PREFACE

YOU’RE HIRED!

A Message from the 2005 College of Business and Economics Advisory Council
(An external advisory group composed of business and community leaders)

Congratulations on your decision to pursue your educational dreams at Boise State University's College of Business and Economics. As you progress toward your degree, you will have many opportunities to distinguish yourself through your efforts in the classroom. One of the most important skills to develop during your academic career is the ability to express your thoughts and ideas in an organized, compelling manner in writing.

You’re hired! Since 1999, communications skills—both written and oral—have topped employers’ “wish lists” for job candidates. However, as Job Outlook 2005 points out, “Ironically, the number one skill that employers say they want candidates to have—communications skills—is the very skill they most often say candidates lack” (NACE Research, 2004, p. 16).

Strong written communication skills are a vital component to a successful business career. Without the ability to express your thoughts and ideas clearly and concisely in written form, you may compromise your chances for advancement to higher levels of management.

So study hard, have fun, and remember to work on improving your writing skills—your efforts will pay dividends throughout your life.

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INTRODUCTION

The goal of the College of Business & Economics (COBE) Writing Styles Guide is to present a standardized tool to help all COBE students become skilled writers. Skilled writers effectively consider context, audience, purpose, tone, style and form, and understand the process of writing. With guidance, practice, and constructive critiques, all students can improve and master effective writing skills.

This handbook is not all-inclusive of the intricacies of English grammar and composition. Many of the components of this handbook were compiled as a result of the annual outcomes assessment project and feedback from our business community about what they see as shortcomings in Boise State University (BSU) graduates. Thus, we have concentrated on the areas that will most benefit our graduates in successfully integrating into the workforce. This handbook follows the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) 2001, fifth edition, the accepted convention for business courses. The APA manual is available for reference at Albertsons Library and the Writing Center. It can be purchased at the BSU Bookstore.

As BSU Technical Writing professor Mike Markel (1999, p. 19-21) shares with us:

[Business people] are writers, whether they want to be and whether they are trained to be. Every important idea, proposal, or project has to be described in words and graphics. Most of the time, however, writing is not merely a thing, an artifact at the end of some process. It is the process itself, the means by which people work in an organization. Writing is the way people create their ideas, test them, and communicate them to other people.

With this handbook, we acknowledge that writing is an integral part of all of our disciplines. Additionally, there are different types of writing, for different audiences, and for different purposes. Whether writing a business memo, a short report, a case analysis, or a longer research document, the process and formats will differ. Please note these differences as you work through this guide.

For business courses, this guide will provide a standard for the form and style of writing. These are guidelines that you can apply from class to class as you prepare reports, presentations and other communications. It is important to note, however, that all standards have exceptions. Instructions from the instructor regarding a specific assignment or class will always take precedence.

-- Writing Style Task Force

September, 2004
GUIDELINES FOR WRITING

The Three-Step Writing Process: Plan, Draft, Revise!

Writing is a process. It can be improved by experience and technique. This section provides some best practice techniques to improve your writing. These tips are organized around each of the three basic steps you will follow to develop any kind of document: 1) plan, 2) draft, and 3) revise. These steps comprise an iterative process, building to the final document.

Step 1: Planning

Many writers like to get started right away. Stop! Don’t start writing. Start thinking about what you are trying to do. A good portion of the total time you devote to the document—perhaps a quarter or a third—should be devoted to thinking about the direction the document should take. Here are six suggestions for planning the document:

1. **Analyze your audience.** Think about who they are, what they already know about the topic, what they already think about it, how they are going to read the document, and so forth. Your audience always includes your professor. Pay close attention to all guidelines and recommendations he or she provides.

2. **Analyze your purpose.** Consider two types of purposes: 1) what the project is intended to accomplish, and 2) what the document is intended to accomplish.

3. **Conduct your research and gather materials.** Use the library, online databases, professional magazines and journals. Write down, right away, the full reference for any useful source you find to include in your List of References.

4. **Figure out what you’re going to say before you start making sentences and paragraphs.** Brainstorm the topic, listing or outlining, as quickly as you can, ideas that might belong in the document. By ideas we mean mere phrases. Don’t censor yourself—just write it down. Organize your ideas around a central theme, and state it early in the document; support and analyze throughout, and recap how the central theme has been addressed again in the conclusion section.

5. **Arrange the material.** Group related material by linking related topics in your brainstormed list, and determine the best sequence based on your audience and purpose. Now, compose an outline for these sequenced topics.

6. **Run it past someone else.** Finally, check your plan against the assignment instructions, and perhaps even your instructor. Are you addressing all the questions? Are you accomplishing the “spirit” or intent of the assignment? Be sure to make the effort to incorporate specific suggestions or guidance in your final document.

Step 2: Drafting

Write the first draft quickly to capture the general idea of the points you are trying to get across. Support those ideas and points with properly cited evidence, examples, or data. Leave the polishing until later.

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There are two main reasons to draft quickly. The first is to stay focused on the big picture. Second, the sentences will mesh better, the rhythms will be more conversational, and your word choice will be more natural. You will have less editing to do later.

How do you draft quickly? Here are three suggestions:

- **Draft for a certain period of time, without stopping.** About an hour or two is the longest most people can stand.
- **Don’t start at the beginning.** Instead, begin with a section you know well, and draft it quickly. Move your cursor around from spot to spot on the outline.
- **Use abbreviations.** Later, use search and replace. If you are writing about potentiometers, instead type something like p*. In the final document, be sure that abbreviations are clarified, as well as acronyms. Show the complete terminology in parentheses for the first use with the acronym or abbreviation you will use going forward.

**Step 3: Revising**

It is a mistake to think that you can read the draft once and do a thorough job revising. To revise effectively, you have to budget a lot of time—maybe a third of the total time you devote to the document.

Here are some suggestions to make your revising more effective.

- **Let it sit.** At least overnight.
- **Get help.** If possible, have someone read through the draft, then talk to that person about it. The campus Writing Center is an excellent resource available for you to use.
- **Look for different kinds of problems as you revise.** Go through the document several times. Start with the bigger issues.
- **Revise sentences.** Try to write sentences so that the subject – the object, person or idea that you are talking about – comes at the start and the main action is in a clear, simple verb.
- **Read for content.** Ensure that your ideas flow logically, and that conclusions or analyses are supported by specific examples.
- **Be careful with style and spell checkers.** They are no substitute for your reading and comprehending each word and sentence.
An ‘A’ versus a ‘C’ Paper

As you are reading and rereading your paper during revision, there are a few things to check that tend to separate the ‘A’ from the ‘C’ grades:

- **Use headings.**
- **Use bulleted and numbered lists appropriately.**
- **Create topic sentences for paragraphs.**
- **Create focused paragraphs.**
- **Choose the simplest and most common word.** Instead of writing “It is necessary that state-of-the-art communication modalities be utilized,” write, “We need to use state-of-the-art communication tools.”
- **Avoid words that do not add meaning.** For example, instead of writing “It should be noted that caffeine is a stimulant,” write, “Caffeine is a stimulant.”
Grammar Fundamentals

“If you put a jewel of an idea in a brown paper bag, to others you have a brown paper bag.” (Source unknown)

As the quotation above demonstrates, tremendous ideas in a “grammatically-challenged” paper will look to the reader like a poorly-written paper. This section is based upon a poll of your readers—the business faculty here at BSU. This section talks about what they see as the top ten grammatical mistakes made by students. Paying attention to a few simple rules could go a long way to helping you show off that jewel of an idea!

