The following document includes hints for writing good papers and making strong presentations in political science as well as our citation guide. Students should use the guide for all papers they write in political science courses, unless told otherwise by their professors.

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Writing Guide

Writing good essays, papers, and briefs is a skill that is stressed in the Political Science Department. You will also find it a skill that you will use for most of your working life, whether you’re employed in government, in business, in law, or in academia. You may find yourself writing intelligence analyses of recent coups, ad copy, sales reports, legal briefings, or publishable articles and books.

Simply put, in this department, you will write a lot! It may be one-page think-pieces about a film you have seen or article you have read, ten-page essays on the role of race in American politics, or a forty-page senior seminar research paper. You will also take essay exams in many of your classes.

This is a guide intended to help you avoid some of the pitfalls into which students at SU (and everywhere else) fall. It is a set of hints, suggestions, and things not to do. Think about these things when you are writing. Try to do the things we suggest. Try not to do the things we warn you about.

This is not a grammar guide. For further information, here are some suggested writing manuals (the books are cheap and readily available):

You can also find information on writing at “How to Write Term Papers” at the Dushkin Online site. [http://www.dushkin.com/online/study/dgen2.mhtml](http://www.dushkin.com/online/study/dgen2.mhtml)

Some hints and suggestions for writing papers:

I. Check your spelling! If the dictionary says it’s wrong, it probably is. If it’s a leader’s name, look it up!

II. Don’t always believe the computer’s dictionary when it says you’re right. It can’t tell whether you meant to say breath or breathe or breadth. Reread your paper to catch these errors.

III. Paragraph and paper structure
   a. A paragraph should have a topic sentence, body (discussing that topic) and a conclusion.
   b. An essay is a series of paragraphs. It should have a topic paragraph, the body (of paragraphs discussing the topic) and a concluding paragraph.

IV. Vary your sentence structure. There are two extremes that occur. Both are annoying:
   a. First is the student writing only short, simple sentences: The United States is a democratic republic. It has a system of checks and balances. There are three branches of government. The legislative branch makes the laws. The Senate and the House of Representatives make up the legislative branch.
   b. Second is the student using only highly complex sentences: The decision of the Supreme Court, while touching on past precedents, was really a
break from the jurisprudence of the past, according to some scholars, while others found it to be line with a slowly developing set of philosophical principles which trace their origins to decisions from the early part of this century, some of which were written by esteemed jurists like Oliver Wendell Holmes and Louis Brandeis.

So, vary your sentences. Mix simple and complex sentences. It makes the paper far more readable and enjoyable.

V. **Reread, Reread, Reread!!!** Rereading your paper can be the best way to improve your writing and improve your grade. You’ll catch errors, realize you should have added information, and recognize things that shouldn’t be included. You’ll make your professor much happier. Ideally, leave at least a day between writing the paper and rereading it.

VI. Read your paper aloud or have somebody else read it aloud to you. It is much easier to catch things that are poorly written or that don’t sound right when you hear them.

VII. **Use the Writing Center.** Even if you’re a superb writer, there is always room for improvement. The writing center (located on the lower level of the Blough-Weis Library) is an excellent place to have someone else read over your paper. You’ll be surprised to find that things that looked clear to you often confuse others. Even if you don’t go to the Writing Center,

VIII. Have someone else read your paper. Use your friends, significant others, and roommates. Having someone else read your paper will catch those mistakes and help clarify your arguments.

IX. Avoid assumptions. Don’t assume the reader will understand your argument or your vocabulary. When proofreading your paper you should look not only for technical problems (grammar, spelling, punctuation) but also for clarity. An essential problem in many papers is that writers often assume that the reader knows things s/he does not. Remember that the reader has not been thinking about the issue as deeply as you have and made need additional background information or may need you to “connect the dots” in your argument more clearly. Be sure to define terms that are likely to be confusing (for example, legal terms).

**Some Formatting Issues**

I. For longer papers (5 or more pages), you should use section headings to divide parts of your paper. This allows for easier reading. Be consistent in the heading format you use. Do not have a heading at the bottom of a page. Make sure you can fit in at least some text following the heading.

