EXSC 141W: Psychology of Injury & Performance

A Handbook Designed for Writing in the Social and Psychological Sciences
EXSC 141W: WRITING IN THE DISCIPLINES

A Handbook Designed for
Writing in the Social and Psychological Sciences

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Last Updated: February 8, 2009

Acknowledgements:
Special thanks to Department of Exercise Science graduate students, Heather Huntsman and Erin Olson, as well as undergraduate students Bridget Mahon and Melody Feldman for their careful feedback and input into the development and creation of this writing resource.
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Introduction:
WID Course Purposes and Objectives

The University Writing Program at The George Washington University (GWU) has been purposefully designed to provide undergraduate students with the opportunity via course instruction to improve their writing skills. As a literacy requirement, students must complete two writing enhanced courses as a requirement for graduation. As you may have noticed, many of the courses available at GWU and within your own department/major are writing enhanced courses. These courses are designated with a W at the end of the course number (e.g., EXSC 141W).

Writing enhanced courses are also known as Writing in the Disciplines (WID) courses. They are unique because they have been developed to provide students with the opportunity to enhance writing skills in their specific discipline. For example, because the psychology of injury is one of many disciplines in the social and psychological sciences, EXSC 141W, The Psychology of Injury and Performance, has been designed to not only deliver pertinent content, but to also serve as a means of developing and ultimately enhancing your writing skills.

In this course, you will complete a variety of writing assignments that are intended for different audiences. For example, you will complete small application assignments (e.g., case studies, application papers) which will dictate a formal scholarly writing style in which you are both providing and applying empirical support for various theories and psychological concepts, while other assignments (e.g., injury manual for an athlete), will require you to write in a more conversational “lay person” writing style.

Quick Start

GWU provides you with excellent resources designed to assist you in your writing development and success. To get you more acquainted with the WID program and the variety of electronic resources provided for you through the WID Program, please visit and browse each of the following web links:

！”For more information regarding the WID Program:
http://www.gwu.edu/~uwp/wid/index.html

！”For information on writing assistance with assignments visit the Writing Center website:
http://www.gwu.edu/~gwriter/

！”Connect to the best writing and research resources on the web via the Student WID Studio:
http://widstudents.wordpress.com/

*Content provided on this page was retrieved and adapted from http://www.gwu.edu/~uwp/wid/index.html on January 4th, 2009.
Systematic & Purposeful Assessment: Identifying Your Writing Strengths & Challenges

In order to effectively develop your writing skills, you must first assess your writing strengths (e.g., spelling, sentence structure) and challenges (e.g., correct use of commas, providing adequate support for statements, correct referencing). Therefore, at the beginning of the semester you will be required to assess your writing skills. In doing so, you will identify which writing skills you possess that are particularly strong, and also those that will require more attention from you (when writing) and from your professor and peer reviewer(s) when reading and evaluating your writing assignments. Finally, to assess your writing development, you will complete the second half of this assessment at the end of the semester. This will allow you to reflect on the course assignments and evaluate the strides you have made in your writing skills, while also noting particular writing skills you wish to continue to develop.

Instructions. Use the space below to (1) identify, and (2) briefly describe both your writing strengths and challenges.

A Pre and Post Assessment of Your Writing Skills & Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>START OF THE SEMESTER</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>My Writing Strengths:</strong></td>
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Improving Your Writing: 
An Introduction to SMART WID Goals

Just like athletes will set performance goals for themselves before and during their competitive season, it is important for you to take a systematic approach to setting your writing goals, as well. Think of this academic semester as your “competitive writing season.” Now that you have had the opportunity to reflect and identify your writing strengths and challenges, it is important to establish effective goals that will assist you in improving upon your writing challenges so that eventually they become writing strengths! A systematic and effective method to establishing well-thought goals is using the SMART approach to goal-setting.

- **Specific:** When setting writing goals, always be as specific as possible. For example:
  - Non-specific – Improve grammar.
  - Specific - Improve correct use of periods, commas, semi-colons, and colons.

- **Measurable:** Set goals in such a way that they can be tracked and measured. For example:
  - Non-measurable – Improve writing skills.
  - Measurable – Earn 3-5% greater on each consecutive writing assignment grade.

- **Action-Oriented:** Especially when developing your writing goals, the aim should be to focus on what needs to be done to achieve your writing goals. For example:
  - If your goal is to improve your sentence structure (and more specifically to avoid writing run-on sentences), your goals should focus on specific actions that you should do to achieve writing well structured and complete sentences. What can you do to help you achieve this? Decide that for each writing assignment you will proof-read it yourself by reading your assignment out loud (this is a great way to catch run-on sentences!) and also have a friend proof-read it too.

- **Realistic:** It is important to set writing goals that you can achieve. For example:
  - Given your strengths and challenges, in addition to the content and requirements of this course, you will need to consider what is realistic in terms of your writing goals. This will require some **substantial self-reflection** and may also require you to look back at the writing assessment that you completed, as well as review writing assignments and grades you earned in previous courses. What types of writing assignments did you excel in and which proved to be more difficult? What were the comments and feedback you received from your course instructors on these assignments? Additionally, you will also need to consider the expectations of your professor for this WID course. Because you are taking this class during your sophomore, junior, or senior year, it is very likely that the writing expectations for this class will be greater than what was expected of you during your UW 20 class. Setting writing goals that are realistic and progressively challenging will help to build your writing confidence – and will lead to writing successes!

- **Timely Goals:** Well set goals also include a timeline. Placing a realistic time frame on the achievement of a goal adds to the planning and tracking of that goal.
  - Non-timely – Improve writing skills
  - Timely – Consecutively improve writing skills 3-5% on each writing assignment over the course of the semester
Systematic Goal-Setting: Establishing Your SMART WID Goals

The next step to working towards improving your writing is to develop and set your own writing goals. If you set goals that meet the SMART criteria, then you have established well thought goals with a clear purpose and plan for achieving them.

First, in order of priority, list up to 3 writing goals that you would like to achieve. Next, brainstorm what you will do (e.g., your plan) to achieve these writing goals.