The COBE Top Ten Grammar Mistakes

1. Using commas incorrectly.
2. Using colons incorrectly.
5. Using incomplete sentences.
6. Using pronouns that do not agree with their nouns.
7. Using verbs that do not agree with their nouns.
8. Using nonparallel structure especially when listing bullets in papers or on presentation slides.
9. Misusing common words like “its” and “it’s.”
10. Failing to use spell check and proofread assignments or relying solely on spell check and missing errors such as “form” being mistyped for “from.”

Rules

Use of the rules on the following pages may help reduce or eliminate the COBE Top Ten Grammar Mistakes. The rules below are adopted from the American Psychological Association Publication Manual (APA, 2001) or compiled by BSU faculty.
### Table 1

**Commas**  
(APA 2001, sect. 3.02)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After an introductory word or phrase</td>
<td>At noon, we will begin the meeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After a dependent clause to separate it from an independent clause</td>
<td>If he finishes the class, he will graduate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| To separate parts of a list (can be words, phrases, or clauses)    | For the picnic, we need paper plates, forks, spoons, knives, and napkins.  
Your job is to write the report, proof it, and deliver it to the president. |
| Before a coordinating conjunction (and, but, for, or, nor) in a compound sentence | He is lecturing, and she is sleeping.                                   |
| To separate reversible adjectives                                 | Look for the large, white house.                                        |
|                                                                    | Look for the white, large house.                                        |
| Between a name and a title when the name appears before the title  | John Smith, President                                                   |
|                                                                    | No comma needed for: President John Smith                               |
| *Always* put the comma or period inside a quotation mark. (This is the U.S. style and differs from other countries.) | The ad says that this product is the “real McCoy.”                      |

### Table 2

**Colons**  
(APA 2001, sect. 3.04)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Before any vertical list of items                                   | He has all the gear he needs:  
• binoculars  
• sun screen  
• camera | Give this memo to:  
• John  
• Peter  
• Mary |
| Before a horizontal list only if the colon follows a noun or complete thought | He has all the gear he needs: binoculars, sunscreen, mosquito repellant, and a camera. |
| Do not use a colon when a *horizontal* list follows a verb or a preposition | The new members are Bob, Carol, Ted, and Alice.  
We need to send this memo to George, Fred, and Karen. |
Table 3  
**Semicolons**  
(APA 2001, sect. 3.03)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To link two independent clauses which are not connected by a conjunction</td>
<td>Brad likes classical music; Susan likes country music.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To link two independent clauses which are connected by a conjunctive adverb</td>
<td>He was late; therefore, we assume he overslept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To separate items in a list when the items contain commas</td>
<td>The people attending the meeting were Joe Blow, president; Jane Doe, vice president; and Jack Pratt, secretary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before a conjunction that joins two clauses when one of the clauses contains a comma</td>
<td>He took algebra, calculus, and physics; but he was not prepared for such a challenging job.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4  
**Apostrophes**  
Compiled by BSU Faculty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicates possession</td>
<td>John’s assignment, witnesses’ testimonies, men’s sports, actress’s role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicates omission of letters in a contraction</td>
<td>it’s, didn’t, can’t, o’clock (of the clock)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally, apostrophes are not used for years unless possessive</td>
<td>John was nostalgic about the 1960s. We remember the 1960’s turmoil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s, its</td>
<td>It’s time to leave. The dog wagged its tail.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Hint: possessive pronouns don’t have apostrophes — theirs, ours, hers, his, yours, its, whose.*
Table 5
Complete vs. Incomplete Sentences
Compiled by BSU Faculty

Sentences are clauses, but not all clauses are sentences.

Clauses: Groups of words that contain both a subject and a verb.

Independent Clause: a clause that can stand alone as a sentence. Example: *She was tired.*

Dependent Clause (Cliff hangers): A clause which must rely on other words for its meaning.
Example: *Because she worked on the report all night.* This example leaves us hanging: what happened because she worked on the report all night?

Dependent clauses contain words which indicate a condition such as *because, when, by, for, since, although, before, which, after, unless, though ...*

To make a dependent clause a complete sentence, add the results of the condition. Example: *Because she worked on the report all night, she was tired.*

Table 6
Pronouns
(APA, 2001, sec. 2.08)

If a sentence starts out singular, it should stay singular. (If it starts out plural, it should stay plural.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A student should take care that <strong>their</strong> paper uses good grammar.</td>
<td>Students should take care that <strong>their</strong> papers use good grammar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A student should take care that <strong>his or her</strong> paper uses good grammar.</td>
<td>The company paid <strong>its</strong> stockholders a dividend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What do you do with singular words that include both genders?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Possible solution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’d like everyone to take <strong>their</strong> seats.</td>
<td>I’d like <strong>everyone</strong> to take <strong>his or her</strong> seat. (singular)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like the <strong>committee members</strong> to take <strong>their</strong> seats. (plural)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like you to take <strong>your</strong> seats. (plural, 2nd person)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 6
**Pronouns (continued)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you handle subjective versus objective pronouns?</th>
<th>Joe and he are going to the ball game.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I, you, he, she, it, we, and they</strong> are subjective and generally appear at the beginning of a sentence.</td>
<td>Joe and he are going to the ball game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To test whether to use ‘he’ or ‘him,’ delete ‘Joe’ from the sentence.</td>
<td>He is going to the ball game. Versus Joe and he are going to the ball game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Me, you, him, her, it, us, them</strong> are objective and generally appear at the end of a sentence.</td>
<td>He gave the gift to Sarah and me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To test whether to use ‘me’ or ‘I,’ delete ‘Sarah’ from the sentence.</td>
<td>He gave the gift to me. Versus He gave the gift to Sarah and me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7
**Noun/Verb Agreement**

(APA. 2001, sec. 2.07)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General rule: use singular verbs with singular subjects and plural verbs with plural subjects. Below are situations that can cause confusion.</th>
<th>John and Susan are in the office. The CEO and the stockholders agree.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use a plural verb when two subjects are joined with an ‘and.’</td>
<td>John and Susan are in the office. The CEO and the stockholders agree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a singular verb with these words: each, every, another, either, neither, one, anybody, anyone, everybody, everyone, nobody, nothing.</td>
<td>Neither applicant is qualified. Each member is qualified to vote.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the words listed above are followed by a prepositional phrase, use a singular verb.</td>
<td>Each of the subjects is relevant. Another of the members wants to resign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the phrase contains who, which, or that and a plural noun, use a plural verb.</td>
<td>He is one of those people who are talkative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use plural verbs with these words: both, few, many, others, and several.</td>
<td>Both players were kicked out of the game. Several students were seen at the event</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7

**Noun/Verb Agreement** (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If a fraction refers to a single unit, use a singular verb.</td>
<td>Two-thirds of the committee resigned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a fraction refers to more than one unit, use a plural verb.</td>
<td>Half of the profits are from yesterday’s sales.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If <em>any, all, some, most, more, none</em> modify a single noun, use a single verb</td>
<td>Any employee is eligible to apply for the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If <em>any, all, some, most, more, none</em> modify a plural noun, use a plural verb</td>
<td>Any of the employees are eligible.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8

**Using Parallel Structure**  
(See also APA, 2001, sec. 2.11)

Most problems arise when trying to construct a list. Keep the grammar structure similar for each item. Items can be nouns, verbs, phrases, or clauses.

