



# Essential Actions for Academic Writing: A Genre-Based Approach

## ONLINE SOURCE USE APPENDIX

NIGEL A. CAPLAN AND ANN M. JOHNS



# *Essential Actions for Academic Writing*

## Online Source Use Appendix

Most academic writing tasks in college, university, and graduate school require you to use sources. In fact, at least one expert defines college-level writing as the ability to read and respond to sources that contain complex ideas (Sullivan, 2011). By a **source**, we mean anything you read, hear, or watch from which you take information, claims, ideas, or words to use in your own writing. The most common sources in many classes are the textbook or course materials and lectures. However, for some assignments, you will also need to use articles that were assigned and other sources that you find in the library or on the internet.

This appendix introduces the key skills in using sources that you will need for all your academic writing: analyzing assignments, selecting and evaluating sources, taking notes, quoting and paraphrasing the sources, citing appropriately, and consulting a style guide for references. The appendix does not have any writing tasks because you will refer to it while working on other units and projects in *Essential Actions for Academic Writing*.

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## Analyzing an Assignment



Since sources are so important to most college writing, the types of sources you use in an assignment are one of the components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel. This means you need to explore the syllabus and other aspects of your classroom context and pay close attention to the assignment details, and not just for what they tell you about the sources required.

When you are ready to focus on a specific writing assignment that requires sources, consider some of these questions. Some answers may be provided in the syllabus or assignment, but for others you may need to ask your instructor.

1. Why do I need to use sources in this assignment?
2. How will the sources contribute to the text I write?
3. How do the sources relate to what we have been studying? What are the relationships between concepts or ideas in the sources selected and the goals of the class?
4. How many sources do I need to use? Is there a minimum or maximum number?
5. Do I need to find my own sources, or will they be provided?
6. Should I draw from both classroom sources (the lecture, the textbook and course materials) and outside sources?
7. What kinds of sources should I select? Are there some types of sources that I am not permitted to cite?
8. Do I need to look for sources that are written for a general audience or an expert audience?
9. If I need to select some or all of the sources, where should I look for them?
10. Was the reference style for using sources specified in the instructions or the syllabus?

### Activity 1: Purposes for Using Sources

Read this prompt for a writing assignment in a history class. What requirements for source use does the prompt provide?

Research a historical event since 1945 utilizing primary or secondary sources; from your research, write a 4- to 5-page paper identifying and explaining the different claims and interpretations about the event found in the sources used.

*Steps in the Assignment:*

- Identify an event to be researched.
- Develop an analytical research question.
- Identify relevant sources (at least 5).
- Write an annotated bibliography for each source, using MLA style. Annotations should briefly summarize the source and critique the usefulness of the source for answering the research question.
- Compare and contrast the information provided from the sources. Identify similarities and differences and consider reasons for the differences.
- Write a research report identifying and explaining the similarities and differences in the sources' varying opinions and interpretations. Integrate quotations and citations in the text of the paper, using appropriate MLA manuscript requirements.

Why do students need to use sources in response to this history assignment?

1. To give authority to my argument or explanation.
2. To add facts, information, or statistics to a text.
3. To define key terms.
4. To add an image, video, chart, or graph to a text.
5. To demonstrate the source-writer's knowledge of the subject.
6. To add an example.
7. To show that other people support with an idea or claim in the text.
8. To give a voice to people who disagree with an idea in the text.
9. To show the history of an idea.

10. To describe a problem or solution.
11. To avoid plagiarism.
12. Or another purpose? \_\_\_\_\_

Which of these reasons for using sources have you seen in other writing assignments?  
Discuss your answers with a partner or small group.

