



Writing Handbook

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Literacy**

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Introduction

The purpose of this handbook is to help students improve their writing ability and help them meet the challenges of academic work at Long Island University. Since communication is the heart of an intellectual community, students need to explore ideas, to summarize and critique professional literature, write and edit research reports, and negotiate the demands of standard written English.

There is a grammar section at the end of this handbook, and we invite you to test yourself on grammar conventions, examine exemplary student papers, and preview websites. We also encourage you to use the services of the Writing Center on campus, located in Humanities Hall, Room 202. You will find them very helpful. You can call for an appointment at (516) 299-2732 or email for a virtual session at writing@cwpost.liu.edu.

Summarizing and Critiquing Professional Literature

A major part of your undergraduate and graduate work is to read, reflect on, and critically analyze journal articles, technical reports, studies, book chapters, books, Internet sources, and other pertinent materials. Reading these resources with a critical eye will help you grow and develop as a professional educator. Understanding the following concepts will make it easier for you to comprehend, summarize, and critique professional publications.

Readability

You need to decide if a publication “reads” well. Sometimes they do not, and it is fair game to criticize them on that score. Lewis Carroll in a humorous poem reminds us to “Beware the Jabberwock.” Most of us know that’s a pretty good idea, but as Professor Carroll dealt with language and meaning in his writing, he might also have warned his colleagues and his students to beware of jargon, the language of specialization that confuses the uninitiated. All professions use it, but jargon sometimes gets in the way of clarity. Is the jargon necessary to convey the writer’s thoughts and information, or does the use of specialized language confuse and muddle the reader? Consider your audience and write what you mean in simple, clear language. Are you writing for classroom teachers, university researchers, theoreticians, graduate students, or for your third grade class? Gear your language to your intended readership. Some suggestions to assist you in reading material that contains jargon include: (a) search the term in a search engine, (b) use online dictionaries/encyclopedias or (c) go to the glossary of related texts.

Treatment

As you peruse different publications and identify themes from the perspectives of research, practice, and theory you will recognize, understand, and appreciate varied perspectives. Ask questions. Is the subject treated in a scholarly, technical manner, or in a popular fashion? Is the article comprehensive? Is it argumentative? Is it quantitative or qualitative?

Special Features

Often, professional literature contains tables, figures, illustrations, sidebars, or other graphics. For example, a table might summarize data related to teacher beliefs and teacher practices, a figure might present common text structures (e.g., informational, narrative), and a sidebar might list annotations of multicultural books for children. When reading research publications, especially when reading experimental studies, you need to understand certain statistical analyses (e.g., *t*-tests, *f*-values, *z*-scores). At the very least, you need to determine the usefulness of these special features, scaffolds and supports. Consider the following questions: Are the special features necessary? Is a picture in this case really worth a thousand words? Is the information within the special features presented accurately and clearly?

Scope

Sometimes the scope of a publication is either too broad or too limited for its intended purposes. For example, some journal articles are so broad that they should have been books while other articles are so narrow that they should have included other dimensions and related information. One way to decide on the appropriateness of the scope is to consider the author's thesis. Compare the contents of the article with other publications concerning the same topic. Consider these questions: Does the author present his/her scope clearly in the thesis statement?

Do you feel the scope is too broad, too narrow, or just right? Explain. How is the scope of this publication different from the scope of other resources highlighting the same topic?

Authority

An author's reputation does not guarantee that an article's premise is correct. It suggests, however, that the author is committed to certain aspects of the field. Beyond the author's name, consider the authority of the journal. Does the resource provide in-depth coverage related to the topic? Does the publication present substantial evidence to support claims, hypotheses, and research questions? Is the article supported by extensive, relevant documentation? Is the writer's logic supported by facts? Does the writer's thesis agree or contradict your own experiences?

Authenticity

Most professional literature does not represent original contributions, but articles often generate unique perspectives or discuss creative ways of carrying out valuable ideas. Furthermore, research publications might extend previous research by focusing on different student populations, highlighting various instructional strategies and methodologies, or stressing a range of learning environments. Read and reflect carefully on these worthwhile publications. Are the ideas presented accurately? To what degree are subtle biases and emotional overtones prevalent? To what extent do the publications represent unique and innovative contributions?

Personal Reflections

As you synthesize these and other criteria for summarizing and critiquing professional literature, you should be able to write a personal response. Specifically, what impact did the publication have on your research, theories, and professional practices? What did you learn? What do you still need to learn? If you were the author, what information would you have included or excluded? Why?

Research Papers

Research Reports Published in Peer-Reviewed Journals

Research reports, usually published in peer-reviewed journals, are a written description of the purpose, implementation, and results of an investigation. Articles that appear in peer-reviewed journals go through an evaluation process conducted by experts in the field. An editor accepts a submission and then sends it to scholars who have agreed to serve as peer-reviewers. Their names are usually listed at the beginning of each journal volume. These reviewers decide if an article should be accepted, accepted with revisions, or rejected. This process ensures that well written and rigorously conducted research is disseminated.

The Importance of Research Reports

There are several reasons why students in the field of education should read research reports as part of their graduate studies.

- Most of us would be hesitant to take a medication that had not been evaluated and proven to be effective. The same standards should be used as we seek to identify the most effective educational practices. Educators should select interventions that have been demonstrated to be effective to ensure they are providing the best educational opportunities for their students. Practices that have been demonstrated to be effective are referred to as “evidence based” practices.
- The use of “evidence based” practices has become an integral part of our educational laws. Both Race to the Top and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act call for educators to use evidence-based strategies. Research reports are the vehicles by which

researchers disseminate their findings to other researchers, practitioners, families, and the general public.

- In most cases, peer-reviewed journals publish information that is “cutting edge.”

Therefore, the most recent information about the children we educate, as well as effective instructional strategies, can be found in peer-reviewed journals.

Locating Research Reports

There are several ways to locate research reports. Although we have provided a brief overview of a handful of strategies, we encourage you to talk with a librarian who can provide you with additional assistance.

ERIC – Educational Resources Information Center

ERIC is a database containing bibliographic records (citations and abstracts of articles) from more than 600 journals. In most instances, you cannot access the article directly through ERIC. However, ERIC provides you with enough information (authors, year, journal name, abstract) for you to retrieve the article through the C.W. Post Library system (either in an electronic form or in a hard copy).

