# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Annotated Bibliographies</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>APA Paper Formatting</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Avoiding Plagiarism</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Commas</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Concision</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Introducing Source Material</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Introductions</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Literature Reviews</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Miscellaneous Writing Issues</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Outlining</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Parallelism</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Possessives and Plurals</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Quotation Use</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Scholarly Article Critiques</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Thesis Statements</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Topic Sentences</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Writing Center information</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charts</td>
<td>Rubrics: Writing and Class Participation</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visuals</td>
<td>Discussion Forums</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presentations</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Quotation Sandwich</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Shape of an Essay</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When to Quote</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of Evidence</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Writing Process</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grading Guidelines</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION

This Keuka College Style Guide is a one-stop resource for some of the most common writing issues encountered by our AOE students and instructors. Take a few minutes to look through the Table of Contents to see what this guide has to offer. In addition to the topic pages, the rubrics can give you a starting point for what instructors look for when evaluating student papers. Most importantly, this Style Guide is a resource that gives AOE instructors and students a set of common guidelines.

Getting information from the web can be confusing. Is a source correct? Is it credible? Are APA guidelines correct? Does the information meet Keuka College standards? This Style Guide should assist with all of these questions, eliminating lengthy web searches and guesswork.

In addition to the Style Guide, the Keuka College Writing Center is always ready to provide assistance. Please contact us at writinghelp@keuka.edu or individually at our email addresses below.

Kind regards,

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Writing Specialist, Coordinator of AOE Writing Support
Hegeman 301
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exceeds Expectations</th>
<th>Meets Expectations</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Deficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus</strong></td>
<td>20-19</td>
<td>18-17</td>
<td>16-15</td>
<td>14-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The main purpose is clear. All parts of the paper are clearly related to the main purpose. Thesis and topic sentences are present and effective.</td>
<td>The paper is controlled by one main idea/purpose/thesis, or the main purpose does not address assignment requirements.</td>
<td>The paper has no clear main purpose, does something other than assigned task, or inadequately addresses the assignment.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Development</strong></td>
<td>20-19</td>
<td>18-17</td>
<td>16-15</td>
<td>14-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence and reasoning are entirely appropriate and richly developed.</td>
<td>Evidence and reasoning are adequate to support claims. The assignment is complete.</td>
<td>Support for claims is inadequate or superficial, content contains inaccuracies, or parts of the assignment are underdeveloped or missing.</td>
<td>The assignment is incomplete or the paper shows little or no attempt to support claims.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
<td>20-19</td>
<td>18-17</td>
<td>16-15</td>
<td>14-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sequence of ideas supports development of the main idea, with transitions used to reinforce organization, introduction, conclusion, and topic sentences are all effective and interesting.</td>
<td>Ideas are grouped into paragraphs, and paragraph breaks are used to indicate shifts in focus. The sequence of ideas is clear if not necessarily ideal. Introduction, conclusion, and topic sentences are effective.</td>
<td>The sequence of ideas is confusing or random; paragraphing is inadequate; introduction, conclusion, or topic sentences are missing or ineffective.</td>
<td>The sequence of ideas shows no clear pattern. Conclusion just repeats earlier information. Introduction fails to provide context. Topic sentences are missing or inadequate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of Sources</strong></td>
<td>20-19</td>
<td>18-17</td>
<td>16-15</td>
<td>14-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All source material is well chosen, properly introduced, and appropriately cited. Source material is both introduced and discussed.</td>
<td>Source material is well chosen to support the writer's claims or ideas. Citations are used correctly although occasional errors may occur.</td>
<td>Source material frequently replaces the writer's own ideas. Some source material is poorly chosen or not well integrated. Citations include frequent or serious errors.</td>
<td>Source material is either missing or overused. Quotations are &quot;hit and run.&quot; Citations are missing or incorrect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Style</strong></td>
<td>10-8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences are clear and effective. Vocabulary is broad and language is sophisticated.</td>
<td>Word choice, sentence structure, and tone are clear and appropriate for college-level writing.</td>
<td>The document is understandable but is marred by confusing sentences. Word choice or tone are inappropriate for college-level writing.</td>
<td>Portions of the document fail to convey the writer’s points due to dysfunctions at the sentence level.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Editing and Formatting</strong></td>
<td>10-8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>The paper is nearly free of errors of spelling, grammar, punctuation, and APA formatting.</td>
<td>Errors of spelling, grammar, punctuation, word choice, or formatting are present but not intrusive.</td>
<td>Errors of spelling, grammar, punctuation, word choice, or formatting are frequent, noticeable, or intrusive.</td>
<td>The writing shows deficient control of sentence mechanics or the conventions of written English or in the formatting of the paper according to APA standards.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Points</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
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<td><strong>Letter grade:</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
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</tbody>
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ANOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Content

An annotated bibliography is a list of articles or books to be used as reference material for a paper, with a summary of their main points and an evaluation of each one.

- Instructors may give students additional instructions about specific types of information to discuss.
- Instructors will generally also provide length requirements and specify the amount of detail required and the number of sources to be evaluated.

Below are the general instructions for writing an annotated bibliography.

1. Reference
   Begin with the APA reference for the source. Use the hanging indent (see next page for layout) and write the reference according to APA rules for each type of source.
   - For additional help with references, visit the OWL (Online Writing Lab) at Purdue: https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/06/

2. Summary
   Provide a summary of the source’s main points. What is this article about? What is the authors’ thesis or main idea? How did they arrive at their overall conclusion? What types of evidence are included in this article? Did the authors conduct original research, review literature, study a phenomenon, or something else?
   - The title, abstract, introductory paragraph, concluding paragraph, and subheadings are all excellent places to look for the authors’ main ideas.
   - The longer the annotation, the more detailed the summary should be.

3. Evaluation
   Evaluate the source. What are the authors’ credentials and experience? Are they well qualified to address the issue? Is the article logically arranged? Is it clearly written? Are the conclusions sound? How big was the study group? Can the results be generalized or do they only relate to a specific population?
   - In this section, think about the quality of the information presented in the article.

4. Assessment
   Assess how this source will fit into the research you are doing. Presumably it will be useful or you would not be using it, but how, specifically, will it help you in writing your paper? Avoid generalizations such as “This article is great and will be very useful.” Instead, explain which aspects of the research will fit into the work you will be doing as you write your own paper, and how.

Format

See the next page for how an annotated bibliography should be formatted. Note that only the first line of the reference goes all the way to the left margin. If you have more than one, list them alphabetically, as you would do on a references page. Everything is double-spaced, but hit “enter” an
additional time between paragraphs. (This is the ONLY time in an APA paper when more than double-spacing is used.)

Annotated Bibliography


In this article, which is based on the authors’ two-year research project among Canada geese in the northern wilderness, the researchers tagged mating pairs and tracked them both visually and with tracking devices to determine the amount of time the pairs spent together. The researchers found that geese migrated in close proximity to their mates, nested together, raised their offspring together, and were generally inseparable except by death. The authors found that such strong pair bonding enabled geese to better ensure the life and safety of goslings since one parent could search for food while the other defended the nest.

Adams, Alter, and Aardvark are all PhD biologists, have a combined forty years of experience with wild fowl, and have spent the last ten years studying Canada geese. They acknowledge that providing information about goose emotion would be pure speculation but observe that the bond between mates seems to provide the animals with both physical and social wellbeing. This study is thorough and well-explained and will provide me with one example of lifelong pair bonding in the animal kingdom.
APA FORMATTING

Title page:

Running head: TITLE IN ALL CAPS

Title of Paper in Upper and Lower Case

Your Name
Keuka College

First page:

TITLE IN ALL CAPS

Title of Paper in Upper and Lower Case

Begin the text of your paper here. Leave only two lines between the title and text. Also, do not skip extra lines between paragraphs: just remember everything is double-spaced, no more, no less. If your instructor requires an abstract, it would go on page two and then the centered title and beginning of your paper (as shown above) would go on page three. Do not bold your title, underline it, put it in quotation marks, or put it in italics. Capitalize the main words only.

In your header on all pages, however, the title should be in all caps. To get the words “Running head:” on the first page, click in the header space at the top of the page and then under the “Design” tab check off “Different First Page.” Type in the words Running head: (capitalized as shown and with the colon) and then your title in all caps. Tab to the right and then click Insert > Page number > Current position > Plain number.
References page:

References


Notes:

1. References are listed alphabetically by author’s last name. If there is no author, use the organization name as author. If there is no organization name, use the title of the article.
2. The hanging indent means that only the first line of each entry is all the way to the left. Therefore, the names stick out and are easy to see.
3. As with your entire paper, this page is double-spaced: no more, no less. Don’t put extra lines between entries.
4. Capitalize the first word of a title, the first word of the subtitle (put a colon between title and subtitle), and proper nouns (such as “Canadian”).
5. Book and journal titles are italicized. Article titles are not.
6. If you have a URL or DOI, make sure it leads directly to the article you used, not to a general main page.

