, "the **principal** attraction," (exceptions are school **principals**, the **principal** on a loan, and, the **principal** for whom a legal agent acts). **Principle** is always a noun, as in "the basic **principle**."

Their, There - **Their** is a possessive pronoun; **there** is an adverb. If it helps any, keep in mind the phrase "here and **there**."

To, Too - **To** is normally a preposition or part of an infinitive: "The division was sent to Saudi Arabia," or "She voted **to** grant certiorari." **Too** is an adverb: "The Senator was far **too** arrogant to be popular"; "The Secretary of Commerce resigned **too**." This is the most elementary grammatical rule, but students either do not know about it, or fail to proofread their papers.

Which, That - **Which** has a rather restricted use in introducing descriptive clauses. If the clause is more or less parenthetical, and the sentence could make sense without it, set it off with commas and use **which** (for example, "The island, **which** is about four miles long, lies just east of Nassau"). **That** introduces most other descriptive clauses ("The bill **that** finally passed carried no criminal penalties.") But if the clause describes a person or persons, use **who** to introduce it whether it is parenthetical or not, as in the following: "The men **who** set off the bomb were never caught"; "The ambassador, **who** had only arrived the previous week, was completely befuddled." Often your problems with this whole subject can be eliminated by cleverly turning the clause into a phrase: "The island, about four miles long, lies just east of Nassau"; "The bill as finally passed carried no criminal penalties."

Who, Whom - Most of the time, the distinction is clear. Use **who** in the nominative case, as subject or predicate nominative ("the woman **who** accused him), and **whom** in the objective

case, as object of a verb or preposition ("to **whom** he was speaking"). The trouble comes when the writer gets tangled in subordinate clauses. There is no help for it; you have to figure out what function the word plays in its own clause. "He is one of the men **whom** the police are seeking" is correct; the police are seeking him. But "**He is the man who the police think is guilty**" is also correct; the police think he is guilty. Sometimes it is easier just to restructure the sentence: "**He is one of the men who is being sought by the police.**"

Common Construction Problems

Non-Parallel Constructions:

Use the same form in each item of any compound structure, as in these examples:

"He sought to control the agency, to improve its efficiency, and above all, to expand its budget."

"His aims were agency control, improved efficiency, and above all, an expanded budget."

"He was interested in controlling the agency, improving its efficiency, and above all, expanding its budget."

Scrambled eggs are quite palatable; scrambled sentences are not.

When and Where Clauses:

When and where as introductions to clauses should mean a time or place: "Seven a.m. is when the President normally arises"; "The Coral Sea was where Japan suffered its first major defeat of the war." Do not use constructions like, "Cloture is where they vote to stop debate"; there is no where there. You might, however, say, "Cloture is imposed when sixty senators vote to stop debate."

Run-on Sentences:

Two complete sentences joined only by a comma are still illicit unions in the grammatical world. Depending on the sentences, you may join them in matrimony with a conjunction, such as "and," "yet," or "but," or separate them with a semicolon. Better yet, just terminate the affair; put a period at the end of the first sentence and let the second get on with its life.

Tenses

Students tend to get themselves into terrible tangles with tenses, especially if they have to revise dated materials for a current paper. Though there is some leeway, each tense conveys a fairly distinct sense of sequence and duration. Here is a very brief guide to them.

Present - current and continuing: "He is running for office"; "She has a strong sense of justice"; "He exercises daily."

Past - over and done with: "He ran for President in 1968"; "He was visiting in Budapest when the rebellion erupted."

Present perfect - past, but continuing into the present: "He has never lost a race for office." Note that if he is dead or otherwise out of the picture, you would use the past tense: "He never lost a race for office." The "present" nature of this tense shows up in the verb used in subordinate clauses: "He has declared that he is not a candidate."

Past perfect - past and ended, but before some other event in the past: "The EEOC had never shown much interest in this area, but by the mid-1970's it was under heavy pressure to act." Note the combination of the past perfect in the main clause with the simple past tense in the subordinate clause.

Future - at a time certain: "He will be the youngest Attorney General in this century"; "He will meet with Gorbachev in September."

Future perfect - a continuing event ceases at a specified time in the future: "He will have served longer than any other Secretary of State."

Other Style Problems

Identifications. The first reference to a person usually requires full identification; "Chief Justice William Rehnquist"; "Senator Howard Metzenbaum (D-Oh)." Later references can use the last name only, or the title and last name.

