



ASA STYLE LITE FOR RESEARCH PAPERS

American Sociological Association Style for Research Papers by Dr Abel Scribe PhD - Winter 2009-2010

ASA Lite is a quick reference to using the style of the American Sociological Association (ASA) in college research papers—papers drafted for classes and seminars. Papers drafted for review and publication are formatted for copy editors and typesetters, they in turn reformat them into articles to be read. These requirements are featured in the “Instructions to Authors” of the respective journal. Class and conference papers are intended to be read in their draft form—*ASA Lite* is a set of instructions to authors writing for these readers. *ASA Lite* is based on the most recent third edition of the *ASA Style Guide*, 2007.

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1.0 AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION STYLE AT THREE



Now in its third edition, the *ASA Style Guide* is designed to serve as the authoritative reference for writing, submitting, editing, and copyediting manuscripts for ASA journals” (ASA 2007:xi). The 124 page text is adequate, if not effusive, in presenting the style preferred by the American Sociological Association. The text is small, measuring just 4-3/8 inches wide by 7-1/8 inches high, little larger than a 4x6 index card on end. At a price of \$20 (less to ASA members), it is expensive for what you get. The ASA guide appears to be on a 10-year publication cycle so the current edition will be useful for many years to come.

The style relies heavily on the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS, 2003) for what is not expressly covered in the ASA guide. This is another way of saying that ASA style is highly conventional. Common sense and common usage will generally serve. Like most styles, ASA style has rules and preferences it asks that you observe. These are mostly covered in *ASA Lite*.

1.1 FINAL VS COPY MANUSCRIPTS

■ The *ASA Style Guide* is a reference for preparing manuscripts for ASA journals. These papers are formatted to facilitate the process copyediting and typesetting for publication. These have been dubbed *copy manuscripts* by the APA (American Psychological Association) *Publication Manual* (2001). However, what is appropriate in this context does not produce a paper that is intended to be read in its final form, a *final manuscript*. For example, tables and figures come on separate pages at the end of copy manuscripts, they are not merged into the text where the reader naturally looks for them. The style also requires unusually wide margins around the text, 1-1/4 inches, and a fairly large 12-point typeface. Most styles specify one-inch margins and allow for slightly smaller type.

The ASA guide acknowledges that the style may be used for preparing manuscripts for other than publication (sec. 4.9). Examples given include theses, dissertations, and oral presentations (conference papers). To this should be added the classic college research paper. The guide suggests the style may need to be adapted for these works in the following areas, among others:

- Page format requirements (e.g., margins, typeface, paragraph indentation, and spacing).
- The content, format, and order of pages (e.g., title page, abstracts, references, appendices, tables, figures).
- Mechanics of style (e.g., special rules on punctuation and capitalization).
- Style requirements for headings, text citations, references, tables and figures, and other materials.



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ASA Style Lite for Research Papers © Copyright 2010 by Dr. Abel Scribe PhD.

These suggestions have been adopted by *ASA Lite*, though in a minimalist fashion. The adjustments to the style are mostly common sense to produce a paper that is clearly in ASA style, without it appearing as a rough draft or copy manuscript. For example, the title page in a copy manuscript for publication does not carry the abstract, which is on the following page. This is to allow the title page (with the author's name) to be torn off to preserve anonymity in the review process. Since this is not necessary for papers submitted for class work or a conference (final manuscripts), the two separate pages are more conveniently merged into a single page. The abstract (if there is one) appears on the title page, margins have been narrowed, block paragraph line spacing is used throughout, tables and figures are embedded in the text, space twice after punctuation at the end of sentences.

If you are writing for publication buy the *ASA Style Guide* and follow the "Instructions for Authors" of the respective journal. If you are writing for a class or conference, *ASA Lite* will guide you to produce a paper with features familiar to those who read and study the research literature presented in ASA journals.

1.2 RECURRING FEATURES

■ Most style features are specific to the various parts of drafting a paper: writing the text, formatting the pages, and preparing references. A few features cross these boundaries.

Capitalization. A feature common to all parts of the text is the style of capitalization. Some titles in the text and in references, and some headings, are set in *heading caps*, a term derived from *headline style capitalization* for its origin in newspaper publication. There are no headlines in research writing though titles and headings abound rendering the derived term more meaningful. Instructions as to what to capitalize vary with the style, ASA style "capitalize[s] the first character of all words in a heading or title except prepositions (*of, into, between, through*), articles (*a, an, the*), and coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or*)" (ASA 2007:29). The alternative style is *sentence capitalization*, which is self-explanatory. The *Chicago Manual of Style* (2003) notes:

Headline style. The conventions of headline style, admittedly arbitrary, are governed by a mixture of aesthetics, . . . emphasis, and grammar. Some words are always capitalized; some are always lowercased (unless used as the first or last word in a title [or heading]); others require a decision.

If you are not sure what grammatical function a word is performing (or even if you are), try reading it aloud: if you would stress the word, capitalize it; if not, lowercase it.

Sentence style. In sentence-style capitalization only the first word in a title [or heading], the first word in a subtitle, and any proper names are capitalized. This style is commonly used in reference lists [but not in ASA style]. (Pp. 366-367)

Block paragraph text spacing. A copy manuscript is double-spaced throughout. A paper is easier to read when portions of the text are single-spaced, but double-spaced from the rest of the text. This is most familiar with longer quotations, block quotes, but is also aptly applied to titles and headings, tables and figure captions, abstracts and references.

A typeface (font) should be selected to make your paper easy to read. The *ASA Style Guide* calls for a 12-point font. This is probably too large for most student papers. A 10-point font is more appropriate. The size of a font and the contrast presented on the printed page are related. A smaller font can be used with crisp black lettering on a bright white page. If the lettering fades from black to gray, use a larger font. If a high brightness (80+) 20-pound paper is not available, use a larger font.

A serif typeface is *required*. This is a typeface with small cross bars on the letters. The ASA guide specifies a Times New Roman (or Times) typeface (2007:88). This paragraph is in a 12-point Times typeface. The rest of the text is in 9-point helvetica, a sans serif font (PDF version of *ASA Lite* only).

Consistency. Styles impose consistency to research writing. On occasion, a style can become so exhaustively documented that its style guide becomes virtually unusable. There is a limit to the level of detail that a writer can comfortably master. *ASA Lite* seeks to find that level and go no further. When a feature is not covered you may consult the *ASA Style Guide* or the *Chicago Manual of Style*, or use your own best judgment. It is essential, though, that you be consistent with a usage throughout your paper.

Priorities. It is absolutely essential to get your references right. The nuances of the format are less important than the accuracy of the information. When writing for publication you should expect the editor to verify all URLs and links to online sources. They must work. If an online source has been deleted it is no longer a reference.

Data presented must be accurate. The ASA guide is sadly silent about how precise numbers are to be presented. The world has generally adopted the metric system for presenting precise numbers, more formally known as the International System of Units, or *SI* (from the French *Le Système International d'Unités*). A brief introduction is included in *ASA Lite* along with a reference to a free guide online in portable document format (pdf).

Content outweighs style, but poor presentation casts doubts on the competence of the writer, and the veracity of the content.

2.0 FORMATTING RESEARCH PAPERS

Research styles place a great emphasis on the clarity of presentation. Anything that might introduce ambiguity should be avoided. For example, a ragged right margin is required. That is, the text is not aligned or justified to the right margin. This is done so that hyphens are not introduced to break words to fit across lines. Hyphens may add meaning to a word or phrase, or a be typographical convenience to be avoided.