- The first source, *Adams,* is a journal article. *(12)*1 are the volume and issue numbers, respectively. Volume is italicized, issue is not. 668-672 are the pages on which this article appears.
- The second source, *Butler,* is a book. List the city and state followed by a colon and the publisher name.
- The third source, *Collins,* is a website. Give the title of the article followed by the name of the website and the website’s URL. Often the date will be buried at the very bottom of the web page, so you might have to look for it.

There are different formats for each type of source. The above are just three of the most common. For others, visit https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/ or contact the Keuka College Writing Center.
AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Properly crediting sources is fundamental to respecting another person’s intellectual property. Plagiarism is a serious error that can result in an F on a paper or for the course. Consult the Keuka College Student handbook for the college’s complete plagiarism policy.

Plagiarism is avoided by:
 giving citations for all quotations and paraphrases “AND”
 enclosing all quotations in quotation marks

Key terms: Quotation, paraphrase, patchwriting

What is a quotation?
 A quotation is using the exact words of a source.
  • A quotation can be one word or one hundred words, and anything in between.
  • A quotation must be enclosed in quotation marks: “These are the words of my source.”

What is a paraphrase?
 A paraphrase is a restatement of a section of text into one’s own words. In order to properly paraphrase something, students must put it entirely into their own words and the sentence structure must be different from the original source’s sentence structure.
  • A paraphrase should not be enclosed in quotation marks.
  • A paraphrase must still be cited, since the ideas belong to someone else.

What is patchwriting?
 Patchwriting is when one uses some phrases from a source and mixes them in with one’s own words.
 Patchwriting is not an acceptable way to paraphrase. Words from a source, even if they are just two or three words in a row, MUST be enclosed in quotation marks.
 Patchwriting is plagiarism.
 Here’s an example of patchwriting:
  • Interspersing the words and phrases of a source seems like a good idea when writing a paper, but in fact it is plagiarism because it uses words from the source without giving proper credit where credit is due (Jones, 2013).
  • The original source, Jones, from which information is taken, says this:
    One cannot mingle the words and phrases of a source because although it seems like a good idea when one is faced with an academic assignment, it’s really plagiarism since it uses words from the source without supplying a proper citation.
  • Yes, the sentence has been reworded, but the language and sentence structure are too close to the original and, in fact, several of the phrases (underlined) are exactly the same.
  • Both the wording and the sentence structure are too close to the original. This is patchwriting. Even with the citation, since no quotation marks are used, it is plagiarism.

To give credit to your source, use:
 signal phrases
 parenthetical citations
 quotation marks (when the exact words of a source are used)
Here’s an example using a **quotation**, with the signal phrase underlined and the parenthetical citation after the quotation:

> As Smith and Johnson (2014) pointed out, “This is where the quotation belongs” (p. 48).

Here’s how it would look for a **paraphrase**, with the signal phrase underlined

> As Smith and Johnson (2014) pointed out, this is where the paraphrase would go.

(For paraphrases, a page number is optional. Page numbers are required for quotations.)

**How to handle quotations**

All quotations should be either incorporated as part of a sentence or introduced with a signal phrase.

- **Incorporated as part of sentence:**
  
  Although getting employees to embrace change can be difficult, “all new procedures work better when everyone feels as though they’ve had a chance to give their opinions” (Smith & Johnson, 2014, p. 19).

- **Introduced with a signal phrase:**
  
  Smith and Johnson (2014) argued that “all new procedures work better when everyone feels as though they’ve had a chance to give their opinions” (p. 19).

**How to handle paraphrases**

All paraphrases must be entirely put into one’s own words, with a different sentence structure from the source’s sentence structure, and must include a citation. For paraphrases, page numbers are optional (but preferred).

- **Incorporated as part of sentence:**
  
  Often, students are confused about the best way to credit their sources (Smith & Johnson, 2014).

- **Introduced with a signal phrase:**
  
  Smith and Johnson (2014) argue that learning how to properly credit sources in APA is key to becoming a successful student.

**ADDITIONAL RESOURCES:**

- [https://sites.google.com/a/keuka.edu/asp-writing-support-center-at-keuka-college/writing-resources](https://sites.google.com/a/keuka.edu/asp-writing-support-center-at-keuka-college/writing-resources) (Scroll down to the “Plagiarism” resources)
- [http://www.hamilton.edu/writing/writing-resources/using-sources](http://www.hamilton.edu/writing/writing-resources/using-sources)
- [http://rasmussen.libanswers.com/faq/32328](http://rasmussen.libanswers.com/faq/32328)
- If you have additional questions or concerns about plagiarism, the Keuka College Writing Center would be happy to assist.
At the Keuka College Writing Center, comma problems are the errors we see the most in student papers. While many people struggle with commas, the rules are not as mysterious as they may seem. Here is a very short, basic guide to the most common comma scenarios.


2. **Use a comma to separate items in a series**: I love apples, blueberries, and watermelon. The comma after “blueberries” is called the Oxford comma or the serial comma, and in a list that comma should go before the word “and.” Otherwise, the meaning of the sentence could change. Here’s an example:

   This book is dedicated to my parents, Superwoman and God.

   Without the comma after Superwoman, it looks as though the author is saying that her parents are Superwoman and God. Here’s another example:

   During the war she loved to clean, cook and comfort the men.

   Without the comma after cook, it sounds as though the “she” in the sentence loved to cook the men.

3. **Use a comma after an introductory element**: That element can be very short, as in:

   Generally, I do not like anything spicy.

   It can be medium-length, as in:

   After a while, we all got tired of waiting.

   And it can be extremely long, as in:

   Although half of all the people who answered the poll said they didn’t care about football, the ratings for the show still demonstrated a lot of interest.

   (This is also called a dependent clause—dependent because it cannot stand alone.)

4. **Use a pair of commas to set off an appositive phrase**: An appositive phrase is something that renames or describes the noun. It can be removed from the sentence without changing the grammatical correctness of the sentence. Here’s an example:

   My brother, who is a police officer in Duluth, calls me almost daily.

   In this sentence, “who is a police officer in Duluth” describes or renames “my brother.” Removing “who is a police officer in Duluth” would not alter the meaning of the sentence; it would be: My brother calls me almost daily. It still means the same thing. The phrase that renames or describes the noun takes a comma on both sides of it. Here’s another example:

   That animal, a raccoon, was digging through our garbage cans.

   In this example, “a raccoon” further describes the noun “animal.” You can remove it from the sentence without changing the meaning. Therefore, set it off with commas.

5. **Use a pair of commas to set off a nonessential element**: A nonessential element is something that can be removed from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.

   That movie, I believe, was terrible.

   The brothers, shopping for the best bargain, spent all afternoon at the store.

   I left my hat, which I didn’t like anyway, on the subway.
6. **Use a comma to separate two independent clauses ONLY when there is also a FANBOYS word.** What is an independent clause? It is *a complete sentence that makes sense all by itself* because it contains a subject, a verb, and an object. Here is an example of two independent clauses in one sentence:

   - My dog loves to play, I bought him a chew toy.
   - My dog loves to play is an independent clause or complete sentence.
   - I bought him a chew toy is also an independent clause or complete sentence.

   Having two independent clauses in one sentence is fine. However, separating two independent clauses with a comma, as we did above, is *incorrect.* It is a comma splice. **Only** use a comma with two independent clauses when there is also a FANBOYS word (official name: coordinating conjunction). FANBOYS is an acronym to help one remember which words are used with a comma if—and only if—there are also two independent clauses. FANBOYS stands for:

   - F = for
   - A = and
   - N = nor
   - B = but
   - O = or
   - Y = yet
   - S = so

   In order for our dog sentence to be correct, we would have to add a FANBOYS word, like this:

   - My dog loves to play, so I bought him a chew toy.

   In this example, “so” is the FANBOYS word.

   If there are not two independent clauses but there is a FANBOYS word: *no comma.* Here’s an example of that:

   - I love the beach and long walks.
   - “And” is the FANBOYS word in that sentence, and “I love the beach” is an independent clause, but “long walks” is NOT an independent clause. Therefore, the sentence takes no comma.

7. **Finally, a word about the semicolon.** There is often confusion about when a comma is appropriate and when a semicolon is appropriate. There are just a few rules about semicolons:

   (a) Use them to separate items in a list that contains internal punctuation, such as commas. For example: *I would like to visit Paris, France; London, England; and Stockholm, Sweden.*

   (b) Use them to separate independent clauses when you do not want to use a FANBOYS word. Do this only when the sentences are closely related. Example: *My hair is a mess today; I guess I should have stayed out of the wind.* No FANBOYS word, so a semicolon is appropriate. (You can also use a period here if you would rather.)