Contractions are not normally used in formal writing. Say "do not," "they are," "would not," "cannot," and "it is," rather than "don't," "they're," "wouldn't," "can't," and "it's."

Possessives. The possessive for a singular noun adds " 's " to the end: "The President's annoyance was obvious." This applies even when the noun already ends in an "s" sound: "The Chief Justice's concern was to gain a unanimous decision." (However, if the word already ends in two "s" sounds, add an apostrophe only, as in "Moses' rod.")

Plural possessives just take the apostrophe, assuming they already end in "s": "The Democrats' plan is to push for immediate passage." If the plural does not end in "s," you must provide one, as in "Congressmen's goals," and "women's rights."

Words to Watch

Data - This is a plural noun; the singular is "datum." Therefore, "The data were collected..."

Media - This is the plural of "medium." Correct usage is, "The media were not interested."

Plus - "Plus" does not mean "and"; it is not a conjunction. It is a preposition and means "in addition to," "with the addition of," or "increased by." You therefore, cannot say, "The heat plus the humidity make the climate nearly intolerable." The correct usage is: "The heat plus the humidity makes the climate nearly intolerable."

Literally - Do not use "literally" when you really mean "figuratively." A general might "literally dance with pleasure," but it would be impossible for him to "literally explode in rage."

Redundancies to Avoid

advance planning (all planning is in advance) any and all ("all" includes "any")

at the present time (use either "at present" or "now")

both ...as well as (use either "both...and..." or "as well as" by itself) dead body end results

equally as (use either "equally" or "as...as...")

estimated at about (use either "estimated at" or "about") if and when

join together

one and the same

personal friend (just "friend")

remand back (remand means to send back) the reason is because

self-confessed (just "confessed") true facts

Correct Spellings

all right ideological

a lot independent

appropriate influential

argument – not argement judgument – not judgement, unless you're British

attorneys lobbyist

Britain possess

Bureaucracy prejudice

Business receive

Campaign reciprocal

Defendants scandal

Develop – not develop separate

Disastrous – not disastrous statute

Environment suffrage - not suffrage

Genuine whether

Guerrilla - the soldier

VII. TECHNICAL INSTRUCTIONS: PAPER COMPONENTS

All papers should be typed double-spaced, with pages numbered.

There must be a separate title page.

A table of contents, essentially an outline of the paper, is not required. But it usually indicates that the writer has thought about the organization of the paper, and is often advantageous to the student in terms of grading. If included, it follows the title page.

Data tables are normally typed on separate pages, and may be inserted either in the text as each is mentioned, or at the end of the paper after the reference section. Each table must be given a number and a heading, with the rows and columns also plainly labeled. The reader should be able to interpret the table without reference to the text; therefore care must be used in construction. Make clear whether the data are frequencies, percentages, or specified other statistics. Indicate the number of cases used as the percentage base for each column (or row, if that is used as the base).

If the table comes from another published source, or if there are special notations, that information is placed in single-spaced format below the table.

Drawn figures are also numbered in a separate sequence, given a heading and treated with the same technical care as tables, and placed after them (or in the appropriate spots in the text).

Some papers include an appendix (or appendices). If you wish to present a document, a long methodological digression, or a lot of raw data, an appendix is the place to store it. The reader is then free to decide whether or not to peruse it. Label the appendices, give each a letter if there is more than one, and place them right after the body of the text.

Each paper must contain a list of references. Proper reference style is discussed along with footnotes and citations in Section VIII.

The overall sequence therefore is:

Title Page
Table of Contents

Text of paper
Appendix
Notes
References
Tables
Figures

VIII. FOOTNOTES, CITATIONS, AND REFERENCES

This section is meant to provide students with general guidelines about footnoting and citations. Individual teachers may have specific preferences about the style and format of your citations. Students should check with their faculty member to determine their requirements and footnote and cite accordingly.

Footnotes

At one time numbered footnotes were the required form for all citations of sources. Because their format is such a nuisance to follow, however, most professional journals have abandoned them in favor of the citation form (see below). Numbered footnotes are now used for digressions, tidbits of information the writer cannot bear to omit, or cynical comments - anything that would otherwise interrupt the flow of the paper. If needed, these can be typed separately, labeled "Notes," and placed just before the list of references.

Citations

The following section provides a discussion referring to the APSA Style of citation. However, your professor may require you to follow an alternative style (Chicago Manual Style, Modern Language Association, the American Psychological Association format, etc).