**My Writing Goal:**
#1. ____________________________________________________________________________________________________

*What I will do to help me achieve this goal:*
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

**My Writing Goal:**
#2. ____________________________________________________________________________________________________

*What I will do to help me achieve this goal:*
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

**My Writing Goal:**
#3. ____________________________________________________________________________________________________

*What I will do to help me achieve this goal:*
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

**Goal-Check!** Use the chart below to help you determine if you have set SMART goals. For each SMART criterion your goal meets, put a check in the box. Ideally, each box should be checked for each of your goals. If not, go back to your goal(s) and re-write the goal(s) so that it becomes a SMART goal.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Specific</th>
<th>Measureable</th>
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Your Toolbox:
Writing Resources at Your Fingertips

A very important aspect of writing is having an understanding that writing is a process; and, that each piece of writing can be improved upon time and time again. Professional writers are constantly writing and revising their work before it ever reaches its “final” form. In fact, writers submit their work to editors and colleagues for feedback and then revise their work time and time again based on suggestions from these professional sources. In this class, your professor and your peers will serve as two of your valuable professional writing resources for feedback on improving your writing. Great writers also have other writing tools that they constantly rely upon and use to help them succeed.

In this section of the handbook, you will find a number of writing tools designed for you to use to help assist you in enhancing your writing skills. If you followed the Quick Start instructions at the beginning of this handbook then you are familiar with some of the writing resources that GWU provides at your immediate disposal. A quick recap of these two important tools can be found below.

The Writing Center @ GWU

This resource provides students with free one-on-one sessions with trained writing center tutors to assist in course writing assignments, research papers, theses, and personal statements. Appointments begin on the hour and are scheduled in 25 or 50 minute increments. The Writing Center provides students with assistance in: developing and focusing their ideas, implementing an organizational strategy, using supporting evidence proficiently, and clarifying their syntax and diction. To learn more about the Writing Center policies please visit: http://www.gwu.edu/~gwriter/ or call 202.994.3765 to schedule an appointment.

Writing Tip!

Add gwWritingCenter to your AIM buddy list. After which, you can IM your questions to this screen name at any time during the Writing Center’s normal hours of operation (Monday-Thursday 9:00 AM-8:00 PM, Friday 9:00 AM-2:00 PM, and Sunday 7:00 PM-10:00 PM).

The Student WID Studio

The Student WID Studio can be accessed via http://widstudents.wordpress.com/. Presently, this particular electronic resource provides students with resources including, but not limited to: academic integrity, using various referencing and citation styles, how to integrate sources, how to paraphrase, issues surrounding plagiarism, how to correctly quote, and how to use RefWorks.

Additional tools for your writing toolbox can be found on the pages to follow!
Avoiding Plagiarism: 
Paraphrasing & Citing Properly

Citing/referencing means giving credit to author(s) or resource(s) from which you have learned information. For the purposes of this WID course, you will be using APA Style (5th edition) formatting for all citations and references. Specific guidelines regarding APA Style (5th Edition) formatting will be provided later in the handbook.

Plagiarism is defined by the Academic Integrity Office* at GWU as “intentionally representing the words, ideas, or sequence of ideas of another as one’s own in any academic exercise; failure to attribute any of the following: quotations, paraphrases, or borrowed information.”

You should ALWAYS cite and reference information that you have learned from another source; and, it is best to cite too much rather than too little. Additionally, you may learn information from one source that has referenced information from a different source (i.e., a second-hand reference). In these cases, it is always best to double-check the accuracy of the information in the second-hand source by retrieving and reading the original source for the information.

Writing Tip!

Check out the excellent handouts provided by the Writing Center at the University of Wisconsin at Madison on “Acknowledging, Paraphrasing, and Quoting Sources” located at the end of the handbook in Appendix A.

Just a Click Away: 
Word Processing Tools

Some of the easiest writing resources to access are just a click away, but sometimes students forget to use them! For example, in Microsoft Office applications, such as Word, PowerPoint, etc., there are spelling and grammar checks that you can use. By simply clicking on “Tools” and scrolling down to “Spelling & Grammar” the software program will conduct an automatic spelling and grammar check for you.

Looking for a synonym or antonym for a particular word? If you are in need of a quick Thesaurus right at your fingertips, place your cursor on the word and hit “Shift” + “F7” and a window with a list of synonyms and antonyms will pop up on the right hand side of your computer screen!
General Tips: Writing Do’s & Don’ts

Students will often make small, subtle mistakes in their formal writing assignments. With the advances in technology, students in particular have become quite savvy at using various forms of short-hand when mobile phone texting and e-mailing. To help you avoid some of these pitfalls in your formal writing assignments, and to help assist you in adhering to APA Style (5th edition) formatting, please keep these common do’s and don’ts for your writing assignments for this WID course in mind:

☑ Do not use contractions in formal writing assignments. For example, instead of writing “don’t” write “do not.”

☑ Write out numbers less than 10 or that start the beginning of a sentence. For example, “Seven out of 12 athletes scored above 40 on the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale and five scored greater than 45.”

☑ Use abbreviations or acronyms only after you have formally defined them in the text. For example, when first mentioning “ROM” be sure you have spelled out “range of motion (ROM)” by indicating the abbreviation or acronym in parentheses as well. For example, “The physical rehabilitation profile follow-up indicated that his range of motion (ROM) had improved significantly from baseline. The athletic trainer suggested both imagery and stretching as treatments for increasing his ROM.”

☑ ALWAYS avoid text-messaging and e-mail short hand. For example “u = you.”

☑ Really long, tedious sentences can often be broken into two or more sentences. Doing so will increase the clarity of the writing.

☑ One sentence does not constitute a paragraph! If you have one sentence hanging alone, this is usually an indication that this sentence belongs within an already existing paragraph; or, if the sentence stands alone, it likely requires further elaboration.

☑ Each paragraph should transition nicely into the next paragraph.

☑ Use your Word Processing tools to do a quick “Spelling & Grammar Check.”

☑ Proof-read your writing.

☑ Proof-read your writing AGAIN.

☑ Read your writing out loud. This is an excellent way of catching run-on sentences, incomplete thoughts, and grammatical mistakes.

☑ Have an outside source (e.g., peer, friend, family member) proof-read your writing, too. Very often we will miss spelling and grammatical mistakes in our own writing, so it often takes a fresh eye to catch some of these!
Some of the most important resources you will have during your tenure at GWU are the libraries and librarians at both Gelman Library and the GWU Medical Center's Himmelfarb Health Sciences Library. Your use of these resources will be an absolute necessity for the purposes of this class. The librarians are there to assist you in answering any questions you may have, can help you in learning how to properly search the e-journals and various databases, and can even guide you in managing information overload.