The diagram shows a page layout with the following features and annotations:

- Top Left:** A vertical double-headed arrow indicates a 1" margin.
- Page Header:** "Research Papers in Sociology" is centered at the top. A horizontal double-headed arrow labeled "Page Header & Number" spans from the left margin to the page number "2" on the right.
- Title:** "Research Papers in Sociology: An Introduction to Style and Format" is centered below the header.
- Text:** The main body of text discusses the ASA style. Annotations include:
 - "Numbers" pointing to the first sentence.
 - "Abbreviation" pointing to "(ASA)".
 - "Italics" pointing to "ASA Style Guide (2007)".
 - "Quotation" pointing to "The Chicago Manual of Style".
 - "Citation" pointing to "(ASA 2007:xi)".
 - "Block Quote" pointing to a paragraph of text about the ASA Style Guide's goals.
 - "Citation" pointing to "(P. 2)".
- Headings:**
 - "FIRST LEVEL-HEADING IN FULL CAPS" points to "Do not begin a paper with the heading *Introduction*...".
 - "Second-Level Heading in Heading Caps and Italics" points to "Some ASA journals do not indent the first paragraph after a heading...".
 - "Heading Caps" points to "Some ASA journals do not indent the first paragraph after a heading...".
 - "Sentence caps" points to "Third-level heading in sentence caps and italics...".
 - "Italics" points to "Third-level heading in sentence caps and italics...".
- Table:** A table titled "Table 1. Doctorate Degrees Conferred in Selected Fields: United States 1980-2000^a" is shown.

Field	1980	2000	% Change	% Male
Computer Science & Engineering	2,747	6,167	55.5	84.4
Education	7,314	6,830	-6.6	35.4
Psychology	3,395	4,095	27.0	32.6
Social Science & History	3,230	4,095	26.8	59.8
- Footnote:** "^aBureau of the Census 2002:Table 280." is annotated with "Heading Caps".
- Bottom:** A reference to "Refer to recent issues of the *American Sociological Review* or the *Chicago Manual of Style* for more information."
- Right Margin:** A vertical double-headed arrow labeled "Ragged Margin" indicates the right edge of the text.

Figure 1. First Text Page of a Research Paper (Final Manuscript) in ASA Style: Selected Features Noted.

2.1 TITLE PAGE & ABSTRACT

■ College papers are not subject to anonymous review. Therefore, an abstract can be combined with author information on the title page. Abstracts may not be needed or useful for shorter papers, but an abstract will impress most instructors. An abstract is limited to 200 words in a single paragraph in ASA style. It should briefly explain the problem investigated, why it matters, how it was studied (method), and what you found (results).

Page Headers. Copy manuscripts carry a *running head* on every page. This becomes the page header in college papers. The *running head for publication* is an abbreviated short title header--no more than 50 characters--that will be placed at the top of each page when the paper is published in a journal. It is omitted from the title page of college papers where it is redundant, and set in heading caps to conform with other headings in the paper (it is placed in full caps when writing for publication).

Page Numbers. Every page should be numbered consecutively through the paper, including the title page and any appendices. On the title page of college papers the page number is placed at the bottom center of the page.

Title Footnote. When writing for publication a title footnote marked with an asterisk gives the name of the corresponding author, their address and contact information. It also includes any information on grant support and acknowledgements. This is not likely to be needed on most college papers.

Line Spacing. Copy manuscripts for publication are double-spaced throughout; the ASA also require uncommonly wide margins. This is to give room for editors to mark up the copy. A more concise format is preferred for final manuscripts where such empty space is mostly wasted. The block spacing shown single-spaces blocks of text—title, author information, heading, abstract, title footnote—while double-spacing between the blocks.

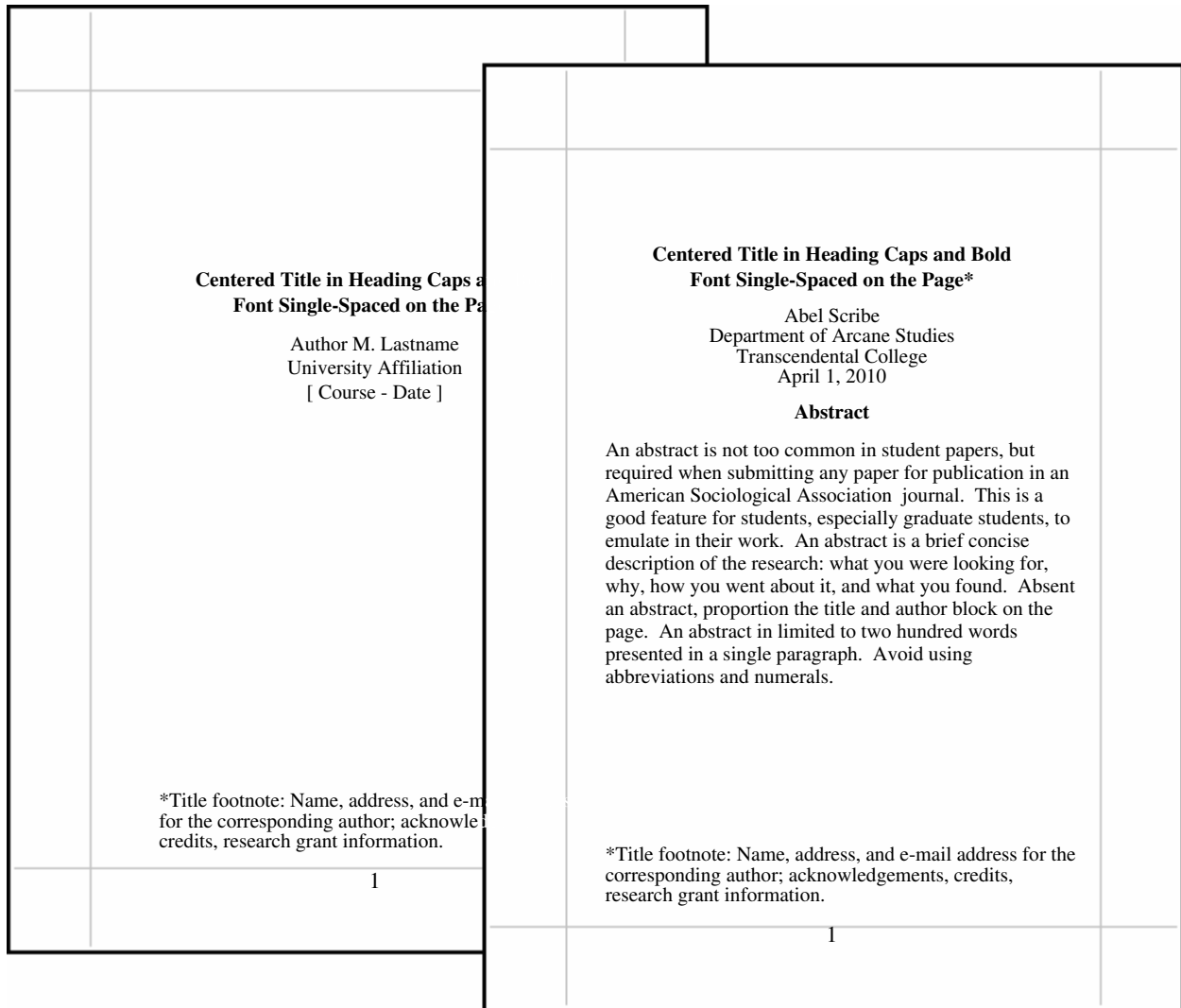


Figure 2. Title Pages in the Style of the American Sociological Association.