This and the section on references are drawn directly from the APSA Style Manual, which the department has adopted. Citations are used to give credit where it is due. Failing to give that credit is plagiarism (see Section I). The following three reasons for citations, developed by Stillman (1984), may serve as a general guide for you.

1. Not only to indicate the source of every direct quotation but also [to show] when a passage is paraphrased or the substance of an idea is borrowed.
2. To indicate the authority for every important statement of fact that is not a matter of common knowledge. Citations provide the reader with a means not only for verifying the writer's statements, but also for pursuing a particular question beyond the paper at hand.
3. To acknowledge each conclusion or inference drawn from another source.

Citations are brief notes on sources, appearing parenthetically in the text. They are designed

to satisfy the reader's immediate curiosity without interrupting the flow.

Works are cited where their findings or conceptual definitions arise. The citation usually includes only the last name of the author(s) and the year of publication in parentheses. When there are two different authors who have the same name, a first initial should be used to distinguish between them-

...the increased role of amateurs (Wilson, 1962).

...reported in several studies (C. Hermann, 1978; M. Hermann, 1980).

If the author's name is used in the text itself, follow it with the year of publication in parentheses:

Page (1978) links these findings...

Aldrich and McGinnis (1983) provide an extension...

For two authors, use both names each time:

(Jones and Smith, 1984)

For three or more authors, cite all names the first time and the first author followed by "et al." later:

...rooted in the psychology of groups (Campbell, Converse, Miller, and Stokes, 1960, chs. 6 and 7)

...major social upheavals such as those of the New Deal (Campbell et al., 1960, p. 150)...

Note, in the last example, the method for citing chapters and pages within a work; these should appear in the citations rather than the references. (Wherever possible, citations should include specific chapters or pages.)

If more than one work is cited in a pair of parentheses, separate with a semicolon. (Durkheim, 1966; Trubek, 1972; Weber, 1947)

To cite two works by the same author, separate the years of publication with commas: (Black, 1973, 1975)

To distinguish works by the same author published in the same year, assign letters after the dates of publication and use the letters also in the reference section:

(Jackson, 1975a)

(Jackson, 1975a, b; 1983)

Historical Citations:

The reference section should refer the reader to the current source for a historical work:

(Freud, 1961, ch. 2)

(Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, 1960)

Citations to classical authors such as Thucydides, Aristotle, and Plato may use standard forms identified in an opening note:

I cite Thucydides according to the standard form: book, paragraph and, when necessary, sentence (e.g., 3.46.2); unless otherwise noted, all the translations are my own.

I cite Plato according to the standard Stephanus pagination; I have used Bloom's translation, Plato (1968).

Government Documents:

Details on government documents should be in the reference section. For citations in the text, the name of the source, date, and page number in parentheses suffice:

(Congressional Record, September 20, 1977, p. H6)

(Senate Foreign Relations Committee Print, January 10, 1980, p. 24)

(Papers of President Ronald Reagan, February 23, 1981, p. 10)

Citations to all other public documents may use the standard form identified in an opening note. For further information, see the [Chicago Manual of Style](#).

Legal Citations:

Legal citations include the case name, year, and page number if warranted:

(Baker v. Carr, 1962, p. 190)

More complete citations belong in the reference section. (If possible, use the U.S. Reports for Supreme Court decisions; this source is preferable to the Lawyers' Edition or Supreme Court Reporter.)

Repeated Citations:

Repeat a citation each time it is necessary. Avoid "ibid.," "op.cit.," or "supra."

Be sure that every cited work is included in the reference section and that the spellings of the authors' names and dates of publications are accurate in both citations and references.

References

Citations direct attention to the more detailed references, which provide complete source information to aid further research.

The following examples show proper forms for common kinds of references. Note that references are listed alphabetically by author. When several works by the same author are listed, they should appear in chronological order, with the earliest publication first. Titles of articles and papers are not enclosed in quotation marks. Issue number and month of publication are omitted unless indispensable for identification. Use first names rather than initials in references.

Books:

One author: _

Bemstein, Theodore. 1980. *The Careful Writer: A Modern Guide to English Usage*. New York: Atheneum.

Note that no parentheses are necessary. The author's name and the date--the bits of information in the citations--appear first, followed by the book title, place, and publisher. Chapter and page numbers should be in the citation, not the reference.