For the purposes of this class, many of the journal articles and books are not readily available at the library; therefore, this will require you to consortium loan (locally) or inter-library loan (nationally) articles and books. Local requests can often be filled in a matter of 2-4 business days, while requests that require the source to come from outside the local D.C. metro area (nationally) can take seven days or more. Therefore, it is important for you to be proactive in working diligently on your writing assignments for this class so that you allow for enough time for your needed resources to reach you.

Be sure to visit each of the libraries’ homepages for specific information regarding hours of operation and services. Plus, check out their Instant Message (IM) screen names to get help from a librarian without even leaving your computer!

Searching the Electronic Databases:
Finding “Psychology of Injury” Related Articles & Books

The first library Exercise Science students will typically search when researching psychology of injury related articles and books is Himmelfarb Health Sciences Library; and, they will often come up both empty-handed and frustrated. Students should first search Gelman Library. Because the psychology of injury is a discipline within the social and psychological sciences, Gelman Library is much more successful at providing students with relevant material. Even more specifically, when searching the e-journals and databases, you will want to search these two specific databases for your research: (1) SportDiscus, and (2) PsychInfo. Below, you will also find an abbreviated list of journals in which psychology of injury research can be found.
APA Style (5th Edition):
Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association

As previously mentioned, you will be using APA Style (5th edition) for formatting, in-text citing, and referencing all of your writing assignments in this class. APA Style is the form of referencing used in the social and psychological sciences. In fact, one of your recommended books for this class is the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th edition) that is an entire book dedicated to guiding you in how to conform your writing to APA Style specifications. This book is well-worth its investment if you plan to pursue Master’s or Doctoral studies in the social and psychological sciences. If not, there is a plethora of resources available via the web and contained within this writing handbook to ensure your writing adheres to APA Style. The websites below can all be accessed via the GWU Writing Center’s resource page, but are also provided here for your reference:

- About APA Style:  
  http://apastyle.apa.org/

- OWL’s APA Formatting and Style Guide:  
  http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/

- APA Research Style Crib Sheet:  

- APA Citation Guide:  
  http://library.osu.edu/sites/guides/apagd.php

More detailed guides to APA Style can be found in this handbook in the ABC’s of Technical Writing section.

Making a List & Checking it Twice:
Your Post-Writing Checklist

Want to be perfectly sure that your writing assignment is in proper order before turning it in to your professor? A Post-Writing Checklist has been developed to help you ensure that you have covered your bases, properly proof-read, and have adhered to the formatting and general requirements dictated by your writing assignments for this class.

*Tip:* It would behoove you to refer to this checklist, in addition to the writing assignment handouts and their associated scoring rubrics when completing your writing assignments. This ensures that you are closely following instructions for each assignment. The Post-Writing Checklist can be found in Appendix B at the back of this handbook.
The ABC’s of Technical Writing: Writing in the Social and Psychological Sciences

What are the goals of technical writing in the social and psychological sciences? For the purposes of this class, it is to develop your writing skills so that you become effective at: (1) researching, synthesizing, and writing about empirical psychology of injury research, (2) illustrating your understanding of and ability to apply important psychology of injury theories and concepts, and (3) disseminate this information in a formal, scholarly, and scientific writing style.

Ultimately, a number of various writing assignments will be used to enhance your writing skills so that you also concurrently become more proficient in the course content. Writing assignments in this class may include, but are not limited to: case study reviews, theoretical application papers, research papers, and even newsletters and injury manuals designed for targeted audiences (e.g., athletes, coaches, ATC’s).

There is both an art and a science to writing in a scholarly and scientific writing style. Similar to learning a new sport skill, your writing skills will also improve with time, commitment, and dedicated practice. This section of the writing handbook is designed to introduce you to the ABC’s of technical writing in the social and psychological sciences:

- **A:** APA Style (5th edition)
- **B:** Backing up supporting ideas with evidence
- **C:** Concise, yet robust

**Writing Tip!**

The basic structure and order of your APA Style formatted assignments will be:

(1) title page, (2) body of assignment/text, (3) reference list, and (4) tables/figures (if appropriate).
APA Style (5th Edition): The Referencing Style You Will Master

APA Style (5th edition) is one of several different referencing styles used in writing and it is the specific style that has been adopted in the social and psychological sciences. Essentially, this style of formatting and referencing is a way for all writing that is done in this discipline to be standardized. Standardization forces writers to use conform to the same rules when writing, which allows for more efficient reading, writing, and reviewing of papers.

All of your assignments will be written in APA Style (5th edition). This means that all of your writing assignments will conform to some very specific guidelines. Remember, there are entire books and manuals dedicated to teaching and guiding writers in formatting their written word in APA Style. Between the web-based resources previously mentioned and the information provided here, you should have all of the information you need to properly format your writing assignments so that they adhere to APA Style appropriately.

All written assignments will be formatted as follows:

- The margins should be no more and no less than one inch.
- Font size must be 12-point.
- Font style must be Times New Roman or Arial.
- Use only one space between sentences.
- All text, including the reference list, should be double-spaced.
- Bolding text and underlining text is NEVER used in APA Style.
- Use third-person language. Creative writing, reflection papers, and opinion papers often use first-person language, such as “I, me, my, you, your, we, or our.” However, technical writing in APA format must conform to third-person language. For example, “I think it is important for injured athletes to seek the services of a sport psychologist” is written in first-person language. An example of third-person language would be, “Injured athletes would benefit from the services of a sport psychologist.”
- Proper citations and references must be used in the following cases: (1) when defining a term or psychological theory, (2) when referring to findings of a research study, and (3) when you make statements such as, “Recent research (Visek et al., 2008) supports previous research (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) that indicates that the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale is a multidimensional measure of athletic identity.” The “Visek et al., 2008” and the “Brewer & Cornelius, 2001” are the specific research studies that support the sentence and are what APA Style calls in-text citations.
In-text citations include the authors’ last names and the year of the publication. For example, “(Visek, Watson, Hurst, Maxwell, & Harris, 2008)”. After a citation such as this is used in your paper, you can then use APA Style’s short-hand for in-text references which would appear like this, “(Visek et al., 2008)”.