2.2 FIRST TEXT PAGE WITH HEADINGS & LISTS

■ “Begin the text of a manuscript on a new page headed by the manuscript title” (ASA 2007:44). The *ASA Style Guide* (2007:82) shows the title in a bold font. It is centered on the page with long titles single-spaced.

Page Format

- *Margins* must be at least one inch on all four sides of the page, wider left if the paper is to be bound. For shorter papers *do not use a binder*, a single staple in the upper left corner makes the paper easier to read. When writing for publication “[c]reate margins of 1.25 inches on all four sides to allow room for the editor’s or copyeditor’s marks” (ASA 2007:88).
- *Page header & page number.* The page header is an abbreviated title in heading caps (every major word is capitalized). This is the revised *running head* found in copy manuscripts (ASA 2007:81-82). The page header goes inside the top margin a half inch above the text, next to the *left* margin. The page number aligns with the right margin; on the title page the number is centered at the bottom or omitted.

 Number all pages consecutively--starting with the title page--whether the page number is shown or not.

	Research Papers in Sociology	2
Title →	Research Papers in Sociology: Main Title Repeated on the First Page	
	Do not begin a paper with the heading <i>Introduction</i> . It is understood that all papers begin with an introduction (ASA 2007:44). Indent every paragraph; special rules apply for block quotes.	
Level 1 →	FIRST LEVEL HEADING IN FULL CAPS	
	The first-level heading with full capitalization is an ASA trademark. The style is adapted for college papers, with sensible changes to make the papers easier to read.	
Level 2 →	<i>Second-Level Heading in Heading Caps and Italics</i>	
	“Capitalize all words except prepositions (<i>of, into, between, through</i>), articles (<i>a, an, the</i>), and coordination conjunctions (<i>and, but, or</i>)” (ASA 2007:44).	
Level 3 →	<i>Third-level heading in sentence caps and italics.</i> These are called <i>run-in or paragraph headings</i> . They need not be complete sentences but must end with a period or other punctuation.	
List →	The text immediately follows. Numbered lists (<i>seriation or enumeration</i>) add additional organization to a paper. Lists are introduced by a phrase followed by a colon to: (1) amplify or summarize points, (2) introduce the following text without using tedious bridge paragraphs, (3) with the points separated by commas or semicolons (ASA 2007:20).	

Figure 3. First Text Page with Headings and Lists.


Text Format

- *Typeface.* “Text must be in 12-point Times New Roman (Times is also acceptable)” (ASA 2007:82). This is a *serif* typeface, a typeface with small cross bars on the letters—Times Roman and Courier are common examples. A smaller font may be more appropriate for final manuscripts (e.g., 10-point).
- *Ragged right margin?* Avoid using the automatic hyphen feature [of your word processor]. Do not right-justify text” (ASA 2007:82). An unjustified right margin is called a *ragged right margin* for its appearance on the page. Do not hyphenate words at the ends of lines, do not justify the right margin, leave it ragged.
- *Indent* all text paragraphs--except the abstract and the first paragraph in a block quote--one-half inch. Hanging indents in references are also indented one-half inch. There are special rules for paragraphs in block quotes.
- *Block spacing?* “Block quotes may be single-spaced” (ASA 2007:82). Double space the text, but single space titles and subheadings, table titles and figure captions, references (but double-spacing *between* references), footnotes, and long quotations.
- “Use only one space after all punctuation (including between sentences). Periods and colons should not be followed by two spaces” (ASA 2007:17). However, spacing twice after sentences improves readability. Be consistent! Space once after initials--but not inside abbreviations--for example, the initials in *Tolkein, J. R. R.* are spaced, but the *U.* in *U.S.* is not.

Headings

“Subheadings should clearly indicate the organization of the content of the manuscript. Generally, three heading levels are sufficient for a full-length article” (ASA 2007:44). Only three levels are provided by the style.

1. THE FIRST-LEVEL HEADING is presented in full caps aligned with the left margin.
2. *The Second-Level Heading* is presented in *heading caps* and italics aligned with the left margin.
3. *The third-level heading* is in sentence caps and italics indented and inserted before a paragraph.

 *Heading caps* “capitalize the first character of all words in a heading or title except prepositions (*of, into, between, through*), articles (*a, an, the*), and coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or*)” (ASA 2007:29). The *American Sociological Review* does not indent the first paragraph following first- or second-level headings. Be consistent!

Lists (Enumeration, Seriation)

“Lists of important points are often numbered in the text. Such lists typically are introduced by an independent clause followed by a colon and then by a series of numbered statements” (ASA 2007:20). Lists come in two forms: (1) text lists like this are numbered in the text, while (2) paragraph lists number a series of paragraphs. The ASA *Style Guide* is silent about paragraph lists, the text form being more common.

2.3 TABLES & FIGURES

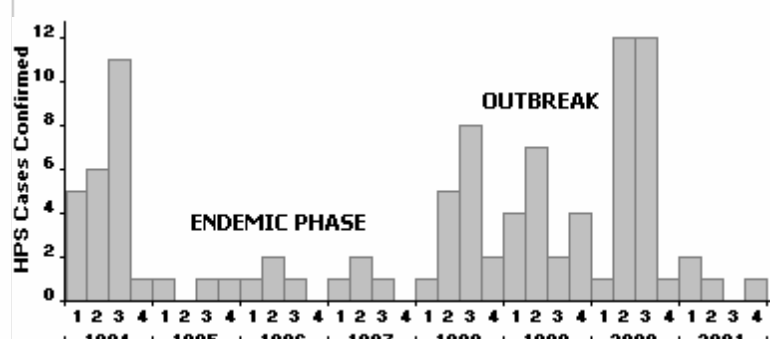
<p>Research Papers in Sociology</p>	3																																				
<p>The simple table template in Microsoft Word may be used to format tables in copy manuscripts for publication (ASA 2007:84)</p> <p>Table 1. Risk of Hantavirus Infection: United States & West 1993-2004^a</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">Region:</th> <th style="text-align: center;">United States</th> <th style="text-align: center;">Western States</th> <th style="text-align: center;">Rural West</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Population 2000^b</td> <td style="text-align: center;">281,422.4</td> <td style="text-align: center;">91,629.6</td> <td style="text-align: center;">13,632.0</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Hantavirus Cases</td> <td style="text-align: center;">363</td> <td style="text-align: center;">338</td> <td style="text-align: center;">254</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Incidence Rate/100K</td> <td style="text-align: center;">0.12</td> <td style="text-align: center;">0.37</td> <td style="text-align: center;">1.86</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Relative Risk^c</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td> US Population</td> <td style="text-align: center;">1.0</td> <td style="text-align: center;">2.9</td> <td style="text-align: center;">14.4</td> </tr> <tr> <td> 95% Confidence</td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">(2.8 to 2.9)</td> <td style="text-align: center;">(13.5 to 15.3)</td> </tr> <tr> <td> Western States</td> <td style="text-align: center;">—</td> <td style="text-align: center;">1.0</td> <td style="text-align: center;">5.1</td> </tr> <tr> <td> 95% Confidence</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;">(4.7 to 5.3)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>^aSeventeen western states from the Dakotas to Texas and west to the coast account for 93% of Hantavirus cases. ^bPopulation in 1000s. Source: US Census Bureau.</p> <p>Graphs and images have demanding requirements for publication, but college papers may use them freely.</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>The bar chart displays the number of Hantavirus Pulmonary Syndrome (HPS) cases confirmed in the four corners states (Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah) from 1994 to 2001. The y-axis represents the number of cases, ranging from 0 to 12. The x-axis shows the years from 1994 to 2001, with quarterly markers (1, 2, 3, 4) for each year. The chart is divided into two phases: an 'ENDEMIC PHASE' from 1994 to 1997, characterized by low, stable case counts (mostly 1-2 cases per quarter), and an 'OUTBREAK' from 1998 to 2001, characterized by significantly higher case counts, peaking at 12 cases in the third quarter of 2000.</p> </div> <p>Figure 1. Cases of Hantavirus Pulmonary Syndrome (HPS) Reported in the Four Corners States (Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah) 1994-2001</p>		Region:	United States	Western States	Rural West	Population 2000 ^b	281,422.4	91,629.6	13,632.0	Hantavirus Cases	363	338	254	Incidence Rate/100K	0.12	0.37	1.86	Relative Risk ^c				US Population	1.0	2.9	14.4	95% Confidence		(2.8 to 2.9)	(13.5 to 15.3)	Western States	—	1.0	5.1	95% Confidence			(4.7 to 5.3)
Region:	United States	Western States	Rural West																																		
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Figure 4. Tables and Figures.

