



Writing with Internet Sources

A Guide for Harvard Students



Expository Writing Program
Harvard College
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Checklist



When **USING** any source, remember to:

- ☐ Avoid plagiarism by clearly distinguishing between your ideas and those of your sources
- ☐ Cite every source from which you draw a fact or idea that is not common knowledge
- ☐ Acknowledge your sources when paraphrasing or quoting
- ☐ Place any language taken from a source between quotation marks



When **LOCATING** electronic sources, remember to:

- ☐ Consult the assignment to make sure you know what kinds of sources are appropriate for the essay
- ☐ Begin your research through the Harvard Libraries Portal
- ☐ Customize your search for e-resources by modifying search language
- ☐ Ask a reference librarian if you need help finding specific databases



When **EVALUATING** electronic sources, whether found through the Harvard Libraries Portal or through a popular web search engine, remember to:

- ☐ Determine the author's qualifications
- ☐ Determine the purpose and scope of the source
- ☐ Determine the accuracy and reliability of the source
- ☐ Determine the currency and coverage of the source



When **INCORPORATING** electronic sources into your writing, remember to:

- ☐ Handle your sources carefully
- ☐ Keep track of source locations and changes to online content
- ☐ Keep sources in correct context in your notes
- ☐ Print, file, and label your sources
- ☐ Keep your draft and your notes separate
- ☐ Keep a source trail
- ☐ Don't leave writing papers until the last minute, since deadline pressure makes it tempting to "borrow" material from the Internet

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Introduction

This booklet provides an introduction to the research opportunities offered by the technological tool that has recently transformed information gathering and storage: the Internet.

As a Harvard undergraduate, you are invited into a community of working scholars: in your discussions and in your essays, you have the opportunity to contribute to dynamic debates, and to articulate your own point of view. In order to do so, you need to go beyond what you already know, and often beyond the sources in class. You need, that is, to become a researcher: to learn how to investigate and analyze a set of texts, concepts, or questions. This booklet provides an introduction to the research opportunities offered by the technological tool that has recently transformed information gathering and storage: the Internet.

The Internet has markedly and beneficially affected the manner in which academic research is done, making formerly hard-to-access materials readily available. Harvard's own Open Collections Program (<http://ocp.hul.harvard.edu>), which gathers archival materials from across the Harvard library and museum system, is but one example. The program's first project, "Women Working," catalogs thousands of books, pamphlets, photographs, diaries, and other historical texts about the working lives of American women between 1800 and 1930—over 500,000 digitized pages and images in all. A search of "Women Working" under the topic "Scientists" brings up, for example, such rare materials as letters by and about Ruth Holden, a 1918 Radcliffe graduate and paleobotanist; and the 1900 journal of Williamina Paton Fleming, curator of astronomical photographs, which can be read page by page in her own handwriting. These materials have



previously been available only to scholars with access to the Harvard library system, who spent months and even years combing through stacks and files to unearth historical data relevant to their research. Now they are available to teachers, students, and scholars worldwide.

The Internet has likewise influenced the way in which scholars share their discoveries: through podcasting, personal websites, and online academic journals, scholars have expanded the very definition of audience and intellectual community. The sheer volume of online information (the number of posted files is currently in the billions, and growing) and the ease with which anyone can post information on the Internet intensify the researcher's dilemma of what sources are worth reading and using, and which conversations are worth entering. While a search engine like Google, for example, provides easy access to a seemingly endless supply of information, it can be difficult to assess which sources are credible and even whose ideas are being represented.

If you were to search Google, for instance, on the developing concept of “E-government” (the use of technology to alter or improve the relationship between citizens and governmental agencies), in 0.22 seconds you would find over 72,000,000 hits, including biased documents, such as articles written to advance particular political agendas; personal blogs; even “E-government software” for sale. But E-government is a relatively new area of scholarly inquiry, and a similar search on HOLLIS—the catalog of the Harvard University Libraries—yields just 66 academic books on the subject. Google provides speed and volume, but what do you do with all these various (and sometimes suspicious) sources once you’ve found them? In navigating the mass of materials available on the Internet, you need to evaluate carefully, distinguishing between sources that are useful and those that are questionable or biased, and to assess which online materials would be most appropriate for your specific project. The seemingly infinite universe of online information suggests the need for a strategy such as limiting your initial search to the large but selective group of electronic resources—online databases and e-journals—that Harvard librarians have screened for reliability and seriousness, and to which Harvard students have instantaneous access.

Whether you are undertaking a broad search through a popular search engine like Google, or searching through Harvard's e-resources, the Internet has made it dramatically simpler to access and manipulate information. With only a few

keystrokes you can access a vast array of texts and materials. This presents a challenge, since the ease of accessibility makes it easier, in turn, to cut and paste ideas or language from websites into your own writing, and more difficult, at times, to determine authorship. It is crucial that you learn how to negotiate your relationship to the intellectual property of others, being vigilant not only in evaluating electronic sources, but also in handling and incorporating them into your own work. Materials found on the Internet are often mistakenly assumed to be in the public domain: online information may appear to be “democratic” in its ease of accessibility, and websites can give the illusion of being owned by everyone because they seem to be authorless. But much online material is copyrighted; even if a website has no immediately identifiable author, someone has created it and thus has rights to it. It's your responsibility to honestly acknowledge your sources, giving credit where it is due and making clear how others' ideas have shaped your own insights and arguments.

The College has established a high standard for the responsible use of all kinds of sources—a standard that defines all of the assignments you submit at Harvard. The following chapters cover the process of writing with sources found on the Internet and will help you learn:



How to **ACKNOWLEDGE** sources responsibly and avoid plagiarism;



How to **LOCATE** the electronic sources most relevant for your research;



How to **EVALUATE** what kinds of electronic sources are credible and appropriate for use in an academic essay;



How to **INCORPORATE** electronic sources into your writing responsibly;



How to **CITE** electronic sources, using one of the most common formats (MLA, APA, or Chicago style).

Each section provides fundamental guidelines and principles; for quick reference, see the inside front cover for a checklist of key strategies.



Using Sources Responsibly

Academic writing is bound by rules of citation and attribution. In order to avoid plagiarism, scholars are careful to make distinctions between their own words and ideas and those of others.



It's critical that you give credit for ideas and language that come from any outside source, and that you help your readers locate the sources you've used in case they wish to make reference to them. This section of *Writing with Internet Sources* offers advice on using sources responsibly and avoiding plagiarism.

Why do I need to acknowledge sources in my writing?

Academic inquiry is an inherently collaborative enterprise. Any topic you write about is likely to have been written about by someone else before you, and your thinking on that topic will be informed by the thinking of other scholars. Far from detracting from the originality of your own work, citing sources demonstrates your knowledge of, and engagement with, other scholarship. Even the most original work remains deeply indebted to the work of others.

The collaborative nature of academic inquiry implies that you must use the intellectual work of others ethically. In particular, you are obliged not to misrepresent the ideas of other people and to give proper credit to those whose ideas you use in your own work. Coming up with an original and worthy idea requires dedication, work, and talent—often, in fact, years of training, research, and reflection—and people who expend such work and talent deserve proper credit for their labors. When you pass off the work of another writer as your own, you deprive that writer of the credit he or she deserves and claim it for yourself.

Avoiding Plagiarism

All Harvard College students are expected to understand standards of proper citation and to avoid plagiarism. Plagiarism is the incorporation of facts, ideas, or specific language into your writing that: (1) is not ‘common knowledge’; (2) is/are drawn from another source; and, (3) is not properly cited.

► Do I need to cite unpublished sources, such as course lectures or discussions?

You need to cite all of the sources from which you draw facts, ideas, or language, including course lectures, discussions, and handouts.

► What is ‘common knowledge’?

In order to decide whether to cite a source, you need to make a judgment about whether the information drawn from the source is common knowledge. If the information is common knowledge, there is no need to cite the source. If the information is *not* common knowledge, failure to cite counts as plagiarism since you are using the specific facts, ideas, or language of another writer without giving that writer credit.