**Examples**

Brewer, Boin, Petitpas, Van Raalte and Mahar (1993) argued that...
[Use as first citation in text]

Brewer et al. (1993) argued...
[Use as subsequent first citation per paragraph thereafter]

Brewer et al. found...
[Omit year from subsequent citations after first citation within the same paragraph]

In-text citations can also be formatted so that they are structured at the beginning of the sentence or at the end of the sentence. Notice that when the reference occurs at the beginning of the sentence commas are used to separate the authors’ names with the word “and” between the 4th and last name; whereas, when the citation occurs at the end of the sentence and within parentheses the “&” symbol is used instead of “and”. For example:

**Examples**

Brewer, Boin, Petitpas, Van Raalte, and Mahar (1993) argued that there are multiple dimensions of athletic identity.

A recent study suggests that there are multiple dimensions of athletic identity (Brewer, Boin, Petitpas, Van Raalte, & Mahar, 1993).

If the in-text citation occurs at the end of a sentence, be sure to include the citation WITHIN the period that ends the sentence. For example, “Athletic identity has been defined in the research literature as the extent to which an athlete identifies with the athlete role (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001).”

If you use direct quotes, then the way in which you provide in-text citations will be slightly altered. For example, “Athletic identity is defined as the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role (Brewer, VanRaalte, & Linder, 1993, p. 237).”

Long quotes that are more than 40-words or more must be indented on both the left and right margins as block quotations. See below:

“The abbreviated, seven-item version of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) developed in this investigation is internally consistent (alpha = .81) and highly correlated with the original 10-item version of the AIMS. The higher order factor structure of the AIMS was found to be applicable to both men and women and to both athletes and non-athletes” (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001, p. 107).
Paraphrasing is always preferred to direct quotes. If you use direct quotes in a writing assignment for this class, do not use more than two. For help in how to paraphrase, please refer to Appendix A.

All citations in-text should be listed in the reference list; and, the reference list must be alphabetized.

Avoid padding your reference list (i.e., including references that you have not used in your writing assignment).

Use level-three (side) headers (which are italicized) to denote major sections of your paper for organization (see example below).

Page number (and header) should appear on the top right corner of each page, including the title page (see example below). To do this in Microsoft Word: Click on View → Header and Footer → Click on Align Right in toolbar → Type header: [Insert Header Name Here] → Hit space bar five times → Click on insert page number in Header and Footer toolbar.

**Sample Paragraph that Adheres to APA Style**

**Identity and Aggression** 2

Athletic Identity

Athletic identity has been defined in the sport and exercise psychology literature as, "the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role" (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; p. 237). What research has found thus far is that a strong athletic identity may have both positive and negative implications. For instance, high athletic identity has been related to positive athletic performance (Danish, 1983; Horton & Mack, 2000; Werthner & Orlick, 1986) and enhanced development of life management skills (Cornelius, 1995). On the other hand, high athletic identity has been associated with psychological and emotional difficulties when faced with injury (Brewer, 1993; Webb, Nasco, Riley, Headrick, 1998), deselection, and retirement from sport (Erpic, Wylleman, & Zupancic, 2004; Grove, Lavallee, & Gordon, 1997; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Murphy, Petitpas, and Brewer (1996) have also suggested that collegiate athletes high in athletic identity participating in revenue-producing sports may also be at an increased risk for delayed career development.
Examples of How to Properly Format References for the Reference List

Periodical: Journal Article with One Author:

Periodical: Journal Article with Two Authors:

Periodical: Journal Article with Three Authors:

Book Chapter:

Entire Books:

Websites:

Conference Proceedings:
Attention!
*When a work has three, four, or five authors, cite all authors the first time the reference appears in a paper (e.g., Visek, Watson, Hurst, Maxwell, and Harris (2008) indicated that...”); however, in subsequent citations in the paper, include only the surname of the first author followed by “et al.” and a comma with the year if it is the first citation of the reference in a paragraph. For example, “Visek et al., 2008 found evidence to support...”

* When a citation has six or more authors (e.g., Hosler, Visek, Maxwell, Watson, Harris, Lubker) only cite the name of the first author followed by et al. and the year for the first and subsequent citations (e.g., “Hosler et al., 2009”).

Sample Reference Page that Adheres to APA Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Note: The reference section is denoted with the word, “Reference” centered at the top of the page. Do not use the words, “Bibliography” or “Works Cited.” Also, be sure to alphabetize your reference list by author, indent the second line, and pay close attention to which sections of a reference are italicized, the placement of periods, etc.
Backing Up Supporting Ideas with Evidence: Engaging in Technical Research & Reading

Technical reading (and researching) is one of the keys to successful writing in the social and psychological sciences. In fact, it is an integral part of your writing assignments. Contrary to popular thought, professors do not ask students to provide sufficient evidence in their papers just to torture them! In order for your paper to have sustenance and be well-grounded in empirical findings, you must support your thoughts and arguments with research and literature that corroborates your findings. The problem is that a lot of students get lost in this process because they have not been properly taught how to go about finding research that supports their thoughts with purpose. For example, when you go to research something on the internet you usually have a specific question in mind that you are trying to answer. You use GOOGLE and various search engines and key words to help you sort out potentially relevant information. You then click on the various links and examine each sight with a clear objective – you are trying to find the answer to your question, or information and further links that you believe will lead you to your answer. When you do this you are skimming the websites in search of your answer. In order to write a successful technical paper in the social and psychological sciences, you must be able to engage in productive technical researching and reading using the same process you do in GOOGLE.

The process you apply when GOOGLING something on the internet is the same process you will use when trying to find supporting evidence in the research databases for your writing assignment. You already know that you are most likely to find your answers in databases such as PsychInfo and SportDiscus. So, these research databases will essentially serve as your “technical version” of GOOGLE. Similar to a search using GOOGLE, you will have to start with a few key words or phrases when using PsychInfo and SportDiscus.

What key words should you use? What is the purpose of your search? Are you trying to find research about athletic identity or studies that have shown support for sport psychology interventions with injured athlete? If so, then key words such as athletic identity, sport psychology, interventions, or synonyms such as mental skills training and psychological interventions might also get you some key hits. Once your hits come up, you must now search the actual research articles with the same purpose and objective!

Writing Tip!

