APA (Style) Lite for College Papers

APA Lite by Dr Abel Scribe PhD is a concise guide to crafting college papers in the style of the American Psychological Association (APA). It follows chapter 6 of the APA Publication Manual (2001), for “Material Other Than Journal Articles.” APA Lite succeeds the APA Crib Sheet developed by Professor Dewey in the 1990s and revised by the Abel Scribe collaboration in the current century. Doc Scribe is not affiliated in any way with the American Psychological Association--this style guide is free! ©2009 by Dr Abel Scribe PhD.

APA Lite Topics

1.0 General Features. What’s in a style? What’s in this style? General features and quirks of APA style.

2.0. Title & Text Page. Getting started: the title and first text pages, headings and subheadings, seriation or lists.

3.0. Text Rules. Rules to observe as you write: abbreviations, capitalization, emphasis (italics), quotations.

4.0. Numbers & Statistics. Rules for presenting common numbers, precise measures, and statistics.

5.0. Tables & Figures. APA style tables require attention to detail, graphs and images less so.

6.0. Citations & References. You absolutely, positively--no exceptions!--must get this right!

7.0. Additional Resources. APA Hit List of nuances; APA101 online course; APA Quick Reference.

Appendixes. A. Language Bias, B. Compound Words, C. Copyright and Fair Use.

Read Me: APA Warning!

APA Warning: “The Publication Manual is not intended to cover scientific writing at an undergraduate level, because preferences for style at that level are diverse. Instructions to students to ‘use the Publication Manual’ should be accompanied by specific guidelines for its use [emphasis added]” (APA, 2001, p. 322).

Unfortunately, many instructors--and even many colleges and universities that require the use of APA style in research papers--are unaware of this injunction. Buying the APA Manual does not solve the problem--the Manual simply refers you to the specific guidelines of your instructor or institution, which may or may not exist! Catch 22! Your instructor tells you to use the APA Manual, the Manual tells you to follow the instructor’s guidelines, but the instructor offers no guidelines and tells you to use the APA Manual!

The APA Manual (2001) offers this explanation.

The author of a thesis, dissertation, or student paper produces a “final” manuscript; the author of a journal article produces a “copy” manuscript (which will become a typeset article). The differences between these two kinds of manuscripts help explain why the requirements for theses, dissertations, and student papers are not necessarily identical to the requirements for manuscripts submitted for publication in a journal.

Copy manuscripts have been described throughout the Manual. Their life span is short; they are normally read by editors, reviewers, and compositors only and are no longer usable after they have been typeset. Copy manuscripts must conform to the format and other policies of the journal to which they are submitted.

Final manuscripts, however, reach their audiences in the exact form in which they are prepared. . . .

A number of variations from the requirements described in the Manual are not only permissible but also desirable [italics added] in the preparation of final manuscripts. (pp. 321–322)

The APA Manual then goes on to offer suggestions for final manuscripts. APA Lite fills the need for “specific guidelines” for using APA style for college and conference papers.

1.0 General Features of APA Style

The APA Manual is the only style guide focused solely on the essential product of modern research in the sciences, education, and psychology--the research paper. The MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers is an effective counterpart in the humanities. Everything else--the Chicago Manual of Style, Turabian’s Handbook for Writers, the American Medical Association Manual of Style, and the Council of Science Editors’ Scientific Style and Format--all lack this singular focus. This helps explain the popularity of APA style, and the inevitable need for you to become familiar with it.

What’s a style? A difficulty in using any style is to know what features the style covers. Most style guides are written as reference texts; they require you to know what questions to ask to use the style correctly. This is another Catch 22. To learn the style you have to know what questions to ask; to know what questions to ask you have to learn the style. What you need is a guide; someone to answer the questions you did not think to ask. There is also the question of which features of a style are most important, and which are pedantic minutiae.
The basic features of APA style for final manuscripts are illustrated in Figure 1, along with the corresponding section in APA Lite where they are explained.

The writing style described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) is followed by over a thousand journals in psychology and education. Some colleges and universities have adopted the style for student papers in all fields. It is an old style and partial to tedious detail. Still, its widespread acceptance is in marked contrast to the proliferation of styles in fields where it is not used. For example, authors writing in the field of biomedical research must contend with literally hundreds of different journal styles.

Where it is required, you must get it right. A survey of journal editors, reported in “The Elements of (APA) Style: A Survey of Psychology Journal Editors” (Brewer, Scherzer, Van Raalte, Petitpas, & Andersen, 2001), found that most editors profess to rate the quality of a paper over its presentation—its adherence to APA style. Even so, this was not a universal sentiment. There appears to be a point where neglecting the style can lead to rejecting the paper.

The study asked the respondents to rate the categories most commonly observed deviating from APA style. These were reported on a scale ranging from 1 [none] to 5 [a lot]. The three major problem areas identified were: (a) references \( (M = 3.23, SD = 1.07) \), (b) tables and figures \( (M = 3.00, SD = 0.98) \), and (c) mathematics and statistics \( (M = 2.81, SD = 0.99) \). Problems in these area had a direct influence on editorial decisions, and rightly so.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Area</th>
<th>Frequency Mean</th>
<th>Frequency SD</th>
<th>Influence Mean</th>
<th>Influence SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables and figures</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math and statistics</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Values are mean scores on a 5-point scale (1 = none, 5 = a lot); \( N = 210 \). Adapted from “The Elements of (APA) Style: A Survey of Psychology Journal Editors,” by B. W. Brewer et al., 2001, American Psychologist, 56, p. 266.

Publication in research journals is highly competitive. Most journals publish only one article in four submitted; top medical journals publish one in twelve. Poor adherence to the required style handicaps a paper however brilliant the content. Editors screen these submissions out. They are not passed along for review. These papers are dead on arrival at the editor’s desk.

Figure 1. Basic features of APA style for final manuscripts. The figure follows the rules described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (2001) as well as the suggestions found in chapter 6, “Material Other Than Journal Articles.”
1.1 Respect for the Aged

APA style is 80 years old, and often looks it. Dutiful students should respect the aged, and help them cross the street when necessary. The same thoughts should be held when using APA style. By contemporary standards the style is cluttered with needless punctuation, and some of its mandates are tedious and pedantic. For example, the APA Manual notes that datum is the singular form of data and must be used appropriately. Most of the English-speaking world today is happy to blur the distinction, but there are those that find it important. (It also prefers appendixes to appendices, much to the chagrin of my dictionary.) The style loves punctuation and uses as much as it can, especially parentheses and periods. In this, the style is very 1950s, a bit formal for an informal age.

The style in other areas it is quite refined and contemporary. It is still the only research style to recognize the commonality of articles published both in print and in Portable Document Format (pdf files). It adapts a reference format especially for these articles.

Ideally, a style should complement common usage in the language, showing how to present things that are not so common, such as statistics or precise metric numbers. When it steps back across that boundary it engenders confusion and risks earning a sour reputation. APA style is a bit like that. It answers questions you would never think to ask, such as “what is the correct use of the word data?”

1.2 Priorities & Strategy

What features are most important when using APA style? The question was asked in a research survey of more than 200 journal editors (Brewer, Scherzer, Van Raalte, Petitpas, & Andersen, 2001). They reported that problems with (a) documentation (references) were the most serious, followed closely by (b) tables and figures, then by (c) the presentation of mathematical formulas and statistics. The editors avowed that content was more important than style. Still, 39% reported rejecting a paper solely for failing to follow APA style. Publication in top journals is highly competitive. Only one paper in four is accepted for publication; the best journals accept one paper in twelve. Sloppy workmanship is a strategy for failure. The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

1. You must get your references right. A single reference that goes to the wrong source, or to no source, can discredit your entire paper. Style and form are important to assure a reference is complete.
2. The style uses a simple format for tables that is widely shared by other styles. Many word processor can generate colorful and complex tables, but a simple and austere format is universally preferred in research writing. Graphs are less common than tables, and images are rare, but they are not difficult to present.
3. The APA uses nonstandard symbols in presenting statistics—just a few of the more common symbols are presented in APA Lite. If you need to present your own mathematics refer to the APA Manual. Precise numbers follow the metric system and international conventions.