Tables


A universal format has emerged for the presentation of tables. This is covered in great detail in the American Psychological Association (APA) *Publication Manual* (2009) and the *Chicago Manual of Style* (2003). Better yet, emulate what you find in recent ASA journal articles.

- Place tables close to where they are first mentioned in your text, but do not split a table across pages. (Tables in papers submitted for review or publication are placed on separate pages at the end of the paper.)
- Label each table beginning with the table number followed by a description of the contents in bold font.
- Use a table template in your word processor both for college papers and publication. A simple format is best.
- The *ASA Style Guide* is silent about line spacing in tables, but other styles accept single-spaced tables.
- Each row and column must have a heading. Abbreviations and symbols (e.g., "%" or "nos.") may be used.
- Do not change the number of decimal places or units of measurement within a column. Place a zero before the decimal point when numbers are less than one. Write "0.23" not ".23" *unless* the number is a statistic that cannot be larger than one, for example a correlation $r = .55$, or a probability $p < .01$.
- Notes follow the word *Notes:* (*in italics*) at the bottom of the table. General notes come first followed by footnotes and ending with probability notes.
- Footnotes are labeled "a, b, c, etc." set in supercript. They explain specific details.
- Probability notes follow footnotes. "Use asterisks *, **, and *** to indicate statistical significance at the [$p < .xx$] .05, .01, and .001 levels, respectively" (ASA 2007:60).

Figures

A "figure" may be a chart, drawing, graph, map, or photograph. Research journals do not like to publish figure because their are costly to produce. The requirements are also demanding. What works in a word processor will not necessarily work in publication. The *ASA Style Guide* (2007) instructs authors to:

[u]se at least 300 dpi resolution for grayscale (not CMYK); use at least 600 dpi resolution for line art (1200 dpi is preferred). Do not send 72 dpi "screen shots" or Web gifs because while they appear clear on a computer screen, they will reproduce very badly in print form. (P. 86)

 A *caption* appears below the figure explaining what it is. A *legend* appears within the figure, for example, to label the axes of a graph.

2.4 QUOTATIONS

■ **Direct quotations** in the text, *run-in* quotes, must be placed in quotation marks; longer quotes are indented and set off as *block quotes*. All quotes must include a citation to the source document. A quotation must copy not only the wording of the original, but the spelling, capitalization, and internal punctuation as well.

- When the author's name is introduced in the text, the page number follows the quotation. Smith (1999) reported that "the creature walked like a duck and quacked like a duck" (p. 23). The abbreviation "p." for page ("pp." for pages) is lower cased (uppercased with block quotes).
- Without an introductory phrase, the author, date, and page are placed together. For example—It was reported that "the creature walked like a duck and quacked like a duck" (Smith 1999:23). There is no space after the colon in the full citation.


Block quotes are used with longer quotations, 50 words or more (ASA 2007:25). Block quotes are continuously indented from the left margin one-half inch, may use a smaller font than the normal text font (e.g. a 10 point block quote in a 12 point text). "Block quotes may be single-spaced" (ASA 2007:88). Do not place block quotes inside quotation marks.

An introductory phrase in the text is followed by a colon. For example, according to the ASA (1997) *Style Guide*:

Block quotations are presented in smaller type and are set off in a separate, indented paragraph. Block quotations should not be enclosed in quotation marks. . . . Note: The author, date, and/or page number follows the period in a block quote. In a block quote the "P" for page is capitalized when the page number is cited alone without the author and date information. (P. 21)

Without the introductory phrase:

Block quotations are presented in smaller type and are set off in a separate, indented paragraph. Block quotations should not be enclosed in quotation marks. . . . Note: The author, date, and/or page number follows the period in a block quote. In a block quote the "P" for page is capitalized when the page number is cited alone without the author and date information. (ASA 1997:21)

 The abbreviation "P." for page ("Pp." for pages) is *uppercased* after a block quote. A citation *follows* the period or other ending punctuation. Example, <block quote here>. (Pp. 20-21) **<No Punctuation Here!**

	Research Papers in Sociology	4
	<p>“Quotations in text begin and end with quotation marks; the author, date, and/or page numbers follow the end-quote and precede the period” (ASA 2007:25). Every direct quote requires a citation. Longer quotes, “generally, 50 words or more,” are set off as block quotes (ASA 2007:25). These are indented from the left margin and single-spaced. Quotation marks are not used; the quote is usually introduced with a short phrase followed by a colon. For example, the <i>ASA Style Guide</i> (2007) notes:</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language</i> (2000) . . . provides suggestions for gender-neutral language in a usage note the follows the entry for <i>he</i>. . . . The classification and terminology of race and ethnicity are complex and have changed over time. Avoid racial and ethnic stereotyping of groups. Authors using racial and ethnic terms should aim to be as specific and precise as possible when identifying a person’s origin or group. For example, <i>Cuban</i> in more specific than <i>Hispanic</i>; <i>Japanese</i> is more specific than <i>Asian</i>. (P. 5)</p> <p>When the quote is introduced in the text the citation comes <i>after</i> the closing punctuation, the page number in parentheses, preceded by a capital “P.” or “Pp.” Note, the <i>ASA Style Guide</i> (2007) expressly allows that block quotes may be single-spaced (p. 88).</p>	

Figure 5. Quotation Styles: Text and Block Quotes.

Editing Quotations. Effective writing seeks to merge a quote into the flow of the text. The reader should not stumble over a quote. Referring to the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS 2003:secs 11.62-11.65), the ASA guide notes “ASA style uses the ‘**rigorous**’ method in which one period [in an ellipsis] signifies a true period, and any change to the original quote is indicated in brackets” (ASA 2007:26). Edit a quotation according to the following rules:

Capitalization and punctuation may be changed to merge a quote into the syntax of the text. It is necessary to indicate these changes. Examples are drawn from the paragraph above.