It is not always easy to define what does and does not count as common knowledge, though, since the borders of the category are fuzzy. Roughly speaking, facts, ideas, and language that are generally known to an educated reader, or to some subset of educated readers, can be reckoned common knowledge. Facts, ideas, and language that are the distinct and unique products of others do not count as common knowledge and must be cited. In practice, drawing the distinction can be tricky in certain cases. *If you are unsure about whether source material is common knowledge or not, it is always safest simply to cite the relevant source.*

Different Sorts of Common Knowledge

Widely known facts are common knowledge

Widely known scientific and historical facts—such as the molecular structure of water (H₂O), or that Jefferson Davis was the president of the Confederacy—generally count as common knowledge. You can include such facts in your writing without citation and without fear of committing plagiarism. Other facts that count as common knowledge—for instance, that Franz Boas, the distinguished American ethnologist, held the first academic appointment in anthropology in the United States—are widely known to some groups of people (professional anthropologists) but perhaps not to you. Nevertheless, you would not have to cite the fact about Boas, since it is common knowledge in the sense that no particular individual discovered this information (say, through archival research at Columbia University, where Boas taught).

Opinions or interpretations are usually not considered common knowledge, unless they are very widely held

Opinions or interpretations of facts generally do not count as common knowledge. If you read in a source that Franz Boas held the first professorship in anthropology, but that his importance in the field is much overrated, you would need to acknowledge the source of the idea regarding Boas’ overblown reputation, since this judgment is an opinion, and not a fact. But even some interpretations or opinions (rather than facts) have entered the realm of common knowledge and need not be cited. If you were to introduce the claim that culture provides a means by which humans adapt to their environments, you would not need to cite a source for this claim, since it is almost universally held by anthropologists. But, if you were unsure that this was the consensus view among anthropologists, you would be best served simply to cite the source. On the whole, opinions or interpretations do not enter the realm of common knowledge as easily as historical or scientific facts.

Verbatim language drawn from a source is rarely common knowledge, unless the formulation is widely known

You must always provide a citation for quotations you use in your writing. The only exceptions to this rule concern well-known quotations that have entered the realm of common knowledge. If you were to quote Descartes’ famous dictum, “I think, therefore I am,” you would not need to provide a source since it is assumed that any educated reader would know the source of this quotation. Otherwise, when using lesser-known quotations, you must always provide citations for them in your writing.

Common Types of Plagiarism

Instances of plagiarism may be grouped into two broad types: wholesale plagiarism, in which a writer claims a whole text or major portions of text as his or her own; and mosaic plagiarism, in which a writer mixes his or her own ideas with language, facts, or ideas drawn from another source without proper citation.

Wholesale plagiarism

What might be called wholesale plagiarism occurs when a student purchases a paper online and later claims it as his or her own work, or turns in the work of a fellow student as his or her own, or makes any similar attempt to pass off as one's own whole texts or portions of text taken verbatim from other sources.

Mosaic plagiarism

Mosaic plagiarism takes three basic forms: verbatim plagiarism, conceptual plagiarism, and structural plagiarism.

► Verbatim plagiarism

Verbatim plagiarism incorporates words or phrases taken directly from a source without placing the verbatim portions between quotation marks. This type of plagiarism emerges most commonly when a writer is summarizing another source.

Verbatim plagiarism often arises when a writer attempts to paraphrase a source immediately after reading the source, or even with the source text open in front of him or her. With the source's specific language fresh in mind or the source itself in view, bits of the verbatim language can easily make their way into a paraphrase. Writers must guard against the possibility of a source's specific language making its way into their own work unless such language appears between quotation marks.

► Conceptual plagiarism

Even if you do not reproduce any of the specific language of a source, you may still be plagiarizing it. Conceptual plagiarism refers to the incorporation of facts or distinctive ideas from a source without attribution.

► Structural plagiarism

It is still possible to plagiarize a source even if you avoid verbatim and conceptual plagiarism. Language, ideas, and facts are not the only features of a source that can be original and in need of citation. A source may, for instance, present an original way of *approaching* a problem or issue, for which the author deserves credit. If a source suggests that analyzing citizens' complaints about their country is a good way to understand nationalistic sentiment (Herzfeld 2004), then a writer who wants to apply this methodological insight (that studying complaints about x is a good way to understand x) to a different case should acknowledge the original source as his or her inspiration for this general approach. Likewise, if a source has devised an experimental design that a writer proposes to use to answer an altogether different research question, the writer still needs to give credit to the source for coming up with the design. In some instances even the formal properties of a source text—such as its organization or rhetorical properties—should be cited if they are sufficiently distinctive and the writer wishes to adopt them in his or her own work.

Examples of verbatim plagiarism and conceptual plagiarism, can be found on page 12

Consider the following pairing of an original source and a paraphrase of that source as examples of verbatim and conceptual plagiarism.

Original Source:

"The task of converting human life and death into commodities is highly complex, creating inescapable sources of structural ambivalence in any enterprise that deals commercially with such sacred "products." Business demands profits for survival, yet profits alone remain a justification too base for an institution of its kind. I suggest that one solution, in the case of life insurance, was its "sacralization": the transformation of the monetary evaluation of death into a ritual. Death yielded to the capitalist ethos—but not without compelling the latter to disguise its materialist mission in spiritual garb." [Zelizer, 1978, p.605]

Example of verbatim plagiarism:

Paraphrase:

Sociologist Viviana Zelizer argues that the life insurance industry's *task of converting human life and death into commodities* was met with *structural ambivalence* **A** when such insurance was first introduced in the United States [Zelizer, 1978, p.605]. **B** The industry viewed life insurance as a potentially profitable new market, but many Americans thought *profits alone* were a *justification too base* for a putting a price on human life. The industry responded by *transforming the monetary evaluation of death into a ritual*. By claiming that the money paid for life insurance was "sacred," the insurance industry sought *to disguise its materialist mission in spiritual garb*. **C**

Example of conceptual plagiarism:

Paraphrase:

Although it may be surprising to contemporary readers, the introduction of life insurance in the 19th century was met with public outcry. Many commentators contended that it was immoral to put a price on human life, as life insurance policies seemed to do. The insurance industry responded to such criticisms by marketing life insurance as a sacred service, thereby attempting to remove the stigma of mixing money with matters of life and death.

In this instance the writer of the paraphrase has interspersed phrases taken verbatim from the source text (set off for you in red italics at right) with his or her own language. Note, for instance, the phrase "structural ambivalence" **A** appearing in the first sentence of the paraphrase. The writer might have supposed that the formulation of the phrase "structural ambivalence" would not be sufficiently distinctive to merit quotation; in this instance, however, the specific application of the concept "structural ambivalence" to the market for life insurance is Zelizer's original contribution, and must be placed between quotation marks. Generally speaking, phrases of two words or more that are in any way distinctive ought to be placed in quotation marks. In many instances, even single words taken verbatim from a source should be placed in quotation marks, if the application of the word is unique.

Note also that the paraphrase is plagiarized even though the writer does cite Zelizer's article at the end of the first sentence. **B** The citation of Zelizer in the first sentence does not remedy the absence of quotation marks around the phrases taken verbatim from Zelizer's article; it merely indicates that the claim in the first sentence is Zelizer's; the writer still reproduces Zelizer's specific language without acknowledgment. Furthermore, the absence of citation in sentences 2-4 suggests that the writer is now providing his or her own interpretation of the history of life insurance, when in fact he or she is still simply recapitulating Zelizer's exposition. Sentences 2-4 thus plagiarize both Zelizer's language and her ideas. (The latter is an instance of conceptual plagiarism, described below.) **C**

In this case the writer has carefully avoided using any of Zelizer's specific language, and thereby avoided verbatim plagiarism of the sort described above. But the writer has nevertheless incorporated both facts and distinctive ideas drawn from Zelizer's text without citation. In the first sentence of the paraphrase, the writer notes that the advent of life insurance in the nineteenth century was greeted with public disapproval. But the fact that people expressed their concern about life insurance when it debuted is hardly common knowledge, and one may assume that the writer learned the information from Zelizer's article. He or she therefore needs to cite the source of this information. Furthermore, the claim that the industry began to treat life insurance as a sacred commodity is Zelizer's original interpretation of the situation, and must therefore be cited.