These are all major features of the style. The APA Manual shows how to format references to 95 different sources. The section on tables is so good the Chicago Manual of Style refers reader to it (2003, p. 423). Mathematics and statistics are not covered as well as they could be in the Manual, but this shortcoming illustrates the importance of clarity and consistency. When instructions are ambiguous follow your best judgment to achieve a clear presentation and be consistent with that choice throughout your paper. Get the main features right; seek clarity and consistency with the rest. APA style is a bit silly at times, but its basic requirements are not difficult to master.

1.3 APA Style: Page Formats, Text Rules, & Documentation

APA style is organized around three elements: (a) page formats, (b) text rules, and (c) documentation. Page formatting concerns not only margins, indents, and spacing, but also the presentation of tables and figures, as well as the organization of the paper. This is part of the final refinement of a manuscript. Text rules are at the heart of what the APA Manual refers to as “APA Editorial Style,” a phrase that conveys little meaning. “When editors or typesetters refer to style, they usually do not mean writing style; they mean editorial style—the rules or guidelines a publisher observes to ensure clear, consistent presentation of the printed word” (APA, 2001, p. 77). These include rules for using abbreviations, when to write numbers as words, and the presentation of quotations. For example, a sentence should never begin with an abbreviation, a rule this paragraph cheerfully ignores. Think of these rules as you write. Finally, the process of documentation refers to citations and references. Make this part of your research; take notes. Grammar and punctuation are largely conventional in APA style. Any standard reference will serve.

1.4 APA Advice for “Material Other Than Journal Articles”

Chapter 6 in the APA Manual (2001), “Material Other Than Journal Articles,” makes the following observation:

Because the manuscript will not be set in type, the manuscript must be as readable as possible. Many of APA’s format requirements aid production for publication. Reasonable exceptions to APA style for theses and dissertations [and other college papers] often make sense and are encouraged to better serve communication and improve the appearance of the final document. (pp. 324-325).

It then offers several suggestions:

1. Organization. “In a manuscript submitted for publication, figures, tables, and footnotes are placed at the end of the manuscript; in theses and dissertations, such material is frequently incorporated at the appropriate point in text as a convenience to readers” (p. 325).
2. **Line spacing.** “Double-spacing is required throughout most of the manuscript. When single-spacing would improve readability, however, it is usually encouraged. Single-spacing can be used for table titles and headings, figure captions, references (but double-spacing is required between references), footnotes, and long quotations [this is sometimes referred to as block spacing]” (p. 326).

3. **Title page.** The title page of a copy manuscript is organized for anonymous review and typesetting. Elements that require separate pages are usefully combined on a single page: the title, author, abstract, and author note. The running head becomes the page header, as it is in published articles (APA, 2001, sec. 5.15).

The APA Manual also offers suggestions for relocating the page number and other minor details that are incorporated in APA Lite. Generally, though, APA Lite stays as close to the APA Manual as it can to smooth the transition from crafting class and conference papers to writing for publication.

### 1.5 APA Style Notes: Universal Features

**Heading caps.** A simple rule governs what words to capitalize in a heading or title, but when to apply the rule is more complex. Heading caps are used with the first two levels of headings in the text, but not for the third level. They are applied to the titles of books, chapters, and articles mentioned in the text, but all titles in references are set in sentence caps. Heading caps are used for the titles of tables, but sentence caps are used for the captions of figures. The required form is noted as needed throughout APA Lite.

- **Heading caps** capitalize the first word, the first word after a colon; *all words of four letters or more*; and all adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and pronouns in a heading or title. Articles, conjunctions, and short prepositions are not capitalized. Capitalize all words of a hyphenated compound word.

- **Sentence caps** capitalize a caption or heading as you would a sentence.

- **Full caps** capitalize every letter. They are not used in APA final manuscripts, but are used for the running head in copy manuscripts. Small caps are not used.

Heading caps are also referred to as headline caps from their early usage in newspapers. An example of their use is the title of chapter 6 in the APA Manual (2001), "Material Other Than Journal Articles."

**Bold and italic fonts.** APA Lite presents headings in a bold font, as well as in italics where specified by the APA Manual. However, the bold font is not part of the official style for copy manuscripts. It has been adopted for college papers to “improve readability.”

**Indented tables and figures.** APA Lite shows tables and graphs indented like block quotes except where they fill the width of the page. In copy manuscripts these are aligned with the left margin (see APA, 2001, secs. 5.21, 5.22).

### 2.0 Title & Text Page Format

- **Title page.** The title page is condensed in final manuscripts. Since the paper is to be read rather than typeset the title page should carry as much information about the content as possible. The title and author share the page as does the abstract and author note for conference papers (see APA, 2001, secs. 1.06, 5.15). The date is added to a published article by the journal; here it must be added by the author.

  “Use the functions of your word-processing program to create italic, bold, or other special fonts or styles of type following the style guidelines specified in this *Publication Manual*” (APA, 2001, p. 286). In keeping with this instruction, and the complementary goal of making the paper “as readable as possible” (p. 325), a bold font is used for the title and some headings.

**APA Style Note: Headers.** The title pages of college and conference papers follows the guidance of the APA Manual for final manuscripts. Missing from these pages are features found on the title pages of copy manuscripts: the page header and the running head. They serve no function in a college or conference paper.

The page header in copy manuscripts is just the first few words of the title. It appears on every page, including the title page, and is used to reassemble the manuscript when pages become separated in the editorial process. The running head for publication is an abbreviated short title header--no more than 50 characters--that will be placed at the top of each page when the paper is published in a journal. It appears on just the title page in copy manuscripts. Thus, the title is repeated in three formats on the title page of copy manuscripts: first as the formal title, then as the running head, and finally as the running head. Since the running head becomes the page header in published papers it is appropriate to emulate this practice in college papers. The running head and page header are combined and left off the title page where they are redundant clutter. The page header is shown on all subsequent pages (see APA, 2001, header, p. 286; running head, p. 296; title page, p. 306).

**APA Style Note: Page Numbers.** The APA Manual (2001) notes that “the position of page numbers on the first pages of chapters . . . may differ from the position of numbers on other pages” (p. 326). On the title page of college papers the page number is relocated to the bottom center of the page.

Note, every page is numbered consecutively through the paper whether the page number is shown on a page or not.
2.1 Title Page

The APA Manual (2001) notes: “If the paper is to receive masked review, also place the author note on the title page, following the bylines and affiliations. The journal editor will remove the title page before sending the manuscript out to reviewers” (p. 296). For this reason, the abstract is placed on a separate page. Since final manuscripts are not intended for anonymous review, it is sensible to add the abstract to the title page along with the author note as a convenience to the reader.

The Title is Centered in a Bold Font in Heading Caps and Single-Spaced on the Page

Centered Title in the Style of the American Psychologist

Abel Scribe
Department of Arcane Studies
Transcendental College
April 1, 2009

Abstract

An abstract is not too common in student papers, but required when submitting any paper for publication in an American Psychological Association (APA) journal. This is a good feature for students, especially graduate students, to emulate in their work. An abstract is a brief concise description of the research: what you were looking for, why, how you went about it, and what you found. It is limited to 120 words in APA style. Absent an abstract, proportion the title and author block on the page. Abstracts to articles published in APA journals are set in italics, a feature not specified in the APA Manual, though perhaps appropriate for conference papers.

[Acknowledgement] The author wishes to thank Abby Scribe for her brilliant insights. Funding was provided by the Ganja Pipeline Project.

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Figure 2. Title pages for college and conference papers. The title pages shown differ significantly from that shown in the APA Manual for copy manuscripts. Block spacing is used (single space within blocks of text, double space between blocks); title, author, abstract, and author note are combined on a single page.

Abstract. An abstract should reveal in concise terms what you studied and why, how you went about it, and what you found, and the relevance of those findings. “Type the abstract itself as a single paragraph in block format (i.e., without paragraph indentation), and do not exceed 120 words. Type all numbers--except those that begin a sentence--as arabic numerals” (APA, 2001, p. 298).

Author Note. There are four elements to the author note in copy manuscripts: (a) the author(s) name and affiliation (department and institution), (b) changes in affiliation since the paper was written, (c) acknowledgments, and (d) contact information. The author’s name and current affiliation follow the title, so only acknowledgments and contact information appear on conference papers. Each element is presented as a separate indented paragraph.

- Acknowledgment. This is a catch-all block of text where from a dissertation or other source, and any conflicts of interest. For example, if you are a paid consultant for a company providing a drug used in a study this must be disclosed.