-

Two authors, new edition: _

Strunk, William Jr., and E. B. White. 1979. *The Elements of Style*, 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan.

The last name comes first for the initial author only.

Edited book: _

Dodd, Lawrence C., and Bruce I. Oppenheimer, eds., 1981. *Congress Reconsidered*, 2nd ed. Washington: CQ Press.

Article in an edited book: _

Jones, Charles O. 1968. *Inter-Party Competition for Congressional Seats*. In Samuel C. Patterson, ed., *American Legislative Behavior*. Princeton: Van Nostrand. _

The state of publication is specified only if the city is not well known or may be confused with another place, e.g., Cambridge or Columbus. Use postal abbreviations: MA, OH, NJ, DC.

Journal Articles:

One author:

Lipset, Seymour Martin. 1983. Radicalism or Reformism: The Sources of Working-Class Politics. *American Political Science Review*, 77:1- 18.

The volume number follows the title and is followed by a colon and the appropriate page numbers.

Two or more authors:

Stevens, Arthur, Arthur Miller, and Thomas Mann. 1974. Mobilization of Liberal Strength in the House, 1955-1970. *American Political Science Review*, 68:667-681.

Article in press:

Niemi, Richard G. Forthcoming. The Problem of Strategic Behavior Under Approval Voting. *American Political Science Review*.

Newspaper and Magazine Articles:

Authored article:

Wicker, Tom. March 4, 1975. Energy Plan in Sight. *New York Times*.

Anonymous author:

Why Vote at All? June 20, 1980. *Time*, pp. 14-15.

The reference section supplies inclusive page numbers for periodicals. The citation, with an anonymous author, is like:

(Why Vote at All? 1980, p. 14)

Historical References:

Madison, James. 1961. Federalist 10. In Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay, *The Federalist Papers*. Clinton Rossiter, ed. New York: New American Library. (Original work published in 1788).

The original publication date is given in parentheses when possible. The recent edition, however, is the one researchers will be able to consult most readily.

English Translations:

Freud, Sigmund. 1961. The Ego and the Id. In John Strachey, ed. and trans. *The*

Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud. Vol. 19. London: Hogarth Press. (Original work published in 1923.)

Sources in Foreign Languages:

Translate titles of books and long articles (in brackets, not underlined); do not translate the names of well-known periodicals. Romanized or foreign language words after the first word (except **for** proper names and for nouns in German) ordinarily begin with small letters.

Government Documents:

The method of referring to government documents varies, but these forms should prove adequate.

U.S. Congress, House. June 5, 1983. Congressional Record. 98th Cong., 1st sess. Washington: Government Printing Office.

U.S. Congress. Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. April, 1984. Report on Covert Aid to Central America. 98th Cong., 2nd sess. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Reagan, Ronald. 1981. Papers of President Ronald Reagan. Washington: Government Printing Office.

United Kingdom. 1879. Hansard Parliamentary Debates. 3rd ser., Vol. 249.

The "author" and date come first followed by the title (in italics) and the term, session, place of publication, and publisher.

Legal References:

Use the standard form for legal references (cases):

Baker v. Carr, 369 U.S. 186 (1962)

Early in the Supreme Court's history, cases were identified by the recording clerk's name rather than by volume number. The correct reference would be:

Marbury v. Madison, 1 Cranch 137 (1803).

Lower federal court cases follow the same form:

Smith v. Jones, 3895 4th Cir. 101 (1975).

Unpublished Papers Delivered at Meetings:

Cooper, Joseph, and David W. Brady. 1973. Organization Theories and

Congressional Structure. Presented at the annual meeting of the American Political Science Association, New Orleans, LA.

Unpublished Manuscript:

Smith, Barbara A. 1984. Financial Accounting in Government Chartered Corporations. Unpublished manuscript.

Television and Radio Programs:

Occasionally, material presented in news broadcasts or documentaries is quoted in articles. The relevant information should appear in the reference section as follows:

CBS News. November 18, 1984. Sixty Minutes._

National Public Radio. September 10, 1984. All Things Considered._

Online Sources

(The following is excerpted from Scott M. Gregory and Garrison M. Stephen, "The Political science Student Writer's Manual," 2000, p. 337).

For online sources, first, identify the type of online source you are citing (book, article, etc.). Then, use the standard APSA citation for that type of source, followed by the date on which the researcher accessed the source and the electronic address, as in the following:

Online book

Bibb, Dodger. 1998. How to Administer Anything. Natchez: Weasel Press. 9 July 1999 <<http://www.snafu.com/BS/INDX.html>>.