You may access ERIC via the C.W. Post Library website by selecting Library/Online Data bases/Select Subject (education). You may also gain direct access to ERIC at <http://www.eric.ed.gov/>. To begin, select “*Advanced Search*” and enter the key words that correspond to your topic. To ensure that only research reports are identified, scroll down under “*Publication Type(s)*” and select “*Reports – Research.*” As you scan the citations/abstracts of the articles that correspond to your key words, select the “*Add*” icon at the top left of each citation that you find interesting. When you have finished scanning all of the items, at the top of

the screen, to the right under “search results,” you will see the number of items on your “clipboard.” Select that phrase (e.g., “8 items on my clipboard”) and then you can choose to “print,” “email,” or “export” the citations you selected.

PsychINFO

You can access PsychINFO through the C.W. Post Library website by selecting “library/Online Data bases/Select Subject (Psychology).” PsychINFO contains bibliographic citations, abstracts, and references. Enter the key words that correspond to your topic. To obtain only journal articles, go to “Publication Type” and select “All Journals” or “Peer Reviewed Journals.”

Accessing Articles through the C.W. Post Library System

Once you have acquired the citation (via ERIC or PyschINFO) go to the C. W. Post Library web page, select “Periodical,” and type in the name of the journal. If available, the journal will be listed. Click on it and locate the year/volume that corresponds to your citation. If you are working on an off-campus computer, the program will prompt you to enter your ID number. If C.W. Post does not have online access, the program will inform you if there is a hard copy in the library. If the C.W. Post Library system does not have access to an online version or a hard copy, you may complete and submit an interlibrary loan form and obtain the article. You can access that form by going to: “Library Services/ Interlibrary Loans/periodical request form.”

Types of Research Reports

There are several types of educational research, and you should become familiar with the different types of research to help them navigate the many documents they will encounter. It is important to note, some authors may incorporate more than type of research in a single report.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is conducted to gain understanding of how people behave in given circumstances. This type of research typically contains a small sample of participants (N = number) whose behaviors are carefully observed and coded as a means of gathering information. Examples of qualitative research are studying the interactions between students with and without disabilities in a high-school classroom, or observing how teachers interact with administrators.

Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is conducted to describe phenomena numerically. It is used to answer specific questions and to test hypotheses. Examples of this kind of research include comparing test scores achieved under two different conditions (with homework assignments versus without homework assignments), determining the number of hours per week high-school students spend on their cell phones, and the number of times children with disabilities were hospitalized during infancy.

Basic Research

Basic research is conducted for exploratory reasons, to expand knowledge, and to identify theoretical truths. Its purpose is not to solve specific practical problems, but to gain a better understanding of underlying cause and effect relationships. Examples of basic research include exploration of the core characteristics associated with chromosome disorders and exploring how high school students respond to questions delivered at high rates.

Applied Research

Applied research is implemented to learn about solutions to practical problems, and/or to test applications of theory to real-life questions. Examples include determining which intervention strategy results in the greatest increases of attending behaviors and decreases in off-task behaviors in children with ADHD, identifying the most effective strategy for preparing teachers to teach mathematics, and determining the best strategy for increasing high school students' participation in school clubs.

Evaluation Research

Evaluation research enables individuals to make decisions about the quality and/or usefulness of a program. Examples include evaluating the effectiveness of a drug prevention program being implemented in middle schools, evaluating the effectiveness of an integrated preschool program on the attitudes of elementary school students towards their peers with developmental disabilities, and evaluating the effectiveness of a school-community collaboration whose purpose is to enhance relationships between immigrant families and professionals.

Action Research

Action research is conducted in order to improve practices in schools. It entails documenting performance while engaging in problem solving. Examples include determining which types of physical education programs result in the best outcomes for elementary school students, which classroom management procedures result in the fewest discipline referrals, and which types of community activities result in the highest levels of participation.

Non-Experimental Research

Non-experimental research is used to describe phenomena in the absence of manipulating any factors. Examples include determining the relationship between the number of hours students do homework and their test scores, the relationship between types of life experiences and racial attitudes, and the relationship between education placement (i.e., inclusion versus self-contained) and employment status.

Experimental Research

Experimental research is conducted to determine a causal (i.e., “if-then”) relationship between two or more phenomena. In experimental research (as opposed to non-experimental research), the factors that influence behavior are systematically manipulated, hence the term “experimental” is applied. Examples include exposing two groups of students to different types of science instruction and comparing performance on standardized tests, assessing which of two different types of reading instruction had the greater effect size on reading performance, and exposing two groups of teachers to two different types of training on disability awareness and then comparing the extent to which they welcome diversity in their classrooms.

Historical Research

Historical research provides a description and/or an explanation of situations or events that occurred in the past. Examples include investigating why a region of the state relies on segregated settings when educating students with severe disabilities, why a certain curriculum was selected, and factors that led to the development of vocational training programs.

Format of Research Reports

Research reports are written in a distinct format that contains at least five basic sections. A description of each section is provided below.

Abstract

An abstract is a paragraph that is a summary of the article. An abstract provides a very brief overview of the research question(s), what the researchers did, their results, and what those results mean. The abstract should be a single paragraph of a 120 words or less.

Introduction

This section of an article provides background information that includes a brief review of related research, a rationale for the research being conducted, and, sometimes, an overview of the research methods typically used in this field of interest.

Method

This section of the article provides a detailed description of what the researchers did in order to conduct the study. It typically contains the following subsections:

Participants – Information is provided about the person(s) with whom the study was conducted. Information regarding age, gender, race, intellectual and/or achievement levels, and/or disability is provided based on the type of question being asked within the study.

Setting – In this subsection of the article, information regarding where the study was conducted, the type of educational program, the type of community (i.e., rural, suburban, urban), and the region of the country is provided.

Design – The authors indicate the type of experimental design used to analyze the results. This subsection often contains information regarding *independent* and *dependent*

variables. The independent variable is the intervention or strategy being implemented, and the dependent variable is the behavior(s) that is influenced as a result of the changes made in the independent variable. For example, a teacher plans to examine the effectiveness of direct instruction on student performance. The direct instruction would be the independent variable and the measure of student performance (i.e., number of components of a science experiment conducted correctly) would be the dependent variable.

Procedures – In this subsection the author provides the reader with information regarding exactly what was done within the study. The information should be so specific that other researchers can follow the same procedures and obtain the same findings.

Findings

This section provides specific information regarding what happened as a result of implementation of the procedures. Results are typically reported within a graph or table for easy interpretation. If possible, researchers provide an indication of confidence in the results reported.