**Nonparallel example:**  
For the office, Jenny has requested:  
- a case of pencils  
- four toner cartridges  
- the office needs a new rug

Two items are nouns (a case of pencils and four toner cartridges). The third item is a clause. To make this list parallel, items should be either all nouns or all clauses.

**Parallel example:**  
For the office, Jenny has requested:  
- a case of pencils  
- four toner cartridges  
- a rug

**Nonparallel:** Steve is intelligent, resourceful, and has an outgoing personality.

Look at each element in the list of Steve's attributes: *intelligent* (an adjective), *resourceful* (an adjective), *has an outgoing personality* (a verb phrase).

**Parallel:** Steve is intelligent, resourceful, and **outgoing**.

Now all elements of the list are adjectives.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 9: Commonly Misused Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compiled by BSU Faculty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accept, except</th>
<th>Please accept this gift as our thanks. Everyone except Jane knows the password.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accept: to receive</td>
<td>Everyone except Jane knows the password.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>except: related to exception</td>
<td>Please accept this gift as our thanks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affect, effect</th>
<th>The long commute affected his disposition. Psychologists continue to study the strong affects often associated with weapons. Their decision will have no effect on us. The demonstrators hope to effect social change.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>affect (verb): to do something to</td>
<td>The long commute affected his disposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affect (noun): feeling or emotion</td>
<td>Psychologists continue to study the strong affects often associated with weapons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effect (noun): result</td>
<td>Their decision will have no effect on us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effect (verb): cause</td>
<td>The demonstrators hope to effect social change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount, number</th>
<th>He had a large amount of cash in his pocket. A number of applicants are waiting in the hall.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amount: can’t be counted, can be added</td>
<td>He had a large amount of cash in his pocket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number: can be counted.</td>
<td>A number of applicants are waiting in the hall.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between, among</th>
<th>The disagreement was between John and Fred. Disagreement arose among five of the panelists.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>between: when 2 are involved</td>
<td>The disagreement was between John and Fred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>among: when more than 2 are involved</td>
<td>Disagreement arose among five of the panelists.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capitol, capital</th>
<th>The capitol building is in Boise. You need capital to invest. Do not use all capital letters. He committed a capital offense. Boise is the capital of Idaho</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capitol: name of a building</td>
<td>The capitol building is in Boise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capital: all other uses</td>
<td>You need capital to invest. Do not use all capital letters. He committed a capital offense. Boise is the capital of Idaho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliment, complement</th>
<th>The ticket was complimentary. That was quite a compliment he paid you. That tie complements your jacket.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>compliment: praise, free</td>
<td>The ticket was complimentary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complement: go with or complete</td>
<td>That was quite a compliment he paid you. That tie complements your jacket.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do, due</th>
<th>Don’t just stand there, do something. We were late due to the heavy traffic. Your assignment is due tomorrow.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do: an action</td>
<td>Don’t just stand there, do something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due: why something happens</td>
<td>We were late due to the heavy traffic. Your assignment is due tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due: when something must occur</td>
<td>Don’t just stand there, do something. We were late due to the heavy traffic. Your assignment is due tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Table 9
Commonly Misused Words (continued) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moral, morale</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moral: ethics, correct behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morale: spirit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The country needs more moral people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We need to increase department morale.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Principal, principle</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>principal: person in charge of a school or main part of something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>principle: basic truth or belief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was called into the principal’s office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He met the principal criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A mortgage includes principal and interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal’s principal principle is “get to school!”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>There, their, they’re</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there: place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their: possessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they’re: they are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Who’s, whose</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who’s: who is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whose: possessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We eat there every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We saw their performance on Saturday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They’re calling us tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who’s going to cover the next shift?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose turn is it next?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GUIDELINES FOR REPORTS

Core Sections of a Report

The information below serves as a basic guideline. However, your instructor may have additional or different formatting requirements to add to or replace these. For more information see APA, 2001, sections 1.06-1.15.

Core sections of a report include:

- Title page: The title page often includes a descriptive title (not just “Report”), author’s name, class and section numbers, and date of submission. Check with the instructor for particular format or information required.
- Table of Contents*
- List of Illustrations*
- Executive Summary*
- Introduction
- Body (e.g., method, findings, research, results)
- Conclusions
- References: This list includes only the sources cited in the text. If you want to include other, non-cited sources, then call this section Bibliography.
- Appendices

* On shorter reports--under five pages--these parts might not be required.

A sample research paper is available online at: http://cobe.boisestate.edu under the “Writing Style Guide” link.

Major Formatting Elements

There are several options for formats. Some are listed here; see your instructor for his/her preference.

Font

Most Common Times New Roman 12-point font

Line Spacing

Most Common Double-space text
Alternative Single-space text
Margins

Most common
One-inch margins all around

Alternative
If the report is to be enclosed in a binder

Increase the left side margin to 1½ or 2 inches so that the tight binding will not make it difficult to read

Paragraph Format

Most Common
Indent paragraphs one-half inch

Alternative
Insert a blank line between paragraphs, and then do not indent the paragraphs

Page Numbers

APA Style
Use Arabic numerals in the upper right hand corner with a running head (the first two or three words of the report) above or five spaces to the left of the page number

Common
Use Arabic numerals, starting with the first page, centering the number in the page footer, about one-half inch from the bottom of the page

Alternative
Number the prefatory pages (Table of contents, Preface, etc.) with lower case Roman numerals centered in the page footer about one-half inch from the bottom of the page

Headings

Most Common
Use section headings with appropriate heading levels. A typical section will be from one to three or four paragraphs in length. Thus, on a double-spaced manuscript, one or two section headings will appear on each page.

Headings must be consistent in format and parallel in grammatical structure

The APA style offers five levels of headings (APA, 2001, sect. 3.30). Most papers will only require two or three levels of headings. Table 10 illustrates one sample Headings format.
### Table 10  
**Sample Heading Format**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heading Uses</th>
<th>Heading Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use for the main title</td>
<td>CENTERED UPPERCASE HEADING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use to divide the major sections of the report</td>
<td><em>Centered, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use for subheadings within the major sections of</td>
<td><em>Flush Left, Non-Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the report</td>
<td><em>Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading ending with a period. Text follows on same line.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use headings to clarify for your readers the organization and structure of the parts of the report. In this respect, headings resemble an outline of the report.

**REPORT TITLE**

*Introduction*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Descriptive Title for Section 1*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Descriptive Title for Sub-Section 1.1*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Descriptive Title for Sub-Section 2.1*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Descriptive Title for Sub-Section 2.1.a [NOT ITALICS]*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Descriptive Title for Sub-Section 2.2*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*Conclusion*

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit.

*References*
Report Style

Reports generally employ a more formal, professional style than do many letters, memos, or e-mails. The formal, professional style adds power to the report by emphasizing analysis and facts.