Online journal

Dowdy, Caron. 1999. "The Suffering of Others: Counting Beans in a Bureaucracy." Political Science Tomorrow 2:14-37. 12 April 1999 <http://www.newrgme.com/Istls06.html>

Online newspaper

Jenkins, Stella. 1999. "Local Government Faces Changes." Enid Democrat Online, 18 October 1999. 2 November 1999 <http://www.enidpap.com/special264.htm>

Remember that the second date (2 November 1999) is the date on which you accessed the source.

Other source

If the online material is not in a standard format (book, article, etc.), but is in another format (home page, advertisement, etc.), follow the APSA style format as closely as possible,

providing information on the author, title and date of the source as well as the date on which the source was accessed and the internet address:

Robbins, Luther. 1999. "Luther Robbins' Home Page," 13 May 1999. 2 November 1999 <<http://www.lutherrobins.com/>>.

If a lengthy electronic address must be broken at the end of a line, do so only after a backlash (/).

Sources Cited in this Pamphlet:

Stillman, Richard J. 1984. Instructor's Guide Teaching Public Administration Creatively Public Administration: Concepts and Cases, 3rd. ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Cronin, Thomas A. 1986. The Write Stuff. News for Teachers of Political Science 49: 1-5.

Bernstein, Robert and James Dyer. 1984. An Introduction to Political Science Methods, 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

APSA Style Manual. Fall 1985.

Kirszner, G. Laurie and Mandell R. Stephen. 2000. The Pocket Holt Handbook, Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

THE COMMA

(The following is excerpted from Kirszner G. Laurie, and Mandell R. Stephen, "The Pocket Holt Handbook," 2000, pp. 72-87)

Setting Off Independent Clauses

Use a comma when you form a compound sentence by linking two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so) or a pair of correlative conjunctions.

The House approved the bill, but the Senate rejected it.
Either the hard drive is full, or the modem is too slow.

NOTE: You may omit the comma if two clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction are very short.

Seek and ye shall find. Love it or leave it.

Setting Off Items in a Series

Use commas between items in a series of three or more coordinate elements (words, phrases, or clauses).

Chipmunk, raccoon, and Mugwump are Native American words.

You may pay by check, with a credit card, or in cash.

Brazilians speak Portuguese, Colombians speak Spanish, and Haitians speak French and Creole.

NOTE: To avoid ambiguity, always use a comma before the coordinating conjunction that separates the last two items in a series.

Do not use a comma to introduce or to close a series.

Wrong

Three important criteria are, fat content, salt content, and taste.

Correct

Three important criteria are fat content, salt content, and taste.

Wrong

The provinces Quebec, Ontario, and Alberta, are in Canada.

Correct

The provinces Quebec, Ontario, and Alberta are in Canada.

Use a comma between items in a series of two or more **coordinate adjectives**-adjectives that modify the same word or word group-unless they are joined by a conjunction.

She brushed her long, shining hair.

The baby was tired and cranky and wet.

If you can reverse the order of the adjectives or insert and between the adjectives without changing the meaning, the adjectives are coordinate, and you should use a comma.

She brushed her long, shining hair.

She brushed her shining, long hair.

She brushed her long [and] shining hair.

If you cannot, the adjectives are not coordinate, and you should not use a comma.

Ten red balloons fell from the ceiling.

Red ten balloons fell from the ceiling.

Ten [and] red balloons fell from the ceiling.

Setting Off Introductory Elements

An introductory dependent clause, verbal phrase, or prepositional phrase is generally set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

Although the CIA used to call undercover agents penetration agents, they now routinely refer to them as moles. (dependent clause)

Pushing onward, Scott struggled toward the Pole. (verbal phrase)

During the Depression, movie attendance rose. (prepositional phrase)

If the clause or phrase is short, you may omit the comma-provided the sentence will be clear without it.

When I exercise I drink plenty of water.

After the exam I took a four-hour nap.

Also use a comma to acknowledge the omission of a repeated word, usually a verb, and to separate words repeated consecutively.

Pam carried the box; Tim, the suitcase.

Everything bad that could have happened, happened.

Editing Misused Commas

Do not use commas in the following situations.

1) To Set Off Restrictive Modifiers

Wrong:

The film, Malcolm X, was directed by Spike Lee.