For each article, it may be helpful to take notes about some of the key information, OR it is helpful to print the article, use a highlighter, and make notes in the margins of the article. Find which style works best for you.
Let us dispel a big myth and provide some keys to wading through research articles. You do not have to read the entire article to get the jist of its findings. Again, keeping in mind your key words and the question or information you are seeking, you can skim the article(s) in question to determine if (similar to the GOOGLE search websites) they have the information you are looking for. **KEY: READ THE ABSTRACT OF THE ARTICLE FIRST.**

The abstract will tell you the purpose of the research study, the types of participants that were used (e.g., athletes, non-athletes, ACL injured athletes), and the major findings of the study. This will often give you a nice quick synopsis to tell you if this article is something you could use. If it looks promising, then you will want to examine the rest of the article more closely. How does the information relate to the question or subject you are trying to research? Are there relationships between the article you are looking at and information your professor has lectured and discussed in class? Does the information or findings in this article support your thoughts or argument – or does it refute it? These are all important questions you should pose as you are reading through each article in your attempt to gather empirical evidence for your writing assignment; and, this is a process that does take time. So, be patient and invest sufficient time in each writing assignment so that you can properly engage in technical research and reading.

**Concise, Yet Robust:**
Using Supporting Evidence & Applying Theory

More is not necessarily better. What?! Many students have the misconception that writing more makes them a better writer; or, the more they write the better the grade they will receive on the written assignment. **This is a writing myth that must be dispelled!** Writers and students that are able to write well are able to do so by writing concisely and parsimoniously. In short, this means that your written word is able to be robust without becoming overly wordy.

**Writing Tip!**

Concise – expressing much, in few words
Parsimonious – excessively sparing or frugal
Robust – marked by richness and fullness

Say a lot with a little!
For the purposes of this class' writing assignments, there are five key concepts that should be addressed in your technical writing:

1. **Your audience.**
   Knowing your intended audience will determine both the style and tone of your writing. For example, when writing a case study analysis or applied theory paper, your writing will be very formal and scholarly. However, when writing for a specific audience such as athletes and coaches, your writing will be more conversational in tone – without sacrificing robustness and conciseness.

2. **The “question” or “prompt” of the given assignment.**
   In your writing, you MUST pay close attention to the instructions of the assignment. In doing so, you will likely be addressing a question(s) or addressing a specific prompt or problem statement in which you are asked to: (a) critically analyze, (b) find supporting evidence for your insightful analysis, and (c) synthesize your thoughts and findings by appropriately applying them to the intended purposes of the assignment.

3. **Providing support for your insights, application, and conclusions.**
   How do you do this?! Go back and read the “B” of *The ABC’s of Technical Writing*. Technical writing is ALWAYS grounded in existing literature, research, and theory. Getting “grounded” in this manner is not only a necessity for your writing, but it very professionally and intellectually illustrates that the conclusions you have come to are an interaction of your own intuition with established and sound scientific evidence. In the end, being grounded means that you can and have appropriately provided sufficient evidence and have defended your thought/conclusion; and, it is precisely for this reason why your technical writing is filled with a multitude of references to past research and literature. By doing so, your own writing and its content becomes much more valid and reliable because it is more than just opinionated writing; it is grounded and substantiated writing. How do you appropriately give credit to the established literature, research, and theory in your writing? Revisit the “A” of *The ABC’s of Technical Writing*.

4. **Applying Theory**
   Think of getting “grounded” as finding as many pieces of the puzzle as you can that will help you thoughtfully address the prompt of the writing assignment. The more pieces of a puzzle you can gather and fit together, the more clear the picture becomes. For example, on the top of a puzzle box is a complete picture; and, each puzzle piece, once fitted together completes the picture. Similarly, think of the various theories introduced in this class (e.g., Kubler-Ross Grief Model, Cognitive-Behavior Theory, Williams and Anderson Stress and Injury Model) as the guiding “box top” to a puzzle about a case study or injured athlete; thus, every piece of information you are given about the athlete is one “piece” of the larger puzzle and each piece is interpreted in the context of that guiding theory. You “apply” theory in an assignment or to a specific case study by showcasing how the pieces of information you are provided will illustrate the premise and core concepts of the theory; and, this is done by also providing supporting evidence from previous literature and research – this will strengthen your written word!
5. **Doing all of the above concisely and robustly.**

Writing concisely and robustly is a skill; and, just like learning new sport-specific skills or becoming more proficient with a rehabilitation exercise, it can be challenging. This means it will take time, practice, and commitment to develop. Below you will find examples of how to write in an effective, yet concise manner in which supporting research and theory are incorporated appropriately.

**Drawing the same conclusions from/across multiple sources.**

When you are charged with writing concisely, this means that you are not afforded an unlimited number of space or pages on which to make your written argument. However, in order for your writing to be robust, it will require you to provide multiple sources that support your statement. Yet, you cannot discuss singularly, at length, each supporting reference or research study if you are going to write concisely. Thus, you must draw conclusions amongst various sources/research studies to give credence to your statement. For example, when advocating for the use or effectiveness of psychological skills training programs for athletes, you might write:

*Previous research has found that injured athletes that engage in a systematic psychological skills training (PST) program, not only recover from their injuries faster, but also return to sport with greater confidence (Brewer et al., 1993; Hurst & Harris, 2006; Visek et al., 2008).*

This example not only indirectly advocates for using PST with injured athletes, but it also directly provides empirical evidence from the research literature by citing three different studies that support the use of PST. The style in which this sentence is written shows the reader that the author is drawing conclusions based on evidence from past research.

**Highlighting a single study.**

An alternative approach to drawing conclusions across several sources (as was done in the example above) is to highlight and provide more depth regarding a single research study particularly if it relates very closely to your prompt, topic, the population you wish to explore, or if it provides significant findings that merit attention. In order to do this effectively (i.e., concisely and robustly), you will want to indicate the purpose of the study, the type of sample used, the major relevant results, and any important conclusions drawn from the study. For example, you might write:

*Visen, Watson, Hurst, Maxwell, and Harris (2008) surveyed 650 male contact and collision sport athletes to explore whether the type of sport, athletic identity, professionalization of attitudes, and anger and aggressiveness were predictive of overt on-the-field aggression in an effort to provide empirical evidence for the Athletic Identity Maintenance Model. Visen and colleagues found that all of the aforementioned factors were predictive of overt sport aggression; thus, these results provide preliminary support for the Athletic Identity Maintenance Model.*

This example illustrates how it is possible to address several issues within one to two sentences. The first sentence identifies both the purpose and the sample studied; and, the second sentence identifies the major findings and conclusion – this is an example of writing concisely and not being too wordy.
Examples of Student Writing
Below are two examples of former EXSC 141W students’ technical writing. The first example is a case study analysis of an athlete that sustained a serious-career ending injury. In this example, the student-author applies William and Anderson’s stress-injury model as a context for understanding how the injury was incurred.