   (c) Semicolons and commas team up when used with a *conjunctive adverb.* The semicolon comes first. What is a conjunctive adverb? It’s a word or phrase that shows a relationship between items. Here are some examples of conjunctive adverbs: however, moreover, in addition, therefore, for example, nevertheless, accordingly, in contrast, besides, otherwise—and there are many, many more. Here’s how this looks in a sentence (note that there are still independent clauses on both sides of the semicolon!):

   - I will go with you; however, Allison can’t come.
   - My dog loves to play; therefore, I bought him a chew toy.
   - Everyone loves semicolons; in fact, you are reading about them right now.
CONCISION

“Filler” words and sentences will obscure meaning and dilute the impact of ideas.

The goal in writing papers is not to “sound intelligent.” The goal is clarity: to express one’s ideas in such a way that the reader fully understands them (and is not distracted by errors). Good writing expresses meaning in the clearest, most direct way possible. In fact, that is the essence of strong writing. It means that writers have committed to paper all the ideas that were in their heads but that instead of leaving them there, perhaps cleaning them up for misspellings and punctuation errors, they’ve actually thought about the importance and necessity of each word. Removing words that aren’t needed is an important process called editing for concision.

Take a look at this sentence:
There is a want that many scientists have to test out the conclusions of the study that was conducted at the university’s research lab.

There’s nothing wrong with the sentence as far as its meaning goes, but it’s loaded with unnecessary words. Removing them will make the writing stronger and more forceful:
Many scientists want to test the university study’s conclusions.

The meaning of this sentence is unchanged, but the language has been considerably tightened.

Here’s another example:
My brother, who is employed as a doctor at Central Hospital, recommends the daily incorporation of aerobic exercise.

And here it is after editing for concision:
My brother, a doctor at Central Hospital, recommends daily aerobic exercise.

Think about the words that were removed from this sentence. If the writer calls his brother a doctor at Central Hospital, is it necessary to say that he is employed there? No, because the writer already said that by giving a description of his employment. Is it necessary to say that he recommends the daily incorporation of exercise? No, because it goes without saying that exercising and incorporating exercise are the same thing. On the other hand, the word “aerobic” can’t be removed because it adds important information to the sentence, answering the question “What type of exercise?”.

Here are two rules of thumb when editing for concision:
1. If something goes without saying, don’t say it. A good example of this is writing, “In my opinion....” The reader assumes, correctly, that the writer is conveying his or her own opinion, and therefore it is unnecessary to say so.
2. Remove words that don’t add to the meaning of the sentence. These are often small words such as “the” or “he” that don’t really need to be there, as in this example:
In this essay by John Johnson he writes that people often substitute anger for sorrow.

Look what can be removed without impacting the meaning of the sentence:
In this essay by John Johnson he writes that people often substitute anger for sorrow.

This is a small change, but it’s an improvement, and even small improvements to sentences add up to big improvements in the overall quality of a paper.
# CLASS PARTICIPATION RUBRIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Exemplary</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Needs Improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comes to class having fully prepared by doing the reading and homework; is ready to discuss readings and class topics.</td>
<td>Comes to class having done some of the reading and homework; is only superficially prepared to discuss readings and class topics.</td>
<td>Has not done the assigned reading or homework and/or is not prepared to discuss readings and class topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listens respectfully to instructor and other students.</td>
<td>Listens sometimes to other students and instructor.</td>
<td>Is clearly distracted by others or by electronic devices; does not listen respectfully to others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plays an active role in discussions by contributing thoughtfully and staying on topic</td>
<td>Speaks in class but contributions are off topic or not focused on the reading at hand</td>
<td>Does not participate in discussion or rarely participates in discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Interacts with peers in a positive manner that respects the intellectual contributions of everyone</td>
<td>Interacts with peers occasionally; not all interactions are positive.</td>
<td>Does not interact with peers or interaction is disrespectful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contributes to group work with suggestions and assistance; has clearly prepared and is ready to contribute</td>
<td>Minimally contributes to group work; may be familiar with some but not all of the material under discussion.</td>
<td>Does not contribute to group work except when being told what to do by others.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSIONS

Many students struggle with conclusions, with good reason. They feel that by the time they’ve gotten to the end of their paper, they’ve already said everything they wanted to say. They often fall back on repeating their main points, sometimes dressing them up a little by writing “In conclusion” at the beginning of the paragraph. However, there are much better ways to end a paper.

One thing that a conclusion should accomplish is tying together everything that was said in the body of the paper. This isn’t mere repetition, but rather an analysis of how all the individual pieces fit together. There’s no need to write “In conclusion” (in fact, that’s kind of a clunky way to end a paper), but the writer should be drawing conclusions for the reader. The phrase “drawing conclusions” relates to drawing a picture: in essence, the writer is drawing a word picture for the reader that explains to them how all of the evidence supports the paper’s thesis. At this point, the picture drawn should be “the big picture,” the larger implications of the argument. This is a good time to return to the “so what?” and “who cares?” questions and discuss them in more detail, spelling out for the reader exactly who should care and why. For example, if a student wrote a paper about the health risks of people refusing to have their babies vaccinated against common illnesses, the student can conclude by discussing what might happen if the trend grew and many people didn’t vaccinate their children.

Another good way to conclude is to sandwich the paper’s body in between two halves of an anecdote. The introduction might include the first part of an illustrative, interesting story, but not the end of it. Instead, the writer will return to conclude it at the very end of the paper in the concluding paragraph. In the vaccination paper example, the writer could begin with the story of someone who did not get their child vaccinated against measles, and then move into the discussion of the larger issue. The end of the paper would return to the story and tell the reader what happened in this particular child’s case and how it relates to the overall discussion.

When concluding a paper, writers should bear in mind that “what you write last is going to last.” That is, whatever the writer leaves the reader with is likely to stay in their memory, so it’s a good idea to finish strong. If a student comes across some particularly striking, unusual, or surprising anecdote or fact during research, they might want to save it for the very end of the paper.

The writer will leave the reader satisfied that they’ve done a thorough job on the paper if they:

- tie up all the loose ends
- discuss the larger implications of the argument
- go out with a bang – something interesting that will stick in the reader’s memory
“Top Slice of Bread”
Introduction to quotation or paraphrase
Who said it? Whose idea is it?
Use a signal phrase (underlined):
As Smith and Johnson (1988) note,
“Quotation” (p. #).
Smith and Johnson (1988) point out that...[paraphrase].
The authors write, “Quotation” (Smith & Johnson, 1988, p. #).

“Cheese”
Citation for the quotation or paraphrase
Quotation = the exact words of a source. Use quotation marks around a quotation.
Paraphrase = when you put the source’s ideas into your own words. You must change all the words and also the sentence structure. Do not use quotation marks with a paraphrase.
All source material must be cited—including paraphrases.
Example of APA citation: Smith and Johnson (1988) write, “Neglecting to cite your sources is plagiarism, which is a very serious error” (p. 19).

“Meat”
Quotation or paraphrase
Quotations and paraphrases should support your own points, so choose them wisely! Only use a quote if the original language is memorable or powerful, or if your source is an authority whose opinion holds a lot of weight. Otherwise, paraphrase (but still cite) the information.

“Bottom Slice of Bread”
Discussion of quotation or paraphrase
Why did you include it? What is its significance? How does it relate to the main idea of this paragraph? How does it relate to the overall main idea (thesis) of your paper? Don’t just drop in a quotation or paraphrase and then move on to something else, and never begin or end a paragraph with a quotation. All quotations and paraphrases must be analyzed or discussed.
INTRODUCING SOURCE MATERIAL

What is source material?
- Quotations (the exact words of a source)
- Paraphrases (putting the source’s ideas into one’s own words)
- Ideas that come from someone else
- Anything that is not from one’s own head is “source material”

Why does source material need to be introduced?
In order to avoid plagiarism, the student writer needs to make it very clear to the reader which are their own ideas and which are someone else’s ideas. Readers won’t be able to tell the difference unless the student writer explicitly points it out.