II. Footnotes should be used for explanation only. They are especially useful for important information that may disrupt the flow of the article. They may be used for defining terms, adding information that is viewed as relevant (but perhaps tangential to the article), suggesting other readings, etc. You may cite other sources in the footnotes, using in-text citations. Footnotes should be numbered using Arabic (1,2,3…) numerals.

III. Appendices may be used to convey substantial pieces of information that would not otherwise fit in the paper. They may be used to show graphs
and tables (either from your own work or others). They may also be used to provide the reader with the precise questions if a survey was used or the measure of variables (unless otherwise covered in the article). If you have multiple appendices, each should start on a separate page and be numbered and titled (e.g. Appendix 1: Variables). Citations must be used for information garnered elsewhere.

IV. All pages should be numbered. Location of the number (top or bottom of sheet; left, right or middle of row) is your choice. Be consistent. There should be no number on the cover page and the first page of text should begin with “1”. Use Arabic numerals. If you include an abstract and/or table of contents, these pages will precede your text and should be numbered with Roman numerals (i, ii, iii,…).

V. A cover page must include your paper’s title (centered), your name, the date, the class name, and your professor’s name or advisor (if this is a senior seminar paper).

Some hints and suggestions for essay exams:

I. Read the question carefully. This is where students often make mistakes. They don’t answer the question. Make sure that if the question has multiple parts, you answer each one of them. Make sure you are answering the question asked. This can be helped if you:

II. Make an outline. Even in an in-class exam, spend thirty seconds or a minute writing an outline on a scrap sheet of paper or on the interior cover of your blue-book. Make sure in that outline you list the answers to the question(s) and that you give examples. It will save you time later because you won’t make the mistake of writing everything. In other words,

III. Don’t give us the kitchen sink. Don’t write everything on the topic. Answer the question. You won’t get extra points for knowing other issues and, tests are often like Jeopardy—if you put it in and it’s wrong, you lose points.

IV. If there is a page or line limit for the answer obey it. Some professors will not read beyond the line or page limit.

V. While we will rarely take points off for grammatical or spelling errors you make in in-class essay exams, they can still hurt you. Mistakes will hurt you when they make it hard for us to understand your argument. So, be certain to reread your answers to make sure they make sense. Correct misspellings and unclear sentences. A take-home essay exam should be corrected like any other paper.
Some other hints for exams:

I. Answer the question! If you leave an answer blank you will get “0” points. An attempt at an answer, even if it is mostly wrong, may at least give you a few points.

II. Do what the questions asks. Differentiate between the terms identify, describe or define, analyze or explain, and significance.
   a. IDENTIFY -- In a word, phrase or sentence at most, name the specific who or what or state the main characteristics that differentiate the term from other similar items.
   b. DESCRIBE/DEFINE -- In more detail than when just identifying, give the major characteristics that tell you very specifically what the meaning of the item is and that distinguish it from other similar items.
   c. ANALYZE/EXPLAIN -- Break the item down into its sub-aspects or parts, which you identify and define, and then discuss or show how these sub-parts are inter-related or interact. Show how each part affects the other parts and discuss what the whole item's significance (see below) is for other items or events.
   d. SIGNIFICANCE -- Discuss what the effect of the item is on other relevant items or events. What are the consequences of this item for something else. Why and in what way is it important? In other words, why do we study the item?

If the question asks for significance, give the significance! Assuming that “I’ve defined it and that’s enough” will inevitably result in points off.

III. Don’t wait until the night before the exam to start studying. Ideally, study throughout the semester. Check over your lecture notes after each class or at least once a week. Make sure you keep up with the reading.

IV. Do ask questions. If the reading or lectures or class discussion does not make sense, ask questions of your professor, either in class or during her/his office hours. Chances are, if something is confusing to you, it is confusing to at least some of your classmates as well. They will be grateful for your initiative.

The ever-expanding list of things not to do:
This list is created entirely from things the faculty of SU’s Political Science Department have run across. These things irk us, they vex us, and, sometimes, they bring us near tears. You should recognize most of them.