Discussion

In the beginning of this section, the researchers provide an overview of the results. Then, the researchers comment upon limitations that might exist within their study, the meaning of their findings, as well as the implications. Within the discussion, the researchers also make recommendations regarding future research.

References

This section contains references listed in alphabetical order that were cited in the paper.

Reading Empirical Research Reports

Begin by reading the title of the article and then carefully reading the abstract. This will provide you with a general overview of the study. As you move on to the introduction, you will gain insight into why the study was conducted as well as information regarding related studies. The methods section will provide you with information regarding exactly how the study was conducted. There should be enough technical information provided in the article that another researcher could replicate the study. This is particularly important for intervention studies, as you will be provided with step-by-step procedures for implementing evidence-based interventions.

Depending on the way in which the information gathered by the researchers is analyzed (i.e., the type of research design utilized by the researchers), reading the results section of a study might prove difficult (particularly if you have not had a course in statistics). In some studies, graphs will be provided that illustrate the specific results. These visual illustrations might prove helpful to you as you read the results. As you read through this section, concentrate on the meaning rather than the “numbers.” This might help you to get an idea of the results of the study.

The discussion provides an overview of the results, but keep in mind that this is the researchers’ interpretation of the results. The researchers will provide you with a discussion of their findings as well as implications associated with these findings. This information can assist you in determining the extent to which the study impacts the field of education.

Summarizing Empirical Research Reports

As a college student, you will be exposed to a tremendous amount of information regarding many aspects of education. In order to demonstrate that you understand this information and can impart it to others (parents, colleagues, students), it is important for you to be skilled at summarizing what you have learned from reading research reports. One strategy that might prove helpful is to summarize each section as you read it. For example, as you read the introduction, you might note previous findings and the researchers' hypothesis. While reading about the participants within the methods sections, you can note the age and grade of the subjects. Once you have summarized each of the sections, you can then combine the components so that they run smoothly in paragraph form.

Drafting: Writing Focused, Clearly Organized Paragraphs

After you research, reflect, and organize your ideas, it is time to write your first draft. Write clean sentences in paragraphs that contain strong beginnings, interesting middles, and definite ends. Each paragraph has a topic sentence and that sentence can be explicit (directly indicated) or implied (readers are required to infer), but it must be clear. Present your supporting details in the body of the paragraph in an organized manner. The paragraph's conclusion might tie back to the topic sentence or be a transitional sentence to what comes next.

One Paragraph Equals One Idea

Each paragraph is a unit that communicates one major concept. Each sentence in that unit flows logically to the next. To keep the reader interested, vary your writing style by changing sentence types and length. When you are ready to change ideas, change paragraphs.

Types of Paragraphs

Paragraphs can narrate, describe, explain, make analogies, indicate cause/effect, define, classify, summarize, or persuade. Paragraphs are as much a writer's tool as words are. Paragraphs usually begin with a topic sentence followed by supporting details, facts, examples, or strategic arguments. Often they end with a concluding or transition sentence. How do skilled writers organize these sentences? Sometimes writers support their topic sentence with reasons. At other times, they supply details or use examples. Some writers compare and contrast in a single paragraph; other writers use different paragraphs for each component of the comparison. For many assignments you will need to state and develop a thesis statement. The thesis statement – the explicit purpose of your paper, the point of view you will expand – is usually clearly stated

in your first paragraph. This is important because you need to stay focused on your thesis throughout your paper.

Consistency

Be consistent. Format all paragraphs in a similar fashion, especially when writing a summary. Write strong, developed paragraphs and use the active voice. That means the sentence's subject does the action expressed by the verb. The following sentence is in the active voice.

The girl read the book.

In a sentence with passive voice, the subject is acted on.

The book was read by the girl.

Active voice is more direct, stronger, and leaner.

Passive voice usually has a form of the verb *to be* (*was, is, am, are, been*), but the key to the concept is whether the subject is doing the action: *Smith made mistakes. Mistakes were made by Smith.* Another example is, *Jones's research indicated ...*, rather than *The research done by Jones indicated*

If you follow these precepts, your paragraphs should read as a group of definite statements. Avoid unnecessary words and loosely connected sentences. They do not express precise, cohesive ideas. For the most part, when writing a summary stick to one tense and use strong nouns and verbs to get your message across. Try to co-ordinate your ideas within the paragraph so that similar concepts build to an emphatic ending. To make sure that your reader understands your point, link your ideas, repeat key words, and use parallel structure.

Editing

This section is not a grammar section as much as it is an analysis of the usual suspects. As writers, we tend to repeat the same errors; perhaps for the same reason 15 English words make up 20 to 25 percent of all our written words. We repeat the same syntax (grammar), the same vocabulary, and the same mistakes. Yet there is a blessing in this. If we, as writers, repeat our errors, then we share a common ground. We can note the mistakes, discuss them, clarify them, and fix them in short order.

“Ms. Smith is a fine teacher,” Superintendent Jones said, “but I can’t trust her to send a note home.” In a competitive job market, the ability to write well is an asset. Teachers who can edit their writing have an advantage.

So let’s start with the word *edit*, as in Edit, Edit, Edit, Edit, Edit (well, you get the idea). Teachers are pressed for time, but as professionals, we need to write clearly and edit carefully. When marking papers, teachers often see the same editing errors: *if* for *of*, *their* for *they’re* or *there*, *it’s* for *its*, *a lot* for *a lot*, *alright* for *all right*. *Alot* and *Alright*, by the way, are never correct forms, at least not yet.

Its’ is another common mistake. The word does not exist. Most dictionaries list it as an “erroneous form.” The correct forms are *it’s* or *its*.

It’s = it is. *It’s a beautiful day for a drive.*

Its = possession. *Our car lost its left fender when we hit a pothole on the Cross Bronx Expressway.*

Its’ = an error. Always? Yes, always! The form does not exist.

Pronouns

When editing, be careful with pronouns. A common error writers make is using the relative pronoun *that* for the pronoun *who*. The word *who* is used to refer to people. The word *that* is used to refer to things.

(a) *The student who; the rake that*

(b) *The student who studies will succeed.*

(c) *The rake that I lost turned up in the garden.*

A pronoun takes the place of a noun. The noun that the pronoun replaces is called the antecedent. Be careful with antecedents. Be sure pronouns refer to the words to which you want them to refer. Pronouns usually refer to the closest logical antecedent. (at least that is how the eye of the reader sees them, so be sure that is your intent).

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and case.

For example: A concerned *teacher* must motivate *his or her* students.