How is source material introduced?
Source material should be introduced with a signal phrase. That is a word (or several words) that describes the author’s attitude or intent. Here are some examples from They Say/I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing With Readings, 2nd edition (2012) by Gerald Graaff, Cathy Birkenstein, and Russell Durst:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs for making a claim:</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argue</td>
<td>Emphasize</td>
<td>Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assert</td>
<td>Insist</td>
<td>Suggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believe</td>
<td>Observe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>Remind us</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs for expressing agreement:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge</td>
<td>Do not deny</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admire</td>
<td>Endorse</td>
<td>Verify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Extol</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrate the fact that</td>
<td>Praise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corroborate</td>
<td>Reaffirm</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Verbs for questioning or disagreeing:</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complain</td>
<td>Deplore the tendency to</td>
<td>Renounce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complicate</td>
<td>Qualify</td>
<td>Repudiate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contend</td>
<td>Question</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Contradict</td>
<td>Refute</td>
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<tr>
<td>Deny</td>
<td>Reject</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Verbs for making recommendations:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advocate</td>
<td>Implore</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Call for</td>
<td>Plead</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand</td>
<td>Recommend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage</td>
<td>Urge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhorts</td>
<td>Warn</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
What would a signal phrase look like in a sentence? Here are some examples. Let’s say our authors are named Smith and Jones.

- **A QUOTE** (using word-for-word source information): Smith and Jones (2014) argue that “more people should eat beets, since they are a good source of vitamin C and iron” (p. 12).
  
  - Here, the entire signal phrase is *Smith and Jones (2014) argue*
  
  - Notice that quotation marks enclose the words taken from the source. Quotation marks go around the quote only (not the citation) and MUST be used when quoting from a source.
  
  - Finally, there must be a page number included in the parenthetical citation at the end of a quotation.

- **A PARAPHRASE** (putting source information into one’s own words): Smith and Jones (2014) believe that beets will help support people’s health by adding much-needed vitamin C and iron to their diets.
  
  - Here, the entire signal phrase is *Smith and Jones (2014) believe*
  
  - Notice that there are no quotation marks needed for a paraphrase.
  
  - Page numbers are optional for paraphrases—preferred, but not required.

Some points to remember about using signal phrases:

1. Students should be sure they know what the signal verbs mean, looking up a definition of the word if necessary.
2. Be sure to use the appropriate verb. For example, “claims” implies doubt. Do you *doubt* or *disagree with* the author’s statement? If not, don’t use “claims” to introduce it.
3. Three to avoid altogether:
   a. **States.** This word is way, way overused in student papers and sounds stuffy. Even something simple such as “writes” is a better choice.
   b. **Talks about.** The authors are writing, not speaking. (It is okay to use *discusses*, however, since a discussion can be text-based.)
   c. **Goes on to say.** Same as above: the authors are not “saying” anything. Also, by writing “goes on to” or “then,” the student writer signals to the reader that they are just giving a list, instead of conveying that they have a deeper understanding of the material.
4. It’s important to use signal phrases to introduce quotes, but it’s downright critical to use them when introducing paraphrases. Why? For a quotation, the quotation marks show the reader that the idea and words are from someone else. When there are no quotation marks (as with a paraphrase) there is no way for the reader to know whose ideas they are unless it is clearly indicated with signal phrases.
INTRODUCTIONS

A paper without a proper introduction leaves the reader scrambling to figure out what the paper is about. The last thing a student writer should do is confuse the reader before they’ve even gotten to the second paragraph! Every paper needs an introduction that establishes context before moving into the specifics of the discussion.

Introductory paragraphs should provide some background to the discussion. This is also called “setting the stage.” In a theater, the actors don’t come out on an empty stage and begin to speak. Usually someone has put furniture on the stage, maybe hung some pictures, and placed carefully chosen props around. Even before the actor says a word, the audience member can look at the stage and say, “Ah! A farmhouse!” or “A boat!” or whatever it is. In the same way, background information helps readers by providing a setting for the discussion that follows.

Here are some introduction do’s and don’ts:

1. **Do** begin with something interesting. When we read something, the first few sentences need to grab our attention or else we won’t keep reading. A surprising anecdote, a shocking statistic, a little-known fact, the story of one person whose individual situation could be representative of many people’s situations—these are all good ways to begin a paper.

2. **Do** choose something relevant. A story about a newborn hippopotamus at the zoo may be interesting, but if the paper is about insurance rates, it’s difficult to see the connection.

3. **Do** establish context by giving some background information. Assume the reader knows nothing whatsoever about the topic and they need a few key details so that they can understand the rest of the discussion.

4. **Do** include a thesis, the main point or argument of the paper. Every paper MUST have a main point or argument and it must be expressed clearly in a single sentence. This is called the thesis statement. It belongs in the introductory paragraph and is often found as the final sentence of an introductory paragraph. (For more information, see page 34.)

5. **Do** offer definitions of key terms and phrases if they might be unfamiliar to the reader. For example, if one is writing about mumblecore or steampunk, many people may not know what those things are and they should be defined. **However…**

6. **Don’t** begin with a dictionary definition of a common word. This is a cliché. A student wants his or her paper to stand out, not look just like a dozen (or hundred!) other papers that the instructor has read before.

7. **Don’t** start off with an interesting or amusing story or anecdote when writing a research paper. For research papers, students should “stick to the facts,” writing more formally.

8. **Don’t** apologize. Writing such things as “I’m not sure about this, but...,” “I’m no expert, but it seems to me that...,” “In my humble opinion...” and so on signal to the reader that the writer’s conclusions are unreliable.
An introduction is shaped like a funnel. Start broad and narrow down to your thesis.

A conclusion is shaped like an inverted funnel. Move from discussing the details of your topic to stepping back to look at the big picture.
LITERATURE REVIEWS

The purpose of the literature review is to provide information about what others have written on the topic and to describe how one’s own work fits into this picture.

☑ Survey: Let’s say as an example that the student decides to write a paper on the topic of “a social worker’s ‘best practices’ response to elder abuse.” First the student should search professional journals using key terms. They should start broad: they might not find articles that directly address their specific topic, but the articles may still be relevant. In this example, articles about elder abuse in general, social workers’ response to abuse in all age populations, and the psychology of abusers might be very helpful.

☑ Skim: Once students have found appropriate articles, they should skim them for pertinent information. They should start by reading the abstract, which gives a summary of the entire paper. That will tell them whether the paper is worth reading further. Then they should read the introduction and the conclusion. Key ideas are expressed in these two areas. If there are section headings they should read those, as well as paragraph topic sentences. All of this should give students a good overview of the article’s substance.

☑ Read: Once they have read those sections and determined that the article is, in fact, useful, they should read the whole article. Most academic articles require more than one reading. This is common even for people who are very familiar with academic writing. Getting something wrong signals to the instructor that the student either skimmed the article without reading it, or that they read carelessly.

☑ Analyze: As students read, they should ask some questions:
  - What method did the researchers use?
  - What were their biases, if any?
  - What were their conclusions?
  - What was their sample size?
  - Are their results generalizable to a larger population? Why or why not?
  - Instructors may give students additional or different evaluation criteria.
Students should take careful notes as they read, since they will need to refer back to the information and correctly cite it.

☑ Organize: Next comes deciding how to organize the discussion of these sources. The student writer will want to provide some background information about the topic in the introduction. After that they can discuss the sources
  - chronologically (oldest to newest)—how people have thought about the topic through time—or
  - thematically (how each topic relates to their own topic).
For our example, if we are working with a chronological organization scheme, we can write about the evolution of elder care from the days when most elderly people lived with extended family, to the emergence of social work as a profession, to today’s intersection of elder care with social work practice. If working thematically, we can write about elder abuse in general, social workers’ roles in dealing with abuse for all age groups, and then the specific issues around social workers dealing with elder abuse.
Write: Students should be sure to demonstrate to readers how each article connects to the other articles and to their own research topic. They will provide a summary or overview of each article, but that’s not all. They are also providing a critical analysis of each article’s effectiveness and methodology. They will also discuss in some detail how their own research will add to what has already been written on the topic.

Cite: Unlike with an annotated bibliography, students will be expected to provide examples from their sources. Those examples will take the form of quotations and paraphrases and of course, they must all be properly cited using APA format. Cite as you go, since it is nearly impossible to go back after the paper has been written to add citations. You can always go back and fix the APA, but you don’t want to accidentally plagiarize something because you forgot to note that it was taken from a source.

“Start writing, no matter what. The water does not flow until the faucet is turned on.”

~ Louis L’Amour
MISCELLANEOUS WRITING ISSUES

Acronyms
This first time an acronym appears in a paper, write out the full name and immediately afterwards enclose the acronym in parentheses, like so: Most of the people interviewed were members of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA). Then, in the remainder of the paper use the acronym alone: AA meetings were held once a week.

Author’s name
Don’t be afraid to refer to authors by name. After all, the article didn’t do the research or write up the results—the author(s) did. If author’s name has not appeared for several sentences, and particularly at the beginning of a paragraph, remind the reader whom you are writing about.