## Finding Useful Sources

### Searching the Internet

In this and other courses, you may need to conduct independent research to find sources for some of your writing. After you have analyzed the assignment and determined that you need to find your own sources, your first instinct is probably to search the internet. This can often lead you to good information, but you may also devote a great deal of time to your search or find sources that you cannot use. You can improve the efficiency and accuracy of your searches with these expert tips (based on Wineburg & McGrew, 2017):

- Be precise in your search: If you are looking for reliable information about the impact of air travel on climate change, you cannot just search for “air travel” or “climate change.” Try adding more words to your search, such as
  - Air travel industry climate change
  - Airlines impact pollution
  - Environmental impact air travel
- Some search engines provide Suggested Search Terms at the bottom of the results page. Look for terms that might be useful.
- Make sure you are clicking on articles not ads. Many search pages place advertisements at the top of the page. They are sometimes only labeled with a very small marker such as Ad.
- Read past the first few links. Sometimes search engines correctly display the most useful information at the top of the page, but those results are influenced by many factors that are not always relevant to you. Keep looking down the page and beyond the first page of results.

- Open more than one tab in your browser window. This allows you to keep several pages open at the same time and compare the information from different sources. When you see a link you like, use your mouse to open it in a new tab or window.
- In most search results, you will see a snippet, or a short extract from the site, under each link. Read this to help decide whether to click on a link.
- When you open a link, take a minute to find the author(s) and purpose(s) of the page. Ask yourself if they make the site reliable.
- Wikipedia can be useful for an overview of a topic. Well-researched Wikipedia entries have references at the bottom where you can check the information and learn more.

## Activity 2: Finding Online Sources

Answer the questions about online sources.

1. What are the different possible purposes that web pages might have (for example, to report news or to sell products)?
2. How can you identify the purpose of a web page?
3. Search for a topic you are currently studying or one of these topics: benefits of nuclear power, treatments for the flu, origins of jazz music, or materials used for road surfaces. What search terms did you use?
4. Is there a useful Wikipedia page on the topic you chose? Why do you think it is useful?
5. Find two or three other search results that are useful. Who is the author of each page? What is the purpose of each page? Is each page useful for your current writing project?

## Using Library Catalogs and Databases

Some assignments require you to find academic sources, peer-reviewed sources, or library sources. For these, you will need access to an academic library. Your college or university or local library almost certainly has both print and digital resources you can use for your research.

One type of source that you will find in a library database is the **peer-reviewed academic journal**. Academic journals publish the latest research and reviews written by professors, researchers, and sometimes graduate students. In a peer-reviewed journal, articles are only published after other experts (the author's peers) have read it and recommended whether or not the research is good enough to publish. Therefore, peer-reviewed journals are considered reliable sources. However, since they are written by experts for experts, they can be difficult to read. Many journals are not freely available on the internet, so you will not find them without using your library resources. Library databases usually also include news sources, magazines, government publications, and professional publications (called *trade journals*). These may be easier to understand.

### Activity 3: Searching for Library Sources

Since every catalog and database is different, you should contact a librarian for help using these tools. Follow these steps to search a database or catalogue that you have access to:

1. Start with the assignment prompt for your current assignment or project. Why do you need to find library sources? How will you use them in your paper?
2. What topics or ideas from the assignment should you search for?
3. List several possible search terms you can use to find information. Think about synonyms (words with similar meanings), place names that are relevant to your topic, specific terminology, and groups of people who are connected to or affected by the topic.
4. In a library database, you usually write one term on each line and connect them with AND or OR. This is different from an internet search, where you can type all the search terms together. If your term has more than one word, type quotation marks (" ") around it so the database keeps the words together. For example, you might search for "air travel" AND "air pollution" OR "climate change."
5. Think about the types of sources available, such as peer-reviewed journals, news sources, magazines, trade journals, and government publications. Which ones are useful for the assignment you're working on?

6. When you find a source that looks useful, read the abstract (summary) if it is available and then the introduction. If you don't understand the language of the title, the abstract, and the introduction, you probably will not be able to read the article. Remember that library databases often contain sources that are targeted at different users, from first-year undergraduates and graduate students to scientists, professors, and researchers.
7. Examine the authors' names and the References or Works Cited page. Do you recognize some of the authors? Would some of the references used for this paper be important to look up?
8. Skim the article. Ask yourself: How will I use this source? Do I need to read all of it, or just some sections (e.g., the discussion but not the methodology)?
9. Save the articles you want to use so that you have all the information you will need for the citation and reference later.