Sometimes writers use pronouns without antecedents. When that happens the paragraph's meaning becomes a puzzle for the reader to solve. "Let's see," the reader says, "the word *they* probably refers to students, and *it* likely means a book, but then maybe *they* means the writers, and *it* means ... No, that doesn't work; perhaps *it* refers to..." Be clear! Don't ask the reader to do the writer's job.

Consider this sentence:

Sue's mother said she started having trouble with reading in grade two.

Whom does the word *she* refer to? Does it refer to Sue or Sue's mom? Probably Sue, but it is not clear enough. If you are taking a case history, the pronoun might refer to Sue's mom. The sentence, as written, doesn't work logically.

Pronouns like *myself*, *herself*, *himself*, *yourself*, *themselves* sometimes pose problems for writers. These words are called reflexive pronouns because they refer back to themselves. The rule is simple. Use them only when they have an antecedent.

"Hey, Dad," little Billy said, "I (the antecedent) painted the entire hall all by myself with the orange paint I found in the shed."

Quotation Marks

American punctuation places periods and commas inside (before) quotation marks.

"Please pass the salt," or "Please pass the salt," she said.

On the other hand, the following punctuation is British punctuation.

"Please pass the salt" , "Please pass the salt" , she said.

"Please use American punctuation," the teacher said.

Commas

Using commas in a series is never wrong, but omitting the final comma might confuse the reader.

Sue finished reading the book, put out the cat, and went to bed.

We studied sociology, psychology, Italian and American history.

Without the final comma, it is not clear if *We* studied Italian (language) and American history, or Italian history and American history.

For some reason the comma that should be in front of the coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, nor, for) that joins main clauses is disappearing and needs to be used.

Professor Ozymandias enjoys teaching romantic poetry, but she dislikes teaching modern fiction.

The comma tells the reader the writer has joined two clauses of equal grammatical weight.

On the other hand, dropping the coordinating conjunction and using the comma alone creates a more serious problem. In other words don't use a comma as a substitute for a period or semicolon.

Professor Carroll enjoys reading fantasy, he dislikes reading realistic fiction.

The above is a run-on sentence. A period or semicolon is required between the two main clauses.

Professor Carroll enjoys reading fantasy; he dislikes reading realistic fiction.

Professor Carroll enjoys reading fantasy. He dislikes reading realistic fiction.

When the words *however* or *therefore* are used parenthetically, they are set off by commas.

Billy, however, didn't think so.

When these words are used to join main clauses, the punctuation usually required is a semicolon and a comma.

Billy was tired; however, he finished the job.

Subordinate clauses act as modifiers (adverb and adjective), and require a main clause to express a completed thought. When adverbial clauses introduce a sentence, a comma sets the clause off from the main clause.

Although Sally was tired, she went to work.

Because Sally was tired, she decided to stop for coffee.

When she stopped for coffee, Sally bought a lottery ticket and played her favorite number combination.

When Sally's lottery ticket won fifty million dollars, Sally bought a villa in Tuscany.

Another common comma problem is separating a subject from its predicate with a single comma. *Johnny, after jogging all morning decided to wash the windows.* The interrupting participle phrase needs to be set off from the sentence. *Johnny, after jogging all morning, decided to wash the windows.*

Verbals

Do you remember studying verbals in junior high school? In case you have forgotten, verbals are versatile verbs. Verbals are verbs used as nouns, adverbs, or adjectives. English uses three kinds of verbals. One kind, gerunds, are verbs ending in *-ing*, and they are used as nouns. For example, consider the word, *Running*, in the sentence, *Running is good exercise.* *Running* is the subject of the sentence. It is a verb that is used as a noun. It's a gerund.

Next are infinitives. An infinitives is the word *to* plus a verb. Infinitives are used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. The infinitive *To run* is used as a noun in the sentence *To run is good exercise.* How are the infinitives *to fill* and *to borrow* used in the following sentence? *Before I went to fill my gas tank, I drove to the library to borrow "Consolation of Philosophy."* Don't be confused by the prepositional phrase *to the library*. Remember, infinitives are the word *to* plus a verb.

Participles are also verbals. Participles are verbs that end in *-ing* or *-d* and are used as adjectives. For example, *Sue walked down the hall, talking with her friends.* *Talking* is a participle (adjective) that modifies Sue. *Talking* tells us what Sue was doing.

Writers need to be careful when using a participle to introduce a sentence. When they are used in an introductory phrase, they modify the subject even if that is not the writer's intent.

Running down the field, Grandma watched Billy fumble. Billy ran down the field, not Grandma. The sentence needs rewriting. *Grandma watched Billy fumble while he was running down the field.*

Some participle problems are subtler. Consider this sentence. *Reading this article, it became obvious ...* The word *it* cannot read the article. The sentence needs to be rewritten.

Some Common Editing Problems

Agreement and Number

Be careful with agreement and number (singular-plural). Singular subjects require singular verbs and plural subjects require plural verbs. We all know that, but sometimes putting the rule into practice gets a little tricky.

One of my goals are ... The word *goals* is the plural object of the preposition *of*. The word *One* is the subject. *One of my goals is ...*

A similar problem *A reader ... they.* The word *reader* is singular; *they* is plural; *everyone ... are* (The word *everyone* is singular). *Everyone is going.*

Possessive

The rule for showing possession is simple. If the word that shows possession does not end with the letter *s*, add apostrophe *s* to the word to form the possessive.

The *boy's* car.

If the possessive word ends in the letter *s*, most of the time an apostrophe added after the *s* will form the possessive.

Bill and Joe own a car together. The *boys'* car.

If the noun is singular and ends in the letter *s*, and is easily pronounceable, you may add 's

James's car.

Word Choice

Avoid the indiscriminate *you* as in *You need to ...*. Instead try *A teacher needs to ...*. The word *you* as used in the first example is all right for informal speech or informal writing but try to avoid using it for formal writing.

Fourth grade not forth grade. Fourth is a number. Forth is ... well, to go forth.

Among or amongst? Professional writers use *among*. Almost no one uses *amongst*.

Between or among? Use *between* for two; use *among* for more than two.

Each other or one another? Use *each other* to refer to two; use *one another* to refer to more than two. *Harry and Bill helped each other. Harry, Bill, and George helped one another.*

So or very? *Very* is an adverb. *I was very happy.* The word *so* indicates a result. *I was so happy that I sang a song.*

Less or fewer? Use *less* as an adjective to describe an amount (*less energy*). Use *fewer* for numbers (*fewer children*). Also *less than*, *fewer than*. *We go there less often than we used to. We go fewer times a year than we once did.*

Different from or different than? *Different from* is right almost all the time; *different than* is acceptable when it is followed by a clause. Stick with *different from*.