The Harvard College policy on plagiarism

The Harvard College *Handbook for Students* stipulates the College's policy on "Plagiarism and Collaboration" as follows:

All homework assignments, projects, lab reports, papers, and examinations submitted to a course are expected to be the student's own work. Students should always take great care to distinguish their own ideas and knowledge from information derived from sources. The term "sources" includes not only primary and secondary material published in print or on-line, but also information and opinions gained directly from other people.

The responsibility for learning the proper forms of citation lies with the individual student. Quotations must be placed properly within quotation marks and must be cited fully. In addition, all paraphrased material must be acknowledged completely. Whenever ideas or facts are derived from a student's reading and research or from a student's own writings, the sources must be indicated....

Students who, for whatever reason, submit work either not their own or without clear attribution to its sources will be subject to disciplinary action, and ordinarily required to withdraw from the College.
(*Handbook for Students* 2006: 64)

Note that the *Handbook's* language does not address intent; rather, it addresses the product submitted for review by an instructor.

► What penalties does the College impose on students who plagiarize?

The College takes plagiarism very seriously. Students found to have committed plagiarism are ordinarily required to withdraw from (leave) the College, usually for a period of two terms or more.

► Where can I go for more specific guidance on using sources responsibly?

Students seeking more general advice on the standards for using sources responsibly in their writing should consult *Writing with Sources*, which is available for download at the website of the Expository Writing Program.

Works Cited

Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Harvard College. (2006). *Handbook for Students* 2006-07. Cambridge: President and Fellows of Harvard College.

Herzfeld, M. (2004). *Cultural Intimacy: Social Poetics in the Nation-State*. New York: Routledge.

Zelizer, V. (1978). "Human Values and the Market: The Case of Life Insurance and Death in 19th-Century America." *American Journal of Sociology*, 84, 591-610.



Locating Electronic Sources

The Internet provides access to an enormous variety of texts and materials—literally billions of files.

This multiplicity of potential sources is both exciting and confounding: it can be difficult to determine how best to search and which materials are credible and worth considering.

Electronic *resources* are the databases, search engines, and storage sites through which one locates **electronic sources**: any text or material accessed through the Internet (even if that text or material exists in hard copy offline).

Electronic *research* is any research that uses online databases or websites.

The Internet provides access to an enormous variety of texts and materials—literally billions of files. This multiplicity of potential sources is both exciting and confounding: it can be difficult to determine how best to search and which materials are credible and worth considering. Harvard students, however, have limitless access to the Harvard Libraries’ already-vetted collection of electronic resources. In addition to the wealth of print materials housed in libraries across campus, Harvard libraries provide a world of digitized information: subject databases (*PsycINFO*, for example); full text journals in all academic disciplines; historical sources (*The Pennsylvania Gazette, 1728-1800*); e-books; statistics (*Global Financial Data*); image databases (*ARTstor*); audio recordings (*Naxos Music Library*); and more. These resources, chosen by librarians, often with faculty input, are paid for by subscription and are not freely available to those outside the Harvard community.

Simply put, broad Internet searches cannot compete with searches through Harvard’s carefully constructed system of e-resources. The Libraries acquire these resources for the Harvard community because they are recognized as essential tools for scholarship, teaching, and learning. They have the University’s seal of approval for their breadth, depth, and appropriateness to intellectual work. It is your responsibility to know what these resources are, where to find them, when to use them, and how to search them effectively. This section of *Writing with Internet Sources* offers a basic introduction to some, but by no means all, of Harvard’s e-resources.



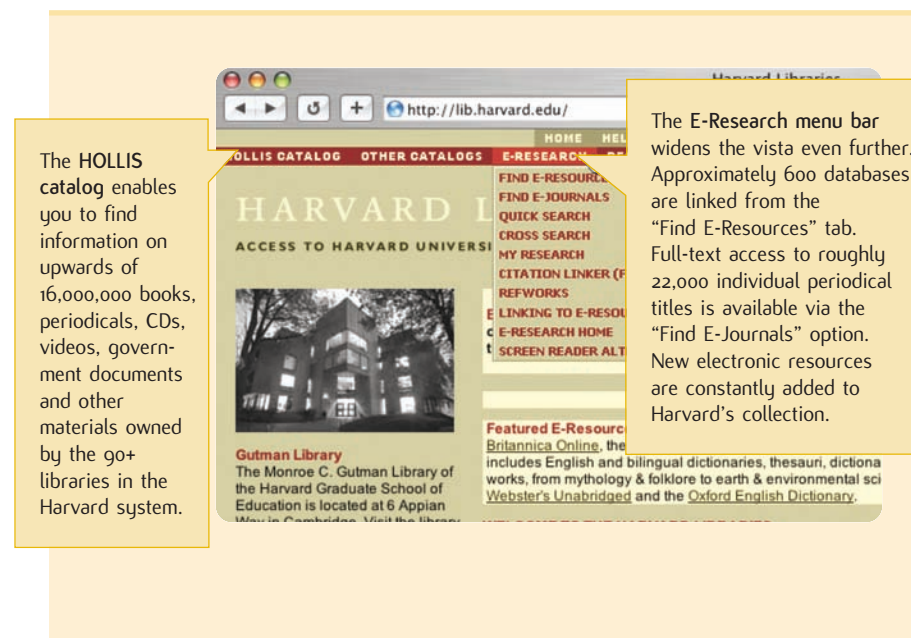
Start with the Assignment

Before beginning your research, it is worth thinking about why you are looking for electronic sources in particular, and how you plan to use those sources in your essay. The dozens of sources available will be of little use if you cannot organize them for eventual analysis and citation. First, consult the essay assignment itself—and, if necessary, your instructor—making sure that you’re clear about the goals of the assignment and the role of sources within it.

In the “locating” stage of research and writing, be aware of the difference between working with electronic versus print sources: downloading files and setting bookmarks is easier than making photocopies and carrying books home from the library. Always start with a scale appropriate to the assignment and then expand outward from there to match your interests. Ask yourself:

- How wide a net should I cast, given the scope of the assignment? (For example: shall I use just one or two outside sources to supplement or contextualize a reading of texts my instructor has provided? Or is this a research essay, for which I need to compile an original bibliography of sources?)
- Are there required sources? Optional sources? Proscribed sources?
- How will my use of electronic sources help meet the terms of the assignment and develop my thesis and argument?

The answers to these questions will help you gauge which e-resources are appropriate for your project.



<http://lib.harvard.edu>

Begin Your Search at the Harvard Libraries Portal

The point of origin for research projects at Harvard should always be <http://lib.harvard.edu>. Known as the Harvard Libraries Portal, this is the “front door” to information of great breadth and depth.

Harvard’s e-resources do not encompass the entire universe of knowledge (of course, neither does the Internet) but their reach is vast, as the above numbers suggest—so start your research explorations at <http://lib.harvard.edu>, and look elsewhere only if (or when) you’ve truly exhausted Harvard’s electronic and print holdings. Your instructor or a reference librarian can help you make that determination.



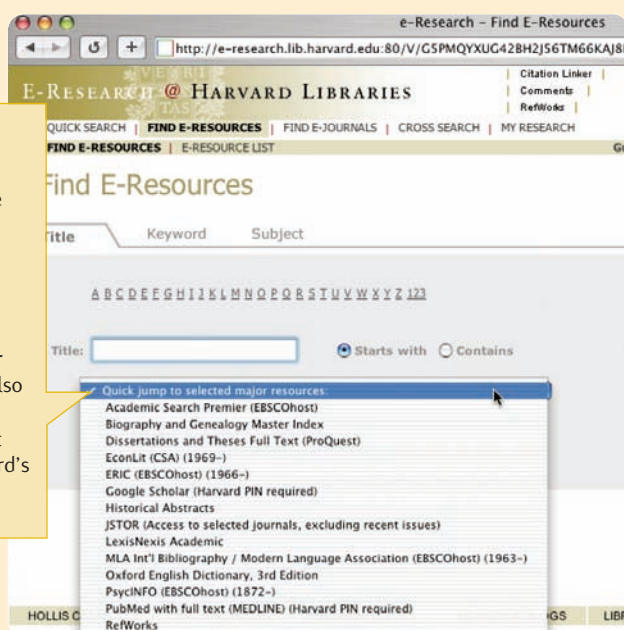
Identify the E-Resources Appropriate to Your Research

Writing assignments are invitations to join a scholarly conversation about a particular topic or set of ideas. To participate effectively, you need to discover who is already a part of the conversation, where the conversation is taking place, and what vocabulary is being used. Though Google (and Google Scholar) might provide random pieces of this conversation, you must find the databases and e-journals where the most serious, credible scholarly essays reflecting the discourse within a field (and around your topic) are stored. Fortunately, every academic discipline has a set of special online tools for just this purpose, and you can identify them in one of several ways.