- Contact information. This is the person designated to respond to inquiries, followed by their complete mailing address and email address if appropriate.
2.2 First & Following Text Pages

- Repeat the title on the first text page. “The introduction to a manuscript does not carry a heading labeling it the introduction (the first part of a manuscript is assumed to be the introduction)” (APA, 2001, p. 113).

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**Figure 3. First and subsequent text pages.** The APA Manual (2001) suggests using block spacing to improve the readability of final manuscripts (p. 326). The text is double-spaced, but block quotes are single-spaced within while double-spaced from the text. The same line spacing is applied to headings, tables, references, and figure captions.

**Page Format**
- **Margins** must be at least one inch on all four sides of the page, wider left if the paper is to be bound. For shorter papers do not use a binder, a single staple in the upper left corner makes the paper easier to read.
- **Page header & page number.** The page header is an abbreviated title in heading caps (every major word is capitalized). This is the application of the running head in copy manuscripts (APA, p. 296). The short title is followed by five spaces then by the page number (p. 288). The page header goes inside the top margin double spaced (or a half inch) above the text, next to the right margin. On the title page the number is centered at the bottom or omitted.
- **Number EVERY Page!**

**Text Format**
- “A serif typeface [font] is preferred for text because it improves readability and reduces eye fatigue” (APA, 2001, p. 285). A serif typeface is one with small cross bars on the letters; Times Roman and Courier are common examples. The size should be equivalent to “one of the standard typewriter sizes (pica or elite),” about 10-12 points with a word processor (see p. 285).
- **Ragged right margin?** An unjustified right margin is called a ragged right margin for its appearance on the page. A right-justified margin is one where the text ends on the margin (permitted in APA final manuscripts, see p. 324). This may require the insertion of hyphens to break words at the ends of lines, introducing ambiguity and confusing readers. A ragged right margin is required for copy manuscripts for this reason (see p. 287).
- **Indent** all text paragraphs--except the abstract and the first paragraph in a block quote--one-half inch. Hanging indents in references are also indented one-half inch. There are special rules for paragraphs in block quotes.
- **Block spacing?** Double space the text, but single space “table titles and headings, figure captions, references (but double-spacing is required between references), footnotes, and long quotations” (p. 326). Long quotations--block quotes--are single spaced within and double spaced from the text. Titles, headings, and references also follow this format.
Space once after punctuation? The APA Manual requires a single space after all punctuation in copy manuscripts, at the ends of sentences and after initials in references—except inside abbreviations—for example, the initials in Tolkein, J. R. R. is spaced, but the U. in U.S. is not (see p. 290). However, to improve readability of college papers space twice at the end of sentences; be consistent through the text.

2.3 HEADINGS & LISTS (SERIATION)

Definitions. Headings, subheadings, and lists are tools used to organize a manuscript. Lists come in two forms: sentence lists and paragraph lists, or more accurately, sentence seriation and paragraph seriation.

Bullets are not used in formal research papers.

Do not begin a paper with the heading Introduction, this is understood. Repeat the title.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level A</th>
<th>Level A Heading: Major Section Heading or the Main Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Headings follow a complex hierarchy, with provision for up to five levels. Most papers will need no more than three levels, APA levels 1, 3, and 4, in that order. These are labeled Levels A, B, and C to avoid confusion (see APA, 2001, pp. 114–115). The APA Manual (2001) notes that “because the introduction is clearly identified by its position in the article, it is not labeled [with a heading]” (p. 16).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level B</th>
<th>Level B Heading: At Left Margin in Bold Italics and Heading Caps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When Level A or Level B headings run to two lines single-space within the heading, double-space before and after (see the Level A heading at the top of the page). Use (a) paragraph seriation or (b) sentence seriation to further organize your paper, anywhere in the text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2. Sentence seriation (a) lists topics or categories, with (b) each preceded by a small letter in parentheses. Items are separated by commas or semicolons as required.

| Level C | Level C heading in bold italics and sentence caps. These headings are indented and begin a paragraph so they are called paragraph or run-in headings. They need not be a complete sentence but must end with a period or other appropriate punctuation. |

Figure 4. Headings, subheadings, and seriation in APA style.

Headings follow a complex hierarchy, with provision for up to five levels in APA style. These come, in descending order, as levels 5, 1, 2, 3, 4. But if up to three levels of headings only are required, use levels 1, 3, and 4, in that order. If four levels are required, insert level 2 between levels 1 and 3. If five levels are required, start with level 5 and work down in order (5, 1, 2, 3, 4). Confused? Most papers will need no more than three levels. To avoid confusion these are labeled A, B, and C (APA levels 1, 3, and 4 respectively) (see APA, 2001, pp. 114–115). Use headings in the order presented. A bold font is suggested, but not an accepted feature for copy manuscripts.

Seriation. The APA Manual has a lot to say about seriation (cf., pp. 60, 78, 80, 84, 115-117, 125, 292). “Enumerate elements in a series to prevent misreading or to clarify the sequence of relationship between elements, especially when they are lengthy or complex” (2001, pp. 115-116). The elements in the list must be comparable and the construction parallel. For example, these elements are not: The picnic menu featured (a) hot dogs, (b) potato chips, (c) ballons as prizes, and (d) that you should dispose of your own trash.

Corrected: The picnic menu listed (a) hot dogs, (b) potato chips for dinner, (c) noted that ballons would be given as prizes, and (d) asked that you dispose of your own trash.

Paragraph seriation format. The APA Manual is conflicted, showing two different formats (see sec. 3.33). The format shown in Figure 4 is based on the instruction in section 5.12, to “begin with a [numbered] paragraph indent. Type second and succeeding lines flush left” (p. 292).
3.0 Text Rules (APA Editorial Style)

- The APA Manual (2001) uses the vague term APA Editorial Style (chap. 3) to describe to everything that goes into a text except references and page formats. APA Lite has organized this material into separate sections. This section, on text rules, explains what to keep in mind as you write: the use of abbreviations, required capitalization, adding emphasis to words and phrases, and presenting quotations.

The APA Manual has sections of grammar and preferred usage that are a bit quaint, covering such things as singular-plural forms of datam-data, proper use of since-because, and the curse of dangling modifiers. This sort of stuff is best be ignored, or studied separately outside the context of crafting a paper. Attending to minutiae senselessly bogs you down. Remember the priorities--accuracy in documentation, tables and figures, and precise numbers and statistics. Pursue accuracy and clarity before doting on grammar. When in doubt, rewrite a passage.

3.1 Abbreviations

- Pedantic professors (and the Chicago Manual of Style) will note that acronyms are abbreviations that are sounded as words (e.g., AIDS, NASA), while initialisms are abbreviations sounded as letters (e.g., ATM, FBI). The term acronym usually suffices for both. Use acronyms to avoid repeating long familiar terms (e.g., APA, MMPI), and use sparingly, only for terms frequently repeated throughout your text.

- Explain what an acronym means the first time it occurs: American Psychological Association (APA).

- If an abbreviation is commonly used as a word, it does not require explanation (IQ, LSD, REM, ESP).

- To form plurals of abbreviations, add s alone, without apostrophe (PhDs, IQs, vols., Eds).

Use periods when presenting an abbreviation within a reference (Vol. 3, p. 6, pp. 121-125, 2nd ed.):

- Use two-letter postal codes for U.S. states (e.g., GA for Georgia) in references (write the state name out in text).

- Use the abbreviation pp. (plain text) in references to newspapers articles, chapters in edited volumes, and text citations only, not in references to articles in journals and magazines.

- Use hr for hour or hours, min for minutes, s for seconds, m for meter or meters (all in plain text, no period, no bold font).

- When using abbreviations for measurements (e.g., m for meter) do not add an s to make it plural (100 seconds is 100 s), do not add a period (see APA Lite, 2009, sec. 4.2).

Do not use Latin abbreviations in the text unless they are inside parentheses. An exception is made for et al. when citing a source. For example, "Smith et al. (2002) found monkeys measured higher in IQ tests than grad students." Instead, write out the equivalent word or phrase:

- cf. [use compare] etc. [use and so forth] viz. [use namely]
- e.g. [use for example] i.e. [use that is] vs. [use versus]

- Do not use the traditional abbreviations for subject, experimenter, and observer (S, E, O).

- Do not use periods within degree titles and organization titles (PhD, APA).

- Do not use periods within measurements (ft, s, kg, km, lb) except inches (in.).