- If a quote begins a sentence in what is mid-sentence in the original, the first letter of the first word may be uppercased to open a sentence. The change is noted by the use of brackets. “[M]erge a quote into the syntax of the text” (Doc Scribe 2010:8).
- An introductory phrase may lead into a quote that starts with an uppercased letter in the original. This should be changed to a lowercased letter to match the syntax. For example, the effective writer understands that “[t]he reader should not stumble over a quote” (Doc Scribe 2010:8). Again, the change is noted with brackets.
- Double quotation marks may be changed to single quotation marks within a quote, and the reverse, without indicating the change.

Add Text to a Quotation. It may be helpful to add text to merge a quote with the flow and tense of your text, to add emphasis, or to clarify the original.

- Brackets are required to indicate material or emphasis added to a quote. For example: “They [the Irish Republican Army] initiated a cease fire.”
- Italics may be used to add emphasis to words or phrases within a quotation. When this is done a note must be appended to the quote in brackets *immediately after the change* [italics added] to the quotation.

Correct errors. Obvious errors in a quotation may be corrected without making a special notation. But for an unusual word choice, concept, term, or spelling it may be appropriate to emphasize that the original is being quoted faithfully by inserting the Latin term *sic* (thus), in italics in brackets immediately following the terme [*sic*].


Delete Text from a Quotation. Ellipsis points are used to indicate text omitted from a quotation. But unless clarity demands it, do not use ellipsis points to begin or end a quotation.

- Three ellipsis points (periods with a single space before, between, and after each period) indicate material has been omitted within or before a quote. For example: “The creature . . . walked like a duck” (Smith 1999:23)
- A period and three ellipsis points are used to indicate material omitted between two sentences, at the end of a sentence when the quote continues to a following sentence, or material in the original sentence is omitted.
- If the leading portions of a sentence opening a quotation, or the trailing portion of a sentence ending a quotation, is excluded the exclusion must ne noted with ellipsis points.

3.0 MECHANICS OF STYLE


The **mechanics of style** cover details commonly encountered when drafting a research paper. These are also the details knowledgeable readers are likely to note when you get them wrong. You may elect to apply your own best judgment on the more esoteric features, as long as you remember to be slavishly consistent throughout your paper.

Authority. The “ASA uses the 11th edition of *Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary* (2005) to determine correct spelling and usage. In general, writers are encouraged to use a standard dictionary when writing or preparing papers or presentations” (ASA 2007:28).

 “Although the *ASA Style Guide* occasionally refers to other style guides and dictionaries, the 15th edition of *The Chicago Manual of Style* . . . is the primary reference on which it is based. . . . *The Chicago Manual of Style* offers . . . useful resources and tools for writers on its Web site (<http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/home.html>)” (ASA 2007:xi).

3.1 ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

■ **Two cardinal rules** must be observed in the use of abbreviations: (1) always introduce acronyms with their full referent, and (2) never use scholarly abbreviations, *etc.*, *e.g.*, *i.e.*, in the text unless inside parentheses.

 “Spell out words such as ‘percent,’ ‘versus,’ and ‘chi-square’ in the text of your manuscript” (ASA 1997:14).

Acronyms/initialisms. An acronym must be introduced. This is done by placing the acronym after its referent in parentheses the first time it is used. Thereafter using just the acronym. In precise usage, an *acronym* is an abbreviation sounded like a word (e.g., NASA, NATO), while an *initialism* is sounded letter by letter (e.g., FBI, IBM).


- The American Sociological Association (ASA) publishes several journals. The ASA also publishes a newsletter.
- The CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, Georgia) monitors the nation for emerging infectious diseases. The CDC set up a new notification system after the hantavirus outbreak in 1993.
- The *American Sociological Review* also uses acronyms in references and text citations following the same rule. For example, compose the reference . . .

International Labor Organization (ILO). 1987. *World Labor Report*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Cite this reference in your text: (ILO 1987). It is not necessary to write out the full name in any citation.

Note this is common journal practice, but the *ASA Style Guide* offers no explicit instructions.

- *Beginning a sentence.* Never begin a sentence with a lowercase abbreviation. Begin a sentence with an acronym only if there is no reasonable way to rewrite it.
- *Traditional forms.* A number of traditional honorifics and initials continue to be used, such as *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.*, *A.M.*, *Inc.*, *Ltd.*, and *J. S. Bach*, *E. E. Cummings*, *C. S. Lewis*.
- *Plurals.* Write the plural form of an acronym without an apostrophe. For example, write “the Master of Business Administration (MBA) program is popular at the university because MBAs command high starting salaries.”

 “Abbreviations should be used only in contexts where they are clear to readers. . . . [They] should be used only if they occur, say, five time or more within an article. . . . Writers and editors should monitor the number of different abbreviations used in a document; readers trying to keep track of a large number of abbreviations, especially unfamiliar ones, will lose their way” (CMS 2003:558).

Scholarly abbreviations. Abbreviations such as *etc.*, *e.g.*, and *i.e.* may only be used in parenthetical comments injected into your text. For example—“various authorities support this rule (e.g., the *Chicago Manual of Style* and the *APA Publication Manual*).” They are **not** used outside parentheses; spell them out instead. For *e.g.* (*exempli gratia*) use *for example*; for *etc.* (*et cetera*) use *and so forth*, for *i.e.* (*id est*) use *that is*.

Geographical terms: places & states. “In running text, the names of states, territories, possessions, [Canadian provinces and territories, and foreign countries] should always be spelled out” (CMS 2003:566).

- *Prefixes.* Most prefixes to places, such as *Fort*, *North*, *Port*, *South*, are spelled out in the text; as are suffixes such as *Peak* or *Fork*. Write: North Platte, Fort Collins, Port Huron, South Bend, Long’s Peak.
- *Postal Abbreviations.* Use postal and other abbreviations for place names in *references and notes*. But spell out these, and other address abbreviations, in the text. Write: Martin Luther King Boulevard (not Martin Luther King Blvd.) William Bruce Randolph III Avenue (not W. B. Randolph Ave.), Monaco Parkway (not Monaco Pkwy.)
- *Adjectives.* Spell out *United States* unless used as an adjective. “U.S. currency is the medium of exchange in the United States” (ASA 2007:33). Spell out the names of states, use abbreviations only in references.

“**When in doubt**, consult an authoritative list of abbreviations or a standard dictionary.

- When writing initials, the traditional format is still preferred—put a period and a single space after each. Write: J. S. Bach, E. E. Cummings, C. S. Lewis.
- *Do not use periods* with acronyms, capital letter abbreviations, or in the abbreviations of states in postal code format (e.g., APA, MMPI, PhD, UNESCO, NY).

- A sentence should not begin with an acronym unless the alternatives are awkward in the context.
- Write the plural form of an acronym without an apostrophe. For example, write “the Master of Business Administration (MBA) program is the most popular at the university because MBAs command high salaries.”

3.2 CAPITALIZATION & SPACING

■ **Use Heading Capitalization** for the titles of books and articles, and second level headings. “[C]apitalize the first character of all words in a heading or title except prepositions (*of, into, between, through*), articles (*a, an, the*), and coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or*)” (ASA 2007:29). These are referred to as “heading caps,” in contrast to “sentence caps” where words are capitalized as in a sentence, *except* that the first word after a colon in a heading is also capitalized.