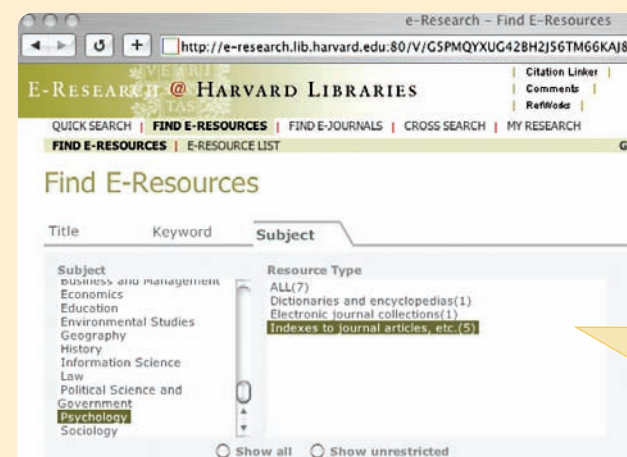
If, for example, you are doing research on new treatments for autism, you might begin by searching for an e-resource that contains articles on psychology such as PsycINFO. To reach the sources you're looking for, you'd type "PsycINFO" into the title box, and browse under "major resources" in Harvard's holdings for other relevant databases to use:

When you know the name of the e-resource you're looking for, type its name in the title box.

The "Quick jump to selected major resources" can also be a shortcut to some of the most popular of Harvard's e-resources.



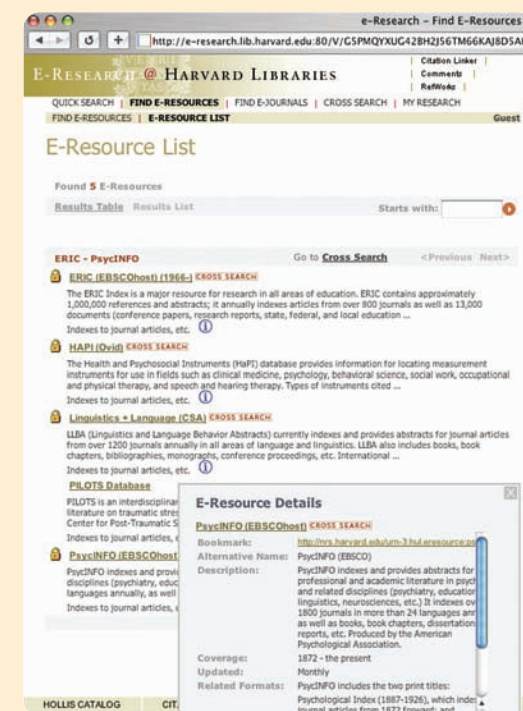
You can also search by general discipline, and find all the relevant e-resources in Harvard's collection by clicking on "Psychology" under the "Subject" heading:



If you want to search by discipline, you can use the subject screen to do so. All of Harvard's e-resources have been classified according to their field of academic study. Subjects can also be paired with resource types (as they are here).

Once you've generated a list of possible e-resources to search, clicking on the ① will open up the "E-Resource Details." Scanning the description helps answer important questions:

- Who produces this e-resource?
- What sort of information is this e-resource likely to contain?
- What journal titles are covered by this e-resource? Are journals covered in full or do only selected articles appear?
- How many years of published scholarship are included?
- How current is the information found here?





Customize Your Search

Harvard's e-resources are as varied as the books on library shelves; when you move from one screen to another, you'll encounter different color schemes, font sizes, page layouts, and designs. Even so, search screens in e-resources usually function in predictable ways—including the information requested of you, the researcher. Familiarizing yourself with some of the most common features will help you use e-resources with greater efficiency and proficiency. They are:

► Two types of search screens:

(“simple” or “basic” and “expanded” or “advanced”)

While “basic” or “quick search” screens are often simple and straightforward (on the order of Google), the “advanced search” screens of e-resources are typically more powerful, since they offer a host of other ways to control, streamline, or precisely define a search. For example, you might get a fast and general sense of what sources are available through the Illumina database by typing “autism” into the “quick search” screen (see below); by adding terms to the “advanced search” screen, such as “therapy,” “neurology,” or “psychiatry,” you’d be able to make your search more specific.

The screenshot displays the ILLUMINA search interface. At the top, it says "CSA ILLUMINA" and "Harvard Library". Below this, there's a navigation bar with "Quick Search", "Advanced Search", "Search Tools", and "Browse". The "Quick Search" section has a text input field with a "Search" button and a "Search Tips" link. The "Advanced Search" section is partially visible, showing a "Now Selected" dropdown set to "Worldwide Political Science Abstracts", a "Change:" dropdown for "Subject Area", and a "Date Range:" dropdown for "Earliest to Current". There are also checkboxes for "Latest Update", "Journal Articles Only", and "English Only".

Frequently Used Databases Search

The following e-resources are useful places to start when searching general databases through the Harvard portal:

Academic Search Premier (ASP): a multidisciplinary database that includes citations, abstracts, and often the full text of articles from scholarly journals, popular magazines, and selected newspapers. Also a good resource for finding book reviews.

JSTOR: a searchable digital archive of the text of important scholarly journals in all fields. Although JSTOR coverage begins with the first issue of each journal, the most recent years are often not available electronically. Check with a Reference Librarian to locate the most recent issues of the journal titles in JSTOR.

LexisNexis Academic: a database providing access to news, business, legal, and medical publications and information sources, including newspapers, newsletters, magazines, trade journals, wire services, and broadcast transcripts. LexisNexis Academic also offers selected international resources in French, Italian, and German. The legal component of the database consists of federal and state judicial decisions, statutes, law reviews, and other legal commentary.

Citation Indexes (a.k.a. the Web of Science): multidisciplinary searchable databases that include citations and abstracts of articles in major scholarly journals in all areas of the arts and humanities, social sciences, and sciences.

► Two types of search language:

(keyword [“natural language”] and controlled vocabulary [usually referred to as “subjects,” “subject headings,” or “descriptors”])

Keywords are the terms you think up to describe your topic or the information you need. *Subject* terms come from a specialized vocabulary and are useful in linking items that are similar in emphasis, content, or purpose. Subject terms safeguard against the vagaries of language; in HOLLIS (and other e-resources), they’re what ensure that you get to all the information on a given topic—not just the information that happens to match a particular keyword. Though your keyword might be “autism,” for example, your subject terms might include words like “developmental disability” or “language therapy.”



► **Truncation or “wildcard” searching:**

By adding a symbol—usually an asterisk (*) or a question mark (?) to a word stem—you can pick up variant terms. So while the term “psychiatry” might only yield sources that contain that precise term, adding a question mark (“psychiatry?”) can lead to sources that contain variants such as “psychiatric,” “psychiatrist,” etc.

► **Boolean logic:**

Google searching allows you to enter a string of words together without explicit connecting terms (like “and”) between them. “Language therapy neurological disorder” works fine on the web. Library e-resources, on the other hand, almost always require that you insert conjunctions between terms: “neurological disorder and language therapy” or “neurology and language and therapy,” for example. When using Harvard’s e-resources, get in the habit of inserting “or” between words that can be treated as synonyms (“doctors or physicians”). Many e-resources allow you to use “not” (or “and not”) to exclude certain information (e.g., “doctors not cardiologists”).

► **Modified searching:**

You can modify, refine, or focus a search by adding additional terms or sorting search results differently—for example, sorting results by relevance (as a percentage of a hit, such as 89%), date of publication (to find the latest work, or the first publication on a subject or topic), or place of publication (how many articles on the subject appeared in the *New England Journal of Medicine*, e.g.).