3.2 Capitalization

- The general rule is to capitalize terms if they are highly specific—in effect, used as proper nouns. For example, write the nineteen twenties (1920s), but also write the Roaring Twenties. Write the Great Plains, but also write the central plains, and the plains of Nebraska (but the Nebraska Plains).

- Capitalize formal names of tests, conditions, groups, effects, and variables only when definite and specific (e.g., Stroop Color-Word Interference Test, Group A was the control group). But do not capitalize names of laws, theories, and hypotheses (e.g., the law of effect, the test groups). Capitalize nouns before numbers, but not before variables (Trial 2, trial x).

- Capitalize specific course and department titles (GSU Department of Psychology, Psych 150). But do not capitalize the term when referring to generalities (any department, any introductory course).

- Capitalize the first word after colon in all titles in references and in the text and in headings. In the text, if the phrase following a colon is a complete sentence capitalize the first word.

- When capitalizing a compound word capitalize all words in the compound (e.g., Double-Blind Trial).

Exception! “Do not capitalize nouns that denote common parts of books or tables followed by numerals or letters—chapter 4, page iv, row 3, column 5” (APA, 2001, sec. 3.15, p. 98).

Heading caps capitalize all major words and all words of four letters or more in headings, titles, and subtitles outside reference lists, for example, chapter 6 in the APA Manual (2001) is titled "Material Other Than Journal Articles."

Sentence caps capitalize the first word and the first word after a comma or colon when the phrase is a complete sentence. For example, "This is a complete sentence, so this is capitalized."
3.3 **ITALICS (EMPHASIS) & QUOTATION MARKS**

- Use italics (or underline) for the titles of books, species names, novel or technical terms and labels (the first time only), words and phrases used as linguistic examples, letters used as statistical symbols, and the volume numbers in references to journal articles.
  - Add emphasis to a word or short phrase by putting it in italics (the first time only). Use this sparingly!
  - Add emphasis to a word or phrase in a quotation with italics, *followed by the note* [italics added] in brackets.
  - Note a word used as a word, or a foreign term, with italics, for example, *hutte* means *hut* in German.
  - Introduce a keyword or technical term (the *neoquasipsychoanalytic theory*), or identify endpoints on a scale (*poor to excellent*) with italics.
  - Do not italicize foreign words that have entered common usage (e.g., et al., a priori, laissez-faire, arroyo).

**Use quotation marks** for:
- odd or ironic usage the first time—the “outrageous” use of social security funds to finance the deficit. These are known as *scare quotes*.
- article and chapter titles cited in the text but not in the reference list. For example, in Smith’s (1992) article, "APA Style and Personal Computers,” computers were described as “here to stay” (p. 311).

**Do not use quotes** to hedge, cast doubt, or apologize (e.g., he was “cured”). Leave off the quotes.

3.4 **QUOTATIONS**

**Reproduce a quote exactly.** If there are errors, introduce the word *sic* italicized and bracketed—for example, “the speaker *stttutttured* [sic] terribly”—immediately after the error to indicate it was in the original.

---

**Figure 5. Text and block quotations.** Quotes 40 words or longer are formatted as block quotes.

**Block quotes,** quotations of 40 words or longer, double-spaced from the text, single-spaced within. Indent the entire block five spaces (one-half inch, 1.25 cm).
  - The first line of the first paragraph in a block quote is not additionally indented; the first line of each paragraph *after the first* is indented (see Figure 5). Add the citation to the end of the block quote after the final punctuation.
  - Block quotes may be single-spaced in research papers, but must be double-spaced in copy manuscripts submitted for publication or review (see APA, 2001, p. 326).

**Shorter quotes,** less than 40 words, are placed in the text in quotation marks. Longer quotes, 40 words or more, are indented and single spaced as block quotes, without quotation marks.
• Reproduce a quote exactly. If there are errors, introduce the word *sic* (thus) italicized and bracketed—for example, “the speaker stutttered [sic] terribly”—immediately after the error to indicate it was in the original.

• When the author is introduced in the text the page number follows the quotation, but the date follows the author’s name. Smith (1999) reported that “the creature walked like a duck and quacked like a duck” (p. 23). The abbreviation “p.” for page (“pp.” for pages) is lower cased.

• Without an introductory phrase, the author, date, and page are placed together. For example, It was reported that “the creature walked like a duck and quacked like a duck” (Smith, 1999, p. 23).

**Edit quotes.** Effective writing seeks to merge quotations into the flow of the text. Edit a quotation according to the following rules (see APA, 2001, pp. 119–120):

• **Change case/punctuation.** Double quotation marks may be changed to single quotes, and the reverse, without indicating the change. The case of the letter beginning the quote, and punctuation ending it, may be changed to fit the syntax. For example, drawing on a sentence above, write: “Merge quotations into the flow of the text!” Do **Not** write “[M]erge quotations . . . .” in APA style (but see Chicago Manual of Style, 2003, p.462).

• **Omit . . . Words.** Words may be omitted from a quote as long as the original meaning is not altered. The omission is an *ellipsis*, and is indicated by inserting three *ellipsis points*, three periods with a space before the first, after the last, and between each period; between two sentences, four points are used. “Do not use ellipsis points at the beginning or end of any quotation unless, in order to prevent misinterpretation, you need to emphasize the quotation begins or ends in midsentence” (APA, p. 119).

• *[sic].* Obvious errors in a quotation may be corrected without making a special notation. But for an unusual word choice, concept, term, or spelling, it may be appropriate to emphasize that the original is being quoted faithfully by inserting the Latin term *sic* (thus), in italics or underlined, and in brackets, immediately following the term (see APA, p. 118). For example, “the hapless students in the study stutttered [sic] unbearably.”

• *[Add note].* A clarification may be inserted in a quote. This is added in brackets at the appropriate place. For example, the local authority reported “they [the Irish Republican Army] called for a cease-fire.”

• *[Italics added].* Emphasis may be added to a quote with italics. When this is done a note must be appended to the quote in brackets *immediately after the change* [italics added] to the quotation.

### 4.0 NUMBERS & STATISTICS

The English language is somewhat vague about the presentation of numbers. Therefore, most styles present rules for using even common numbers, such as when to write a number as a word and when to write it as a numeral. Precise measures are always presented as numerals in the metric system in APA style; nonstandard symbols are used for some of its statistics. See the APA Manual if you are presenting your own mathematical formulas.

#### 4.1 COMMON NUMBERS

**Spell out common numbers under 10.** “Use figures to express numbers 10 and above and words to express numbers below 10” as long as the numbers below 10 do not express precise measurements and are not grouped with numbers above 10 (APA, 2001, p. 122).

• Spell out common fractions, common expressions, and centuries (one-half, Fourth of July, twentieth century).

• Spell out all numbers beginning sentences (Thirty days hath September . . .).

• To make plurals out of numbers, add *s* only, with no apostrophe (the 1950s).

• When numbers below 10 must be mixed with numbers above 10 in the same sentence they should be written as numerals. For example, write “the students trying out for the soccer team included 5 girls and 16 boys.”

• Use words and numerals with two numbers in series (five 4-point scales).

• Use combinations of numerals and written numbers for large approximate sums (over 3 million people).

**Use numerals** for numbers 10 and above, for exact statistical references, scores, sample sizes, and sums (multiplied by 3, or 5% of the sample).

• Use metric abbreviations with physical measure (4 km) but not when written out (many *meters* distant).

• Use the percent symbol (%) only with figures (5%) not with written numbers (five percent).

• Put a leading zero before decimal fractions less than one (e.g., .025 km), unless the fraction can never be greater than one, as with statistical probabilities (e.g., *p < .01*).

• Ordinal numbers follow the same rules as other numbers. Spell out ordinals below 10: first, second, . . . ninth. Use numerals for ordinals 10 and above: 10th, 43rd, 99th, and so on. Exception—the *twentieth* century.

**Use numerals** for all numbers “that denote a specific place in a numbered series, parts of books and tables, and each number in a list of four or numbers” (APA, p. 125). Write Grade 6 (but sixth grade); Trial 5; Table 6; page 71 (do not cap page); chapter 8 (do not cap chapter); 2, 4, 6, and 8 words in a series.