To accomplish a formal, professional style:

- **Avoid informal words and phrases.** Such words and phrases include jargon, colloquial expressions, contractions, slang, and casual language.
- **Use the active voice whenever possible and appropriate.**
- **Explain abbreviations and acronyms at their first appearance.**
- **Avoid using personal pronouns, especially first person pronouns (I, me, we, our) and second person pronouns (you).**
- **Avoid using excessive adverbs and adjectives.**

Table 11 presents two comparative samples of the formal, professional and informal styles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal Style</th>
<th>Informal Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This report will detail the advantages the company will see from the</td>
<td>In this report, I’ll explain the significant advantages that we can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implementation of certain management reforms. These reforms will not</td>
<td>accomplish by ramping up a couple of management reforms. These reforms won’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversely affect current policies and procedures.</td>
<td>require us to make major changes in the way we currently operate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The authors of this report suggest that the firm narrow its marketing</td>
<td>We think that you shouldn’t have your marketing program be all over the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Executive Summary

Most professional business reports use an executive summary rather than an abstract or introduction. The executive summary has the advantage that it can be skimmed very quickly by a busy manager to get the critical information.

The differences between an executive summary, an abstract, and an introduction can be described as follows:

- **An executive summary** is a brief overview of a report designed to give readers a quick restatement of the report’s main points. The reader or audience is usually someone who makes funding, personnel, or policy decisions and needs information quickly and efficiently. The purpose of the executive summary is to consolidate the principal points of a document in one place. Using the summary, the audience should understand the main points you are making and your evidence for those points without having to read every part of your report in full.

- **An abstract** is a brief, comprehensive summary of the contents of an article; it allows readers to survey the contents of an article quickly. It is typically a highly condensed overview of 250 words or less.

- **Introductions** differ from executive summaries in that they present the specific problem under study and essential background information needed to better understand the detailed information to follow. They announce the purpose, why the topic is important, scope of coverage, and methodology used. However, an introduction usually does not say what the actual conclusions are or what evidence is used to reach those conclusions.

Guidelines for Writing Executive Summaries

An effective executive summary will be able to stand alone, because decisions may be made based upon the strength of the executive summary alone. Thus, the summary must capture the essential meaning of the full report.

Other things to keep in mind include:

- **Do not introduce new information** that is not in the report.

- **Write the executive summary last**, after you have completed the report and decided on your recommendations.

- **Make the length of the summary proportional to the full report it summarizes**, typically 10-15 percent. Most executive summaries are one to two pages.

- **Write the summary at the lowest level of technicality**, translating specialized terms and complex data into plain English.

- **Avoid personal comments** such as “this report was very interesting” or “the author seems to think that….”

- **Organize the summary according to the sequence of information presented** in the full report.

- **End the summary with a one- or two-line recommendation for action** along with the justification for the proposed action using terms the audience will consider important.
The best strategy for writing the executive summary is to organize it according to the sequence of information presented in the full report. Look at first and last sentences of paragraphs to begin to outline your summary. Find key words and use those words to organize a draft of your summary; look for words that enumerate (first, next, finally); words that express causation (therefore, consequently); words that signal essentials (basically, central, leading, principal, major) and contrast (however, similarly, more than, less likely).

Figure 1 presents the following example of an executive summary from the Colorado State University online Writing Studio.

---

**EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Susie's Cookies began as a small business in Cleveland, Ohio, which has expanded to include 45 stores throughout the Midwest. Plans have already been instituted to expand sales nationwide, using the same "mall-concept" marketing strategy, which has proven successful in the Midwest. Despite these plans, Susie's Cookies may be in danger of bankruptcy.

**Advertising Costs**

Susie's quadrupled its sales in the last two quarters, realizing a profit of $750,000 in the current year, an increase of $250,000 over the previous year, due to its increase in advertising. To realize equivalent sale figures nationwide, however, it is projected that advertising costs will increase by 200% for the first two years of the national expansions.

**Expansion Costs**

Further, construction costs for the new stores are estimated to be 20 million dollars. The result of increased advertising and construction costs will put a substantial debt burden on Susie's cookies, an estimated $750,000 to 1 million a year. Given that sales did not reach current levels in the Midwest until the 45 stores had been operating for five years, projected sales nationally will not cover expansion costs. As a result, Susie's Cookies is likely to show a loss of almost $2 million for at least the next five years.

**Recommendation**

Due to the high advertisement and development costs of national expansion, Susie's Cookies may not be able to continue doing business in the future. Therefore, we recommend that Mrs. Field's does not participate in the hostile takeover under consideration because the threat of competition will not be realized.

---

*Figure 1. Sample Executive Summary.*

*Note: From Colorado State University*
Tables, Figures, and Equations

A report can be enhanced significantly by the use of appropriate tables and figures. Use them to summarize or group data or information that is further discussed in the paragraphs immediately before and after.

Tables show data in rows and columns. Figures include graphs, charts, drawings, pictures and illustrations. Tables and figures are used to make it easier to interpret the information contained in them.

Some general rules for all tables, figures and equations:

- Identify each element of the figure or table and make sure the units of measurement are identified (e.g., dollars, euros, units, pounds, percentages, etc.).
- When the data or information is taken from other sources, you MUST include an appropriate citation. (See “Citations and References,” p. 34.)
- Try not to split tables and figures across pages.
- Add notes below the table or figure to explain the contents. Any symbol, acronym or abbreviation should be defined if not widely used; general notes or footnotes in a table or figure are labeled “a,” “b,” and “c.”

The table or figure should be closely integrated into the text or body of the report. Here are some things to remember to make that integration clear for the reader:

- Always mention and discuss the table or figure in the text.
- Place the table or figure close to where it is first mentioned in the text, or on separate pages at the end of the document if they are extensive.
- Capitalize the word Table 1 or Figure 1 in the text when referring to it. Refrain from using “the table below,” or “the table on page 17.”
- Use the same font as used in the paper.
Tables

Keep your tables as simple as possible.

- Keep all comparable tables in the document consistent in presentation.
- Make sure each row or column in the table has a heading.
- Number each table sequentially throughout the document.
- Add a brief explanatory title underneath or to the right of the table number.

Tables Containing Numbers or Statistics

- Do not change the number of significant digits or units of measurement within a column.
- If a number is less than 1, place a 0 before the decimal unless the number cannot be greater than 1, such as a coefficient of correlation or coefficient of determination.
- Single-space text or numbers within a table, regardless of whether the report overall is single- or double-spaced. (Follow your instructor’s directions.)
- Identify all probability level values with asterisks attached to the appropriate table entries. Use the same number of asterisks for a given probability level in all tables in the same report. Generally, the largest probability receives the fewest asterisks.
- Put the notes in the following order: general note, specific note, and probability note.

See APA, 2001, sections 3.62-3.74 for more on tables.

Tables 12 – 14 offer examples of numerical tables.

Table 12
Sample Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>GDP$^a$</th>
<th>National Income$^b$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>$400</td>
<td>$300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>$600</td>
<td>$400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>$700</td>
<td>$650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Millions  
$^b$ Millions

Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.

This example used the Table Autoformat feature in Word. This is “Simple 1” format in APA style.
Table 13
Sample Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 1 Header</th>
<th>Col. 2</th>
<th>Col. 3</th>
<th>Col. 4</th>
<th>Col. 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Row 1</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row 2</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Explanatory note
b Explanatory note

Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.

Table 14
Sample Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 1 Header</th>
<th>Col. 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Row 1</td>
<td>Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row 2</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Explanatory note
b Explanatory note

Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.

Word Tables
Many tables simply contain text. There are few formatting rule for these. The main thing is for the table to be clear and easily understood. The basic rules about tables still apply, such as keeping a consistent font, sequentially numbering the tables, providing a descriptive title, and referring to the table in the text of the report. Table 15 offers an example of a word table.