Frequently Used Specialized Internet Research

Internet research has its limitations, and some of the most valuable resources in a given field may not be available online. Harvard’s librarians can help you determine which resources, print or electronic, are most useful for your essay—and they can always help you when you have a discipline-specific question, or a question about research in a foreign language. For specialized assistance, consult the list of Library Research Contacts by Subject, Language, and Region at:

<http://hcl.harvard.edu/research/contacts/index.html>

Harvard College Library also provides research guides for different disciplines, including tips on doing electronic research by academic subject. Go to:

<http://hcl.harvard.edu/research/guides/subject.html>

► **Special Harvard links:**

Harvard e-resources can help you determine if a journal article is available online in full text here at Harvard. Look for the **FIND IT @ HARVARD** link. When there is no online option, **FIND IT @** will identify the Harvard library or libraries that have the journal in hard (print) copy.

If you choose to use Harvard’s search engines and databases, consult with your instructor and research librarians, who may have an informed perspective on your subject. Extra clicking and downloading can be done at your computer, but having a conversation during office hours or stopping at a library reference desk may be more helpful in determining how best to locate the sources most appropriate for your essay.



Evaluating Electronic Sources

Whether you are using electronic or print sources, you will need to determine whether they are reliable and appropriate for your assignment.

Whether you are using electronic or print sources, you will need to determine whether they are reliable and appropriate for your assignment. When you go to the library and find books or academic journals this process may seem fairly straightforward: information about the author and publisher is readily available between the covers of a book, and when you find an article in an academic journal you can page through and see what other types of articles it publishes. When you find a source through an electronic database you need to use different criteria to assess its usefulness, and this assessment is even more important because it is frequently difficult to determine the authorship and credibility of an electronic source. This section of *Writing with Internet Sources* provides tips about how to evaluate electronic sources found in two ways: first, through a screened database (like one of the e-resources available via the Harvard Libraries Portal); second, through a popular search engine (like Google).



Evaluating Electronic Sources within a Database

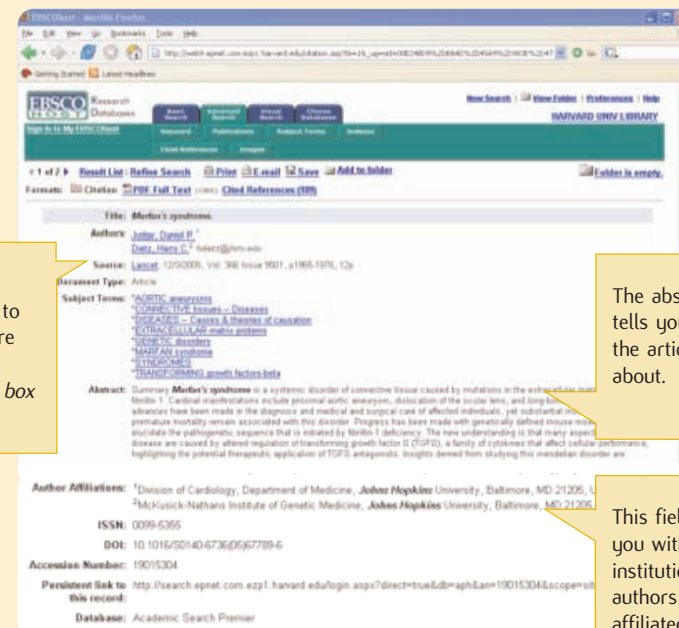
When you do research using the wide variety of electronic resources available through the Harvard Libraries Portal, you can be confident that these e-resources have been selected according to rigorous standards. Not all online resources are created equal, and for an e-resource to be acquired for the portal, Harvard librarians carefully evaluate whether it is published by a reputable vendor, is updated frequently, and is relatively easy to navigate and search, and whether the database content is significantly valuable relative to its cost.

It's still up to you, however, to determine the appropriateness of a given source for your specific essay. All sources—print and electronic—should be held to the same standards. You need to determine the qualifications of the author, the purpose and scope of the source (that is, in what context it's been written, and its breadth of information), and the currency and reliability of the source. Although the questions you ask to evaluate electronic sources are very similar to those you ask of print sources, the way you find the answers can be quite different. Ask yourself:

► Who is the author of the source? What are the author's qualifications?

If you are going to rely on the expertise offered by an author, it's always important to know that author's credentials. Has the author published other books on the subject? What is the author's academic or institutional affiliation? When using an electronic database to locate references to journal articles, you should be easily able to identify the author of a journal article in the citation record. Most often the author's institutional affiliation will be listed on the citation as well. If there isn't any information about the author on the database, you can usually find it by looking at the journal article itself.

For example, if you were writing a paper about Marfan syndrome for your Life Sciences 1b class, you might turn up the following article from a search in the database Academic Search Premier (see below). By scrolling down to the category "author affiliations," you would learn that both authors are affiliated with the medical school at Johns Hopkins University.





► What is the purpose and scope of the source?

Where was it originally published?

Once you have located a source, consider its purpose and scope: for whom is the article or site intended? In what context was the article written—is the author engaging in a particular scholarly conversation, for example? Does the author cite other major works on or data about the topic or is this a personal response to an issue or text? If you wanted to gain background information on this topic, would looking at this article be enough, or would you need to consult other sources?

Questions like these will help you determine whether and how to use a source. Many articles are accompanied, either in the database listing or in the original journal appearance, by an *abstract*—a short summary of the article’s main ideas. Reading the abstract, the article’s introduction, or both, helps determine whether the article will be relevant to your project. If you’re not sure in which kind of publication your source originally appeared, click on the title of the publication to find out. For example, when you click on *Lancet*, you will discover that this is a medical journal, which suggests that it is a reliable source.

► How current and reliable is the source?

As with print sources, it’s always important to determine the reliability of an electronic source. Reliability is linked to the quality of the publication in which a source appears, to the author’s qualifications, and to the currency of the research being offered (that is, how recent and up-to-date the information is). Always check to see if a journal article has been peer reviewed. Clicking on the journal title often leads to a page that includes information about its editorial procedure and the frequency of publication. Since *Lancet* is peerreviewed and published 52 times a year, its reliability and currency make it a desirable source.

Peer-Reviewed Journals

When searching for journal articles, it’s best to find articles that have been vetted by scholars in the field. Editors of *refereed* or *peer-reviewed* journals send prospective manuscripts to scholars who specialize in the topics covered, and these scholars critique the manuscripts without knowing the identity of the author. If an author has made claims that are unsubstantiated or considered problematic by his or her peers, the manuscript may not be published; if, on the other hand, the manuscript is deemed rigorous in its argument, it will be published. The review process is meticulous and dispassionate (since the reviewers don’t know whose manuscript they’re reading, they can’t play favorites). By contrast, journals that are not refereed publish manuscripts that have been reviewed only by an editor or editorial collective, and these manuscripts are not reviewed anonymously. In print sources, information about the editorial process is usually available near the front matter of the journal; in electronic sources, clicking on the journal title will usually lead to a page outlining the editorial procedures.

Evaluating Electronic Sources Found through Popular Web Search Engines

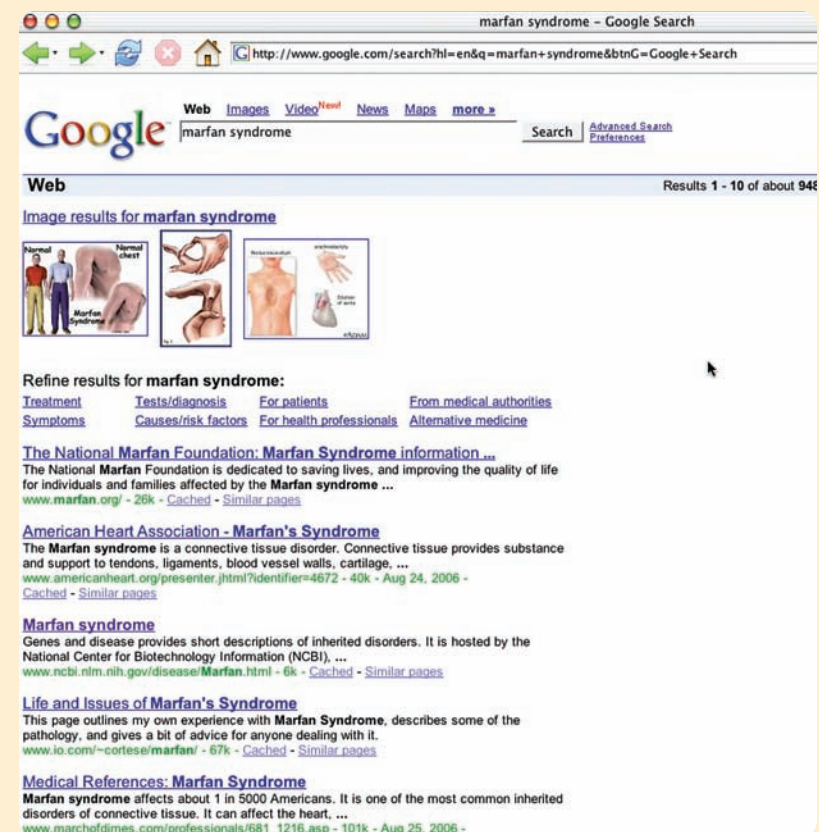
Although you should always consider beginning your research by using e-resources available through the Harvard Libraries Portal, there may be times when you will want to use popular web search engines like Google. These search engines should be held to the same rigorous standards used by Harvard's librarians when they vet sources.