Like or as? These two words are used almost interchangeably these days, but strictly speaking or, more exactly, strictly writing, the word *as* is used to introduce a clause. *Like* is usually used as a preposition.

Compliment or complement? *Compliment* = *praise*; *complement* = *complete*. *The general complimented the entire complement of soldiers on their appearance.*

Be Logical

Avoid writing the phrase *in my opinion* when writing critique. Why? It is *all* your opinion.

As a teacher, I thought this was a great idea. Fine, but if you are not a teacher, is it a bad idea?

When you are writing summary, be sure your paragraphs have topic sentences that are developed and expanded. True, topic sentences are often implied, but not usually in summary. Avoid writing unrelated sentences that are not grouped by logic and seem to be “pushed” into paragraph form without any thought given to the paragraph’s development, cohesion, or clarity. Paragraphs are always more than one sentence.

Speaking of clarity, clear writing makes your thesis or argument easy to understand. Step back mentally from your paper and look at your thesis statement or your argument from the reader’s point of view. Ask yourself, is my writing clear? Don’t expect the reader to organize your writing.

Sentence Problems

The findings appear to support that weak readers have difficulty with fluency and comprehension ... What is wrong with this sentence? Well ... in addition to the obvious, that weak readers *do* have difficulty with fluency and comprehension; the findings do not support weak readers. The findings indicate *the concept* that weak readers have difficulty with fluency and comprehension.

Who wrote it? In professional writing use the words *writer, researcher*, the writer’s full name, or the writer’s last name. For example:

Green (2007) found...

Smith (2008) researched

Gina Smith researched, but usually not, *Gina researched ...*

Avoid soft, wordy sentences. *The article How to Be a Wonderful Reader by Bill Jones and Gina Smith tells about how they used a fifth-grade class to study comprehension strategies and ...* You are writing professionally. Get to it!

Smith and Jones (2008) researched ...

Tighten sentences.

Teachers can teach different strategies and skills in fluency and reading comprehension.

Teachers can teach fluency and comprehension skills.

The second sentence is tighter, more direct, clearer.

Write what you mean:

Teachers are trying to solve how a weak reader can use different strategies and skills.

Teachers are trying to teach weak readers how to use different strategies and skills.

Be exact: *Smith (2008) conducted a study...* What kind of study? Descriptive? Experimental? Correlational?

Smith's (2008) experimental study ...

Be careful: *I disagree (agree) with the findings of this article ...* Think about it. Findings are findings. You may disagree with the experimental design or challenge the validity of the findings or use the findings to come to a different conclusion. But can you really agree or disagree with the findings ?

Be on target: *Between 1930 and 1980 Smith and Jones (2008) researched the literature ...* If they did that, they were tireless. Write what you mean. *Smith and Jones (2008) researched the literature written between 1930 and 19*

APA Documentation in College Level Papers

The Purpose of Documentation

1. To identify (cite) other people's ideas and information used in your article review, research paper, or critique.
2. To indicate the authors or sources of these works or ideas in a Reference list at the end of your paper.

What is APA Format?

APA format is one of many methods of documentation, and it is the required format for The Department of Special Education and Literacy at C.W. Post campus of Long Island University. APA format is a guide to writing papers, creating articles for journal publication, and for citing references. The APA Publication Manual is available in libraries and the C.W. Post bookstore and may be ordered from:

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (6th ed.)*. Washington, D.C.

APA HEADINGS

APA Style recommends 5 heading levels to separate and classify paper sections. Regardless of the number of levels, always use the headings in order, beginning with level 1. The format for each level is illustrated below:

Level	Format
1	Centered, Boldface, Uppercase and Lowercase Headings
2	Left-aligned, Boldface, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading
3	Indented, boldface, italicized, lowercase heading with period.
4	<i>Indented, boldface, italicized, lowercase heading with period.</i>
5	<i>Indented, italicized, lowercase heading with period.</i>

Citation Principles for Essays and Term Papers – Avoid Plagiarism

If you quote or refer to anyone else's ideas in your research paper or journal critique, whether from print sources or media or the Internet, you should cite them according to established citation format. Failure to do so is plagiarism and a violation of copyright law. Plagiarism may result in failure on an assignment and, in some cases, failure or expulsion from a course. See the section on plagiarism on the library home page at <http://www2.liu.edu/cwis/cwp/library/exhibits/plagiarism.htm>. In this section, please review the plagiarism guide for C.W. Post students. Safe-Assign is used to determine plagiarism in student papers. Professors and readers have access to this link.

General Guidelines for Citing Sources In-Text

Works should be cited within the text of the paper or article, as well as in a reference list at the end of the article. Within the text, cite the author and the date of works used in your research. This citation enables readers to locate the source of the information. The following are examples of citing sources in-text:

1. Within the body of the text:

Jones and Smith (2008)

2. At the end of the paraphrased part, the citation is written within parentheses (). It is called a parenthetical citation.

A major review has received much attention recently (Jones & Smith, 2008).

Samples of Citing a Reference In-text

Short Direct Quote:

“Education is the key to success” (Taylor, 2008, p. 7).

Short Direct Quote when the author is named in the text:

Taylor (2008) found that “education is the key to success” (p. 7).

Direct Quotes with 40 or more words: Display in freestanding block of text and omit quotation marks. Double space. At the end of a block quotation, cite the source and page or paragraph number in parentheses after the final punctuation mark.

Bakhtin (1984) stated,

Imagine a dialogue of two persons in which the statements of the second speaker are omitted, but in such a way that the general sense is not violated. The second speaker is present and invisibly, his words are not there, but deep traces left by these words have a determining influence on all present and visible words of the first speaker. (p. 197)

Information from printed source, but is not using a direct quote:

Young children need to engage in social interactions with peers (Neumann, 2006).

References with two authors:

Mark and Smith (2004) discussed students with disabilities.
Students with disabilities have an educational plan (Marks & Smith, 2002).

The first time a reference is used when the references has three, four, or five authors:

Fluent reading should sound like talking (Kuhn, Stahl, & Rasinski, 2006).

Second and subsequent times the reference is used:

Fluency is related to text structure (Kuhn et al., 2006).

Naming three, four, or five authors of one reference in the text:

First time reference is used: Kuhn, Stahl, and Rasinski (2006) found that

Second and subsequent times reference is used omit year: Kuhn et al. found

Reference with six or more authors:

Further research has found this to be inappropriate (Christie et al., 2008).