Table 15.
Sample Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heading Uses</th>
<th>Heading Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use for the main title</td>
<td>CENTERED UPPERCASE HEADING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use to divide the major sections of</td>
<td>Centered, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the report</td>
<td>Heading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figures
Figures include graphs, charts, maps, drawings, illustrations, or photographs. A good figure can greatly improve the reader’s understanding of a concept. Make sure that your figures (APA, 2001, p. 177):

- convey essential facts;
- omit details that are not relevant to the point you are making;
- are easy to read, understand;
- are prepared in the same style as other figures in the same article; that is, the lettering is of the same size and typeface, lines are of the same weight and so forth;
- are sequentially numbered with an explanatory title placed consistently either above or below the figure; and
- have clearly labeled axes and elements.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 provide examples of how to format different types of figures.

Figure 2. Least Cost Solution for Cobb Douglas Production Function.

Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.
Quarterly Report for East, West, and North Regions

Figure 3. Sample Chart
Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.

Boise State University Logos

Figure 4. Sample Graphic
Note: From “Article Title”/Book Title, by Author, Publication Date, Journal Title, Vol. #, p. #/Book Place of Publication: Publisher.
Equations

Place short, simple equations in the line of text.

- To display an equation, place it on a separate line, indented, with extra space above and below. If the equation does not fit on a single line, separate it before an operational or relational symbol. There is no need to use punctuation at the end of an equation.
- Insert a space on either side of the operators +, -, = except in subscripts or superscripts.
- Number all equations sequentially, (1), (2), etc., and enclosed in parentheses. The number should be placed on the same line as the equation near the right margin of the page.

\[
\max \ E_t \sum_{s=t}^{\infty} \sum_{i} u(c_{is}, z_{is}) \tag{1}
\]

\[
p_s \sum_{i} c_{is} + a_s = \pi_s + w_s(z_s) \tag{2}
\]

For more on equations see APA, 2001, sections 3.56-3.61.
Recognizing and Avoiding Plagiarism

It is good to use ideas and information from others to support and strengthen your arguments or analyses. That is what research is all about—finding out what is already known, assembling it in a new way with other ideas, and then adding your own new insights. Knowledge is a pyramid that many people build over time, building upon the ideas of one another. If we did not borrow and build on one another’s ideas, science would never advance nor would a company. On the other hand, don’t overuse the work of others. We are interested in how you view the topic, as supported by others. Your paper should be more than a collection of quotes and paraphrases.

It is as important to identify or cite the source for information you use as it is to use the information. There are a few reasons to cite your sources.

- For the reader, the source lends credibility—how credible depends on the strength of the source. Thus the citation allows the reader to evaluate the quality of information you are using to build your arguments. It also allows the reader to look up the original works to learn more.
- For the authors, it is giving credit for the work they have done—or their “intellectual property.”
- For you, it is honesty. Information has value like money—if you take someone’s money without permission, it is called theft. It is called “plagiarism” when you steal or use someone else’s ideas—using another’s ideas or words without acknowledging them. Penalties for stealing someone’s ideas, on purpose or by accident, are failing the assignment or course, or dismissal from the university. We take it seriously!

This section will help you recognize when you have committed plagiarism in your writing. It also includes some ways to avoid plagiarism. Finally, there are some concrete examples of plagiarized and non-plagiarized writing to help you.

Defining Plagiarism

Plagiarism is using someone else’s ideas or phrasing and representing those ideas or phrasing as our own, either on purpose or through carelessness.

- Ideas or phrasing includes written, spoken, or electronic material—from whole papers and paragraphs to sentences, and, indeed, phrases—but it also includes statistics, lab results, and artwork.
- Someone else can mean a professional source, such as a published writer or critic in a book, magazine, encyclopedia, or journal; an electronic resource such as material we discover on the World Wide Web; another student at our school or anywhere else; or a paper-writing “service” (online or otherwise) which offers to sell written papers.
Recognizing Plagiarism

Figure 5 illustrates plagiaristic actions arrayed from deliberate, on the left side, to possibly accidental, on the right. You should understand, however, that plagiarism is plagiarism whether it is deliberate or accidental.

**Actions that might be seen as plagiarism**

- Buying, stealing, or borrowing a paper
- Using the source too closely when paraphrasing
- Hiring someone to write your paper
- Building on someone’s ideas without citation
- Copying from another source without citing (on purpose or by accident)

**Figure 5.** Actions that might be seen as plagiarism.


Avoiding Plagiarizing

The heart of avoiding plagiarism is to make sure you give credit where it is due. This may be credit for something somebody said, wrote, e-mailed, drew, or implied. Table 16 clearly separates when you need to cite the source of some information, and when you do not. Table 17 suggests actions you can take during your researching and writing processes to avoid plagiarism. Please remember: even if it’s an accident, it’s still plagiarizing!
### Table 16

**Choosing When to Cite the Source**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need to Cite Source</th>
<th>Do Not Need to Cite Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• When you use or refer to someone else’s words or ideas from a magazine, book,</td>
<td>• When you are writing your own experiences, your own observations, insights, thoughts,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>newspaper, Web page, computer program, or any other medium.</td>
<td>or conclusions about a subject, or experimental results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When you use information gained through interviewing another person.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When you copy the exact words or a unique phrase from somewhere. <strong>In this instance, use quotation marks in addition to the citation.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When you reprint any diagrams, illustrations, charts, and pictures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When you use ideas that others have given you in conversations or over e-mail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: From “Avoiding Plagiarism” (1995-2002)*

### Table 17

**Making Sure You Are Safe**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action during the writing process</th>
<th>Appearance on the finished product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>When researching, note-taking, and interviewing</strong></td>
<td>Proofread and check with your notes (or photocopies of sources) to make sure that <em>anything</em> taken from your notes is acknowledged in some combination of the following ways: In-text citation, quotation marks, footnotes, indirect quotations, and bibliography.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mark everything that is someone else’s words with a big Q (for quote) or with big quotation marks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Indicate in your notes which ideas are taken from sources (S) and which are your own insights (ME).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Record all of the relevant documentation information, including page numbers, in your notes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 17
**Making Sure You Are Safe** (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action during the writing process</th>
<th>Appearance on the finished product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>When paraphrasing and summarizing</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paraphrasing</strong> involves putting a passage from source material into your own words. <strong>Summarizing</strong> is similar, but it includes only the main point(s). A paraphrase or a summary must be attributed to the original source.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First, write your paraphrase and summary without looking at the original text, so you rely only on your memory.</td>
<td>• Begin your summary with a statement giving credit to the source: According to Jonathan Kozol (1999, p.23), “...” or Kozol (1999, p.23) states, “...” or As Kozol (1999, p.23) points out, “...” Avoid repetitive phrasing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Next, check your version with the original for content, accuracy, and mistakenly borrowed phrases.</td>
<td>• Put any unique words or phrases that you cannot change, or do not want to change, in quotation marks: ...&quot;savage inequalities&quot; exist throughout our educational system (Kozol, 1999, p. 23).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### When quoting directly
**Quotations** must be identical to the original, using a narrow segment of the source. They must match the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.

| • Keep the person’s name near the quote in your notes, and in your paper. | • Mention the person’s name either at the beginning, middle, or end of the quote. |
| • Select direct quotes that make the most impact in your paper -- too many direct quotes lessen your credibility. | • Put quotation marks around the quoted text. |
| • Indicate your added phrases in brackets ([ ]) and omitted text with ellipses (...). |

### When quoting indirectly (paraphrasing)

| • Keep the person’s name near the text in your notes, and in your paper. | • Mention the person’s name either at the beginning of the information, or in the middle, or at the end. |
| • Rewrite the key ideas using different words and sentence structures than the original text. | • Double check to make sure that your words and sentence structures are different than the original text. |
Making Sure You Are Safe (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action during the writing process</th>
<th>Appearance on the finished product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>When quoting Web sources</strong></td>
<td><strong>Do not cut and paste</strong> from sources on the Web. In addition to concern about the accuracy of the content, it is too easy to forget to cite the source, leaving you in plagiarism mode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Beware of Web sources that do not contain an author and date. Without knowing the origin and time frame, you cannot be sure of the accuracy of the information.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


If You Are Still Not Sure…

The following four examples have been adapted from Capital Community College Humanities Department and the Arthur C. Banks Jr. Library (2004) “A Statement on Plagiarism.”