Because web sources can be created by anyone and therefore are riskier in terms of their credibility and authority, they should always be evaluated according to the following criteria. Ask yourself the following questions:

► Who is the author of this site?

As with any source, it's important to identify the author of a website and to become familiar with the author's qualifications. Be skeptical of any web page that does not identify an author or invites you to contact an unnamed "Webmaster." If you are to depend on this website as a source of information, you need to determine the author's credentials as well as the purpose and rationale for posting this website. For example, a website created to serve a particular viewpoint, or to make a monetary profit, might skew information for the author's own ends—so consider, too, the publishing body of the web page: the place or server on which the document resides (or from which it originates). If this information is not readily apparent, try backing up several directory levels (deleting from the right side of the URL). Is the web document linked to a federal agency (.gov), a non-profit site (.org), an educational institution (.edu), a business (.com)?

If, for example, you performed a Google search on the topic of Marfan syndrome, the more than one million results would contain a mix of reliable and unreliable sources from a variety of commercial, non-profit, government, and educational websites:



For any site you chose to use, you'd need to ask yourself: is the organization a known, reliable, and suitable site for the document—a research center, for example, a college or university, a government office? When in doubt, try some web searches (by organization name), or consult other online and print tools (which a librarian can recommend).



► How accurate and objective is this site?

If you are going to cite information found on a website, it's important to know whether you can trust the accuracy of the facts (i.e., the hard data) under discussion in a particular document. First, determine if the factual information on a website can be corroborated elsewhere—through a reference to or citation of a clearly reliable source, for example. A website with data that cannot be confirmed should never be trusted, no matter how perfect it might seem for your purposes.

It's also important to understand the website's point of view or bias. How clear are its purposes? Does the language used on this site suggest a specific ideology or social or political agenda? Advocacy for a particular cause is not in itself a bad thing; when the slant of a site is deceptive or extreme, however, you should reject it as a legitimate research resource. If advertising appears on a web page, try to determine the extent to which it may be influencing informational content: is it clear where the boundary is between the advertising and informational content, for example? Does the data seem manipulated to serve the ads, or are the ads simply used to fund the site?

Sites that have “academic” or educational content are often non-profit sites and generally follow certain rules. Scholarship relies upon context and usually builds on precedent, so ask yourself:

- Do you have the sense that the author is positioning himself or herself within an ongoing and serious discussion?
- Does the site demonstrate knowledge of related research—and does the author cite current and reliable sources?
- If footnotes, bibliographies, and hypertext links are used, do they add authority, credibility, or depth to the argument or only seem to do so?

Compare, for instance, the information provided on Wikipedia versus the National Marfan Foundation website. Wikipedia might seem scholarly and educational, since it describes itself as a free encyclopedia. Below is Wikipedia's entry for Marfan syndrome:



Although Wikipedia offers considerable coverage of topics and multiple hyperlinks to other relevant material on the Web, users must be extremely cautious in employing Wikipedia as a research tool. As its own disclaimer states, information on Wikipedia is contributed by anyone who wants to post material. Users may be reading information that is outdated or even, according to the site's administrators, “vandalized or altered by someone whose opinion does not correspond with the state of knowledge in the relevant fields.” Some information on Wikipedia may well be accurate, but because experts do not review the site's entries, there is a considerable risk in relying on this source for your essays.

A more reliable source may be, for example, the site for the National Marfan Foundation. Although the site's authors are careful not to represent their site as offering medical diagnoses, the source assembles articles with clearly indicated authorship and dates of publication. Furthermore, the site clearly states who vets its information for publication:



► What is the currency and coverage?

Finally, since information on the web is so easily posted, it's especially important to make sure that the sources you consult are timely. Ask yourself:

- Is the creation date of the document (or of its most recent revision) unambiguously present?
- Is the information up-to-date or are the resources outdated?

Age is relative on the web: certain documents are timeless—their value is determined completely by their place in the historical record, and a document that is three or four years old can still be “timely” in certain disciplines. In fields where knowledge develops rapidly (e.g., the sciences) or data is expected to change (e.g., statistics), however, currency is more critical. As always, if you have questions, ask your instructor or a librarian, who may have a more comprehensive and informed perspective on the currency of particular scholarly conversations and research trends.



Incorporating Electronic Sources into Your Writing

Working with sources found on the Internet requires the same rigorous standards of academic honesty used with print sources.

Working with sources found on the Internet requires the same rigorous standards of academic honesty used with print sources. When using any source, it's critical that you give credit for both ideas and language that aren't your own, and that you help your readers locate the sources you've used in case they wish to make reference to them. There are some particular issues to which you'll need to attend when working with electronic sources, however, and this section of *Writing with Internet Sources* offers strategies for how to incorporate electronic sources responsibly into your writing.



Principles for Using Electronic Sources

While the Internet offers new opportunities for research, it also presents new challenges for scholars seeking to incorporate information found online into their writing. When working with electronic sources, remember to:

► Respect authors' ownership over their ideas

Beware of the assumption that sources found on the Internet “belong to everyone” simply because the Internet is so prevalent and so intangible (i.e., not a text that one actually holds). All sources are authored by someone, and prevalence is not the same thing as “common knowledge.” Much of the information on the Internet is copyrighted and is thus the intellectual property of those who wrote or created it. Make sure you credit any source you use—whether you’ve been influenced by the ideas of another writer or are using specific language taken from a source.

Common Knowledge

“Common knowledge” is information standard within a field of study, such as major historical facts or dates. Even if you have to look up the date of the Norman Conquest, for example (1066 A.D.), because that information is easily found within a number of sources it counts as common knowledge. Interpretation of commonly known facts (an analysis of the effects of the Norman Conquest, e.g.) or specialized information (the number of horses in the Norman cavalry at the Battle of Hastings, e.g.) must be cited if taken from a source.

See *Using Sources Responsibly*, on page 6, for a more detailed explanation of what does and does not count as common knowledge.

► Keep track of source locations

Keep track of each website you visit by logging the web addresses (URLs) in a separate document from the one you’re writing. To do so, bookmark the pages you’re using, put each one into a file with an accurate name, and then export those files into a folder that you update as you work. This is a sound research habit in general, but is especially important if you use several computers or if you share computers. You (and your readers) need to know how to return to any website that you’ve used.

► Keep track of ever-changing sources

Because electronic sources aren’t stable and web pages can be altered or deleted without notice, beware of directing your readers to sources that can be ever-changing. Check when the website you’re using was last updated, and update the URLs as you work and once again right before you submit your essay. If an electronic source disappears before you submit your work, you may need to drop that source from your essay.

► Keep sources in correct context

It’s easier to take information out of context when researching on the Internet than when working with print materials: you may see one web page as separate from an entire website and use or interpret that page without fully understanding or representing its context. For example, a definition of “communism” taken from a website with a particular political agenda might provide one take on the meaning of the word—but if you neglect to mention the context for that definition you might use it as though it’s unbiased when it isn’t. Likewise, some Internet searches will take you to a URL that’s just one web page within a larger website: be sure to investigate and take notes on the context of the information you’re citing.