Ethnic/Racial Groups. Capitalize the names of racial and ethnic groups that represent geographical locations or linguistic populations (*Hispanic, Asian, African American, Appalachian*).

- *Do not capitalize* colors when referring to racial groups: *black, brown, red, white, yellow*.
- *Do not hyphenate* compound terms for national or ethnic groups: *African American, Anglo German*.

Regions. Capitalize regions of the United States, such as North, Midwest, West, when referring to places in the United States (and presumably elsewhere). Do not capitalize terms when referring to groups from these regions, northerners, westerners, except when referring to Northerners and Southerners during the Civil War. Do not capitalize the directions north, south, east, or west and their variants (ASA 2007:29).

3.3 COMPOUND WORDS

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

The APA *Publication Manual* (2001) offers several principles as a guide to hyphenation, abstracted below.

- **Do not use a hyphen unless it serves a purpose.** If a compound adjective cannot be misread or, as with many psychological terms, it’s meaning is established, a hyphen is not necessary. For example, health care reform, grade point average.
- In a temporary compound that is used as an adjective before a noun, use a hyphen if the term can be misread or if the term expresses a single thought. For example, does *fast sailing* ship mean the ship itself was fast, or that it made a fast passage? If the former, it is a *fast-sailing* ship (CMS 1993:203).
- Most compound adjective rules are applicable only when the compound adjective precedes the term it modifies. For example write: “client-centered counseling,” but also write “the counseling was client centered.”
- When two or more compound modifiers have a common base, this base is sometimes omitted in all but the last modifier, but the hyphens are retained. Long- and short-term memory, 2-, 3-, and 10-min trials.


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

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

- *Adjectival compound.* “The counselor suggested a *role-playing* technique to reduce the stress of encounters, but cautioned that *role playing* alone would not solve the problem.” *Role playing* is a compound adjective, but not a compound noun.
- *Add a hyphen* to any prefix attached to a proper noun, capitalized abbreviation, or number. For example, the *post-Freudian* era, the *pre-1960s* civil rights movement, the *pro-HMO* lobby.
- *Fractions.* “When . . . a fraction is considered a single quantity, it is hyphenated [whether it is used as a noun or as an adjective]. (CMS 2003:383). *One-fourth* the audience was comprised of former refugees. A *two-thirds* majority was required to pass the initiative.
- *Made-up compound.* A compound may be of the *made-up-for-the-occasion* variety: “The *up-to-date* figures were unadjusted.” But when these terms are used in the predicate they are not hyphenated: The compound word was *made up for the occasion*. “The unadjusted figures were *up to date*.”
- *Serial compounds.* When two or more compound modifiers have a common base, this base is sometimes omitted in all but the last modifier, but the hyphens are retained. Long- and short-term memory, 2-, 3-, and 10-min trials.
- Do not hyphenate a compound term using an adverb ending in *-ly*. “The *widely used* term was not yet in the dictionary. Such *clearly understood* terms are eventually documented if they endure.”
- *Do not hyphenate* compound terms for ethnic or national groups: African American, Anglo German, Middle Eastern.

Numbers. Hyphenate compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine, compounds with a number as the first element, and the written form of fractions.

- “*One-fourth* the audience was comprised of former refugees.”
- “The children were given the *three-in-one-dose* version of the vaccines. There had been a *10-fold* increase in the number of kids getting sick.”
- “A number of *12th-grade* students attended the concert. They were given *three-performance* passes by the symphony association.”
- “Thirty-five minutes into the test the participant simply walked out.”

 Write numbers 10 and above as numerals, *unless* they begin a sentence (ASA 2007:30).

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

- *Same two letters.* If the prefix puts the same two letters together, a hyphen is sometimes inserted. For example, write: anti-industrial, co-op, non-native, post-trial. But also write: cooperative, coordinate, nonnegotiable, overrate, overreach, overrule, reelect, unnamed.
- *Weird?* If the prefix creates an unfamiliar or weird term, a hyphen may improve clarity. The *Turabian Guide* offers these examples: *pro-ally, anti-college* instead of *proally, anticollege* (1976:101).

No hyphen is usually required with the following prefixes. Let clarity and a dictionary be your guide.

Prefix	Example	Prefix	Example	Prefix	Example
after	aftereffect	macro	macroeconomics	pro	prowar
ante	anteroom	meta	metastudy	pseudo	pseudoscience
anti	antifreeze	micro	microwave	re	reexamine
bi	bifocal	mid	midterm	semi	semicircle
co	cosign	mini	minivan	sub	subcontract
counter	countersign	mis	misstate	super	supermarket
extra	extraordinary	multi	multistory	supra	supranational
in	inedible	non	nonconformist	trans	transoceanic
infra	infrared	over	oversight	ultra	ultraorganized
inter	interconnect	post	postwar	un	unbiased
intra	intravenous	pre	preempt	under	underground

Hyphenate? Some prefixes, *best-, better-, ill-, lesser-, little-, well-*, are hyphenated depending on the context. These prefixes are hyphenated when they *precede* the noun they modify, but are *not* hyphenated when preceded by a modifier, or when used as a predicate adjective.

- Add a hyphen when writing: The *better-informed* reporters got the story right. The *ill-advised* attack failed. The *well-intentioned* volunteers
- *Do not add a hyphen* when the term is preceded by a modifier: *Some better informed* reporters got the story; *The very ill advised* attack failed; *The truly well intentioned* volunteers
- *Do not add a hyphen* when the term is in the predicate of the sentence: The reporters that got the story were better informed; The attack was ill advised; The volunteers were well intentioned.

The following prefixes *always* require a hyphen:

Prefix	Example	Prefix	Example	Prefix	Example
all-	all-powerful leader	great-	great-grandfather	self-	self-reliant person
ever-	ever-faithful friend	half-	half-baked plan	still-	still-active volcano
ex-	ex-president	much-	much-loved pastor		


3.4 EMPHASIS: ITALICS & QUOTATIONS MARKS

■ **Emphasize a keyword** or phrase in your text by placing it in *italics*. The next time an emphasized term or phrase is used it should be in plain text. It is generally not appropriate to place an entire sentence in italics, nor to follow a sentence with an exclamation point. There are few, if any, instances in research writing where such extensive emphasis is appropriate.

“Use italics for emphasis (but be careful to use them sparingly) and to highlight terms in specific contexts, to identify certain foreign words, and for titles of books, periodicals, movies, radio and TV show names, and other formally published material” (ASA 2007:30).

- *Words as words.* Words and letters that are referred to as words or letters are set in italics . For example, “the term *American Indian* is inclusive of over 500 ethnic communities.”

- *Foreign terms.* Non-English words or terms used in your text are set in italics. For example, "Ya-te-hay is a form of greeting in the Diné (Navajo) language." This practice excludes those words that have become incorporated in the English language, such as *laissez-faire*, or *arroyo*.

 "Good writers use italics for emphasis only as an occasional adjunct to efficient sentence structure. Overused, italics quickly lose their force. Seldom should as much as a sentence be italicized for emphasis, and never a whole passage" (CMS 2003, 290).

Emphasis in Quotations? Emphasis may be added to a word or phrase in a quotation by placing it in *italics*. When this is done the note [emphasis added] or [italics added] must be inserted in brackets immediately after the word or phrase in italics (within the quotation marks).