## Evaluating the Reliability of Sources

You have now selected some sources that you believe will be valuable for your assignment, but there are additional steps to evaluate them before you write your paper. The internet can be a vast source of evidence, examples, and supporting citations for your writing. However, it can also lead you to unreliable websites, inaccurate information, and complete lies. You may also need to evaluate the information you find in library databases.

Researchers have discovered an important difference between the ways that students and professional fact-checkers evaluate information (Wineburg & McGrew, 2017). Fact-checkers are people who work for news organizations and other institutions whose job is to check the accuracy of information from sources or the internet. A key difference Wineburg and McGrew found is that fact-checkers open several tabs in their browser window so they can read **about** a source and not just read **within** the source, as students often do.

You can ensure that the supporting evidence you have found is reliable, accurate, and useful for your writing by using four strategies (Caulfield, 2017, 2019). The strategies have a helpful acronym: **SIFT**.

1. **Stop.** When you find a website or source, ask yourself: Do I know the source of information? Can I trust it? Have I seen the author's name in other readings for this class or in other reliable sources?
2. **Investigate the source.** Read what other people say about the source (the publication, author, etc.). Remember that a trustworthy publication will probably have a Wikipedia page, so if Wikipedia has never heard of your source, it could well be a fake. Conduct an internet search for the site itself (i.e., type the name of the source or the website into a search engine) to see if the publication has a hidden purpose or agenda. This might change the way you read and use the evidence as support in your writing. Search for more information about the writers: Are they reliable authorities on the topic? Or, alternatively, is an author's purpose or agenda something you can use or argue against in your paper?
3. **Find trusted coverage.** Look online to see if someone else has already fact-checked the author's claim or provided a synthesis of research. Good sites for this include [www.politifact.com](http://www.politifact.com), [www.snopes.com](http://www.snopes.com) and sometimes [www.wikipedia.com](http://www.wikipedia.com). Search for other sources that confirm the information or make a similar claim. That will give you more confidence in the ideas.
4. **Trace back to the original context.** Much of the web content is not original. Get to the original source to understand the trustworthiness of the information. For example, you might click on links or look for footnotes in your source, or search for a key sentence or idea. This is especially important with websites like [www.wikipedia.com](http://www.wikipedia.com) because you can check the accuracy and find the original source of the information you are reading. It is also true for magazines, newspapers, and websites that summarize research. Try to cite the original source, not another writer's summary.

When searching online, you should be aware of a number of common problems:

1. Some websites look similar to authoritative websites but in fact distribute incorrect or highly biased opinions. The *About* page and the URL are not much help (anyone can buy a website that ends *.org*, for example, so this does not indicate the information is reliable). However, a quick internet search will often tell you if the site is reputable. Search for the title of the publication, excluding the publication's own website (e.g. "the scientist magazine –site:www.the-scientist.com"). If you cannot find the information that way, look it up on <https://whois.icann.org/en>.

2. Just because an author is an expert in one area does not make them an expert in another! If a professor of biology has only ever published articles about frogs, we would not expect them to be an expert on antibiotic resistance or viruses. You can search for authors on Google Scholar ([www.scholar.google.com](http://www.scholar.google.com)) or in a large library database to see the topics that they are experts on. You might also be able to find their professional or personal websites or social media profiles. Remember, though, that an opinion expressed on a personal website is just a personal opinion, even if the website has a *.edu* (education) address.
3. Photographs can be powerful evidence, but they can also easily be manipulated. If you search for the caption of the photograph, you might find that it has another source (i.e., trace the original context). You can also use a reverse image search to check that the photograph does not come from an entirely different story.
4. Quotations are often attributed to the wrong person on social media, the internet, and even in news sources. If you cannot trace the original source to quote (and not just other people claiming that it's a quotation), you should probably avoid using it as support in your writing.

#### Activity 4: Evaluating Information

Use Caulfield's (2017) SIFT strategies to evaluate the accuracy and reliability of some of these claims that can be found on the internet. List the strategies you used and sites you visited to evaluate the information. Discuss your findings in a small group or write your evaluation in a short paper or online discussion board post.