Below are four samples of writing, using original text from Elaine Tyler May’s “Myths and Realities of the American Family.” As you read each version, try to decide if it is a legitimate use of May’s text or a plagiarism. May’s original text follows:

Because women's wages often continue to reflect the fiction that men earn the family wage, single mothers rarely earn enough to support themselves and their children adequately. And because work is still organized around the assumption that mothers stay home with children, even though few mothers can afford to do so, child-care facilities in the United States remain woefully inadequate.

**Version A:**

Since women's wages often continue to reflect the mistaken notion that men are the main wage earners in the family, single mothers rarely make enough to support themselves and their children very well. Also, because work is still based on the assumption that mothers stay home with children, facilities for childcare remain woefully inadequate in the United States.

**Verdict:** Plagiarism. In Version A there is too much direct borrowing in sentence structure and wording. The writer changes some words, drops one phrase, and adds some new language, but the overall text closely resembles May's. Even with a citation, the writer is still plagiarizing because the lack of quotation marks indicates that Version A is a paraphrase, and should thus be in the writer's own language.
Version B:

As May (1989) points out, "women's wages often continue to reflect the fiction that men earn the family wage" (p. 588). Thus many single mothers cannot support themselves and their children adequately. Furthermore, since work is based on the assumption that mothers stay home with children, facilities for day care in this country are still "woefully inadequate." (p. 589).

Verdict: Plagiarism. In Version B the writer now cites May, so we're closer to telling the truth about our text's relationship to the source, but this text continues to borrow too much language without using quotation marks.

Version C:

By and large, our economy still operates on the mistaken notion that men are the main breadwinners in the family. Thus, women continue to earn lower wages than men. This means, in effect, that many single mothers cannot earn a decent living. Furthermore, adequate day care is not available in the United States because of the mistaken assumption that mothers remain at home with their children.

Verdict: Plagiarism. Version C shows good paraphrasing of wording and sentence structure, but May's original ideas are not acknowledged. Some of May's points are common knowledge (women earn less than men, many single mothers live in poverty), but May uses this common knowledge to make a specific and original point and her original conception of this idea is not acknowledged.

Version D:

Women today still earn less than men—so much less that many single mothers and their children live near or below the poverty line. May (1989) argues that this situation stems in part from "the fiction that men earn the family wage" (p. 588). May further suggests that the American workplace still operates on the assumption that mothers with children stay home to care for them (p. 589). This assumption, in my opinion, does not have the force it once did. More and more businesses offer in-house day-care facilities. . . .

Verdict: No Plagiarism. In version D the writer makes use of the common knowledge in May's work, but acknowledges May's original conclusion and does not try to pass it off as his or her own. The quotation is properly cited, as is a later paraphrase of another of May's ideas. (Capital Community College, 2004)
**Academic Dishonesty**

Plagiarism is one type of academic dishonesty. This is a serious offense at Boise State, as it is at any university in the country.

The official policy may be found at the University website: [http://www2.boisestate.edu/studentconduct/](http://www2.boisestate.edu/studentconduct/).

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**Boise State University Policy on Academic Dishonesty**

Cheating or plagiarism in any form is unacceptable. The University functions to promote the cognitive and psychosocial development of all students. Therefore, all work submitted by a student must represent her/his own ideas, concepts, and current understanding. Academic dishonesty also includes submitting substantial portions of the same academic course work to more than one course for credit without prior permission of the instructor(s). Possible examples may be as follows:

- Buying or in any way using a term paper or other project that was not composed by the student turning it in.
- Copying from another exam paper before, during or after the exam.
- Using crib notes or retrieval of information stored in a computer/calculator outside exam room.
- Having someone else take an exam or taking an exam for someone else.
- Collaboration on take-home exams where it has been forbidden.
- Direct copying of a term paper.
- Failure to give proper credit to sources.

In a proven case of cheating, the student will be dismissed from the class and a failing grade issued. If the chair and instructor feel it is necessary, additional action may be taken as explained in the Boise State University website.

---

We recommend that you examine the issue in more depth in the APA sources. For more on plagiarism see APA, 2001 sect. 8.05.
# Citations and References

Using external sources without citing them is considered plagiarism. Authors must provide enough information so that readers can go to the original sources and review them. This involves two things: Citations and References.

- **Citations** briefly identify the source of borrowed information, quotes, and figures in the text. The citation must be placed at the beginning, middle or end of the borrowed information. It must be crystal clear what information is borrowed and where it comes from, including page references whenever possible. The brief citation matches the first word(s) in an entry in the reference list; the author(s) or title serves as a main entry in the reference list.

- The **reference list** contains the full descriptions of *only those sources that are cited* in the paper. It enables the reader to find any source cited in the paper. The references are placed in alphabetical order at the end of the paper.

## Citing Borrowed Material

Citations include the author’s last name, the year of publication, and a page number if available. If an author is not available, use the title of the work. Some examples follow in Table 18. This is by no means an all-inclusive list. The APA style manual (2001, sections 3.94-3.103) provides more examples of citation style.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptions of Citations</th>
<th>Example Citations in Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>One author</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…referred to in the middle of a sentence</td>
<td>According to Hawk (1999, p. 137), these behaviors . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>These behaviors have been linked to gender socialization (Hawk, 1999, pp. 143-144) and to . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…without mentioning the author in the sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Two authors</strong></td>
<td>Smith and Jones (1999, p. 456) assume . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is suggested (Smith &amp; Jones, 1999, p. 456) that . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Three or more authors</strong></td>
<td>Wasserstein, Jones, &amp; Sanders (1994, p. 346) found . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cite all the authors the first time the work is mentioned. After that use only the surname of the first author followed by “et al.”</td>
<td>It has been found (Wasserstein et al., 1994, p. 346) . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multiple sources</strong></td>
<td>(Hawk, 1999, p. 134; Piece, 1999, p. 56; Smith, 1980, p. 234)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cited for the same piece of information. Order sources alphabetically as they are in the reference list.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A direct quotation.</strong></td>
<td>Behavior has been referred to as “blah blah” (Bradley, 1998, p. 276).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Table 18