They planned a picnic, in the park.

Correct:

The film Malcolm X was directed by Spike Lee.

They planned a picnic in the park.

2) Between a Subject and Its Predicate

Wrong:

A woman with dark red hair, opened the door.

Correct:

A woman with dark red hair opened the door.

3) Between a Verb and an Indirect Quotation

Wrong:

General Douglas Mac Arthur vowed, that he would return.

Correct:

General Douglas Mac Arthur vowed that he would return.

4) Between Compounds That Are Not Independent Clauses

Wrong:

During the 1400s plagues, and pestilence were common. (compound subject)

Many women thirty-five and older are returning to college, and tend to be good students. (compound sentence)

Correct:

During the 1400s plagues and pestilence were common.

Many women thirty-five and older are returning to college and tend to be good students.

5) Before a Dependent Clause at the End of a Sentence

Wrong:

Jane Addams founded Hull House, because she wanted to help Chicago's poor.

Correct:

Jane Addams founded Hull House because she wanted to help Chicago's poor.

THE APOSTROPHE

Use an apostrophe to form the possessive case, to indicate omissions in contractions, and to form certain plurals.

Forming the Possessive Case

The possessive case indicates ownership. In English the possessive case of nouns and indefinite pronouns is indicated either with a phrase that includes the word of (the hands of the clock) or with an apostrophe and, in most cases, an s (the clock's hands).

1) Singular Nouns and Indefinite Pronouns

To form the possessive case of singular nouns and indefinite pronouns, add -'s.

When we would arrive was anyone's guess.

NOTE: For some singular nouns that end in –s, pronouncing the possessive ending as a separate syllable can sound awkward; in such cases, it is acceptable to use just an apostrophe: Crispus Attucks' death, Aristophanes' Lysistrata.

2) Plural Nouns

To form the possessive case of regular plural nouns (those that end in –s or –es), add only an apostrophe.

Two weeks' severance pay and three months' medical benefits
The Lopezes' three children

To form the possessive case of nouns that have irregular plurals, add –'s.

The Children's Hour is a play by Lillian Hellman.

3) Compound Nouns or Groups of Words

To form the possessive case of compound words or of groups of words, add -'s to the last word.

the Secretary of State's resignation
someone else's responsibility

4) Two or More Items

To indicate individual ownership of two or more items, add -'s to each item.

Ernest Hemingway's and Gertrude Stein's writing styles have some similarities.

To indicate joint ownership, add -'s only to the last item.

We studied Lewis and Clark's expedition.

APOSTROPHES WITH PLURAL NOUNS AND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Do not use apostrophes with plural nouns that are not possessive.

Wrong:

The Thompson's are out.

Correct:

The Thompsons are out.

Do not use apostrophes to form the possessive case of personal pronouns.

Wrong:

This ticket must be your's or her's

Correct:

This ticket must be yours or hers.

NOTE: Be careful not to confuse **contractions** with the possessive forms of personal pronouns.

Contraction Possessive Form

Who's on first? Whose book is this?

They're playing our song. Their team is winning.

It's raining. Its paws were muddy.

You're a real pal. Your resume is very impressive.

Using Quotation Marks with Other Punctuation

Quotation marks come after the comma or period at the end of a quotation.

Many, like Frost, think about "the road not taken," but not many have taken "the one less traveled by."

Quotation marks come before a semicolon or colon at the end of a quotation.

Students who do not pass the test receive "certificates of completion"; those who pass are awarded diplomas.

Taxpayers were pleased with the first of the candidate's promised "sweeping new reforms": a balanced budget.

If a question mark, exclamation point, or dash is part of the quotation, place the quotation marks after the punctuation.

"Who's there?" she demanded.

“Stop!” he cried.

“Should we leave now, or-” Vicki paused, unable to continue.

If a question mark, exclamation point, or dash is not part of the quotation, place the quotation marks before the punctuation.

Did you finish reading “The Black Cat”?

Whatever you do, don’t yell “Uncle”!

The first-story-Updike’s “A & P”-provoked discussion.

Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

Claire noted, “Liberace always said, ‘I cried all the way to the bank.’ ”

Also use single quotation marks within a quotation to indicate a title that would normally be enclosed in double quotation marks.

I think what she said was, “Play it, Sam. Play ‘As Time Goes By.’ ”

Use double quotation marks around quotations or titles within a long prose passage.