1. Albert Einstein defined madness as "doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results."
2. Canadians may have to pay a \$1000 fine if they are stopped for eating while driving.
3. According to the Employment Policies Institute, raising the minimum wage would cause millions of job losses in the United States.
4. Eating green vegetables will improve your eyesight.
5. To be accepted at a top-tier university, you need to have very high test scores.

Now, apply the SIFT strategies to the sources you selected in Activities 2 and 3. Remove any that you find to be unreliable.

## Planning with Sources

One of the hardest skills to learn in academic writing is strategic and effective use of sources rather than “dumping” quotations and other bits of information from sources into your papers. Therefore, it is very important to think carefully about which sources to use, where to use them, and how to integrate them before you start writing.

Each time you use a source in your writing, you have to decide whether you are going to:

- quote a word, a phrase, a sentence, or more by using the exact words from the source in quotation marks;
- paraphrase a sentence or short extract by rewriting it in your own words;
- summarize the entire source or part of the source;
- synthesize multiple sources (that is, show connections, agreement, and disagreement among sources).

You might refer to the same source many times in an assignment, and you might cite more than one source in a sentence or paragraph.

As part of your planning process, take notes on each source, thinking about how you intend to use it in your paper. Figure A.1 shows an example of source notes. The writer has read a news article (Bennett, 2013) in preparation for an assignment on homelessness in San Diego, California.

**FIGURE A.1**  
**Sample Source Notes**

Information about the source, author, and date	Kelly Bennett (2013) Newspaper article: “SD’s share of federal homelessness funding doesn’t add up” From <a href="http://www.voiceofsandiego.org">www.voiceofsandiego.org</a>
Summary, paraphrase or quotation from the source (quotations and words from the source must be in quotation marks)	[Federal funds] can include temporary housing, accessible restrooms, outdoor safe spaces, shelter beds, treatment centers, accessibility to government services, etc. all of which require more funding than the city is receiving (Bennett, 2013).
Why is this citation important to your assignment?	This summary of part of Bennett’s article mentions all of the homeless services that should be provided by the federal government and ends with the writer’s principal claim. This claim will be supported with evidence throughout the paper I’m writing.
How do you know the source is reliable?	The website has been reporting news since 2005 and is nonprofit. The author has had a long career in journalism and was freelancing for <i>Voice of San Diego</i> at the time of writing. The website and the author are based in San Diego, which makes them credible sources for my paper on homelessness in this city.

### Activity 5: Making a Plan for Source Use

1. Choose two of the sources you selected in one of the previous activities. Take notes on each source using a chart such as the one in Figure A.1.
2. Make a plan or outline for your current assignment, including notes on where, when, and how you will refer to your sources.

## Writing with Sources

### Paraphrasing

**Paraphrasing** means rewriting all the ideas from a source in your own words and sentences rather than summarizing them. It allows you to show your understanding of your reading and change the language and structure to fit the purpose of your writing task. Paraphrasing is the starting point for other important tasks that rely on sources—summarizing and synthesizing.

An effective paraphrase:

- accurately presents the ideas from the source and the relationship between them.
- uses different words as much as possible.
- generally has a different sentence structure from the original.
- acknowledges the source through a formal or informal citation, depending on the genre.

Here is a good technique for paraphrasing (adapted from Swales & Feak, 2012):

- Read the section of the original text carefully and make sure you fully understand it.
- Identify the key words. Decide which words to use and which you need to find synonyms for. *Synonyms* are words with a similar meaning. If you use words from the original text, for example, technical terms, write them in quotation marks.
- If there is a logical relationship in the sentence, find another grammatical structure to express it. For example, if the original uses the verb *lead to*, try using the conjunction *because* in your paraphrase to show the cause/effect relationship.
- Consider changing the parts of speech to restructure the information. For example:
  - **Unpack** long complicated noun phrases by using a verb, clause, or sentence: *technology-enhanced classroom instruction* → *teaching that is improved by using technology*.

- **Pack** clauses into noun phrases by turning verbs into nouns (nominalization), and adverbs, modal verbs, and prepositional phrases into adjectives: *texting can improve the writing that students do in school* → *texting has potential benefits for academic writing.*
- ❑ Write your paraphrase without looking at the original sentence, and then check to make sure it is sufficiently different but still retains the meaning and stance of the original.
- ❑ If your paraphrase is part of a longer assignment, add the citation following the required style guide.