**Use numerals** for all “numbers that represent time; dates; ages; sample, subsample, or population size; specific numbers of subjects or participants in an experiment; scores and points on a scale; exact sums of money; and numerals as numerals” (APA, p. 124).
4.2 Precise Numbers

- The APA requires the use of the metric system in its journals. This is formally known as the International System of Units, or SI (from the French Le Système International d’Unités). The lead authority on the SI in the United States is the National Institute of Standards and Technology (free guide: http://physics.nist.gov/Document/sp811.pdf).

**SI numbers** have three parts: the numerical value, the prefix (multiplier), and the unit symbol (abbreviation). Each of these parts is strictly defined. The number 25.3 kg is an SI number. Numbers are always formatted in plain text (no italics), there is always a space after the numerical value (never a hyphen or other character), there is never a period after the units (except at the end of a sentence).

**Numerical values** are presented without commas in SI notation. For example, the distance between Chicago and Denver is 1600 km (not 1,600 km). The km stands for kilo-meters. The prefix kilo indicates the units are multiplied by 1000. There are about 1.6 km to a mile. If it is important for clarity you can note the conventional U.S. measure in parentheses after the SI number: 1600 km (1000 miles).

- There is always a space after the numerical value, and only a space. This can look awkward. For example, the temperature at the beach was 25 °C, or about 77 °F today. There is a space after the numerical value before the degree symbol and temperature abbreviation. Conventional notation, 77°F, is not an acceptable SI number.

- Common prefixes are k (kilo-, multiply by one thousand), M (mega-, multiply by one million), and m (milli-, multiply by one-one thousandth [0.001]). For example, KVOD broadcasts at 88.1 MHz. A Hertz is a measure of frequency, after a man by that name, so the abbreviation is capitalized Hz. A complete listing of prefixes is found in the APA Manual (2001, Table 3.5), and the NIST Guide (1995, Table 5).

- Units of measure are always abbreviated when presented with numerical values, but written out when noted in the text without a numerical value. For example, a liter is about a quart; "It took 22 L to top off the gas tank."

- Units of measure never take periods or other punctuation except at the end of a sentence.

- Numerical values less than one are preceded by a zero. For example, one yard is 0.91 m, or about three inches short of a meter. An exception is made for statistical values that by definition cannot be greater than one, for example the probability, p < .05.

**No hyphens, no periods!** The APA Manual (2001) gives as an example a “5-mg dose” (p. 123). It is not clear whether the APA is departing from SI rules, or guilty of sloppy editing. A 5-mg dose could be interpreted as a 5/mg dose (i.e., 5 mg/m). The SI number is 5 mg.

**Exception.** When an instrument is calibrated in U.S. conventional units these may be presented followed by the SI measure in parentheses. For example, the thermometer at the beach read 77 ºF (25 ºC); the maze was laid out with a space after the numerical value, and a space after the temperature at the beach was 25 °C, or about 77 °F today. There is a space after the numerical value before the degree symbol and temperature abbreviation. Conventional notation, 77°F, is not an acceptable SI number.

- Numerical values less than one are preceded by a zero. For example, one yard is 0.91 m, or about three inches short of a meter. An exception is made for statistical values that by definition cannot be greater than one, for example the probability, p < .05.

**Inferential statistics** reason from a sample to the characteristics of a population, often expressed as a probability. For example, "Abby Scribe has a chance of being accepted at Ivy and Oak University (p < .15), but counselors advise her that her odds are not great based on last year’s applicants. X²(2, N = 2247) = 2.81, p < .15 (one-tailed)," Inferential statistics are presented in the text (no parentheses) with "sufficient information to allow the reader to fully understand the results of the analysis. . . . [Which] depends on the analytic approach selected" (APA, 2001, p. 138). The following examples from the APA Manual (2001):

- t(60) = 1.99, p = .03 (one-tailed), d = .50;  X²(4, N = 90) = 10.51, p = .03.

The first number in parentheses is degrees of freedom of the analysis; the N in the χ² statistic is the sample population.

"Space mathematical copy as you would words: a+b=c is as difficult to read as words without spacing" (APA, 2001, p. 145). Place a space before and after all arithmetic operators and signs ( =, <, >, - , + , etc.).
5.0 Tables & Figures

Word processors offer an array of elaborate table styles, but APA style requires an austere format. Figures include graphs as well as photo images. Their use is discouraged in copy manuscripts because they are expensive to publish. This is not a problem with college papers.

When presenting data in a table or figure drawn from another source that source must be referenced in the table note or figure caption. The reference follows a special format (poorly documented in the APA Manual with just two examples given, APA, 2001, p. 175). The reference begins with the title in heading caps, followed by the authors’ names in normal order, date, and publication. Note the page number after the title in the reference to the book.

Journal Article (from Figure 6)

Book (Monograph)

5.1 TABLES
The discussion on tables in the APA Manual (2001, pp. 147-176) is thought to be so good the Chicago Manual of Style even refers its readers to it. Figure 6 presents the same statistics, first in the text, then in a table. Which is easier to interpret? “Tables that communicate quantitative data are effective only when the data are arranged so that their meaning is obvious at a glance” (APA, 2001, p. 148).

Table 1
APA Style Final Manuscripts 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Area</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables and figures</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math and statistics</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Values are mean scores on a 5-point scale (1 = none, 5 = a lot); N = 210. Adapted from “The Elements of (APA) Style: A Survey of Psychology Journal Editors,” by B. W. Brewer et al., 2001, American Psychologist, 56, p. 266.

Figure 6. Statistics from a survey of problem areas in using APA style. The same statistics are presented in the text and in the table according to APA style.

The information in the table in Figure 6 presents a fairly clear ranking of the means of problem areas reported: References 3.23, Tables and figures 3.00, and Math and statistics 2.81. The difference from highest to lowest is 0.42 points, almost half a standard deviation, which ranges from 0.98 to 1.07. This reflects a measure of agreement among the editors.

The influence these problem areas have is less evident. The range of means from highest to lowest is just 0.08 (2.31 to 2.23), a trivial distinction when the standard deviation ranges from 1.27 to 1.39. Try to derive the same interpretation from the data presented in the text. Tables are more expensive to render in print than text, so the authors or editors of this published article likely opted to present the statistics in text format for that reason.
Table Manners
- Place tables close to where they are first mentioned in your text, but do not split a table across pages. (Tables in papers submitted for review or publication are placed on separate pages at the end of the paper.)
- Label each table beginning with the table number followed by a description of the contents in italics.
- Horizontal rules (lines) should be typed into tables; do not draw them in by hand.
- Each row and column must have a heading. Abbreviations and symbols (e.g., “%” or “nos.”) may be used in headings.
- Do not change the number of decimal places or units of measurement within a column. “Use a zero before the decimal point when numbers are less than one” (APA, p. 128). Write “0.23” not “.23” unless the number is a statistic that cannot be larger than one, for example a correlation $r = .55$, or a probability $p < .01$.
- Add notes to explain the table. These may be general notes, footnotes, or probability notes.
- General notes follow the word Note: (in italics) and are used to explain general information about the table, such as the source.
- Footnotes are labeled “a, b, c, etc.” set in supercript. They explain specific details.
- Probability notes are indicated by asterisks and other symbols to indicate statistical significance. This is explained in the probability note at the bottom of the table. “Assign a given alpha level the same number of asterisks from table to table within your paper, such as $^*p < .05$ and $^{**}p < .01$; the larger [greater] probability receives the fewest asterisks [the smaller or lessor probability gets more asterisks]” (APA, p. 170).
- Tables may be more readable if single-spaced” (APA, 2001, p. 325). Tables in papers submitted for review or publication must be double spaced throughout.

5.2 GRAPHS
- “In APA Journals, any type of illustration other than a table is called a figure. . . . A figure may be a chart, graph, photograph, drawing, or other depiction” (APA, 2001, 176). The APA Manual is circumspect in encouraging the use of graphs since they are costly to produce. They are appropriate when they complement the text and eliminate a lengthy discussion.

![Graph](image)


The bar graph illustrates quantitatively the episodic character of this very lethal disease (the mortality rate is about 40%). The outbreaks are contrasted with the low endemic or background rate in a manner that would be difficult to describe in the text since the time scales and severity vary (the peaks always occur in the second or third quarters).

Labels (axes). The graph meets APA standards for presentation and labeling the axes. The Y-axis, the vertical axis on the left side of the graph, is labeled with the text in heading caps parallel to the axis (readable when the graph is rotated 90 degrees clockwise). These are APA requirements. The X-axis, the horizontal axis, is self explanatory and needs no additional label.