Contractions
The APA Publication Manual 6th Edition advises against using contractions in formal writing (unless one is supplying a quotation that contains a contraction). However, it is up to the instructor whether or not—and how rigidly—to abide by this recommendation. To be safe, avoid contractions. Write it is instead of it’s, they are instead of they’re, do not instead of don’t, and so on.

Dashes
A dash (—) and a hyphen (−) are not the same thing. The hyphen is the short line that connects some compound words, as in evidence-based. A dash is the longer dash that indicates a pause or parenthetical comment, as in the above entry where “and how rigidly” is set off with dashes. To get a dash, type the word, do not space, hit TWO hyphens, and type the next word, all with no spaces. When you space after the second word, the two hyphens will automatically convert to a dash.

Degree names
❖ Master’s and bachelor’s are possessive, with the apostrophe before the s. A doctoral degree is written as PhD (no periods). An associate degree takes neither an apostrophe nor an s. (Associate’s, with the s on the end, is incorrect.)
❖ Capitalize degree names and majors only when they are spelled out and part of the degree name:
  ❖ She has a Master’s of Social Work.
  ❖ Her master’s is in social work.
❖ Majors are capitalized only when derived from proper nouns: Spanish, English, French. Thus, social work, organizational management, nursing, and criminal justice are not capitalized unless they are written out formally with the degree name included.

Ellipses
Use ellipses (...) if something has been removed from the middle of a quotation. If you take something off the beginning or the end, you don’t need to use them.

Frequently confused words
❖ Alright is not a word. It is always the two words all right. Similarly, alot is not a word.
❖ Affect/effect: While there are other uses, most of the time affect is the verb—think “a” for “action”—and effect is the result—think “e” for “rEsult.”
❖ Everyday [one word] means something common or usual, as in “everyday dishes.” Every day [two words] means daily, as in “I shower every day.”
- **I/me**: I = subject; me = object. *I* do things, but things are done to *me.* “My husband and I are going out to dinner”—“My husband and I” is the compound subject. “My parents invited my husband and me”—“my husband and me” is the compound object (“parents” is the subject of this sentence).

- **Then/than**: Then is a measure of time, as in: “First we went to the mall, then we went to the beach.” Than is a measure of comparison, as in “My car is faster than your car.”

- **Who/whom**: Who = object; whom = subject. In the sentence “Whom did you accuse?” “Whom” is the object and “you” is the subject, so “whom,” not “who,” is correct.

**Last names**

When first referring to an author, source, or historical figure, use first initial or first name then last name. Thereafter, use last name only. Abraham Lincoln should be referred to as Lincoln, not Abraham. This applies to women, also. Florence Nightingale should be called Nightingale, not Florence or Miss Nightingale or Ms. Nightingale.

**Punctuation with quotation marks**

- Punctuation that goes INSIDE the ending quotation mark = commas and periods.
- Punctuation that goes OUTSIDE the ending quotation mark = colons and semicolons
- IT DEPENDS = question marks and exclamation marks. It depends on whether the question mark or exclamation mark is part of the quotation (inside) or part of your sentence (outside).
- These do not apply to quotations with a parenthetical citation, since the punctuation comes after the parenthetical citation.

**Prepositions**

As Winston Churchill is supposed to have said, “Ending a sentence with a preposition is a practice up with which I will not put.” Sometimes it's best to rewrite sentences so they don't end with prepositions, but it's not a hard and fast rule.

**Personal pronouns**

English has no personal pronoun that means “he or she.” Sticklers may insist that students write “he or she” every time but this can make a sentence clunky. For example: “When the nurse visits the patient, he or she must check his or her appearance before entering the room.” Many people now accept “they” as a singular pronoun to mean “he or she.” In addition, the use of “they” is becoming increasingly accepted as a way to avoid gender binaries with which some students may be uncomfortable. However, sentences can usually be changed to the plural so that “they” is not incorrect: “When nurses visit patients, they must check their appearance...” etc.

**Second person**

Do not use you or your in a paper, since the reader is not necessarily the one performing the action. Say whom you mean, rewrite the sentence to eliminate the need for a personal pronoun, or use the word one.

**Quotation within a quotation**

A quotation within a quotation takes a set of single quotation marks ‘ ’ around the part quoted in the source and a set of double quotation marks “ ” around the part you are quoting. This sometimes results in three strokes at the end or beginning of a sentence. It might look odd, but it is correct. Here is an example: Edwards (2014) explains, “Many people did not want to participate in the study, telling us ‘I don’t trust you sneaky researchers’” (p. 438). Incidentally, in American English this is the only use for single quotation marks. They are not used for anything else.
OUTLINING

An outline is the Superman of writing tools, yet students often skip this important process. Learning how to use this one tool will dramatically improve papers. Moreover, a solid outline means that most of the hard work of a paper is already done by the time the student sits down to write it.

There are many different ways to outline a paper, but all of the best ones involve paper. Index cards are even better. Paper works better than a computer because the writer can look at everything all at once and can move things around without accidentally cutting or losing anything.

Here are some ideas:

Take a bunch of cards or sheets of paper and on the top of each one, write one idea that you will discuss in your paper. Don’t worry for the moment about where the ideas will fit or how important each one is; just get them all down on paper.

1. Now, underneath each idea, list some support for that idea. Here you will want to include examples, details, or evidence that backs up your idea. Don’t bother writing complete sentences; at this stage, bullet points will do.

2. If you have quotations that provide support, you can either write them out in their entirety, being careful to include all the information you’ll need for the citation (author’s name, name of article, journal name, date of publication, pages and so on), or jot down just the citation itself, so that you can go back and find the quote when you need it.

3. Now spread all your sheets of paper or index cards out on a table or the floor and decide what order makes the most sense. Move them around until one idea seems to flow logically to the next.

One of the nice things about creating an outline is that you already know what will go at the beginning: your introduction and thesis—and what will go at the end: your conclusion. All you’re really working on is the middle section.

Once you have your ideas in what seems like a good order, go ahead and fill in some more of the supporting evidence. From here you can either type up an outline to work from, or staple or paperclip your cards or sheets of paper into the correct order and work from that.

Reverse outlining

There are two main ways to outline a paper. One is before you write the paper and the other is after you write the paper. Working up an outline after the paper is already written is called reverse outlining. In general, it’s best to write an outline first if you are writing about a topic that doesn’t particularly inspire you. If you’re struggling to come up with what to say, putting together an outline will make the writing process go much faster and easier than if you did not have an outline to work from. On the other hand, if you are inspired by your topic and the words rapidly spill out of your head and onto the page, let them! Then go back and impose order on your work afterwards by writing a reverse outline. (Of course, you can always do both, outlining before you start writing and then again after you’re done to make sure your organization is solid.)
This is how to reverse outline a paper. Take those blank sheets of paper or index cards and on each one, write the first sentence of each of your paragraphs. Check to make sure you have an introduction (including a thesis) and a conclusion (more about conclusions in a minute). Look through your topic sentences only: those should be the main ideas of your paper. Do they make sense all by themselves? Does the order seem right to you? If necessary, move the paragraphs around or rewrite topic sentences until the outline makes logical sense. (For more about topic sentences, see page 36).

Whether you outline before writing or reverse outline after writing, this one step will make the difference between a paper that is just a collection of thoughts and ideas and a paper that is a polished, coherent piece of writing.

“If you wait for inspiration to write you’re not a writer, you’re a waiter.”

~ Dan Poynter
**PARALLELISM**

Parallelism (also known as parallel structure) is the rule that items in a list should all take the same form. For example, they should all be nouns, or all adjectives, or all verbs.

**Remember: Everything in a list is modified by the beginning of the list.** One way to check for parallelism is to break your sentence apart. Put the beginning of the list by itself and then individually add the items in the list.

**Example:** I love to bike, skating, and eat fish.

This sentence lacks parallelism. I love to is the beginning part of the list, or the list introduction.

Broken apart to show its meaning, this sentence says:  
I love to bike (fine).  
I love to skating (not fine).  
I love to eat fish (fine).

If we correct this sentence’s parallelism, we could write: I love to bike, skate, and eat fish.

Broken apart, this would be:  
I love to bike (fine).  
I love to skate (fine).  
I love to eat fish (fine).

You could also give all of the verbs the –ing ending and remove the word “to”: I love biking, skating, and eating fish. That works just as well. The point is that the items in the list have the same structure.

The sentences that give us trouble are not usually this simple, though, which makes a lack of parallelism harder to see. Here’s an example:

The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the intensive home visiting program, explore her participation in it, and the changes that resulted from the program.

Broken apart, we have: The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the intensive home visiting program (fine). The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding explore her participation in it (not fine). The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the changes that resulted from the program (fine).

Corrected for parallelism, this sentence could read: The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the intensive home visiting program, her participation in it, and the changes that resulted from the program.