### Activity 6: Paraphrasing Practice

Paraphrase these sentences from a textbook chapter about *procrastination*. The first paraphrase has been completed as an example. Write the citation as (Baldwin, 2020) at the end of your paraphrase.

1. "Simply put, procrastination is the act of delaying some task that needs to be completed. It is something we all do to greater and lesser degrees. For most people, a little minor procrastination is not a cause for great concern. But there are situations where procrastination can become a serious problem with a lot of risk. These include: when it becomes a chronic habit, when there are a number of tasks to complete and little time, or when the task being avoided is very important."

Key words:	procrastination, task
Synonyms and alternate word forms:	<i>delay</i> (verb) = wait, put off, defer, delay (noun) <i>minor</i> = small, short, brief <i>situation</i> = context <i>serious problem with a lot of risk</i> = negative consequences <i>chronic</i> = long-term
Logical relations and alternatives:	Contrast ( <i>but</i> ); alternatives: <i>yet, however, although, while</i> Listing ( <i>these include</i> ); alternatives: <i>for example, such as</i>
Paraphrase:	<i>Procrastination means waiting to do something that is required, which is a common experience. Although procrastinating does not usually cause problems, there can be very negative consequences, such as putting off essential activities or not finishing work before an important deadline. In addition, procrastination can turn into a long-term behavior (Baldwin, 2020).</i>

2. "Sometimes we just do not feel up to a certain task. It might be due to discomfort, an illness, or just a lack of energy. If this is the case, it is important to identify the cause and remedy the situation. It could be something as simple as a lack of sleep or improper diet. Regardless, if a lack of energy is continually causing you to procrastinate to the point where you are beginning to feel stress over not getting things done, you should definitely assess the situation and address it."
3. "Procrastination causes stress and anxiety. On the other hand, some students see that kind of stress as a boost of mental urgency. They put off a task until they feel that surge of motivation. While this may have worked in the past, they quickly learn that procrastinating when it comes to college work almost always includes an underestimation of the tasks to be completed—sometimes with disastrous results."

### Language Box: Word Families

Most words in English have several related forms—similar-looking words in different parts of speech. These are called **word families**. These other forms can be especially useful when paraphrasing since changing the part of speech of a key word will usually change the structure of the sentence. Note these other forms for the nouns *obsession*, *recognition*, and *increase*.

Noun	Verb	Adjective
obsession	obsess	obsessive
recognition	recognize	recognizable
increase	increase	increasing, increased

Some words share the same form in different parts of speech—for example, *risk* (noun/verb) or *use* (noun/verb).

Additionally, some word families have multiple nouns with slightly different meanings. These can also help you with paraphrasing. For example:

- *Use/user/usage*: The *use* of smartphones has increased → Smartphone *usage* has risen → There are more smartphone *users*.
- *Addiction/addict*: Technology *addiction* is a new problem. → Technology has created new *addicts*.

## Activity 7: Practice the Language

Paraphrase these extracts using the technique in the Language Box. Pay attention to the words in italics, which you could change to other parts of speech or different related words with the same part of speech. Use a dictionary to help you check members of the words' families.

1. The *effects* of humans on the most remote parts of the world have *increased* due to *exploration* for rare resources.
2. Medical *research* must follow *ethical* standards. This *protects* the rights of *participants* in important studies.
3. A key factor for *success* in business is a leader's *management* style, which must *fit* the culture of the workplace.
4. People who go on a *diet* may face the *risk* of *harming* their bodies if they do not have an expert to *guide* them.

## Quotation

One of the most difficult decisions in academic writing is knowing when to quote a source or when to summarize or paraphrase it. In quotation, you use the exact words of the source and put them inside quotation marks. The advantage of a quotation is that you keep the style, intention, and meaning of the source. Many quotations are very short, even a single word. Writers sometimes do this because the word or idea was coined (discovered, invented, or created) by another person, and they want to give credit. A short quotation is also a good way to avoid problems with plagiarism if you cannot change a word or phrase that you have read.