Legend. The legend of a graph identifies what each line or segment indicates. In this case there is only one metric, HPS cases, but the legend identifies periods of outbreak of the disease in contrast with periods when few cases are reported. Legends must be presented within the dimensions of the graph, never outside it.
Caption. Figures (graphs and images combined) are numbered like tables, starting with 1 and continuing in whole numbers through the text, with the word Figure and number in italics. The caption explains enough about the content so the reader need not refer to the text.

The APA Manual specifies the use of a sans serif font in the labels and legends of a graph. “Use a simple, sans serif typeface (such as Arial, Futura, or Helvetica) with enough space between letters to avoid crowding. Letters should be clear, sharp, and uniformly dark and . . . as consistent in size as possible” (APA, 2001, p. 191).

5.3 IMAGES

A picture is worth a thousand words. Illustrations, pictures, are expensive to print, especially color pictures, but that is not a limitation with the word processors and inkjet printers used for final manuscripts. If it makes sense to use a picture, do so. The picture in Figure 8 would be difficult to describe in the text, and would likely require a specialized language to do so (bergschrund, cornice, crevasse, fall line, glissade, grade, talus, tarn) that would also have to be explained.

Figure 8. Safe descent route, Andrews Glacier, Rocky Mountain National Park. The small dot above the bold solid line is a party starting the 150 m vertical descent. Right (north) of the crest of the glacier the slope drops dangerously into rocks. Andrews Tarn is in the foreground. Doc Scribe photo.

Legend. A legend explains the symbols added to an image or provides a scale. This picture has been edited to show a safe descent line (bold), the crest of the glacier (thin gray line), and the dangerous north side of the glacier marked with the universal no-go sign. All of these markings show up well against their respective backgrounds; important when labeling images. They need no further explanation beyond the caption. The legend should be within the boundaries of the image.

Caption. The caption goes below the images as it does with a graph. The caption begins with the figure number (graphs and images are both figures and numbered in the same sequence), followed by the title, a “brief descriptive phrase” (APA, 2001, p.199). Additional information should explain the image. “A reader should not have to refer to the text to decipher the figure’s message” (APA, p. 200). Finally, an acknowledgment of the source is required. This may be dispensed with if you are the source, but adding that fact will dispel doubt.

The captions in APA Lite show the title in a bold font, a useful touch though not part of the APA instructions. Most journals (outside medicine) publish only halftone images (grayscale), like Figure 8 (capitalize Figure in references to an image or graph in the text).

Graphs and images are presented in a dramatically different manner in copy manuscripts for publication; subject to complex requirements. They come at the end of the manuscript; figures and their captions go on separate pages. If writing for publication avoid images if possible, and consult the APA Manual.
6.0 CITATIONS & REFERENCES

- "References cited in text must appear in the reference list; conversely, each entry in the reference list must be cited in text" (APA, 2001, p. 215). A reference list is not a bibliography; only those works cited may appear in the reference list. “Test the URLs in your references . . . . If the document is no longer available, you may want to substitute another source . . . or drop it from the paper altogether” (APA, p. 271). Journal editors do check references, instructors may as well. If the document cannot be found it is not a source.

Every time you make use of the work of another in your text a citation is called for. This may be a reference to an idea or concept, a specific finding, or a direct quote. The citation and reference not only give credit where it is due, but also locate your work within intellectual community--making it a part of the dialogue of discovery.

6.1 BASIC FORMS & FORMAT

- Almost all sources fit one of two basic reference formats --as periodicals, or as books. The sole exception to this are software manuals, which fit neither format (why is a Great APA Mystery).

**Periodical Format**

Author, F. M., Coauthor, F. M., & Collaborator, F. M. (Date). Title of the article in sentence caps without quotation marks. *Name of the Journal, Newspaper, or Other Periodical in Heading Caps and Italics, Volume in Italics*[issue number], [pp.] page numbers.


The volume number (but not number of the issue in the volume) is placed in italics, an APA trademark. Page numbers of articles in newspapers or magazines take the abbreviation pp. (but not pages for journal articles).

**Book Format**

Author, F. M., & Coauthor, F. M. (Date). *Title of the book or report in sentence caps and italics*, Place of publication, State: Publisher.


**Electronic & online sources** are referenced like their print counterparts with the addition of a retrieval statement or a special note. Add "Retrieved [Date] from [URL]" to the reference to an online source (no period after the URL!). Add only the note [Electronic version] after the title of a PDF source, no URL.


6.2 TEXT CITATIONS

- APA style uses the author-date or parenthetical system of citation (APA, 2001). These have been used throughout APA Lite. They take the form (Author, Date, Page [if relevant]). This must agree with the author and date in the corresponding reference.

**APA Warning!** “Whenever possible, support your statements by citing empirical work . . . . When you cite nonempirical work, make this clear in your narrative [for example, write]: Cho (1991) theorized that; Audeh (in press) argued that; (see discussion in Ginsberg, 1993)” (APA, 2001, sec. 1.13, p. 28). *Empirical work* reports hard data, the results of specific tests or diagnostic inventories, or other exact measurements. Nonempirical works are abstract, dealing with theories, concepts, discussions, or reviews of empirical work.

**Placement.** Citations to references follow their referral in the text. For example, American Psychological Association journals use the author-date style of citation (APA, 2001, p. 207).

- Text citations do not repeat information. If an author’s name is mentioned in the text, it is not repeated in the citation. If no specific page is cited, none is noted. For example, the APA *Publication Manual* (2001) is largely focused on preparing manuscripts for publication. The citation immediately follows the author’s name.

- Page numbers are required with all direct quotations. The citation comes immediately after the quote, even when it is not at the end of the sentence. For example, changes to APA style “are not only permissible but also desirable” (APA, 2001, p. 322) when preparing college papers.

- When the author’s name and the quote are separated, the citation is also separated. For example, the APA Manual (2001) advises that changes to the style “are not only permissible but also desirable” (p. 322) when preparing college papers.

**Do not drop digits** from (elide) inclusive pages numbers, do not write pp. 1234-38, write pp. 1234-1238.
Three to five authors list all authors in the first citation; the lead author et al. (and others) in subsequent citations: first, (Smith, Jones, Andrews, Baker, & Charles, 2001); next, (Smith et al., 2001).

Six or more authors list the lead author et al. in all citations.

Corporate author. If a group is readily identified by an acronym, spell it out only the first time. For example, “As reported in a government study (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 1991) . . . .” The next citation gives just the initials and the year, (NIMH, 1991).

No author. If the author is unknown, use the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title), for example: (“Study Finds,” 1992). Use heading caps in the text when noting a title (sentence caps in references)!

Anonymous. If the work specifically carries the designation “Anonymous” in place of an author’s name, use Anonymous as the author. Otherwise, the work has no author.

Reprints cite the original publication date and reprint date if both are known, for example: (James, 1890/1983). Translations of classics note the date of the translation: (Aristotle, trans. 1931).

Personal communication. E-mail and other “unrecoverable data” are cited as personal communications, for example: (C. G. Jung, personal communication, September 28, 1933). These sources do not appear in the reference list.

Always cite page numbers after quotations. For example, the author noted, “The rats fell asleep within minutes” (Jones, 2003, p. 76). Or, Jones (1993) found “the rats fell asleep within minutes” (p. 76).

If the citation is repeated in the same paragraph, the year may be omitted. For example (Smith et al., 2002, p. 22), then (Smith et al., p. 23).

Use an ampersand (&) in references and parenthetical citations only; write and in plain text, for example, Smith and Sarason (1990) explained . . . . Or write: (Smith & Sarason, 1990).

If there are two or more citations that shorten to the same lead author and date, give as many additional names as needed to identify them, e.g., (Smith, Jones, et al., 1991) and (Smith, Burke, et al., 1991).

When citing multiple works by the same author, arrange dates in order. Use letters after years to distinguish multiple publications by the same author in the same year, e.g., (Johnson, 1988, 1990a, 1990b).

6.3 Reference Lists
List references alphabetically by author. When there are multiple works by the same author, list references by date, the most recent last.

1. Use prefixes if they are commonly part of the surname (e.g., de Chardin comes before Decker, MacGill comes before McGill. But do not use von (e.g., write: Helmholtz, H. L. F. von).