Citing two or more works within the same parentheses:

Past research (Wellhousen & Katz, 1998, 2000)

Several studies (Johnson, 1999a, 1999b; Reifel, 2007)

Electronic Sources

If possible, cite an electronic document the same as any other document by using the author-date style.

Johnson (2000) explained

Unknown Author and Unknown Date: If no author or date is given, use the title in your signal phrase or the first word or two of the title in the parentheses and use the abbreviation "n.d." (for "no date").

Another study of behavior and students learning to read discovered that self regulation can be scaffolded ("Self regulation and academic achievement," n.d.).

Sources Without Page Numbers

(Since they do not provide page numbers, use the paragraph ¶ symbol or the abbreviation para. and number. If headings are given, tell heading and number of paragraph following it.)

(Nissman, 2000, ¶ 5)

(Butler, 2000, conclusion section, para.1)

Never use the page numbers of Web pages you print out; different computers print Web pages with different pagination.

Personal Interviews, personal communications

(J.Hayhurst, personal communication, June 13, 2008)

J.Hayhurst (personal communication, June 13, 2008)

Email

L. Slavin (Personal e-mail, June 9, 2008)

Online posting from Blackboard Discussion board or Blog post

L. Shoemaker (2009, June 9)

Note: Personal communications and online postings are not included on reference page.

Citing Information When You Have Not Seen the Original Source

Sometimes an author cites research that someone else has done, but you are unable to locate the original research report. For example, in your paper you might include research described in your course textbook. In the paraphrase below, Lynch and Anderson's study is cited in Shapiro et al. and you did not read the work cited, list the Shapiro et al. reference in the References. In the text, use the following citation:

Text Citation:

Lynch and Anderson's study (as cited in Shapiro, Neumann, Page, & Bowman, 2009)

Reference List Entry:

Shapiro, M., Neumann, B., Page, P., & Bowman, M. (2009). Models of reading aloud: Parents and preschool children interacting with storybooks, *Psychological Review*, 100, 589-608.

Note: Some professors might not allow students to use secondary sources. Please check with your professor before submission of written work.

General Guidelines for Creating the References List

- Start the Reference list on a separate page at the end of your paper.
- Include only those sources you have cited within your paper (personal communications and secondary sources are not included on the reference page)
- The **title** of your reference list page should be References and should appear centered at the top of the page.
- Arrange citations in **alphabetical order** by the first element of the citation, usually the author's last name.
- Authors' names are inverted (last name first); give the last name and initials for all authors of a particular work for up to and including seven authors. If the work has more than seven authors, list the first six authors and then use ellipses after the sixth author's name. After the ellipses, list the last author's name of the work.
- **Double space** the entire References list and do not add an extra blank line after the title.
- **Hanging indents** are required for citations in the reference list. The first line starts at the left margin. All subsequent lines are indented 4 spaces.
- **Italicizing** is preferred for titles of books, journals and videos
- Article titles and chapter titles are in plain text – **NOT underlined**, italicized, or entered within quotation marks.
- **Pagination:** the only time p. or pp. appears is for a daily newspaper or chapter in a book. If the precise page range is unknown (e.g., 54-60), then page numbers may be shown as 54+.

Suggestions to Help Format Electronic References

Online articles have the same guidelines as printed articles. Include all information the online host makes available.

Ballantyne, K. G., Sandeerman, A.R., D’Emilio, T., & McLaughlin, N. (2008). *Dual language Learners in the early years: Getting ready to succeed in school*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition. Retrieved March 2009 from <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/resabout/ecell/earlyyears.pdf>.

Article from a Database

Note: APA states that including database information in citations is not necessary because databases change over time such as EBSCO or ProQuest (p. 192). If you are referencing a print article obtained from an online database (library database) use the same format you would use for print citations. Include retrieval dates if the source is could change, such as Wikis.

Citing DOIs (digital object identifier) is used when citing publication data from electronic sources. It identifies content and provides a link to its location on the Internet. This is used because online materials can change URLs. Provide the DOI on the reference page when available.

An example for the DOI in references: doi: 10.1598/RT.62.4.7

Electronic Books

If a work is not directly available online or must be purchased, use “Available from,” rather than “retrieved from,” and indicate where the book can be found.

O’Keefe, E. (2011). *Postmodern Theories*. Retrieved from <http://www.ebrary.edlibrary.net>.

The following pages are **examples** that include information sources categorized as books, book chapters, journal and newspaper articles, websites, online publications, and other types. It is advised that you use this resource as well as the APA manual 6th (2010).

EXAMPLES OF THE MOST COMMONLY USED APA REFERENCE ENTRIES

1. Journal article, one author

Ash, A. (2000). Bilingual school in New York. *Psychological Bulletin*, 23, 234-257.

2. Article in journal paginated by issue, one author

Birch, B. C. (2008). Counseling contrasts. *Social Issues*, 77(4), 90-97.

3. Journal article, two authors

Clark, D. E., & Brown, H. E. (2005). The effectiveness of group size in expressive movement. *Psychometrika*, 18, 897-904.

4. Journal article, three to seven authors

Downs, H. I., Evans, J. K., & Fink, L. (2003). Piagetian theory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63, 368-402.

5. More than seven authors

Miller, F. H., Choi, M. J., Angeli, L. L., Harland, A. A., Stamos, J. A., Thomas, S. T., . . .

Rubin, L. H. (2009). Web site usability for the blind and low-vision user. *Technical Communication*, 57, 323-335.

6. Journal article in press

Ginzberg, M. N. (in press). Teacher comments and student performance: An experiment in motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*.

7. Journal Article with DOI

Rogers, R. (2008). Between contexts: A critical analysis of family literacy, discursive practices, and literate subjectivities. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 37, 248– 277.doi:

[10.1598/RRQ.37.3.1](https://doi.org/10.1598/RRQ.37.3.1)

8. Journal Article without DOI (Retrieved online – URL is needed)

Himmelman, J. & Klein, G.W. (2001). Emotional attainment of parental love and adult happiness. *E-Journal of Applied Psychology*, 2(2), 38-48. Retrieved from <http://ojs.lib.swin.edu.au/index.php/ejap>.

9. Journal Article with more than one author from a library-subscription, full-text database

Simpson, M.L., Stahl, N.A. & Francis, M.A. Reading and learning strategies: Recommendations for the 21st century. *Journal of Developmental Education*, 28(2), 2-15, 32.