Example #1

**Determinants of Injury**

John’s injury may have seemed like a freak accident, but it is rare for injuries to just “happen.” In fact, there are several common antecedents to injury, including certain undesirable personality traits, a history of stressors, and low coping resources. When an athlete is confronted with a potentially stressful situation (i.e., John and his opening game), these factors can work individually or in concert to influence the athlete’s stress response. This is the basis of the Williams and Andersen’s (1998) stress-injury model, in which athletes who possess the above characteristics are likely to demonstrate increased attentional disruptions during stressful athletic situations. An athlete’s stress response is defined by their cognitive appraisal of the situation and the physiological and attentional changes that follow. It is the severity of this stress response that Williams and Andersen believe leads to the increased risk of injury. In John’s cognitive appraisal of the game, he may have perceived that his skill level and coping resources were insufficient to meet the situational demands, leading to increased distractibility and peripheral narrowing. Such attentional disruptions were most likely responsible for John’s awkward collision with the boards and ultimately his paralysis.

The second example uses a single study to provide support for how psychological skills training might have benefited an injured athlete.

Example #2

Based on a review of the current sport psychology research, Durso-Cupal (1998) and Johnson (2000) concluded that those psychological interventions that give athletes the perception that they are active agents in their rehabilitation contribute to both increased self-efficacy and physiological recovery. Specifically, Durso-Cupal found that the psychological interventions that athletes prefer most are relaxation, guided imagery, and goal-setting. With the guidance of a sport psychologist, Samantha may have made better use of these techniques to help her cope with the long arduous rehabilitation process following her ACL injury.
Appendices
Acknowledging, Paraphrasing, and Quoting Sources

When you write at the college level, you often need to integrate material from published sources into your own writing. This means you need to be careful not to plagiarize: “to use and pass off (the ideas or writings of another) as one’s own” (American Heritage Dictionary) or, in the words of the University of Wisconsin’s Academic Misconduct guide, to present “the words or ideas of others without giving credit” (“Plagiarism,” ¶ 1). The University takes plagiarism seriously, and the penalties can be severe.

This handout is intended to help you use source materials responsibly and avoid plagiarizing by (a) describing the kinds of material you must document; (b) illustrating unsuccessful and successful paraphrases; (c) offering advice on how to paraphrase; and (d) providing guidelines for using direct quotations.

What You Must Document

| Quotations | 1. If you use an author's specific word or words, you must place those words within quotation marks and you must credit the source. |
| Information and Ideas | 2. Even if you use your own words, if you obtained the information or ideas you are presenting from a source, you must document the source. |
| Common Knowledge | 3. You do not need to cite a source for material considered common knowledge: |

Information: If a piece of information isn’t common knowledge (see #3 below), you need to provide a source.

Ideas: An author’s ideas may include not only points made and conclusions drawn, but, for instance, a specific method or theory, the arrangement of material, or a list of steps in a process or characteristics of a medical condition. If a source provided any of these, you need to acknowledge the source.

General common knowledge is factual information considered to be in the public domain, such as birth and death dates of well-known figures, and generally accepted dates of military, political, literary, and other historical events. In general, factual information contained in multiple standard reference works can usually be considered to be in the public domain.

Field-specific common knowledge is “common” only within a particular field or specialty. It may include facts, theories, or methods that are familiar to readers within that discipline. For instance, you may not need to cite a reference to Piaget’s developmental stages in a paper for an education class or give a source for your description of a commonly used method in a biology report—but you must be sure that this information is so widely known within that field that it will be shared by your readers.

If in doubt, be cautious and cite the source. And in the case of both general and field-specific common knowledge, if you use the exact words of the reference source, you must use quotation marks and credit the source.

The way that you credit your source depends on the documentation system you’re using. If you're not sure which documentation system to use, ask the course instructor who assigned your paper. You can pick up a Writing Center handout or check our Web site (www.wisc.edu/writing) for the basics of several commonly used styles (American Political Science Association, APSA; American Psychological Association, APA; Chicago/Turabian; Council of Biology Editors, CBE; Modern Language Association, MLA; and Numbered References).
Sample Paraphrases—Unsuccessful and Successful

Paraphrasing is often defined as putting a passage from an author into “your own words.” But what are your own words? How different must your paraphrase be from the original? The paragraphs below provide an example by showing a passage as it appears in the source (A), two paraphrases that follow the source too closely (B and C), and a legitimate paraphrase (D). The student’s intention was to incorporate the material in the original passage A into a section of a paper on the concept of “experts” that compared the functions of experts and nonexperts in several professions.

A. The Passage as It Appears in the Source (indented to indicate a lengthy direct quotation)

Critical care nurses function in a hierarchy of roles. In this open heart surgery unit, the nurse manager hires and fires the nursing personnel. The nurse manager does not directly care for patients but follows the progress of unusual or long-term patients. On each shift a nurse assumes the role of resource nurse. This person oversees the hour-by-hour functioning of the unit as a whole, such as considering expected admissions and discharges of patients, ascertaining that beds are available for patients in the operating room, and covering sick calls. Resource nurses also take a patient assignment. They are the most experienced of all the staff nurses. The nurse clinician has a separate job description and provides for quality of care by orienting new staff, developing unit policies, and providing direct support where needed, such as assisting in emergency situations. The clinical nurse specialist in this unit is mostly involved with formal teaching in orienting new staff. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist are the designated experts. They do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is seen as both a caregiver and a resource to other caregivers. . . . Staff nurses have a hierarchy of seniority. . . . Staff nurses are assigned to patients to provide all their nursing care. (Chase, 1995, p. 156)

B. Word-for-Word Plagiarism

Critical care nurses have a hierarchy of roles. The nurse manager hires and fires nurses. S/he does not directly care for patients but does follow unusual or long-term cases. On each shift a resource nurse attends to the functioning of the unit as a whole, such as making sure beds are available in the operating room, and also has a patient assignment. The nurse clinician orients new staff, develops policies, and provides support where needed. The clinical nurse specialist also orients new staff, mostly by formal teaching. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist are the designated experts. They do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is not only a caregiver but a resource to the other caregivers. Within the staff nurses there is also a hierarchy of seniority. Their job is to give assigned patients all their nursing care.