The disadvantage of using too much quotation is that your own voice as a writer can be lost. In addition, most academic writing tasks ask you to show your understanding of your reading. A good summary or paraphrase clearly shows your understanding. A quotation just shows that you can find the important information. In addition, if you quote much directly, an instructor may believe that you're "padding" your paper rather than actually comprehending and/or analyzing your source.

Academic writers sometimes prefer quotations when:

- the source contains a technical definition that should be quoted exactly.
- you want to show where you found a particular word, phrase, or idea.

- ❑ the language of the source is so well-written, unusual, or precise that it would be difficult to paraphrase it effectively.
- ❑ they want to include another author’s voice, either in support of their own writing or in order to argue against it.

However, there is variation in the use of quotations among academic disciplines (Hyland, 1999). For example, expert writers in the natural sciences (e.g., biology, physics, chemistry) almost never use quotations. Quotations tend to be much more frequent in the humanities (e.g., history, literature). In the social sciences (e.g., linguistics, sociology, management), quotations are used, but much less frequently than paraphrases.

It is important to quote the exact words from your source. If your quotation is less than a sentence, you need to fit it into your own sentence. For example, here are two sentences from an article about a new research study (Bhandari, 2020):

Fruit flies that can’t fly sleep more as they learn to adapt to their flightlessness, according to a new study. The findings suggest sleep may be an evolutionary tool that helps animals adapt to challenging new situations.

Here are different ways to quote this article in a student paper:

1. A recent study found that fruit flies that lose the ability to fly sleep longer. “The findings suggest sleep may be an evolutionary tool that helps animals adapt to challenging new situations” (Bhandari, 2020).
2. Fruit flies that lose the ability to fly sleep longer, which “may be an evolutionary tool” (Bhandari, 2020).
3. It is possible that sleeping is an “evolutionary tool” that allows animals to survive when something changes in their environment (Bhandari, 2020).

### Exercise 8: Using Quotations

Read this extract from another research report. Then complete the sentences using quotations from the source.

People whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work can face challenges during the hiring process, according to new research. When hiring managers review job applications, they must make rapid assessments about

who they think is a good candidate for a position. But those evaluations are especially critical towards applicants whose employment histories differ from conventional notions of what a “good” job is. (de Witte, 2020)

1. Employers may be biased against job candidates who have had certain types of job, such as “...” (de Witte, 2020).
2. Some people find it difficult to get a job if they have not already had steady full-time work. “...” (de Witte, 2020).
3. Interviewers often see many candidates, so they have to make “...” (de Witte, 2020) about the people they want to hire.

## Citation

A citation tells your reader the source of an idea, statistic, or quotation. All paraphrases, quotations, summaries, and other references to sources must be accompanied by a citation. The format of your citations depends on the style guide for the assignment, class, or discipline. This appendix uses the format of the APA (American Psychological Association) manual’s 7<sup>th</sup> edition, which is (Author, Year). Since style guides change, the best ways to learn the details of your format are to consult a handbook, look online, or ask your instructor. Our focus here will not be on format but on how to use citations effectively.

Most writing and style guides agree that common knowledge does not need to be cited. It is, however, often difficult to decide what is common knowledge and what needs a citation. The definition of “common knowledge” varies depending on the writer, reader, and context as well the type of information. Here are some guidelines to determine if information needs a citation. If the answer to all these questions is “yes,” then you probably do not need a citation.

- Did you know the information before you started doing the research for the assignment?
- Do you expect your reader to know it without checking a source?
- Is this factual information that the reader is unlikely to challenge or question?
- Do other writers (especially writers in the same discipline) use this type of information without citation?

On the other hand, if the answer to these questions is “yes,” then you probably need a citation:

- Did you learn the information by reading one or more sources in your research?
- Is there a possibility that the reader will not be familiar with it?
- Does the information include statistics, quantities, or measurements?
- Is the information actually an opinion, claim, or argument that the reader might not accept without support?

If you are not sure, it is always safer to provide a citation to the source(s) where you found the information!

### Activity 9: Using Citations

Consider whether each statement would need citations if you wrote it in a class assignment. Discuss your answer and your reasons with a partner or small group.