**Examples of Citations**  
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptions of Citations</th>
<th>Example Citations in Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Secondary sources**  
Refer to both sources in the text, but only put the one source you used in the References list. In this case, one author, Feist, includes a quote from another author, Bandura, that you wish to borrow. | Bandura (1989, as cited in Feist, 1998) defined self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (p. 1175). |
| **No author**  
Use the title of the article, or part of the title, and the year. Make sure that the title or title part corresponds to the name in the Reference list. This often occurs with daily newspaper articles. | It was recently reported that a new drug appears to cut the risk of heart failure ("New Drug," 1993). |
| **Personal communications**  
These include e-mails or private interviews and conversations | T. K. Lutes (personal communication, April 18, 2001), professor of Accounting at Ohio State University, recalled . . . |
| **Electronic Sources**  
For electronic sources that do not provide page numbers, use the paragraph number, if available, proceeded by the paragraph symbol (¶) or the abbreviation para. If neither paragraph nor page numbers are visible, cite the heading and the number of the paragraph following it to direct the reader to the location of the material. | As Myers (2000, ¶ 5) aptly phrased it, “positive emotions are both an end . . .”  
“The current system of managed care and the current approach to defining empirically supported treatments are shortsighted” (Beutler, 2000, Conclusion section, para 1). |
| When there is no author for a web page, the text citation would then just cite a few words of the title. | ...are most at risk of contracting the disease ("New Child," 2001). |
| When discussing—but not citing—an entire web site (but not a specific document on that site), it is sufficient to give the address of the site in just the text (no entry in the reference list is needed). | Kidspsych, which can be found at http://www.kidspsych.org, is a wonderful interactive web site for children. |
References
References and a bibliography are not the same.

- In References, you list only the items you have actually cited.
- In a Bibliography, you list all of the material you have consulted in preparing your essay whether or not you have actually cited the work.

Most BSU College of Business & Economics disciplines use the references page to list the sources within the text of the report from which information was obtained.

Each citation in the text must correspond to an item in the reference list.

Each entry in references must be cited in the text in the proper way to easily lead the reader to the reference in the list (see APA, 2001, Chapter 4 for an extensive discussion).

On the references page, arrange entries:

- In alphabetical order by surname of first author. (If no author is given, alphabetize by first word of title.)
- In order of date, with earliest first, for references by the same author.
- With hanging indents.

In all reference entries, certain pieces of information need to be included if at all possible. These include things like author(s), year of publication, title and pages. However, some specific pieces of information vary for different types of references. Use Table 19 to find the required information items and sequence.

Basic components and formats include the following:

Article: Author’s last name, First & Middle (if available) initials. (Publication date). Title of article. Title of Journal, Volume number (Issue number), start page-end page.

Book: Author’s last name, First & Middle (if available) initials. (Copyright date). Book title. Publisher’s city: Publisher’s name.

NOTE: APA does not use the words “Volume,” “Vol.,” or “Issue” in reference list entries, just the appropriate numbers.

If no publication date is available, use (n.d.) to indicate that there is no publication date.

NOTE: The paragraph format for reference entries is a “Hanging Indent” where the first line is left flush and subsequent lines are indented. In MS WORD, use the FORMAT > PARAGRAPH > INDENTS & SPACING > INDENTATION > SPECIAL > HANGING style menu.
### Table 19

**Sample Citations and Reference List Entries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Resources</th>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Text Citation</th>
<th>Reference Entry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reference Entry Format and Components:</strong></td>
<td>Author’s last name and initial(s). (Publication date). Article title using capital letters for the first word of the title and subtitle and for any proper nouns, not in italics. <em>Journal Title in italics using capital letters, 9 = Volume number in italics (2), = Issue number if available, not italics, 193-202 = beginning and end page numbers of the article.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>Text Citation</td>
<td>Reference Entry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note use of “Author” as publisher when the author and the publisher are the same. Note use of “pp.” to indicate start and end page of the article in this instance. Note the discontinuous pagination. The article begins on page A1 and jumps to A4. If the pages were continuous, “pp. A1-A4” would be used.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Text Citation</th>
<th>Reference Entry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Electronic/Web Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Text Citation</th>
<th>Reference Entry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table 19
Sample Citations and Reference List Entries (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Text Citation</th>
<th>Reference Entry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

According to APA, “When the author of a document is markedly different from the provider (e.g., the host organization), explicitly identify the latter in the retrieval statement” (APA, 2001, p. 275).
Table 19
Sample Citations and Reference List Entries (continued)

Personal Communication Resources

APA (2001, p. 214) states that “Personal communications” such as “letters, memos, some electronic communications (e.g., e-mail...), personal interviews, telephone conversations” should not be included in a reference list, but should be cited in the text. Be certain to identify—either job title or the relationship with the writer—the source of the communication.

If your instructor requires personal communications to be included in the reference list, the following format may be used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Text Citation</th>
<th>Reference Entry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal interview</td>
<td>B. T. Johnson (personal communication, April 18, 2001), director of Human Relations at 3M Company, has observed...</td>
<td>Johnson, B. T., director of human relations, 3M Company. (2001, April 18). Personal communication (personal interview).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: The parenthetical descriptor of the personal communication (“personal interview” in the sample above) should describe the nature of the communication, which may include telephone conversations, e-mails, letters, or memos.

For more on citations and reference entries, see APA (2001), Chapters 3 and 4.

APA (2001) is available in the BSU Albertson’s Library at BF 76.7 .P83 2001 at the Reference Desk and in the open stacks.
COMMUNICATIONS GUIDELINES

Effective Presentations

One skill that employers look for in students is their ability to present in front of a group. This method of communication is a way for a new hire to become known in the organization. This is how you prove your professionalism and knowledge. Here are a few Do’s and Don’ts of presenting.

Do

- **Know your material.** If you are well prepared, you will be able to talk with, not read to, your audience. Use the key words on your slides to prompt you as to what you want to say next. If using Power Point, use speaker’s notes.

- **Look professional.** Dress appropriately, comb your hair, remove your hat, and check to see that everything is in its place.

- **Face the audience not your visual aid.** If using transparencies, refer to the transparency as it sits on the overhead. If using PowerPoint, refer to the computer console. Don’t turn your back to the audience and read from the screen on the wall.

- **Prepare for questions.** Your audience is there for a reason and there probably will be people who want to know more about your presentation than you presented. Think beforehand about what these questions may be and how you can respond to them.

- **Repeat or restate the question.** Repeat or restate the question to confirm your understanding of the question and so that everyone in the audience hears the question.

- **Maintain eye contact.** Look at the people in the audience. Look at an individual for just a second before looking at another. Eye contact will generate audience interest, promote a conversational style, encourage natural delivery, and instill confidence.

Don’t

- **Don’t read a script or the slides to the audience.** Talk with them; don’t read to them. A quote here or there is fine, as is reading a point word for word to emphasize it. Aside from that, talk with your audience.

- **Don’t create distractions.** If you tend to jangle coins in your pocket, empty your pockets before presenting. If you click your pen, use a pencil or a non-clicking pen.

- **Don’t stand in front of what you are showing.** Make sure you are not in the light beam of the projector. If using posters or other visual aids, make sure you stand to the side so people can see them.

- **Don’t chew gum.**
Preparing the Slides

An important aspect of delivering effective presentations is creating clear, succinct, audience-friendly slides. Consider that you are telling a story, and be very intentional about the order of presenting your information. Then, keep the slides themselves simple and visually pleasing so they help your listeners stay focused and interested. It is all about planning and designing.

When planning your presentation, keep in mind the following:

- **Start by considering the audience.** Use vocabulary appropriate to the education level of the group. Make sure you avoid or define jargon and technical terms.
- **Organize your presentation.** Start with an introduction of the topic; continue with the body which includes findings, data, application, and examples; and then end with a conclusion or summary.
- **Minimize the number of slides you use.**
- **Use one slide to convey one idea.** Each slide should illustrate only one idea and its supporting points.
- **Use only keywords or phrases.** Slides should not contain every word of your presentation. Think of your slides as an outline that you use to prompt yourself to speak extemporaneously. They also act as visual signals for the audience to help them focus in on what you are saying.