Notice that the writer has not only "borrowed" Chase's material (the results of her research) with no acknowledgment, but has also largely maintained the author's method of expression and sentence structure. The underlined phrases are directly copied from the source or changed only slightly in form. Even if the student-writer had acknowledged Chase as the source of the content, the language of the passage would be considered plagiarized because no quotation marks indicate the phrases that come directly from Chase. And if quotation marks did appear around all these phrases, this paragraph would be so cluttered that it would be unreadable.

C. A Patchwork Paraphrase

Chase (1995) described how nurses in a critical care unit function in a hierarchy that places designated experts at the top and the least senior staff nurses at the bottom. The experts--the nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist--are not involved directly in patient care. The staff nurses, in contrast, are assigned to patients and provide all their nursing care. Within the staff nurses is a hierarchy of seniority in which the most senior can become resource nurses; they are assigned a patient but also serve as a resource to other caregivers. The experts have administrative and teaching tasks such as selecting and orienting new staff, developing unit policies, and giving hands-on support where needed.

This paraphrase is a patchwork composed of pieces in the original author’s language (underlined) and pieces in the student-writer’s words, all rearranged into a new pattern, but with none of the borrowed pieces in quotation marks. Thus, even though the writer acknowledges the source of the material, the underlined phrases are falsely presented as the student’s own.
D. A Legitimate Paraphrase

In her study of the roles of nurses in a critical care unit, Chase (1995) also found a hierarchy that distinguished the roles of experts and others. Just as the educational experts described above do not directly teach students, the experts in this unit do not directly attend to patients. That is the role of the staff nurses, who, like teachers, have their own “hierarchy of seniority” (p. 156). The roles of the experts include employing unit nurses and overseeing the care of special patients (nurse manager), teaching and otherwise integrating new personnel into the unit (clinical nurse specialist and nurse clinician), and policy-making (nurse clinician). In an intermediate position in the hierarchy is the resource nurse, a staff nurse with more experience than the others, who assumes direct care of patients as the other staff nurses do, but also takes on tasks to ensure the smooth operation of the entire facility.

The writer has documented Chase’s material and specific language (by direct reference to the author and by quotation marks around language taken directly from the source). Notice too that the writer has modified Chase’s language and structure and has added material to fit the new context and purpose—to present the distinctive functions of experts and nonexperts in several professions.

Perhaps you’ve noticed that a number of phrases from the original passage appear in the legitimate paraphrase in D above: critical care, staff nurses, nurse manager, clinical nurse specialist, nurse clinician, resource nurse. If all these were underlined, the paraphrase would look much like the “patchwork” in example C. The difference is that the phrases in D are all precise, economical, and conventional designations that are part of the shared language within the nursing discipline (in B and C, they’re underlined only when used within a longer borrowed phrase). In every discipline and in certain genres (such as the empirical research report), some phrases are so specialized or conventional that you can’t paraphrase them except by wordy and awkward circumlocutions that would be less familiar (and thus less readable) to the audience. When you repeat such phrases, you’re not stealing the unique phrasing of an individual writer but using a common vocabulary shared by a community of scholars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Some Examples of Shared Language You Don’t Need to Put in Quotation Marks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Conventional designations: e.g., physician’s assistant, chronic low-back pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Preferred bias-free language: e.g., persons with disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Technical terms and phrases of a discipline or genre: e.g., reduplication, cognitive domain, material culture, sexual harassment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**How to Paraphrase**

General Advice

1. When reading a passage, try first to understand it as a whole, rather than pausing to write down specific ideas or phrases.

2. Be selective. Unless your assignment is to do a formal or “literal” paraphrase,* you usually don’t need to paraphrase an entire passage; instead, choose and summarize the material that helps you make a point in your paper.

3. Think of what “your own words” would be if you were telling someone who’s unfamiliar with your subject (your mother, your brother, a friend) what the original source said.

4. Remember that you can use direct quotations of phrases from the original within your paraphrase, and that you don’t need to change or put quotation marks around shared language (see box above).

*See Spatt (1999), pp. 99-103; *paraphrase* is used in this handout in the more common sense of a summary-paraphrase or what Spatt calls a “free paraphrase” (p. 103).
Methods of Paraphrasing

A. Look away from the source; then write.

Read the text you want to paraphrase several times—until you feel that you understand it and can use your own words to restate it to someone else. Then, look away from the original and rewrite the text in your own words.

B. Take notes.

Take abbreviated notes; set the notes aside; then paraphrase from the notes a day or so later, or when you draft.

If you find that you can’t do A or B, this may mean that you don’t understand the passage completely or that you need to use a more structured process until you have more experience in paraphrasing. The method below is not only a way to create a paraphrase but also a way to understand a difficult text.

C. While looking at the source, first change the structure, then the words.

For example, consider the following passage from Love and Toil (a book on motherhood in London from 1870 to 1918), in which the author, Ellen Ross, puts forth one of her major arguments:

Love and Toil maintains that family survival was the mother’s main charge among the large majority of London’s population who were poor or working class; the emotional and intellectual nurture of her child or children and even their actual comfort were forced into the background. To mother was to work for and organize household subsistence. (p. 9)

1. Change the structure.

   - Begin by starting at a different place in the passage and/or sentence(s), basing your choice on the focus of your paper. This will lead naturally to some changes in wording. Some places you might start in the passage above are “The mother’s main charge,” “Among the . . . poor or working class,” “Working for and organizing household subsistence,” or “The emotional and intellectual nurture.” Or you could begin with one of the people the passage is about: “Mothers,” “A mother,” “Children,” “A child.” Focusing on specific people rather than abstractions will make your paraphrase more readable.

   - At this stage, you might also break up long sentences, combine short ones, expand phrases for clarity, or shorten them for conciseness, or you might do this in an additional step. In this process, you’ll naturally eliminate some words and change others.

Here’s one of the many ways you might get started with a paraphrase of the passage above by changing its structure. In this case, the focus of the paper is the effect of economic status on children at the turn of the century, so the writer begins with children:

Children of the poor at the turn of the century received little if any emotional or intellectual nurturing from their mothers, whose main charge was family survival. Working for and organizing household subsistence were what defined mothering. Next to this, even the children’s basic comfort was forced into the background (Ross, 1995).