1. A bilingual is a person who speaks two or more languages.
2. Experts disagree over how much of a language a person needs to speak in order to be bilingual.
3. A bilingual is not “two monolinguals in one body.”
4. At least half of the world’s population is bilingual.
5. Children who learn two languages in the home are called simultaneous bilinguals.
6. A census is an official survey of an entire country.
7. In 2016, the rate of Canadians who spoke the country’s two official languages (English and French) reached nearly 18%, the highest percentage ever.
8. Canada’s official bilingualism unfairly prevents monolinguals from becoming leaders in politics and industry.

## Integral and Non-Integral Citations

There are two main ways to refer to sources in your writing: **integral** and **non-integral citations**. In an integral citation, the author and/or article title is part of the sentence. In a non-integral citation, the source is only referenced in a parenthesis, footnote, or endnote. There are important differences in meaning between integral and non-integral citations.

**Integral citations** foreground the source and author and make it clear that you are attributing the idea, argument, or statistic to someone else. Integral citations are more common in social sciences (e.g., sociology, linguistics) or humanities (e.g., philosophy) than the physical sciences (e.g., biology, physics) and engineering (Hyland, 1999).

- ❑ According to Dynarski (2017), laptops are a distraction in class.
- ❑ Numer (2017) claims that the professor is responsible for maintaining students' attention.

**Non-integral** citations push the source to the background, which puts emphasis on the information rather than the author. Non-integral citations are more common than integral citations in almost all types of academic writing. In fact, in some scientific fields, writers only use non-integral citations (Hyland, 1999), and they may use footnotes (small numbers) instead of APA's author/year format.

- ❑ Students retain more when they hand write their notes (Dynarski, 2017).
- ❑ Undergraduates should be treated as adults.<sup>1</sup>

Another option is to acknowledge multiple sources in one citation. This usually implies that all the sources agree on a point, or at least that they all discuss it. You should be careful not to incorrectly suggest that sources agree when in fact they do not!

- ❑ The use of laptops in university classrooms is controversial (Dynarski, 2017; Numer, 2017).

Although it is sometimes possible to use a general subject such as *research*, *studies*, or *experts*, you should avoid using *some people* or *someone* because these subjects do not add any information, or they suggest that you have not done your research. It is usually

better to add a non-integral citation to a sentence with a general subject or a passive reporting verb.

- ❑ NOT GOOD: Someone argues that laptops can be used for collaborative projects in class. [Who argues?]
- ❑ BETTER: It can be argued that laptops are useful for collaborative projects (Numer, 2017).
- ❑ OR: Some professors believe that laptops are useful for collaborative projects (e.g., Numer, 2017).

### Language Box: Reporting Verbs

In an integral citation, you will often use **reporting verbs** such as *state*, *argue*, *claim*, or *believe*. The choice of verb is important for at least two reasons: (1) it indicates whether you agree with the source, disagree with the source, or are not taking a position; and (2) it determines the structure of the rest of the sentence.

Most reporting verbs can be followed by a noun phrase (a noun and all the words that modify it) that states the topic or main idea of the source:

- The article discusses *the benefits of bilingualism*.
- Grosjean describes *different types of bilinguals*.

Some reporting verbs require a preposition (e.g., *on*, *in*, *about*):

- Numer disagrees with Dynarski *about* the use of technology in the classroom.
- The authors believe *in* the use of standardized language assessment.

Many—but not all—reporting verbs can be followed by a *noun clause*. A noun clause has a subject and a verb and usually starts with *that*. The noun clause restates a claim, finding, statistic, or specific detail from the source:

- The author argues *that bilingual schools produce better results*.
- Research shows *that technology is addictive*.

Note that in English, unlike some languages, non-human subjects can be the subjects of reporting verbs (e.g., *the research shows*, *the article discusses*, *the book describes*).

### Activity 10: Practice the Language

Which of these verbs can be followed by a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, or a noun clause? There is more than one correct answer for some verbs. Write examples for each correct pattern. For example:

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Noun Phrase</i>	<i>Prepositional Phrase</i>	<i>Noun Clause</i>
<i>Show</i>	Research shows the benefits of bilingualism.	X	Research shows that bilingualism has advantages.
<i>Describe</i>	The novel describes daily life in the nineteenth century.	X	X
<i>Argue</i>	X	The author argues against English-only policies.	The author argues that English-only policies harm students.