When designing your slide layout, there are numerous design rules to consider. Here are a few of the most important:

- **Use the 6 x 6 Rule:** Keep the number of lines per slide to six or less and the number of words per line to six or less.
- **Use font size 24 points or larger; line thickness should be at least 2 points.** Use fonts of 48-54 for main titles, 36-44 for slide titles, and 24-36 for text.
- **Use contrasting colors** with either a very light background and very dark lettering, or very dark background with very light lettering. Dark colors to use include black, dark brown, navy blue, and dark purple. Light colors that contrast well with these are white and yellow.
- **Give your slides variety.** All-text presentations are boring. Use relevant graphs, photos, and clip art when appropriate. Avoid unnecessary sound effects, slow transitions, and moving graphics. Use visuals such as flow charts, tables, or figures where appropriate to engage your audience in the topic, or explain complex processes.
- **Don’t overdo it.** Stick with simple backgrounds and templates, and avoid the razzle-dazzle colors and patterns. Also, use lots of white space.
- **Use a consistent, professional format.**
- **DON’T YELL AT YOUR AUDIENCE!** Do not capitalize every word in the slide.
• **When using bullets…**
  1. use the same type of bullets for all slides
  2. try not to break the text across the line
  3. do not put a period or comma at the end of bullets
  4. keep bullets grammatically parallel. If the first bullet starts with a verb, all bullets should start with verbs. If the first bullet is a noun, all bullets should be nouns.

• **Add a slide title in the same place for each slide.** In PowerPoint, put the presentation title and author on the “Slide Master” (On the View menu) so that it automatically will be placed on all slides. Adding a page number there is also a good idea.

• **Use spell-check and proofread!**
E-mail Etiquette

The popularity of e-mail in today’s society makes it an active form of communication. As such, we have now come to think of it as a standard business tool. Many of the same rules of writing apply, along with the following guidelines to increase the efficiency of this tool.

- **Check your e-mail regularly**, especially when working with other students on projects.
- **Reply promptly** with the original message attached or included.
- **Don’t reply if you are angry.** Give yourself time to calm down before sending e-mail.
- **Don’t expect an immediate reply.** If something is urgent, use the phone.
- **Don’t “Reply to All”** when answering e-mail unless it is approved and appropriate.
- **Don’t send or forward obscene**, offensive, threatening, or defamatory e-mails.
- **Virus check** your attachments before sending them.

The key point to remember is this: people form an opinion of you from your writing. Whether it is formal or informal communication, it should never be sloppy or disrespectful unless that is how you really want people to know you. The saying, “What goes around, comes around” was probably referring to a careless e-mail message. Figure 6 presents additional suggestions.

Figure 6. Sample E-mail With Suggestions.
Telephone and Voicemail Etiquette

Speaking on the telephone should be second nature to us all, but the proper method for business communication requires a more formal approach than in chatting with a friend. Depending on whom you are calling and for what purpose, it is important to consider the following points.

**Business Phone Calls**

- Identify yourself when the target person answers the phone.
- Ask if it is a good time to discuss the issue or ask your question; if the person is rushed you may not get the answer you’d like.
- If the timing is good, clearly and succinctly ask your question or state your business.
- Clarify any instructions or details that might be confusing.
- Summarize and confirm what has been agreed upon.
- End your call professionally, thanking your contact for his or her help.
- If a secretary or other support person answers the phone, be as polite and specific as you would with the target person. Secretaries can be a big help, and should never be considered unimportant in the communication cycle.

It is also inevitable in our busy lives that you will be leaving a voice message. Don’t panic, and be prepared for this common communication mode.

**Voice Mail**

- Before you place the call, be aware you may need to leave a message.
- Clearly and briefly state your name, the name of your business, the time and date of your call.
- State the purpose of your call.
- Specify when you will be available for a return call and *clearly and slowly* speak your phone number, or email address as an alternative contact method.
- Thank the target person, and repeat your full name and phone number to guarantee he/she noted it correctly.
**Business Letter Formats**

**Personal Block Letter Format**

| **Letterhead/Return address** | Street Address  
City, State Abbreviation ZIP |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date</strong></td>
<td>Month Day, Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inside address</strong></td>
<td>Recipient’s Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job Title / Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Company Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Street Address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City, State Abbreviation ZIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salutation</strong></td>
<td>Dear Mr./Ms. Name:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pellentesque habitant morbi tristique senectus et netus et malesuada fames ac turpis egestas. Integer metus nibh, ullamcorper a, sagittis eget, aliquet in, nisi. Cum sociis natoque penatibus et magnis dis parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus. |
| **Close**                     | Sincerely,  
|                               | Writer’s Name               |
| **Notation (if needed)**      | GDL:MHB  
Reference Initials: Writer:Typist  
Enc.  
Enclosure notation  
cc: Name  
Copy notation |
**Letterhead/Formal Block Letter Format**

| Letterhead/Return address | Company Name  
|---------------------------|--------------  
| 1 blank line              | Street Address  
|                           | City, State Abbreviation ZIP  

| Date | Month Day, Year  
|------|-----------------  
| 1-9 blank lines | Recipient’s Name  
|                 | Job Title / Department  

| Inside address | Company Name  
|----------------|--------------  
| Street Address | City, State Abbreviation ZIP  
| 1 blank line |  

| Salutation | Dear Mr./Ms. Name:  
|------------|-------------------  
| 1 blank line | Pellentesque habitant morbi tristique senectus et netus et malesuada fames ac turpis egestas. Integer metus nibh, ullamcorper a, sagittis eget, aliquet in, nisi. Cum sociis natoque penatibus et magnis dis parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus.  
| 1 blank line |  

| Close | Sincerely,  
|------|----------  
| 3 blank lines |  

| Name | Writer’s Name  
|-----|---------------  
| 1 blank line |  

| Notation (if needed) | GDL:MHB  
|----------------------|--------  
| Enc. | Reference Initials: Writer:Typist  
| cc: Name | Enclosure notation  
| | Copy notation  

Memo Formats

A “memo” (short for “memorandum”) is generally considered to be less formal than a letter and is often used for communication within a company or organization.

Companies will often have templates for memos.

Most memos contain a title (such as “Memo” or “Interoffice Correspondence”) and use “To,” “From,” “Date,” and “Subject” headings.

Memos often do not use salutations (“Dear…”), complimentary closes (“Sincerely,…”), or signature boxes.

Memos allow you to maintain a “paper trail” of communication.

Sample Memo Format

MEMO

TO: Recipient’s name
FROM: Writer’s name
DATE: Month Day, Year
SUBJECT: Concise and descriptive topic statement


Pellentesque habitant morbi tristique senectus et netus et malesuada fames ac turpis egestas. Integer metus nibh, ullamcorper a, sagittis eget, aliquet in, nisi. Cum sociis natoque penatibus et magnis dis parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus.
REFERENCES

Reference lists contain only those materials cited in the report.


Colorado State University. (n.d.) Writing@CSU. Retrieved April 23, 2003, from http://writing.colostate.edu/references/documents/execsum/com17a1.cfm


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A Bibliography lists all materials that have been consulted in preparing an essay whether or not the materials have been cited in the text.


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