Now you’ve succeeded in changing the structure, but the passage still contains many direct quotations, so you need to go on to the second step:
2. **Change the words**.

- Use synonyms or a phrase that expresses the same meaning.
- Leave shared language (box, p. 3) unchanged.

It’s important to start by changing the structure, not the words, but you might find that as you change the words, you see ways to change the structure further. The final paraphrase might look like this:

According to Ross (1993), poor children at the turn of the century received little mothering in our sense of the term. Mothering was defined by economic status, and among the poor, a mother’s foremost responsibility was not to stimulate her children’s minds or foster their emotional growth but to provide food and shelter to meet the basic requirements for physical survival. Given the magnitude of this task, children were deprived of even the “actual comfort” (p. 9) we expect mothers to provide today.

You may need to go through this process several times to create a satisfactory paraphrase.

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**Using Direct Quotations**

Use direct quotations only if you have a good reason. Most of your paper should be in your own words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for Quoting</th>
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<tr>
<td>To show that an authority supports your point</td>
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<tr>
<td>To present a position or argument to critique or comment on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To include especially moving or historically significant language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To present a particularly well-stated passage whose meaning would be lost or changed if paraphrased or summarized</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Introducing Quotations**

One of your jobs as a writer is to guide your reader through your text. Don’t simply drop quotations into your paper and leave it to the reader to make connections. Integrating a quotation into your text usually involves two elements:

- A signal that a quotation is coming—generally the author’s name and/or a reference to the work
- An assertion that indicates the relationship of the quotation to your text

Often both the signal and the assertion appear in a single introductory statement, as in the example below. Notice how a transitional phrase also serves to connect the quotation smoothly to the introductory statement.

Ross (1993), in her study of poor and working-class mothers in London from 1870-1918 [signal], makes it clear that economic status to a large extent determined the meaning of motherhood [assertion]. Among this population [connection], “To mother was to work for and organize household subsistence” (p. 9).

The signal can also come after the assertion, again with a connecting word or phrase:

Illness was rarely a routine matter in the nineteenth century [assertion]. As [connection] Ross observes [signal], “Maternal thinking about children’s health revolved around the possibility of a child’s maiming or death” (p. 166).
Formatting Quotations

Incorporate *short direct prose quotations* into the text of your paper and enclose them in double quotation marks, as in the examples above. Begin *longer quotations* (for instance, in the APA system, 40 words or more) on a new line and indent the entire quotation (i.e., put in block form), with no quotation marks at beginning or end, as in the quoted passage from Chase on p. 2, A. Rules about the minimum length of block quotations, how many spaces to indent, and whether to single- or double-space extended quotations vary with different documentation systems; check the guidelines for the system you're using.

Punctuation with Quotation Marks

1. **Parenthetical citations.** With *short quotations*, place citations outside of closing quotation marks, followed by sentence punctuation (period, question mark, comma, semi-colon, colon):

   Menand (2002) characterizes language as “a social weapon” (p. 115).

   With *block quotations*, check the guidelines for the documentation system you are using. For APA, used in this handout, see sample A on p. 2, and sample C (the quotation from Ross) on p. 4.

2. **Commas and periods.** Place inside closing quotation marks when no parenthetical citation follows:

   Hertzberg (2002) notes that “treating the Constitution as imperfect is not new,” but because of Dahl’s credentials, his “apostasy merits attention” (p. 85).

3. **Semi-colons and colons.** Place outside of closing quotation marks (or after a parenthetical citation).

4. **Question marks and exclamation points.** Place inside closing quotation marks if the quotation is a question/exclamation:

   Menand (2001) acknowledges that H. W. Fowler’s *Modern English Usage* is “a classic of the language,” but he asks, “Is it a dead classic?” (p. 114). [Note that a period still follows the closing parenthesis.]

   Place outside of closing quotation marks if the entire sentence containing the quotation is a question or exclamation:

   How many students actually read the guide to find out what is meant by “academic misconduct”?

5. **Quotations within quotations.** Use single quotation marks for the embedded quotation:

   According to Hertzberg (2002), Dahl gives the U. S. Constitution ‘bad marks in ‘democratic fairness’ and ‘encouraging consensus’” (p. 90). [The phrases “democratic fairness” and “encouraging consensus” are already in quotation marks in Dahl’s sentence.]

Indicating Changes in Quotations

Use *ellipsis points* ( . . . ) to indicate an omission within a quotation–but not at the beginning or end unless it’s not obvious that you’re quoting only a portion of the whole.

Within quotations, use *square brackets* [ ] (not parentheses) to add your own clarification, comment, or correction. Use [sic] (meaning “so” or “thus”) to indicate that a mistake is in the source you’re quoting and is not your own.
Some Useful Sources on Paraphrasing and Summarizing


References


Instructions. Use the checklist below to ensure your writing assignment conforms to all formatting, referencing, and content requirements. Additionally, it would also behoove you to consult any scoring rubrics or handouts with instructions for your writing assignment to ensure that you have properly completed all aspects of the assignment.

General Items:
- The margins of pages are no more, or less than 1 inch on any side.
- The assignment meets the dictated page minimum or maximum.
- All abbreviations or acronyms have been properly spelled out first.
- I successfully completed a spelling & grammar check.

Tone of Writing:
- My writing style and tone is appropriate for the intended audience (i.e., scholarly versus conversational lay person).

APA Style (5th Edition) Formatting Items:
- My assignment includes a properly formatted title page.
- My font style is Times New Roman or Arial.
- My font size is 12-point font.
- All of my in-text references have been properly formatted [e.g., “Brewer & Cornelius (2001) found the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale to be a multi-dimensional measure” or “The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale was found to be multi-dimensional (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001)”].
- My reference page is properly formatted and alphabetized.

Content-Related Items:
- I have consulted both the writing assignment handout that outlines the specific instructions for this assignment AND I have also consulted the scoring rubric that is associated with this assignment.
- My writing assignment addresses all of the dictated requirements.

Proof-Reading:
- I have proof-read my writing assignment silently and made any appropriate corrections and revisions.
- I have proof-read my writing assignment out loud and made any appropriate corrections and revisions.
- An outside source has proof-read my writing assignment and I have made all appropriate corrections and revisions.