10. Journal Article On a Website (Not from a library-subscription full-text database)

LePage, R.G., & Onyx, B. (2000). New formatting methods. *New Style*, 2(2), 8-9. Retrieved from <http://www.newstyl.com>.

11. Magazine article

Hall, O. P. (2000, March). Do we really pay attention? *Psychology Today*, 39(5), 23-29.

12. Newspaper article, no author, discontinuous pages

Judges, juries, and justice. (1999, April 29). *The Wall Street Journal*, pp. 3, 21.

13. Newspaper article, no author

Teachers promised salary increase. (1987, March 5). *The New York Times*, p. A-1.

(Alphabetize works with no author by the first significant word in the title (i.e., with regard to words such as A and The. In text, use a short title ("Teachers promised," for the parenthetical citation).

14. Online newspaper article

Revkin, A.C. (2005, June 8). Bush aide softened greenhouse gas links to global warming. *The New York Times*. Retrieved June 22, 2005, from <http://>

15. Book, single author, print version

Knox, P. Q. (1999). *Schools, society, and mastery learning*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

16. Book, two authors, third edition

Lee, R. S., & Murphy, T. V. (2001). *Crucial issues in schools of the United States and Canada*. (3rd ed.). Washington, D.C.: Almo Publishers.

17. Book, edited

O'Reilly, V., & Owens, W. Y. (Eds.). (1999). *Bilingual education: Teaching English as a second language*. Princeton, N.J.: College Board Publications.

18. Electronic Book with DOI

Yore, L. (2004). Why do future scientists need to study the language arts? In E.W.Saul (Ed.), *Crossing borders in literacy and science instruction: Perspectives on theory and practice* (pp. 71–94). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. doi: [10.1598/0872075192.4](https://doi.org/10.1598/0872075192.4)

19. Article or chapter in edited book, two editors

Quinn, Y. Z. (2005). Family therapy: Some knowns and unknowns. In A. B. Rogers & C. J. Jones (Eds.). *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 234-257). New York: Macmillan.

20. ERIC document.

Palmer, W., Jr. (2007). *How valid are occupational predictors?* Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED498566)

21. Unpublished paper presented at a meeting

Porter, W. W. (2008, June). *Energy and the control of heart rate*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Psychophysiological Research, Yonkers, NY.

22. Online Conference Paper

Varian, H. R. (2000, June 11). The future of electronic journals. Paper presented at the 2000 Scholarly Communication and Technology Conference. Retrieved June 27, 2001 from <http://arl.cni.org/scomm/scat/varian.html>

23. Dissertation, abstracted in DAI and obtained from the university

Tucker, G. H. (1992). Teacher training and teacher performance. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B. Education*,42(10), 4409A.

24. Manuscript submitted for publication but not yet accepted

Van, J. (1987). *Recognition and learning*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

25. Video

Davidson Films. (Producer) (2000). Play and self regulation using Tools of the Mind [DVD]. Available from <http://www.davidson.org/videos>.

26. Message posted to Blackboard

Tabors, P. (2009, June 8) Re: English Language Learners [Msg 10]. Retrieved message from <http://blackboard.liu.edu/discussiongroup1>.

27. Course website/Blackboard

Cohen, L. (March 28, 2008). Re: *Creating fluent readers*. Fluency Learning Module. Retrieved from Long Island University, C.W.Post, EDS 610, Blackboard :<http://blackboard.liu.edu>.

27. Podcast

King, K. (Producer). (2007, December 20). Adult learning communities [Video podcast].

Retrieved from <http://www.kkingfordham.com/>.

Grammar Exercises

More and more school district administrators across Long Island are telling us that they will consider only those teacher candidates who do well on a writing sample test. One aspect of that test is grammar. How well can you do on a simple grammar test? Below are 20 sentences or sentence fragments. Each has at least one error in it; there are 37 errors. These are the kinds of concepts that elementary school teachers would be expected to teach to children in grades 3-6. Try your hand at them. The answers can be found on the last page of this section.

Correct the Errors

1. A childs school are a time in which they undergo significant changes in their physical ...
2. Baumeister feels its best for schools ...
3. ... that will assist the child to increase their self-control.
4. ... the idea of improving the ability for ones self ...
5. In addition, the studies that was done and is utilized to create a conclusion ...
6. ... the school must find ways to teach each of the students how to handle their emotions and actions in the many situations that they will take part ...
7. The students that were categorized ...
8. When a person is overly confident in himself, they may create ...
9. A student learns more outside the classroom then inside the classroom.
10. This is why it is extremely important for you the educator to get your message across to students.
11. Just as the person with low self-esteem has a greater chance of becoming depressed.
12. ... just as a persons feeling and emotions fluctuate.

13. Baumeister also state that “unlike self esteem, self-control brings benefits to both the individual and society.
14. One could learn how to control their action after being ...
15. ... that a teacher or an adult in a student’s life positively impacted their self-esteem enough that they were able to finally believe in themselves...
16. For an individual to carry out an act of violence or criminal activity, they would need to have confidence in their ability ...
17. ... increased one’s self-esteem would be an unintended positive consequence of increasing their self-control.
18. ...I don’t believe in eliminating boosting students self-esteem ...
19. A high self-esteem should not be used for the person to be conceited, arrogant or think they are better then others.
20. I’d like to know whom it was that got caught cheating; who do you think it was?

Corrected Errors

1. A child's school ^{is} a time in which ^{he} they ^{es} undergo significant changes in ^{his} their physical... (5)
plural
2. Baumeister feels ^{it's} its best for schools... (1)
3. ...that will assist the child to increase ^{singular} their self-control. (1)
plural
her
4. ...the idea of improving the ability for ^{one's} ones self... (1)
5. In addition, the studies that ^{were} was done and ^{are} is utilized to create a conclusion... (2)
6. ^{plural} the school must find ways to teach ^{singular} each of the students how to handle ^{the} their emotions and actions in the many situations that ^{the} they will take part... (2)
the
7. The students ^{who} that were categorized... (1)
8. When a person is overly confident in ^{singular} himself, ^{plural} they may create... (1)
she
9. A student learns more outside the classroom ^{than} then inside the classroom. (1)
10. This is why it is extremely important for you, the educator, to get your message across to students. (2)
11. Just as the person with low self-esteem has a greater chance of becoming depressed. *No sentence*
(1)

12. ...just as a person's feeling^s and emotions fluctuate. (2)

13. Baumeister also state^d that "... unlike self-esteem, self-control brings benefits to both the individual and society." (3)