Strategies for Avoiding Internet Plagiarism

Internet plagiarism most often occurs when writers cut and paste from the Internet or paraphrase carelessly, rather than using the methods outlined below. It can seem that the Internet is an easy time-saver because of the speed with which you can access and procure information on line. But, since there's so much to discover and manage on the Internet, and evaluating electronic sources often takes extra effort, using the Internet for research requires as much time as—and often more time than—working with print sources. The following tips will help you research and write with honesty and integrity.

► Plan ahead

Research is an important and often time-consuming part of essay writing. Budget enough time to search for sources, take notes on them, and think about how to use them in your essay. Moments of carelessness are more common when you leave your essay until the last minute and are tired or stressed. Honest mistakes can lead to charges of plagiarism just as dishonesty can; be careful when note-taking and in the incorporation of ideas and language from electronic sources so you don't "borrow"—i.e., unintentionally plagiarize—the work of another writer.

► Print your sources

Print the relevant pages from any websites you use, making sure that you note the complete URL and the date on which you print the material. Websites can disappear, and some URLs (such as those generated by a database) won't work when you try to return to the relevant page. Make sure the URL is complete and readable (since long URLs sometimes don't automatically print in full).

► File and label your sources

Never cut and paste information from an electronic source straight into your own essay. Instead, open a separate document on your computer for each electronic source so you can file research information. When you cut and paste into that document, make sure to include the full URL and the date you copied the page(s). Cite the page from which you're taking your information, which may not necessarily be the home page of the site you're using. Use logical, precise names for the files you create, and add citation information and dates. This allows you to retrieve the files easily, deters you from accidentally deleting files, and helps you keep a log of the order in which your research was conducted. It's a good idea to add to each file a head note that describes how you might use the information in that file. Remember: you're entering a conversation with your sources, and accurate file names and head notes can help you understand and engage in that conversation. And of course, always remember to back up your files.

► Keep your own writing and your sources separate

Work with either the printed copy of your source(s) or the copy you pasted into a separate document—not the online version—as you draft your essay. This precaution not only decreases the risk of plagiarism but also enables you to annotate your sources in various ways that will help you understand and use them most effectively in your essay.

► Keep your notes and your draft separate

Be careful to keep your research notes separate from your actual draft; this will ensure you don't cut language from a source and paste it directly into your draft without proper attribution. You can open your notes and your draft next to each other on your computer screen and work back and forth.



► Acknowledge your sources explicitly when paraphrasing

In your research notes, use some form of notation to indicate what you've paraphrased (e.g., put brace brackets around the paraphrase), and mention the author's name within the material you paraphrase. Once you start writing and revising, make sure you avoid gradually rewording the paraphrased material until you lose sight of the fact that it is still a paraphrase of someone else's ideas. If you want to paraphrase, it is often a good idea in your notes (not in your draft) first to paste the actual quotation and then to paraphrase it. Putting the information into your own words will more likely ensure that you've thought about what the source is saying, rather than simply letting the source "speak" for you. Avoid excessive paraphrasing in which your essay simply strings together a series of paraphrases and ideas taken from your sources start to blend in deceptively with your own writing. And whenever you paraphrase, make sure you indicate, at each logical progression, that the ideas are taken from an authored source.

► Quote your sources properly

Always use quotation marks for directly quoted material, even for short phrases and key terms. (For details on how to cite quoted or paraphrased material taken from electronic sources, see chapter 5.)

► Keep a source trail

As you write and revise your essay, keep a source trail of notes and of each successive draft of your essay. Even after you've handed in your essay, keep all your research notes and drafts. You ought to be able to reconstruct the path you took from your sources, to your notes, to your drafts, to your revision.

Following the steps in this chapter will help you adhere to the fundamental principles of good scholarship. Scholars maintain records of their research notes and processes because, for example, they may need to consult their research notes during the revision process; they may return to the data in order to write about it in the context of a different project; or they might collaborate with peers on related projects at a later date. Following these steps will also help you avoid plagiarism. Nevertheless, at some point you may need to explain your process to your instructor. This explanation will mean, in large part, that you'll need to be able to retrace the path you took when thinking, researching, and writing from the essay you submitted back through your drafts and to your sources, both print and electronic.



Citing Electronic Sources

Scholars cite their sources for three important reasons: to give credit to other writers whose ideas they have drawn upon, to allow their readers to assess the reliability of sources used, and to help their readers find those sources, should they want more information on a topic.



Scholars cite their sources for three important reasons: to give credit to other writers whose ideas they have drawn upon, to allow their readers to assess the reliability of sources used, and to help their readers find those sources, should they want more information on a topic. Within particular disciplines, there is some variation as to how sources, both print and electronic, should be cited. This chapter of *Writing with Internet Sources* provides guidelines for citing the most common kinds of electronic sources in the three major citation styles: MLA (Modern Language Association), APA (American Psychological Association), and Chicago.



General Principles for Citing Electronic Sources

When you use traditional print sources, the publishing information you need to cite is readily available; if a book was originally published in London in 1987, for example, neither these facts nor the book's content will change later. Publication information for electronic sources, however, can be elusive and unstable: a web page may not identify an author, there may be several dates of publication to choose from, and a source can easily be deleted or republished in a modified form by the time your reader attempts to access it. Citation styles address this challenge in different ways, but there are some general principles:

- Where normally required information is missing—e.g., a web page does not identify the author—you are free to omit that information (if it is *really* missing); do include, however, any additional information that uniquely identifies a source.
- Since a source may be deleted or altered by the time your reader attempts to access it, try to use the most stable version of the source (for example, the archived version of an online posting). For time-sensitive sources, include the date when you accessed the source.
- If the source is unavailable in a version with stable pagination (such as a PDF file), use the best alternative means of locating source material within unpaginated electronic documents (numbered paragraphs, screens, section or chapter titles), but only if this information is inherent in the document itself. In other words, do not use locating information that varies between browsers.

There are also formatting challenges, since some of the information you need to provide when citing electronic sources differs from that which you'd include for print sources. You'll need to include the same basic information as for print sources—author's name, title of document, publisher and publication date, etc.—but you will also need to give the title of the website and other electronic publishing information, which might include:

- date of electronic publication
- name of discussion list
- range or total number of pages or other numbered divisions (paragraphs or screens) or other locators (named sections)
- institutional sponsor of website
- subscription service (such as JSTOR)
- name and location of subscribing library
- date of access
- URL

The sections on the following pages will help you to determine which details you need to provide when citing the most common types of electronic sources in the specific citation styles. For more information on how to cite *all* sources properly, and for variants not covered here, see the individual style handbooks (the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*, the *Publication Manual of the APA*, and the *Chicago Manual of Style*, available in the library) and Gordon Harvey's *Writing with Sources* (available through the Expository Writing Program, or online at <http://www.fas.harvard.edu/~expos/index.cgi?section=resources>).



MLA Style

The MLA style of documentation, used in the humanities, gives complete information about each source in a *Works Cited* list at the end of the text. *In-text citations* usually consist of a *signal phrase* (a phrase that signals to your reader you are about to include a quotation or paraphrase) and a *parenthetical reference* that refers to a page in a work on the Works Cited list. The combination of the signal phrase and parenthetical reference should include no less and no more information than is necessary to refer the reader to a unique item in the Works Cited list. For example:

In text:

Buell argues that ecocriticism is an “issue-driven” movement rather than one unified by methodology (699).

Entry in Works Cited:

Buell, Lawrence. “The Ecocritical Insurgency.” *New Literary History* 30 (1999): 699-712. *Project Muse Standard Collection*. EBSCOHost. Harvard U Lib., Cambridge, MA. 1 Feb. 2006 <<http://search.epnet.com>>.

Below you'll find examples of citation information needed for the most common types of electronic sources in MLA style.

Article in an online periodical

Dawson, Ashley. “‘Love Music, Hate Racism’: The Cultural Politics of the Rock Against Racism Campaigns, 1976-1981.” *Postmodern Culture* 16.1 (2005): 28 pars. 5 Feb. 2006 <<http://www3.iath.virginia.edu/pmc/current.issue/16.1dawson.html>>.