1. discuss
2. state
3. claim
4. believe
5. suggest
6. support
7. agree
8. present
9. prove
10. illustrate

### Understanding Plagiarism

There are many ways to define **plagiarism**, but essentially it refers to the use of words, phrases, sentences, ideas, images, and other content from a source without paraphrasing or quoting correctly *and/or* without providing the correct citation. Plagiarism is taken very seriously because it may be considered an act of academic dishonesty, which can lead to severe consequences.

In academic writing that requires formal citation, it is important to remember that references to sources have two parts:

Paraphrase or summary (in your own words)	+	Citation
Quotation (the source's words in quotation marks)		

### Activity 11: Identifying Plagiarism

Here is an extract you read earlier in this appendix:

People whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work can face challenges during the hiring process, according to new research. When hiring managers review job applications, they must make rapid assessments about who they think is a good candidate for a position. But those evaluations are especially critical towards applicants whose employment histories differ from conventional notions of what a “good” job is. (de Witte, 2020)

Which of these student texts would you consider acceptable or plagiarized? Explain your answer to a partner or small group, and try to agree on the acceptable texts.

1. People whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work can face challenges during the hiring process because hiring managers are especially critical towards applicants whose employment histories differ from conventional notions of a good job.
2. Individuals whose job pasts include part-time, non-permanent or work that does not match their skills can encounter difficulties during the job-seeking process.
3. Evaluations of people whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work are highly negative, so these people find it especially difficult to get a job.
4. Research shows that hiring managers prefer not to choose “people whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work.” This has particularly negative consequences for young people who graduate during a recession.

5. According to a recent study, people whose employment histories include part-time, temporary help agency or mismatched work can face challenges during the hiring process (de Witte 2020).
6. Research has found that stable employment is difficult to find when the applicant has a background of part-time or temporary jobs because managers make snap decisions after looking at a candidate's resume (de Witte, 2020).

## Using a Style Guide

The references in an academic paper provide full details about your sources so that your reader can find and check them. References are usually listed at the end of a paper or book (you can see our references at the end of the Appendix). Like citations, the format for the list of references depends on the style guide that your university, program, or course requires. There are excellent guides to reference styles in handbooks and on the internet. When you consult the relevant guide, make sure you find the answers to these questions:

1. Do you write your references at the end of the paper or in footnotes?
2. What is the title of your references page (e.g., References, Bibliography, Works Cited, etc.)?
3. In what order do you list your references?
4. What information do you give for each author (e.g., initials or full name)?
5. What information do you give for each type of source (books are cited differently than journal articles, for example)?
6. What is the correct format? Pay special attention to italics and punctuation marks.

### Activity 12: What Style Guide Is Required?

Identify the style guide for this class or another class you are taking. You may need to ask the instructor or check the syllabus. Answer these questions and share your answers with the class.

1. What is the name of the style guide?
2. What is a good website that has information about the format for references and citations in this style?

Then, go to a published article you plan to use for your paper or to an article cited in Google Scholar about a topic that interests you. Go to the Works Cited (MLA) or References (APA) page, or whatever the page is called with the style you are using. Examine the page or your style guide to answer these questions:

3. What does a citation look like in this style?
4. How do you cite a source that has a title but no author (e.g., a news editorial)?
5. What does a reference for a journal or newspaper article look like in this style?
6. What does a reference for a book look like in this style?
7. What other important formatting information have you found?

### Activity 13: Writing References

1. Using the sources you have selected for your current paper or discussed in this unit, create a References list or Works Cited page in the correct style for your class or assignment.
2. Check your references using this checklist and an online style guide:
  - The page has the correct title.
  - The references are listed in the correct order.
  - The authors' names are written and formatted correctly.
  - The titles of the sources are written correctly with the required punctuation and capitalization.
  - All the required information is provided (e.g., source, date, website, page numbers, publisher, etc.).

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