Quotation marks. Use quotation marks other than for quotes and references only in the following circumstances:

- Place quotation marks around a word or phrase given in a special sense or purposefully misused, as an ironic comment, as slang, or as an invented or coined expression. For example, The Population Council criticized the "outrageous" position of the Church on birth control. The *CMS* calls these "scare quotes."
- Use quotation marks to enclose a translation of a non-English term in your text. *Addis Ababa*, the name of the capital of Ethiopia, is literally translated "new flower."

3.5 NUMBERS AND DATES

■ **Numbers** one through nine are written out in the text. Numbers 10 and above, and all precise numbers, are presented as numerals. The *ASA Style Guide* is silent about zero, but it common practice to write it out as well, as in "zero-based budgeting." Please note the following exceptions:

- When numbers below 10 must be mixed with numbers above 10 in the same sentence, as "part of a pair or series of comparable quantities either spell them all or write them all as numerals" (ASA 2007:32). For example: "The students trying out for the varsity soccer team included 5 girls and 16 boys (or five girls and sixteen boys.)"
- When numbers are required to open a sentence, write them out. For example: "Sixteen boys and five girls tried out for the varsity soccer team."
- "Always use numerals with *percent*. For example: "Of the 23,823 students registered . . . only 3 percent were black" (ASA 2007:32).
- "Spell out common fractions (two-thirds majority; reduced by one half)" (ASA 2007:32).
- Numbers greater than one million are expressed as whole and decimal parts of millions, billions, and trillions. "The cost of the proposed tax cut was 82.5 billion dollars over 3 years." "Express numbers less than 1 million in numerals" (ASA 2007:32).


Full dates when written in the text or in references are written in U.S. format—month, day, year; "August 21, 2001." Other date formats follow the general rules for numbers. For example write "The window for applications was the 3rd to 23rd of August" or, "applications were accepted from the third to sixth of April."

Ordinal numbers follow the same rules. Spell out ordinals below 10, first, second, . . . ninth. Use numerals for ordinals 10 and above 10th, 43d, 99th, and so on. Exception—spell out ordinals when referring to centuries, the twentieth century. Note, ASA style no longer abbreviates second, *2d*; third, *3d*; etc.; 2nd, 3rd, etc. are preferred.

 Spell out centuries, the *eighteenth century*, the *twenty-first century*, in lower case numbers (ASA 1997:16).


Precise numbers that express exact measures, times, or quantities are always written as numerals.


Ranges of numbers. When expressing a range of numbers *in text do not use a dash*, write "to" instead. "The IQ range of the first group was 86 to 112."

 *Elide numerals.* ASA style drops unnecessary zeros, tens, hundreds, thousands, in a page range as long as the result is unambiguous and does not require a leading zero. Pages 1123–24 *not* 1123–1124, but pages 2000–2004 *not* 2000–4. Write pages 112–35 and pages 102–121, but write pages 102–108 *not* 102–8 or 102–08.

4.0 RESEARCH DOCUMENTATION

ASA journals use the author-date form of citation, also called the *parenthetical* or *name-year* system. Text citations, comprised of the author's name and the date of publication (plus page numbers for quotes), are placed in parentheses in the text.

 "The *ASA Style Guide* follows the author-date system of citation in *The Chicago Manual of Style* (2003:616–24), which includes a brief text citation (enclosed in parentheses) and a complete list of references cited" (ASA 2007:45).

 "Author-date citations in the text *must* agree exactly, in both name and date, with the corresponding entries in the reference list, and there must be an entry for every text citation" (CMS 2003:620). Conversely, every entry in the reference list, and only those entries, must be cited in the text.

4.1 TEXT CITATIONS

■ **Text Citations.** Each separate referent to a source must be cited however many times this may occur in a paper. A page number is usually cited only with a direct quotation unless the reader needs to be referred to an unusual concept or idea for possible reference or verification.

- Cite quotations as well as significant ideas, concepts, or findings borrowed or adapted from others. As a matter of style it is helpful to the reader to integrate citations into the flow of the text.
- It is not necessary to cite: (1) dictionary definitions of words unless the specific dictionary is relevant to the context; (2) well documented historical facts; (3) conventional knowledge or knowledge broadly shared in a discipline.

An introductory phrase places the author’s name in the text followed by the date, both in parentheses. For example: “Smith (2009) reached a similar conclusion.” The citation *immediately* follows the referent in the text. When citing a quotation the year follows the author, the page follows the quote: Smith (2009) observed that the feathered creature flew like a duck and quacked like a duck and concluded “it definitely was a duck” (p. 21).

If there is no introductory phrase, cite both the author and date in parentheses. For example: “Another study (Smith 2009) reached a similar conclusion.”

“**Citations in the text** give the last name of the author(s) and year of publication. Include page numbers whenever you quote directly or refer to specific passages. Cite only those works needed to provide evidence for your assertions and to guide readers to important sources on your topic” (ASR 2001:iii).

1. *No Author?* The *ASA Style Guide* is silent on citing and referencing sources with no identifiable author. Recent examples in the *American Sociological Review* substitute the *name of the publication* for the author when the source is a periodical; but the *title of the work* when the source is a book.
2. *Two Authors.* Cite both authors’ names: (Smith and Jones 2000).
3. *Three Authors.* List all three authors’ names the *first* time the source is cited in your paper (Smith, Thomas, and Alt 1996). Subsequent citations cite the lead author plus *et al.* (Smith et al. 1996).
4. *Four or More Authors.* Cite the lead author plus *et al.* in all text citations. (But ASA style requires listing *all* co-authors to a work, however many, in a reference.)

Source	Citation	Source	Citation
1 Author	(Smith 2010) (Smith 2010:123)	Chapter	(Smythe 2008, chap 2)
2 Authors	(Smith and Jones 2009)	In Press	(Smythe forthcoming)
3 Authors	(Smith, Jones, and Garcia 2009) Next Citation: (Smith et al. 2009)	Multiple: By Author Multiple: By Date	(Alt 1995; Car 1990; Smith 2000) (Car 1990; Alt 1995; Smith 2000)
4+ Authors	(Smith et al. 2008)	No Date	(Smith n.d.)
No Author	(<i>Book Title</i> 2010) / (“Article” 2010)	Reprint	(Thoreau [1854] 1979)
Corporate Author	(U.S. Census Bureau 2010)	Table	(U.S. Census Bureau 2010, table 2)

☞ When citing page numbers there is *no space* after the colon; multiple page numbers are separated by commas (Smith 2001:123, 456).

- When the author’s name is introduced in the text, follow it with the year, Smith (2000) in parentheses; if not introduced in the text, place both name and year in parentheses (Smith 2000).
- Cited pages follow the year after a colon (Smith 2000:123–26). A quotation by an author introduced in the text ends with a page citation (p. 23) or (pp. 23–26); block quotes upper case (P. 23) or (Pp. 23–26).
- Two authors with the same last name add first initials (J. Smith 1998) and (T. Smith 2000).
- Multiple citations may be listed alphabetically (Alt 1999; Baca 1998; Cole 1997), or by date (Cole 1997; Baca 1998; Alt 1999), separated by semicolons. Be consistent through the text.
- Reprints cite the original publication date in brackets (Thoreau [1854] 1979).
- Use “forthcoming” as the date for works in press; use “n.d.” for those with no date.