Singular Plural
14. One could learn how to control their action after being... (1)
his

15. ...that a teacher or an adult in a student's life positively impacted their (her) self-esteem enough that they were able to finally believe in themselves... (4)
singular plural
plural was plural
(she) (herself)

16. For an individual to carry out an act of violence or criminal activity, they would need to have confidence in their ability... (3)
Singular Plural
his (he)

17. ... increased one's self-esteem would be an unintended positive consequence of increasing their self-control. (1)
Singular

18. ...I don't believe in eliminating boosting students' self-esteem... (1)

19. A high self-esteem should not be used for the person to be conceited, arrogant or think they are better than others. (3)
Singular
plural is than
(she)

20. I'd like to know whom it was that got caught cheating; who do you think it was? (2)
(who) whom

**Sample of a Graduate Student's Paper before Carefully
Reading this Manual.**

Operation Head Start was began in the summer of 1965 under the direction of the Office Of Economic Opportunity of United States Government. This was a federally sponsored for the benefit of culturally deprived children a program which added to the impetus of the kindergarten movement (Brown and Isvin, 1998) which helped each child learn their ABC's and numbers.

Originally Operation head start involved 362000 children in more than 2500 center from every State and territory in the United States. Such a program could not help but lent support to the kindergarten movement, especially the teaching of reading.

Lenox stated that "reading has always been considered the most important subject in the Curriculum" (Niles, 2003, p.172), but she indicated that more research needs to be done on this matter. In one recent study Milgard stated that reading seemed to be found to be far more important than any other subject. Earlier studies supported this finding. However, Earthen, Marsen and Venuso (2005) appeared to disagree. Who do you believe?

Sample of the Same Graduate Student’s Paper after Carefully Reading this Manual and after Receiving Six Hours of Tutoring in Grammar

According to Hammond et al. (1964), the first kindergarten appeared in Blackenberg, Germany, in 1842. Thirteen years later, in 1855, the first kindergarten in the United States was established in Watertown, Wisconsin.

One of the most significant events in American education occurred in 1870, when the City of St. Louis opened the first public school kindergarten under the direction of William T. Harris and Susan E. Blow. During the same year of 1870, the first kindergarten training college was founded in Germany by Baroness Bulow, who was a disciple of Froebel (Hammond et al., 1964).

However, according to Fuller (1961), “For about 50 years after 1870 the kindergarten movement was the subject of debate...” (p. 3) and kindergarten teachers “...were often viewed as high-class babysitters rather than educators” (Osborne, 1966, p. 2). This was apparently inevitable since “in German, ‘garten’ had the connotation of rest, relaxation, and recreation rather than the idea of utility...so it is not surprising that the effort to maintain Froebel’s original ideas and practices encountered difficulties...” (Wesley, 1957, p. 157).

THE WRITING CENTER
Humanities Hall, Room 202
516-299-2732

Email – writing@cwpost.liu.edu

The Writing Center is staffed by trained graduate and undergraduate students who work with you on a one-to-one basis to help you develop the strongest texts possible. Why do people go to the Writing Center? People come to the Writing Center because all writers can improve their writing through feedback. We can help you to brainstorm, plan, edit, revise and proofread your texts. In short, we can collaborate with you on any work in progress.

For a face-to-face Writing Workshop, simply bring:

- a copy of your text; or an outline; or your notes and ideas so far;
- your assignment if you have one;
- your questions, or ideas of what kind of feedback you're looking for.

If you're unsure about your questions, that's okay; a Writing Assistant will work with you to set goals for the session.

Writing Center Hours

Monday	9 am	—	7pm
Tuesday	9 am	—	7pm
Wednesday	9 am	—	7pm
Thursday	9am	—	7pm
Friday	12 pm	—	4pm

Note: Summer hours are Monday – Thursday

After Hours

Monday – Thursday – 8 P.M. – 10 P.M.

After hours is a service meant to help with specific questions. To ask a question, you can call (516-299-2732), chat on facebook, send an email, Skype them, or visit.

Scheduling a Workshop

To schedule a 45- minute Writing Workshop, call (516) 299-2732, or come to Humanities Hall, Room 202 during our open hours and sign up for an appointment. Walk-in workshops are also available.

If you prefer a virtual Writing Workshop, you may submit a draft of your text online. A Writing Assistant will read your work and respond to your specific questions.

Electronic Guidelines for Submissions of Drafts to Writing Center

To submit a draft, you can email it. Open the email application you usually use, attach your draft, and send it to:

writing@cwpost.liu.edu

Subject: Workshop Request/(your name).

In your email, include:

- Course name or number, if applicable.
- A brief explanation of your writing task. (If you're writing in response to a specific assignment, include the relevant details).
- A few specific questions to guide your Writing Assistant's feedback.

Don't forget to attach your work!

Not sure what types of questions to ask? Here are a few examples:

- Thesis - "Having read my opening paragraphs, is my thesis clearly stated?"
- Content - "Would you briefly summarize what you see as my main idea?"
- Transitions - "Are there any awkward or confusing transitions between main and supporting idea, and/or between paragraphs or sections?"
- Flow - "Is this paper unified, and do the parts fit together well? Is my language clear and readable?"
- Evidence - "Are you immediately struck by any important counter-arguments I haven't raised?"

If you submit a draft Monday-Thursday, you'll receive a response within 48 hours (often sooner).

Friday submissions will receive a response by the following Monday.

Writing Center Resources

In addition to Writing Assistants, we have computers, bookmarked websites, style manuals, self-editing software, instructional texts and current periodicals. These include:

- Purdue's Online Writing Lab
- Using and citing sources
- Common errors in English
- Interesting Things for ESL students
- WAC – Writing across the Curriculum

Websites

Resources for Grammar and APA

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar>

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>.

[Guide to Grammar and Writing](#)

grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar

[Grammar Slam--English Grammar Resource](#) englishplus.com/grammar/).

Books

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, D.C.: Author.

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Concise Rules of APA Style*. Washington, D.C.: Author.

Hacker, D., & Fister, B. (2010). *Research and documentation in the electronic age* (5th ed.). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Hayden, G.M. (2006). *The naked writer*. Dallas, Texas: Durban House Publishing Co.

Seo, B.-I. (2007). Defending the Five-Paragraph Essay. *English Journal*, 97 (2), 15-16.

Brians, P. (2008). *Common errors in English usage* (2nd ed.). Sherwood, OR: Franklin, Beedle, & Associates.

Strunk, J. W., & White, E. B. (1999). *The elements of style* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.