Then the broken-apart sentence would be: The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the intensive home visiting program (fine). The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding her participation in it (fine). The topic of the article is the doctor’s experiences regarding the changes that resulted from the program (fine).

The key in correcting for parallelism, then, is deciding where the list introduction ends and then seeing if all of the items in the list take the same form and make sense when they are put together by themselves with the list introduction.
## DISCUSSION FORUMS RUBRIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Exemplary</th>
<th>Above Average</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Deficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Content** | • Accurate, original, relevant, teaches us something new, and is well written.  
• Adds substantial contribution to the course and stimulates additional thought about the issue under consideration.  
• Lacks at least one of the “Exemplary” qualities, but is above average in quality.  
• Makes a significant contribution to our understanding of the issue being discussed.  | • Lacks two or three of the “Exemplary” qualities.  
• Comments which are based upon personal opinion or personal experience often fall within this category.  
• Makes some contribution to discussion.  | • Presents little or no new information.  
• However, may provide important social presence and contribute to a collegial atmosphere.  |
| **Mechanics** | • Meets both length requirements and posting frequency requirements.  
• Carefully proofread and edited for mistakes.  
• Includes the minimum quotations.  
• Quotations are properly cited.  
• Indicates a careful reading of the text.  | One or two of the following problems are present:  
• Comments are difficult to read in places  
• Unclear sentence construction  
• Grammatical issues  
• Spelling errors  
• Punctuation errors  
• Typographical errors  | Three to five of the following problems are present:  
• Comments are difficult to read in places  
• Unclear sentence construction  
• Grammatical issues  
• Spelling errors  
• Punctuation errors  
• Typographical errors  
• Comments do not include the minimum quotations from the text.  
• Quotations are improperly cited or not cited at all.  | Comments indicate a careless or incomplete reading of the text, misunderstanding or missing author's main point(s).  
• Fall short of the required minimum word count for primary and/or secondary posts.  
• Posts are late.  
• Deficient in grammar, spelling, punctuation, clarity, etc.  |
| **Points** | 2 | 1.5 | 1 | 0.5 |
POSSESSIVES AND PLURALS

1. **Possessives** take an apostrophe:

   That is Joe's hat.
   The researcher evaluated the nurse's criteria for calling in extra help.

Does something belong to the noun? Then it is possessive. In the examples above, the hat belongs to Joe and the criteria “belongs to” the nurse in the sense that the nurse generates or decides it—so an apostrophe before the “s” is required.

2. **Plural possessives** take an apostrophe after the “s,” not before it as with singular possessives:

   We believe it is time to look at the social workers' reports.
   The police officers' organizational skills were called into question.

Here is the same sense of belonging—the reports “belong to” or were generated by the social workers, and the organizational skills belong to or are possessed by the police officers—but now we’re not talking about one social worker or one police officer. We’re discussing more than one, so the noun must be plural. To show belonging, we use plural possessive.

3. **Plurals** take no apostrophe. Plurals are more than one thing:

   I never saw so many elephants on parade before!
   I ate twelve pancakes for breakfast.

There’s no belonging here. These are straight plurals. Therefore, no apostrophe is required.

4. **Its/it’s:** **Its** is the one possessive that does not take an apostrophe:

   That koala is just protecting its young. [the young “belong to” the koala]
   The team took a long time in presenting its report. [the report “belongs to” the team]

**It’s**—with the apostrophe—is **always** a contraction of it + is. If you can substitute “it is” in the sentence, then you need the apostrophe:

   It’s time we went to bed. (it is time we went to bed.)
   In California, it’s almost always sunny. (In California, it is almost always sunny.)

5. **Possessives that end in “s”:** If you want to make a word or name that ends in “s” possessive, such as Jesus’s teachings or Socrates’s life, you can add an apostrophe-s (as shown) or just an apostrophe after the s on the end of the word. (Some say to use apostrophe-s for common nouns and s-apostrophe for names—so then you would have the class’s hours but Texas’ legislators.)

   - To make a plural noun that does not end in “s,” such as children, possessive, add the apostrophe and the “s”: These are the children’s parents.
   - To make a plural noun that ends in “s,” such as countries, possessive, add an apostrophe only after the final “s”: Hanging from the ceiling were all the countries’ flags.
90% of the words in a paper should be your own. Only 10% should be quotations. Paraphrase (but still cite!!) other source information.

The information is statistics or facts and figures.

- The original language is interesting or beautiful.
- The author or speaker is an authority or famous.
- You cannot improve upon the original language.

Your wording would be just as good.

- The original language is not interesting or beautiful.

QUOTE

PARAPHRASE

It doesn’t matter who said or wrote it.
QUOTATION USE

Be careful not to rely too heavily on quotations. Remember that it is a student’s job to synthesize the information and concepts in the sources they consulted. To put this another way, instructors want to know how students interpret the information in their sources—not what the original source says on the subject. To read quotations, the instructor could just go to the original source. There would be no reason to read the student’s paper if the student merely repeats information from his or her source without providing any analysis, commentary, or synthesis.

- A good rule of thumb is that 90% of the words in your paper should be your own and not much more than 10% of the words should come from other sources.

Generally speaking, you should only use a quote if your source has written something in a particularly memorable way, expressing the idea in such powerful language that the meaning would be lost or watered down if you tried to rephrase it. In addition, sometimes a quotation is worth using if the person who originally wrote (or said it) is an authority whose opinion holds a lot of weight. Otherwise, paraphrase (but still cite) the information.

Some good rules:

- Don’t begin a paragraph with a quotation. Paragraphs should begin with topic sentences (see page 36 for more information about topic sentences).

- Don’t end a paragraph with a quotation. This signals to your reader that you have not provided any analysis or commentary but have just dropped the quotation into your paper and immediately moved on to something else.

- Choose quotations wisely. A quotation should support or illustrate the point you are making. Don’t use quotations just for the sake of having quotations in your paper.

- Don’t quote information that is better paraphrased. For example:

  People came from as far away as Ohio to visit the start-up technology business which was located on “a small side street in suburban Williamsburg, Pennsylvania” (Thompson, 2014, p. 32).

  There is no reason to quote that information. It is not memorable or powerfully expressed. Paraphrase it instead:

  People came from as far away as Ohio to visit the start-up technology business which was located in a quiet neighborhood of Williamsburg, Pennsylvania, a suburb of Philadelphia (Thompson, 2014).

- Provide analysis for all quotations. Why is the quotation in the paper? What is its significance? How does it relate to your thesis? How does it relate to the topic of the paragraph? How does it relate to the sentence that came immediately before it? No quotation should be an “orphan.” They should all be properly introduced and adequately explained.
Scholarly articles from peer-reviewed journals

The written opinion of experts in the field or interviews with experts

.gov and .edu websites (.gov = U.S. government .edu = educational institution)

Newspapers and non-peer-reviewed magazines

Websites with an agenda (such as PETA, NRA)

Personal opinion, experiences, and stories

QUALITY OF EVIDENCE
**SCHOLARLY ARTICLE CRITIQUE**

A scholarly article is an article that has been peer reviewed and appears in a reputable journal. If you are in doubt about whether your chosen article is scholarly, ask your instructor or a librarian.

Reading the article is your first step. First read the abstract. Next read the introduction and then the conclusion. Then check for and read section headings. All of these will give you a good idea what the entire article is about. Finally, read the entire article. It is almost impossible to understand an article with just one reading, so read it as many times as necessary to be sure you fully comprehend it. Make notes in the margins and underline or highlight important points. (Do not work from an article on screen. Always print a copy out.) List the article’s main points.

Your first step in writing your critique is to give an introduction to your paper. Here you will tell the reader what article you are writing about. Give the article title in quotation marks (not italics) with all the main words capitalized, and also give the author(s) name(s) and the year of publication, in APA format. Give your reader some context about the issue being discussed, and provide your reader with the article’s thesis (also called main point or claim). What is the research problem the authors address? Do not use any quotations or paraphrases in your introductory paragraph. Do not express any opinions here.

Next, summarize the article’s main points. Remember: you will want to be clear and focused here, especially if you have a maximum page limit for this assignment. Don’t waste space with “filler” sentences such as “The authors had many excellent points.” Just tell your reader what those points are. You will need to use APA citations for quotations and paraphrases.

Make sure each of your paragraphs has a topic sentence so the reader can follow the orderly progression of ideas.

Now you will discuss the article’s strengths and weaknesses. Important: you are not expressing your opinion on the topic but instead, you are assessing the article. What is the quality of evidence the authors use? Is their information logically organized and well explained? What might someone in the field learn from this article that they did not know before?

- It is not a good idea to write that you did not understand the article or that it was difficult to read, since that implies you did not try hard enough.