3. Alphabetize corporate authors by first significant word. Do not use abbreviations in corporate names.

Abbreviations. Use the abbreviation p. (pp.) before page numbers in encyclopedia entries, newspaper articles, chapters or articles in edited books, but not in journal or magazine article citations, where numbers alone are used. The following abbreviations are commonly used in APA references:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Citation</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Author</td>
<td>(Short Title, 2004) (“Short Title,” 2004)</td>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>(APA, 2001, chap. 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Author</td>
<td>(Smith, 2005) (Smith, 2005, p. 123)</td>
<td>Data File</td>
<td>(Corporate Author, 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Authors+</td>
<td>(Smith et al., 2002, pp. 123-456)</td>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>(Adam, 2003; Baca, 2004; Burton, 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Acronym</td>
<td>(United Nations [UN], 1999)</td>
<td>No Date</td>
<td>(Smith, n.d.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 9. List of references in block format. References are arranged alphabetically by author. Block format single-spaces within references, but double-space between references (see APA, 2001, p. 326).

Rules for References

1. **Authors & editors.** List up to six authors to a work, if more than six add et al. Invert all authors’ names, using first & middle initials. With two or more authors place an ampersand & < before the final name. Note, unless they are serving in place of authors in a reference, editors’ names go in their normal order (First. M. Last).

2. **Character Spacing.** Space once after all punctuation except inside abbreviations, ratios, and URLs where no space is required (APA, 2001, pp. 290–291). Space once after the periods in references and initials.


4. **Date.** Use the month-year format for full dates, but see the sample references for newspapers.

5. **E-documents.** When quoting electronic documents without page numbers, cite paragraph numbers if given, after the paragraph symbol or abbreviation para. (e.g., Smith, 2000, ¶ 17). If there are no paragraph numbers, cite the nearest preceding section heading and count paragraphs from there (e.g., Smith, 2000, Method section, para. 4).

6. **E-mail and other “unrecoverable data” are cited as a personal communication, for example: (A. B. Carter, personal communication, April 1, 2005). These do not appear in the reference list.

7. **Titles of Works.** All titles require sentence caps (all words lowercase except for the first word, first word after a colon, and proper nouns). Article titles are not placed in quotes in references (they are when mentioned in the text). Italicize titles of books, reports, working and conference papers, dissertations, and similar documents.

Do not drop digits from (elide) inclusive pages numbers, do not write pp. 1234-38, write pp. 1234-1238. The volume number in references to periodicals is placed in italics (but not the issue number, if any).
6.4 ARTICLES IN RESEARCH JOURNALS

Annual Review:

Anonymous or unknown author:

Citation: (“Annual Smoking,” 2002). Use heading caps when citing parts of titles in text citations.

One author:

Citation: (Abelson, 1997). APA style places the volume (but not the issue number in a volume) in italics with the name of the journal.

Two authors:

Citation: (McGlynn & Brook, 2001).

Three to five authors:

First Citation: (Miller, Emanuel, Rosenstein, & Straus, 2004); next citations: (Miller et al., 2004).

Six authors:

All citations: (Mokdad et al., 2001).

More than six authors:

All citations: (McGlynn et al., 2003). In the reference list the first six authors, then add et al.

Group author & online variants:

Citation: (Hypericum Depression Trial Study Group, 2002). Cite the full name of a corporate author.

Electronic formats:

Many documents are now available online as exact facsimile copies of the print original (usually in Adobe’s PDF format). References to these facsimiles just add the note [Electronic version] to the reference. If the document is not an exact copy of a print version—“(e.g., the format differs from the print version or page numbers are not indicated)”—add the date you retrieved the document and the URL to the reference (APA, 2001, p. 271).


Journals paged by issue (online):
6.5 ARTICLES IN NEWSPAPERS & MAGAZINES

Book review:

Magazine article:

Newspaper articles (online):

6.6 BOOKS AND CHAPTERS

Group author:

Citation: (American Psychological Association [APA], 2001); next citation (APA, 2001). Note: “Author” is used for the publisher’s name above when the author and publisher are identical, an APA quirk.

Three to five authors:

Citation: (Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 1995); next citation (Booth et al., 1995).

Chapter or section in a book (online & print):

Citations: (Beers & Berkow, 1999, chap. 189); (Stephan, 1985).

Edited book (two or more editors):

Edition other than the first (two authors):
Reprint/translation (one author & editors):


Citation: (Ebbinghaus, 1885/1913).

6.7 MONOGRAPHS, REPORTS, & THESIS

APA style is unusual in placing the titles of most shorter works in italics like the titles of books. Exceptions are papers published as chapters in edited books and software (reason for this last is a mystery). Most styles format these titles like articles in journals (APA does this for software only).

Conference paper (published as a chapter in an edited book):


Conference paper (unpublished, more than six authors):


Government report online accessed through GPO database:


Citation: (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2002); next citation (NIMH, 2002).

Monograph online:


Pamphlet-Brochure


Software:


Technical report (print/online versions):


Theses or dissertation:


6.8 REFERENCE WORKS


**Multivolume references:**


**Statistical abstract:**


### 6.9 WEB PAGES


Purdue University Online Writing Lab. (2003). *Using American Psychological Association (APA) format* (Updated to 5th edition). Retrieved February 18, 2003 from the Purdue University Online Writing Lab at http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/print/research/r_apa.html

### 7.0 APA Style Resources at Doc’s Website

**APA Hit List.** The style is notorious for features that are not intuitive or common sense. The APA Hit List Web page enumerates these with cross-reference to APA Lite and the APA Manual (2001).

**APA101.** Free online course. Explore the style in detail with emphasis on basic rules and paradigms.

**Lesson 1: Introduction to Final Manuscripts.** Journal editors (or instructors) may reject papers that do not follow APA style. The most common mistakes are discussed.

**Lesson 2: Documentation A - Reference Elements & Citations.** The parts of a reference are its elements. These are not arbitrary, they have a reasoned structure that flows through all APA references.

**Lesson 3: Documentation B - Reference Sources.** The APA Manual recognizes 95 different reference sources, providing examples of each. However, these are all built around basic forms and rules.

**Lesson 4: Manuscript Format A - Pages & Headings.** The differences between copy manuscripts and final manuscripts are most apparent in formatting pages. Chapter 6 of the APA Manual is applied.

**Lesson 5: Manuscript Format B - Tables & Figures.** The presentation of tables and figures is one of the most common problems in using APA style. Yet, these offer few difficulties if you understand the basic rules.

**Lesson 6: Text Rules A - General Rules.** There are specific rules when using acronyms, formatting quotations, and adding emphasis to words.

**Lesson 7: Text Rules B - Numbers and Statistics.** When to write numbers as words, when to use numerals? APA style uses the metric system.

**Review: Identify APA Style Features.** Now that you have grasped the essence of APA style, and mastered many of its details, it is time to test your knowledge.

**APA Quick Reference.** This is a graphical Windows-based application you download to your PC. APA style is presented as formatted pages of a college paper. Point your mouse cursor on a feature and click for a pop-up note explaining the rules and details. It's free.

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APPENDIX A. RESPECTFUL & NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

Sensitivity to labels. A person in a clinical study should be called a "patient," not a "case." Avoid equating people with their conditions, for example, do not say "schizophrenics," say "people diagnosed with schizophrenia." Use the term "sexual orientation," not "sexual preference." The phrase "gay men and lesbians" is currently preferred to the term "homosexuals." To refer to all people who are not heterosexual, the manual suggests "lesbians, gay men, and bisexual women and men" (see APA, 2001, p. 67).

Do not characterize people as victims (e.g., a "stroke victim"), use a descriptive term such as "people who have had a stroke." Avoid the terms "challenged" and "special" unless the population referred to prefers this terminology (e.g., Special Olympics). As a rule, use the phrase "people with _______" (for example, "people with AIDS," not AIDS "sufferers" or "victims").

Avoid gender stereotypes. For example, the manual suggests replacing "An American boy's infatuation with football" with "An American child's infatuation with football" (see APA, p. 66).

- The term "gender" refers to culture and should be used when referring to men and women as social groups, as in this example from the Publication Manual: "gender orientation rather than gender accounted for most of the variance in the results; most gay men and lesbians were for it, most heterosexual men and women were against it." (APA, 2001, p. 63).

- The term "sex" refers to biology and should be used when biological distinctions are emphasized, for example, "sex differences in hormone production."