Article in an online periodical retrieved from a database or a subscription service

NOTE: Name the database after the publishing information. If the material is retrieved from a library or personal subscription service (such as EBSCO, Lexis-Nexis, or InfoTrac), name the service and include the name and location of the subscribing library:

Applegate, Celia. “Saving Music: Enduring Experiences of Culture.” *History & Memory* 17.1-2 (2005): 217-237. *Project Muse*. EBSCOHost. Harvard U Lib. Cambridge, MA. 3 Feb. 2006 <<http://muse.jhu.edu>>.

Online book (complete or part)

NOTE: Publishing information can include an editor, version number, date of electronic publication, and the sponsor of the website.

Rousseau, Jean-Jacques. *The Confessions of Jean-Jacques Rousseau*. 1782. Trans. W. Conyngham Mallory. *eBooks@Adelaide*. 2005. U of Adelaide Lib., Adelaide, Australia. 10 Feb. 2006 <http://etext.library.adelaide.edu.au/r/rousseau/jean_jacques/r864c/>.

Darwin, Charles Robert. “The Bearing of Struggle for Existence on Natural Selection.” *Origin of Species*. Harvard Classics. Ed. Charles W. Eliot. New York: P.F. Collier & Son, 1909–14. *Bartleby.com: Great Books Online*. 2001. 10 Feb. 2006 <<http://bartleby.com/11/3001.html>>.

Short work (article, review, chapter, etc.) from a website

Lieberman, Henry, Alexander Faaborg, Waseem Daher, and José Espinosa. “How to Wreck a Nice Beach You Sing Calm Incense.” *MIT Media Lab: Software Agents Group*. MIT. 10 Jan. 2006 <<http://agents.media.mit.edu/projects/voice/p4010-lieberman.pdf>>.



APA Style

The APA style of documentation, used in the social sciences, makes the date prominent in the citation. Complete information about each source appears in alphabetical order in the *References* section at the end of the text. *In-text citations*, which sometimes include a signal phrase but always a parenthetical reference, refer to the references list. For example:

In text:

Spangenberg & Greenwald (1999) reported that a one-session experiment was used successfully to study a “socially significant” self-prophecy effect (p.71).

A one-session experiment was used successfully to study a “socially significant” self-prophecy effect (Spangenberg & Greenwald, 1999, p.71).

Entry in reference list:

Spangenberg, E. R., & Greenwald, A. G. (1999). Social influence by requesting self-prophecy [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 8(1), 61-89.

Cite dates as follows: (2000) for journals, books, and audiovisual media; (2000, April) for papers presented at meetings and for monthly magazines and newsletters; (2000, April 21) for daily and weekly periodicals, such as newspapers; (n.d.) when no date is available.

Below are examples of the most common types of electronic sources cited in APA style.

Article in an online periodical

NOTE: If an article is an electronic version of a previous or simultaneous print publication and is identical to the print version, give the basic journal reference for the print publication and simply add “[Electronic version]” after the title:

Hayduk, R. (2004). Democracy for all: Restoring immigrant voting rights in the US. [Electronic version]. *New Political Science*, 26, 499-523.

If the article is different from the print version or is an online-only publication, include retrieval information for the electronic version, omitting the closing period if the retrieval information ends with a URL:

Soteriades, E. S., Hadjichristodoulou, C., Kremastinou, J., Chelvatoglou, E. C., Minogiannis, P. S., & Falagas, M. E. (2006). Health promotion programs related to the Athens 2004 Olympic and Para Olympic games. *BMC Public Health*, 6. Retrieved February 22, 2006, from <http://www.biomedcentral.com/content/pdf/1471-2458-6-47.pdf>

No URL is required for sources retrieved from an aggregated database, such as PsycARTICLES. For journals restarting pagination each issue, both the volume and issue numbers as well as the page numbers need to be cited, as below:

Costello, C. Y. (2006). Teratology: “Monsters” and the professionalization of obstetrics. *Journal of Historical Sociology*, 19, 1-33. Retrieved February 20, 2006, from Academic Search Premier database.



Report

United States-China Economic and Security Review Commission. (n.d.).
*2005 Report to Congress of the U.S.- China Economic and
 Security Review Commission*. Retrieved February 20, 2006, from
http://www.uscc.gov/annual_report/2005/05annual_report_contents.html

NOTE: If the source is an abstract, begin the retrieval statement with the phrase “Abstract retrieved from.” If the author of the report (for example, a university research center) and the provider of the electronic source (for example, a private foundation) are significantly different, name the provider in the retrieval statement (for example: Retrieved May 21, 2006, from Host Web Site: [URL]).

Other non-periodical sources

NOTE: If the source is available from a university department or research institute, name it in the retrieval statement. In referring to an entire multi-page electronic document, list the URL for the entry page to the document.

Nixon, R. (1969). *Inaugural address*. Retrieved February 16, 2006,
 from University of California, Santa Barbara, The Presidency Project
 website: <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/index.php?pid=1941>

Listokin, D., Leichenko, R., King, J., Bruton, S., Voicu, I., Rengert, K., et al.
 (2004). A tribal perspective on housing and economic conditions,
 constraints, and opportunities in Indian country: A synthesis of the
 focus group and telephone interviews. In *Housing and economic
 development in Indian country: Challenge and opportunity*
 (chap. 10). Retrieved February 19, 2006, from
<http://content.knowledgeplex.org/kp2/cache/documents/92819.pdf>

Chicago Style

The Chicago style of documentation, employed in some disciplines of the humanities and especially in history, uses *footnotes* or *endnotes*, their first line indented one-half inch (five spaces). Notes may be shortened to avoid repetition and supplemented by a *bibliography*: check with your instructor about which option is appropriate for your essay.

In text:

In his analysis of the inappropriate use of defamation laws against historians, **Antoon de Baets** argues that the “right to sue in defamation on behalf of deceased persons should be narrowly circumscribed.”²⁹

First footnote or endnote:

29. Antoon de Baets, “Defamation Cases against Historians,”
History and Theory 41, no. 3 (2002): 350, <http://search.epnet.com>.

Subsequent note:

32. De Baets, “Defamation Cases,” 347.

Consecutive note:

33. *Ibid.*, 348.

Entry in bibliography:

De Baets, Antoon. “Defamation Cases against Historians.” *History and Theory* 41, no. 3 (2002): 346-366. <http://search.epnet.com>.

In consecutive references to the same source, you may substitute “*Ibid.*” (the abbreviation for the Latin “*ibidem*,” meaning “in the same place”) for the identical information (author, title, etc.).



Below are examples of the most common types of electronic sources cited in Chicago style.

Article in an online scholarly journal

12. Christine Caldwell Ames, “Does Inquisition Belong to Religious History?” *The American Historical Review* 110, no. 1 (2005): par. 5, <http://www.historycooperative.org/journals/ahr/110.1/ames.html>.

Journal article retrieved from a database

3. Stephen J. Rockel, “‘A Nation of Porters’: The Nyamwezi and the Labour Market in Nineteenth-Century Tanzania,” *The Journal of African History* 41, no. 2 (2000): 175, <http://www.jstor.org>.

Online book

19. Rebecca K. C. Hersman, *Friends and Foes: How Congress and the President Really Make Foreign Policy* (Washington DC: Brookings Institution Press, 2000), 53, <http://brookings.nap.edu/books/0815735650/html/index.html>.

Website

With known author and no sponsor:

17. Harold Marcuse, Dachau Concentration Camp Memorial Site (KZ-Gedenkstätte Dachau) 1933-1945–2005, <http://www.history.ucsb.edu/faculty/marcuse/dachau.htm>.

With owner/sponsor as author:

3. British Broadcasting Corporation, *Wars and Conflict: World War Two*, <http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/war/wwtwo/>.

Short work (article, review, chapter, etc.) from a website

NOTE: Include the site name (in italics) or the owner’s name (unitalicized) after the title of the page.

11. Dr. Seuss [Theodor Seuss Geisel], “But the Piper Must Pay,” *Dr. Seuss Went to War: A Catalog of Political Cartoons by Dr. Seuss*, Mandeville Special Collections Library, <http://orpheus.ucsd.edu/speccoll/dspolitic/pm/1943/30104cs.jpg>.



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