Here are some questions you can consider when evaluating your article: What was the authors’ hypothesis? Is the research important to the field? Why or why not? What method did their research take—did they do field experiments, a study with subjects, a literature search, a quantitative analysis, something else? How large or small was their sample? Were their conclusions generalizable to a larger population? Did you notice any omissions that would have made their research stronger? Do the authors explain any shortcomings of their research and if so, what are they? After reading the article, can you think of ways in which it could have been improved? What might be a next step in research?

After your critical analysis, you will need a concluding paragraph. Do not repeat yourself here. Do step back and take a look at the larger picture. How does this article relate to the class you are taking, to your own career path, or to the field in general? Only discuss yourself if specifically asked to do so by your instructor. Otherwise, focus solely on the article and its relevance to the field.
### PRESENTATION RUBRIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Exemplary</th>
<th>Above Average</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Deficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Timing</strong></td>
<td>• You stay within the allotted time</td>
<td>• You go slightly over or slightly under allotted time</td>
<td>• You go more than 2-3 minutes over/under time</td>
<td>• You go more than 3 minutes over/under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
<td>• Presentation is well-organized</td>
<td>• One or two aspects of organization are lacking</td>
<td>• Several aspects of organization are lacking</td>
<td>• Serious organizational difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Familiarity</strong></td>
<td>• Index cards or slides are for reference only. You do not read off them.</td>
<td>• You read off index cards or slides but do not rely on them</td>
<td>• Too much reading off index cards or slides</td>
<td>• Your presentation primarily consists of reading off index cards or slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demeanor</strong></td>
<td>• Good eye contact with audience</td>
<td>• Eye contact, enthusiasm, and interest are all present but not at exemplary levels</td>
<td>• There is a lack of eye contact and/or enthusiasm for subject and interest in audience response</td>
<td>• Serious deficiencies in eye contact, enthusiasm, interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Audibility</strong></td>
<td>• You can be heard clearly by everyone</td>
<td>• You are mostly audible</td>
<td>• You are not always clear and audible</td>
<td>• You are unable to be heard or understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• You do not rush</td>
<td>• You may be a little rushed</td>
<td>• You speak too quickly to be understood</td>
<td>• You have many distracting vocalizations or mannerisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• You do not have vocal fillers such as “um” or “uh”</td>
<td>• Some vocal fillers</td>
<td>• Too many vocal fillers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible maximum points:</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your earned points:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>
THESIS STATEMENTS

A thesis is the main argument, or point, of a paper. It should appear near the beginning of the paper—the last sentence of the introductory paragraph is ideal—and it should fit into a single sentence. A thesis statement lets the reader know what the paper is about. Writers won’t just be stating their theses; they will also be supporting them.

Not every main idea is a thesis statement, however. Let’s take a look at the attributes of a thesis statement:

1. **It must be arguable.** A thesis statement is not a statement of fact. Instead, it must be something with which someone can reasonably disagree. For example, “Thomas Jefferson was the third President of the United States” is not a thesis; it is merely a fact. “It is wrong to hurt people” is not a thesis statement either, because who would argue that it is right to hurt people?

2. **It must be provocative.** That’s “provocative” as in “provoking interest.” If no one cares about the topic, it will be hard to convince them to keep reading. It is the writer’s job to convince the reader that the writer has something interesting, important, or unique to say. For example, which thesis is more interesting?

(a) Although the number of Americans requiring medical care has skyrocketed in recent years, overall, Americans are healthier than ever thanks to publicity about healthier lifestyle choices, and even more public education will result in greater health.

(b) Americans are healthier than ever thanks to publicity about healthier lifestyle choices, and even more public education will result in greater health.

The first one, (a), is a bit more interesting because the reader wonders how it is possible for healthcare needs to be skyrocketing at the same time Americans are getting healthier (answer: more Americans are living longer). It’s the same assertion either way, but the first thesis frames it in a way that makes the reader wonder what’s going on and want to read more.

3. **It must be manageable.** For example, while it is definitely arguable (item #1) and provocative or interesting (item #2) to say that “Evil triumphs over good,” this topic is so broad that one couldn’t possibly cover everything there is to say about it even in a book.

4. **It must be supportable.** Think of the paper-writing process as building a table. The table top is the thesis. What the writer says about that thesis is the legs of the table—the support or evidence that makes it stand up (or fall down, if the support is shaky). If a paper’s thesis is “Brown hair is better than red hair,” what evidence could the writer provide to support it? The writer may prefer brown hair, but personal preference doesn’t make one thing “better” than another. A thesis statement differs from a statement of opinion in that the writer provides the reader evidence—right there in the thesis statement—that supports the assertion.

5. **It must be focused.** A thesis statement is very, very specific. At first it may seem difficult to write a paper about a narrowly focused topic. A broader topic seems easier to tackle because there is so much information to choose from. However, the kind of writing students are asked to do in college is deep rather than broad. Instead of skimming over the surface of many things, students are asked to explore fewer things in more depth and closer detail. For example, a thesis such as this: “Improvements in weaponry and tactics would have shortened World War II” requires a discussion
of all potential improvements in all weaponry and all tactics for all of World War II. Even a book wouldn’t do that topic justice! On the other hand, if the thesis was changed to “Modernizing Japan’s naval power would have made the Battle of Midway less damaging for Japan and might have turned the tide for the entire war,” the writer would only need to discuss Japan, Japan’s navy, and one particular battle.

6. **A thesis statement can, and should, change if the evidence changes.** A thesis should always started out as a “working thesis.” It is the direction the writer thinks they will be taking. As the writer gathers evidence and begins writing, they may become convinced of something different than the thesis statement says. Since writing is thinking, many writers “write into” what they want to say. If a student writer does the research and begins to write and then discovers that the evidence supports a different thesis than the one they started out with, it is a smart thing to change the thesis. There is nothing wrong with this. It would be far worse to try to twist evidence around to support something the writer no longer believes.

“Writing is like a sport—you only get better if you practice.”

~ Rick Riordan
**TOPIC SENTENCES**

A topic sentence is like an umbrella. It should cover everything the paragraph discusses.

A topic sentence has two, sometimes three, jobs:

- It should tell the reader what the paragraph is going to be about.
- It should clearly relate to the overall thesis of the paper. If the connection is not obvious, the writer must spell it out for the reader.
- It can provide a transition from the previous paragraph.

The third one is a “sometimes” job for the topic sentence because the final sentence of the previous paragraph can provide the transition instead. (It doesn’t matter where it goes, but there must be a transition in one of those two places.)

One of the problems with writing is that we don’t think in neatly organized paragraphs, so we don’t write in them, either. Instead our thoughts flow from A, to B, to C, to D, maybe back to B, then to E ... and so on. Thus, a paragraph that begins by discussing topic A can easily end by discussing topic G. It’s clear how we got from one idea to the next idea (sometimes!), but what’s not always clear is how A relates to G. In addition, if one paragraph discusses A, B, C, D, E, F, and G, we probably didn’t give enough discussion or consideration to any of them.

The better way to organize a paper is to **assign one topic to each paragraph**. In fact, that is the definition of a paragraph: a group of sentences that all relate to a single topic. The paragraph can be five sentences or it can be fifty. What matters is that the sentences all relate to a single idea. That one idea, in turn, relates to the thesis of the overall paper.

A topic sentence is also called a **focus sentence** because it helps to focus the reader’s attention on the material to be presented in that paragraph.

Quotations and paraphrases should never be paragraph topic sentences. Use your sources as support and illustration for the ideas in your paper.

- A neat trick for checking a paper’s organization is to take a separate sheet of paper and write down just the first sentence of every paragraph. You (or someone you have asked to look at your paper) should be able to follow the argument of the paper logically from topic sentence to topic sentence. If you can’t, something needs to be fixed: either the topic sentences need to be rewritten or the paragraphs need to be rearranged.
THE WRITING PROCESS

**Draft:**
Write!
Get ideas down on paper. Write your way into new ideas. Write your way into what you want to say.

**Revise:**
Get feedback
Check organization
Look at transitions, topic sentences, vocabulary, clarity. Repeat as many times as necessary

**Proofread:**
Correct spelling, typos, punctuation, grammar, APA

**Publish:**
Hand in paper and/or present to wider audience

**Prewrite:**
- think
- research
- take notes
- outline the paper

**THE WRITING PROCESS**
TRANSITIONS

Good writing has topic sentences between paragraphs and also between sentences.

Read this paragraph:

The coffee shop was out of decaffeinated coffee today. I had to drink regular coffee. I am extremely sensitive to caffeine. I once was awake for an entire day after consuming too much regular coffee. I am still awake at 3:00 a.m. I am frustrated. I am concerned. I have a big presentation at work tomorrow. I will be tired. I will not be at my best. The presentation might not go as well as I would like it to. I will hope for the best. I will not drink caffeinated coffee.