An ethnic label can be perceived as a slur if not managed correctly. For example, persons of acknowledged Spanish heritage in the New World may prefer Chicano (Chicana), Hispanic, Latino, Mexican, Mexican American, and so on. Historically, there are no "American Indians," only members of specific nations, tribes, villages, and bands. The term Native American is inclusive of American Indians, Pacific Islanders, and Alaskan Natives. Specific group names are more informative, such as Hopi or Inuit.

- Color. Capitalize Black and White when the words are used as proper nouns to refer to social groups. Do not use color words for other ethnic groups. In racial references, the manual simply recommends that we respect current usage. Currently both the terms "Black" and "African American" are widely accepted, while "Negro" and "Afro-American" are not. These things change, so use common sense.

- Hispanic. The terms Hispanic, Latino, and Chicano are preferred by different groups. The safest procedure is to use geographical references; use "Cuban American" if referring to people from Cuba.

- Asian. The term Asian American is preferable to Oriental, and again the manual recommends being specific about country of origin, when this is known (for example, Chinese or Vietnamese). The manual specifies that hyphens should not be used in multiword names such as Asian American or African American.

- Indigenous. Some people from northern Canada, Alaska, eastern Siberia, and Greenland often (but not always!) prefer Inuk (singular) and Inuit (plural) to "Eskimo." But some Alaska natives are non-Inuit people who prefer to be called Eskimo, while others are Athabaskans of an entirely different heritage. Difficulty may be avoided by using geographical references. For example, in place of "Eskimo" or "Inuit" one could use "indigenous people from northern Canada, northern Alaska, eastern Siberia, and Greenland."

Age. In referring to age, be specific about age ranges; avoid open-ended definitions like "under 16" or "over 65." Avoid the term elderly. Older person is preferred. The AAM (American Medical Association) Manual of Style (1997, p. 263) uses these definitions:

- Neonates or newborns are persons from birth to 1 month of age.
- Infants are children [sic] aged 1 month to 1 year.
- Children are persons aged 1 to 12 years. . . . They may also be referred to as boys or girls.
- Adolescents are persons aged 13 through 17 years; also teenagers, adolescent boys, or adolescent girls.
- Adults are persons over 18 years and are referred to as men or women.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>DO NOT use . . .</strong></th>
<th><strong>When you can use . . .</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ethnic labels (e.g., Hispanic)</td>
<td>geographical labels (e.g., Mexican Americans if from Mexico)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;men&quot; (referring to all adults)</td>
<td>&quot;men and women&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;homosexuals&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;gay men and lesbians&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;depressives&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;people with depression&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, call people what they want to be called, and do not contrast one group of people with another group called "normal." Write "we compared people with autism to people without autism" not "we contrasted autistics to normals."
APPENDIX B. COMPOUND WORDS

Compound words are two or more words that work together in a specified order. This order cannot be reversed or rearranged without destroying the compound word’s meaning. A dictionary is the best guide to spelling and usage. If it is not in the dictionary it is not likely a hyphenated compound, but check the following rules for possible exceptions. If it is in the dictionary, use the first spelling given.

“With frequent use, open or hyphenated compounds tend to become closed (on line to on-line to online). Chicago’s general adherence to Webster does not preclude occasional exceptions when the closed spellings have become widely accepted, pronunciation and readability are not at stake, and keystrokes can be saved” (CMS, 2003, p. 300).

General Rules

- Full-time compound words are hyphenated whatever their role in a sentence—as an adjective or a noun. “The court-martial hearing is set for 1000 hours. The hearing will determine whether a court-martial is warranted.” Court-martial is a full-time compound word (as is “full-time”). This information is given in a dictionary.

Conditional compounds are hyphenated as adjectives, but not when used as nouns.

1. Adjectival compound. “The counselor suggested a role-playing technique to reduce the stress of encounters, but cautioned that role playing alone would not solve the problem.” Role-playing is a compound adjective, but not a compound noun.

2. Add a hyphen to any prefix attached to a proper noun, capitalized abbreviation, or number. For example, the post-Freudian era, the pre-1960s civil rights movement, the many non-ASA journals in sociology.

3. Fractions. “When . . . a fraction is considered a single quantity, it is hyphenated [whether it is used as a noun or as an adjective]” (CMS, 2003, p. 383). One-fourth the audience was comprised of former refugees. A two-thirds majority was required to pass the initiative.

4. Made-up compound. A compound may be of the made-up-for-the-occasion variety: “The up-to-date figures were unadjusted.” But when these terms are used in the predicate they are not hyphenated: The compound word was made up for the occasion. “The unadjusted figures were up to date.”

5. Serial compounds. When two or more compound modifiers have a common base, this base is sometimes omitted in all but the last modifier, but the hyphens are retained. Long- and short-term memory, 2-, 3-, and 10-minute trials.

6. Do not hyphenate a compound term using an adverb ending in -ly. “The widely used term was not yet in the dictionary. Such clearly understood terms are eventually documented if they endure.”

Avoid confusion! A re-creation is not the same as recreation. Does “the fast sailing ship” refer to a ship that was designed for speed, or one that is making an unusually fast passage? If the former, then it is a fast sailing ship. If it is the latter, then it is a fast-sailing ship (CMS, 1993, p. 203).

Prefixes

Through long usage most common prefixes do not require a hyphen: aftereffect, antifreeze, cofounder, Internet, microwave, oversight, preempt, reexamine, supermarket, unbiased, underground. There are many exceptions. When in doubt check a dictionary. Note the following exceptions:

1. Same two letters. If the prefix puts the same two letters together, a hyphen is sometimes inserted. For example, write: anti-industrial, co-op, non-native, post-trial. But also write: cooperative, coordinate, nonnegotiable, overrate, overreach, overrule, reelect, unnamed.

2. Superlatives-diminutives. Some prefixes, best-, better-, ill-, lesser-, little-, well-, are hyphenated when they precede the noun they modify, but are not hyphenated when preceded by a modifier, or when used as a predicate adjective. The ill-advised attack failed, the strategy was ill advised.

3. Weird terms. If the prefix creates an unfamiliar or weird term, a hyphen may improve clarity. The Turabian Guide offers these examples: pro-ally, anti-college instead of proally, anticollege (1976, p. 101).

The following prefixes always require a hyphen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>all-</td>
<td>all-powerful leader</td>
<td>great-</td>
<td>great-grandfather</td>
<td>self-</td>
<td>self-reliant person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ever-</td>
<td>ever-faithful friend</td>
<td>half-</td>
<td>half-baked plan</td>
<td>still-</td>
<td>still-active volcano</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-</td>
<td>ex-president</td>
<td>much-</td>
<td>much-loved pastor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C. COPYRIGHT: STYLES & FAIR USE

You Cannot Copyright a Style. By law (17 U.S.C. 102(b)) "the original and creative word sequences in [a text] are protected by copyright, but a writing style itself is in the public domain, no matter how original it is" (The Copyright Handbook, 3rd ed., by Stephen Fishman, 1998, Berkeley, CA: Nolo Press). You cannot copyright a research (or any) style, nor can you copyright a language, even a programming language. They belong to everyone.

The rationale for this is not hard to understand. If, for example, you wrote a book and stored it on your PC in Microsoft Word, would it then belong to Microsoft? After all, it's in their word processor format and style. How about Rock'n Roll? If you could secure a copyright on a style, then you would own the copyright on everything published in that style. More recently the courts have denied copyright protection to programming languages, even those invented by Microsoft and IBM!

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2. the nature of the copyrighted work;
3. the amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole; and
4. the effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work.

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The 1961 Report of the Register of Copyrights on the General Revision of the U.S. Copyright Law cites examples of activities that courts have regarded as fair use: “quotation of excerpts in a review or criticism for purposes of illustration or comment; quotation of short passages in a scholarly or technical work, for illustration or clarification of the author’s observations; use in a parody of some of the content of the work parodied; summary of an address or article, with brief quotations, in a news report; reproduction by a library of a portion of a work to replace part of a damaged copy; reproduction by a teacher or student of a small part of a work to illustrate a lesson; reproduction of a work in legislative or judicial proceedings or reports; incidental and fortuitous reproduction, in a newsreel or broadcast, of a work located in the scene of an event being reported.”

Copyright protects the particular way an author has expressed himself; it does not extend to any ideas, systems, or factual information conveyed in the work.

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