4.2 REFERENCE LIST

■ The *American Sociological Association Style Guide* serves journals within the association, with some variations, and is followed by journals outside the ASA such as *Rural Sociology* and *Social Forces*, again with some variations. The reference style is the name-year style featured in the *Chicago Manual of Style* (2003).

	15
References	
<p>Aldrich, Howard E. and Roger Waldinger. 1990. "Ethnicity and Entrepreneurship." <i>Annual Review of Sociology</i> 16:111–35.</p> <p>American Religion Data Archive (ARDA). 2005. "Summary Information on the Religious Congregations and Membership Data Used for Mapping and Report Features." Retrieved September 7, 2005 (http://thearda.com/arda.asp?Show=Home).</p> <p>Blanchflower, David G. and Andrew J. Oswald. 2004. "Well-Being over Time in Britain and the USA." <i>Journal of Public Economics</i> 88:1359–86.</p> <p>Cornfield, Daniel B. and Holly J. McCammon, eds. 2003. <i>Labor Revitalization: Global Perspectives and New Initiatives</i>. Amsterdam: Elsevier.</p> <p>Freeman, Richard B. 2007. "The Great Doubling: The Challenge of the New Global Labor Market." Pp. 55–65 in <i>Ending Poverty in America: How to Restore the American Dream</i>, edited by J. Edwards, M. Crain, and A. L. Kalleberg. New York: The New Press.</p> <p>Pager, Devah. 2003. "The Mark of a Criminal Record." <i>American Journal of Sociology</i> 108:937–75.</p> <p>———. 2007a. "The Use of Field Experiments for Studies of Employment Discrimination: Contributions, Critiques, and Directions for the Future." <i>Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences</i> 609:104–133.</p> <p>———. 2007b. <i>Marked: Race, Crime, and Finding Work in an Era of Mass Incarceration</i>. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.</p>	

Figure 6. Reference List with Block-Paragraph Spacing—Single-Spaced within Each Reference, Double-Spaced between References.

Basic Rules for References

- *Authors/Editors.* Give authors' full names, list all authors however many, no *et al.* in references. Give only first and middle initials for editors and translators.
- *Multiple works* by the same author list by date, the most recent last, within the same year list works *alphabetically by title* and edit the year 19XXa, 19XXb, etc. Use a *3-em dash* (or six hyphens) to reference subsequent works by the same *exact* author(s).
- *No Author.* Use the title. Do not use "Anonymous."
- *Titles.* All titles, books and articles, use heading caps. Titles of articles, papers and reports, and chapters in anthologies or edited books are placed in quotes. Underline or italicize titles of books and names of periodicals.
- *Place.* Use Two-letter postal abbreviations for all states and Canadian provinces; note the state for all places of publication except New York City. Include the name of the country other than US and Canada.
- *Date.* Full dates use the month-day-year format. If there is no given date use *N.d.*
- *Space* once after most punctuation unless followed by a comma; no space after a colon before page numbers or inside URLs.

Basic Reference Forms

<p>REFERENCES</p> <p>Author, First Middle. 1999. <u>The Title of the Book or Volume</u>. 3d. ed. Translated by.... City: Publisher.</p> <p>Last, First and First M. Name. 1999. "Title of the Article or Paper." <u>Journal Name</u> 10(5):123-129.</p> <p>Lastname, Firstname. 2010. "Article or Chapter Title." Pp. 123-36 in <u>Title of the Volume</u>. Vol. 3, <u>Title of the Collected Works or Series</u>, edited by I. M. Smart. City, ST: Publisher.</p> <p>Surname, Firstname. 1999a. "Article or Chapter Title." Pp. 123-223 in <u>Title of the Anthology or Edited Book</u>, vol. 2, edited by F. M. Editor. City: Publisher.</p> <p>-----, 1999b. "Title of the News Article." <u>Newspaper Name</u> April 1, pp. 1-2.</p> <p>Writer, First M. 2001. "Title of the Paper, Report, or Dissertation." Working Paper No./Report No./ Department, Publisher/University, City, US.</p>

4.3 ARTICLES IN JOURNALS, MAGAZINES, AND NEWSPAPERS

Annual Review

Aldrich, Howard E. and Roger Waldinger. 1990. "Ethnicity and Entrepreneurship." *Annual Review of Sociology* 16:111–35.

Articles in Research Journals

One Author

Geiger, Jeffrey. 2004. "Special Relationships: British Higher Education and the Global Marketplace." *PMLA* 119(1):58–68. (Retrieved from JSTOR on February 2, 2010).

Kamer-de, Daiga. 2009. "Part-Time Work and Activity in Voluntary Associations in Great Britain." *Sociological Research Online* 14(5). Retrieved February 4, 2010 (<http://www.socresonline.org.uk/14/5/2.html>).

Quillian, Lincoln. 2008. "Does Unconscious Racism Exist." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 71(1):6–11.

Two Authors

Bell, Joyce M. and Douglas Hartmann. 2007. "Diversity in Everyday Discourse: The Cultural Ambiguities and Consequences of 'Happy Talk.'" *American Sociological Review* 72(6):895–914.

Three Authors

McPherson, Miller, Lynn Smith-Lovin, and Matthew E. Brashears. 2006. "Social Isolation in America: Changes in Core Discussion Networks over Two Decades." *American Sociological Review* 71(3):353–75.

Four Authors

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APPENDIX. RESPECTFUL & NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

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

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

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

- The term "gender" refers to culture and should be used when referring to men and women as social groups, as in this example from the *Publication Manual*: "sexual orientation rather than gender accounted for most of the variance. Most gay men and lesbians were for it, most heterosexual men and women were against it" (APA, 2009, p. 71).
- The term "sex" refers to biology and should be used when biological distinctions are emphasized, for example, "sex differences in hormone production."


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

- **Color.** Capitalize *Black* and *White* when the words are used as proper nouns to refer to social groups. Do not use color words for other ethnic groups. In racial references, the manual simply recommends that we respect current usage. Currently both the terms "Black" and "African American" are widely accepted, while "Negro" and "Afro-American" are not. These things change, so use common sense.
- **Hispanic.** The terms *Hispanic*, *Latino*, and *Chicano* are preferred by different groups. The safest procedure is use geographical references; use "Cuban American" if referring to people from Cuba.
- **Asian.** The term *Asian American* is preferable to *Oriental*, and again the manual recommends being specific about country of origin, when this is known (for example, Chinese or Vietnamese). The manual specifies that hyphens should not be used in multiword names such as Asian American or African American.
- **Indigenous.** Some people from northern Canada, Alaska, eastern Siberia, and Greenland often (but not always!) prefer *Inuk* (singular) and *Inuit* (plural) to "Eskimo." But some Alaska natives are non-Inuit people who prefer to be called Eskimo, while others are Athabaskans of an entirely different heritage. Difficulty may be avoided by using geographical references. For example, in place of "Eskimo" or "Inuit" one could use "indigenous people from northern Canada, northern Alaska, eastern Siberia, and Greenland."

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

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

DO NOT use . . .	When you can use . . .
ethnic labels (e.g., Hispanic)	geographical labels (e.g., Mexican Americans if from Mexico)
"men" (referring to all adults)	"men and women"
"homosexuals"	"gay men and lesbians"
"depressives"	"people with depression"

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