Now read the same paragraph with transitions added (underlined):

The coffee shop was out of decaffeinated coffee today, so I had to drink regular coffee. I am extremely sensitive to caffeine; in fact, I once was awake for an entire day after consuming too much regular coffee. Now I am still awake at 3:00 a.m., and I am frustrated and concerned because I have a big presentation at work tomorrow. I will be tired when I have to give my presentation, and thus I will not be at my best. I’m afraid the presentation might not go as well as I would like it to. However, I will hope for the best and in the future, I will not drink caffeinated coffee.

In the first paragraph, it’s clear that the sentences are all related, but it’s not entirely clear how they are all related. What is obvious to us may not be obvious at all to our readers. Even if readers can figure out the connections, the writing sounds choppy and immature because the sentences are all very short.

Writers must make connections for their readers rather than leaving them to wrestle with connections on their own. To do this, the writer should provide transitions. Writing needs transitions between paragraphs and also between sentences.

This can be done by incorporating transitional words and phrases such as:

- however
- moreover
- therefore
- and
- because of this
- next time
- in the future
- on the other hand
- for the most part
- for example
- indeed
- otherwise
- furthermore
- incidentally
- now
- then
- before

Writers can also use pointing words, words that point back to something in a previous sentence, such as:

- this
- that
- such
- these
- those
- their

Just be careful when you use a pointing word that it is quite clear to whom or what you are referring, since these words modify—or refer to—the closest noun.
There are any number of transitions to use. The important thing is to use them. Here’s another example, this one of a transition between paragraphs:

Paragraph 1:
When I was young, we were very poor. My two sisters and I shared a tiny bedroom, and there were days when we did not know where our next meal was coming from. However, because we were children, we were far more concerned with playing and friendships than with the grown-up money worries that must have weighed heavily on our parents’ minds.

Paragraph 2:
Money wasn’t their only worry. My mother was often ill, and she sometimes spent entire days in bed. On those days my father would cook us breakfast and get us off to school before he went into work. We gradually got used to this arrangement, and when my mother was well enough to join us, it felt like a special occasion.

Both paragraphs discuss the author’s childhood, so it’s obvious that the paragraphs are related, but a stronger connection is made with the sentence “Money wasn’t their only worry.” That signals to the reader: “We are done discussing money, and we’re moving on to a different worry: my mother’s health.” Try reading the second paragraph without the transitional sentence, and it’s clear that the connection is not as clearly made. In fact, without the transitional sentence it almost sounds as though the money worries are what caused the mother’s illness. The transitional sentence makes clear that it is not the case, just that both of these things were struggles the family had to deal with.

A paragraph transition can be at the end of one paragraph, in the concluding sentence, or at the beginning of the next paragraph, in the topic sentence. It doesn’t matter where it appears, just that there is one. Transitions are required between sentences whenever there is a change of idea or wherever the reader might appreciate a little better sense of how ideas connect.

“Almost all good writing begins with terrible first efforts. You need to start somewhere.”

~ Anne Lamott
**Voice**

**Passive voice** is either a sentence without a subject, or a sentence in which the subject is acted upon rather than being the actor. Passive sentences often leave the reader wondering, “WHO is performing this action?”

These sentences can begin with:
- It is — as in *It is known* that the research took ten years.
- There are — as in *There are* many reasons to learn about passive voice.

Passive sentences can also contain verb phrases that begin with was or were, such as was taken, was learned, were seen, were purchased, and was studied:
- The material was learned.
- The latex gloves were purchased.

Passive voice is not wrong. It is very useful when the person performing the action doesn’t matter:
- Some of the brightest stars were observed with the naked eye. (It doesn’t really matter who saw the stars—the important point is their visibility.)
- This phenomenon was studied extensively. (We don’t want to list everyone who studied the phenomenon, but the important point is that there were many studies.)

Passive voice is also useful when the thing acted upon is more important than the actor, or when the actor is unknown:
- The woman was mugged on Fifth Street. (Someone did the mugging, but we don’t know who.)
- The results of the study were shown to be inaccurate. (The fact that the results are inaccurate is more important than who discovered them to be inaccurate.)

If you choose to use passive voice, make sure you are doing so for a good reason. If you don’t have a reason to use passive voice, active voice is better.

APA recommends that writers use first person (“I”) when referring to themselves. That means in a paper a student should write, I chose to study an underrepresented population, not This researcher chose to study an underrepresented population. It would be awkward for the student to call him- or herself This researcher or This writer—just as awkward as if someone said to their friend, “This shopper is headed off to the grocery store now.”

Although it is not wrong to refer to yourself, do so only when necessary to avoid awkwardness.

**Awkward:** This researcher learned that four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.
**Better:** I learned that four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.
**Best:** Four out of ten police officers in Milwaukee are close to retirement.

This last example foregrounds the information, not the person who gathered it. So while APA does recommend using first person, and it is fine to do so, only use it when necessary. Otherwise keep the information at the forefront. Readers know that writers are expressing their own thoughts, ideas, opinions, and research without the writer having to spell it out for them.

**Special note for nursing students:** The Division of Nursing requires academic papers to be written in third person instead of using first person (I). In that case, “This writer” would be acceptable.
### GRADING GUIDELINES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>An <em>A</em> paper represents exceptionally polished and stylish work, often taking an unusual or especially thoughtful or insightful position on the topic. The paper has a strong purpose, and the writer addresses the complexity of the topic. The essay is extremely well-developed and organized, and the writing is not only free of grammatical problems or careless mistakes but is rich in detail and exhibits considerable fluency and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>A <em>B</em> paper represents solid, readable writing that does what the assignment requires. There is a clear purpose, and the writer indicates his or her awareness of the complexity of the topic. It demonstrates appropriate support, good organization, and is free of grammatical problems or careless mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>A <em>C</em> paper represents writing that, for the most part, satisfies all the requirements of an assignment. However, the purpose is not well conceived and the writing lacks sufficient, concrete support needed to illustrate its assertions or prove its point. C-level writing also shows lapses in editing proficiency and contains careless errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>A <em>D</em> paper represents writing that does not adequately satisfy the requirements of the assignment. The purpose is poorly conceived or missing, and the writing lacks coherence and support. D-level writing is characterized by significant lapses in editing proficiency and numerous careless errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>An <em>F</em> paper represents writing that is flawed in terms of fulfilling the requirements of the assignment and achieving a purpose, as well as in overall coherence and appropriateness. The writing is characterized by considerable lapses in editing and a great many grammatical and mechanical errors.</td>
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</table>
KEUKA COLLEGE WRITING CENTER

Mission Statement
The Keuka College Writing Center is part of the KC student’s support team, helping students become careful and confident writers who are equipped for success both academically and professionally.

Description
The Keuka College Writing Center is a valuable resource for AOE students with document-based questions and concerns. The Writing Center can help with:
- APA formatting, quotations, and citations
- Organization and style
- Grammar and punctuation
- Research and documentation

The Keuka College Writing Center provides online assistance for AOE students. Students submit their proofread, edited papers to writinghelp@keuka.edu as email attachments and receive a response by email, usually within 48 business hours. In addition, students may instant message (Google chat) or email Writing Specialist Geoff Lee or other Writing Center personnel with specific questions or concerns.

AOE students are warmly welcomed at the center during our regular hours.

The Keuka College Writing Center will identify strengths upon which students can build. WC staff will also provide feedback that enables students to identify and correct errors and weaknesses in their own writing.

- The Writing Center does not proofread papers. Our goal is to help students become better writers—not to edit your entire piece of writing for you. Your writing project will not be perfect when you receive it from the Writing Center. You will have editing to do, but we will supply you with the knowledge and tools to edit your work.

We recognize that many students struggle with some aspects of writing even though they are outstanding students in other areas, and we believe that asking for help with writing issues is a sign of strength, not weakness.

The Writing Center staff is friendly and accessible. If we can’t answer your question, we’ll direct you to someone who can. We maintain a list of reliable, user-friendly videos and documents that cover various writing issues and will select and share those as appropriate. We are available to support instructors as well as students with writing and writing-related questions.

Keuka College Writing Center website: https://bit.ly/2ULEMqR

Writing Center plagiarism policy
We do not specifically review papers for plagiarism. That is the student’s responsibility. We do not review papers that contain plagiarism since our mission is to assist students with their own writing. However, if we note plagiarism in a student paper, we will send the paper back to the student with instructions about how to correct the problem. Under some circumstances we will notify the student’s instructor.

Writing Specialist and AOE Writing Support Coordinator: Geoffrey Lee glee@keuka.edu