I. Things not to mix up:
   a. To, too, and two.
      • To is directional. I am going to the store
      • Too means additional or excessive. We bought a cat and a dog, too. The dog was too fat.
      • Two is the number (see, I said you’d know these things).
b. Its and it’s
   - Its is possessive. Its fur was black.
   - It’s equals “it is.” It’s running home.

c. There, their, and they’re
   - There—locational. The dog is sitting there, on the stoop.
   - Their—possessive. Their dog is fat and sitting on the stoop.
   - They’re—they are. They’re taking their fat dog for a walk.

d. Lead, lead and led
   - Lead (the one pronounced like leed) is to guide, to go before
   - Led is the past tense of lead (today I lead, yesterday I led).
   - Lead (the one pronounced like led) is Plumbium, the soft, gray element which causes brain damage if you eat it.

e. Affect and effect
   - Affect is typically a transitive verb. The weather affects air travel.
   - Effect is typically the noun. The rain’s effect on air travel is to ground aircraft.
   - (there are exceptions; however, you will rarely use them)

f. Aid and aide
   - Aid is the verb (to help) or a noun (an assistant—most often non-human assistant). The writing guide is my aid in perfecting my political science papers. The US sent material aid to Liberia.
   - Aide is a human assistant. The general’s aide, the senator’s aide.

g. Fewer and less
   - Fewer is for items that can be counted. There are fewer students this year than last. There are fewer inches of rain.
   - Less is for things that are not countable. Students are less eager for fall break to come. There is less rain.

h. The abbreviations i.e. and e.g.
   - i.e. is short for *id est* which, in Latin, means “that is”. Use i.e. when you are indicating something in other words. Tony Blair, the Prime Minister of our closest ally (i.e., the United Kingdom) is facing a political challenge.
   - e.g. is short for *exempli gratia*, also Latin, and it means “for example”. There were many countries who were allied with the US in the 1991 Gulf War (e.g., France, Egypt, and Syria).
II. Don’t exclude possessives:
a. When one object owns or has another, you should use the possessive.
   • The possessive is typically indicated by an apostrophe “s” for singular things. Bush’s cabinet.
   • For plurals that end in “s”, indicate possession by adding the apostrophe to the end of the word. Iraqi citizens’ security.

III. Things not to forget:
• States and countries are singular (though there are a few exceptions). The United States is a superpower. Massachusetts was one of the original thirteen colonies.
• A government, party, legislative body, or regime is singular. The Democratic Party is holding its convention in Boston. The Bush Administration is opposed to nuclear proliferation. The US Congress is a legislative party.
• The people of a country are plural or members of a party. The British are… The Republicans are…

IV. Other things not to do
a. Do not use contractions in your papers. Contractions such as don’t, won’t, or can’t are informal and it is usually inappropriate to use them in academic work.
b. Do not write paragraphs that are one sentence long.
c. Do not write paragraphs that are more than a page long. Unless your name is Melville or Tolstoy, paragraphs should not run onto multiple pages. A paragraph should cover a single topic. When you’ve shifted topics, start a new paragraph.
d. Do not refer to persons by their first name or nicknames. Use Lincoln, not Abe; Hitler, not Adolph; or Bush, not W.
A Word About Plagiarism

Don’t do it!

Plagiarism is theft of another’s words and ideas. It is unconscionable and unacceptable.

Plagiarism includes:

1) The direct quoting of another’s work without proper documentation. If you quote someone’s work, put quotation marks around it and cite it.
2) The paraphrasing of another’s work without proper documentation, even if you use your own writing style and vocabulary. If it’s someone else’s idea, then cite it as such. At the end of the sentence or paragraph, put the citation.
3) The slight rewording of a quote (this is what got historian Stephen Ambrose in trouble) is still plagiarism. Better to use the quote directly, putting it in quotation marks and citing it or rewrite it considerably and cite it.

What should you cite?

- Quotes. Always
- Authors’ arguments and ideas. Always
- Statistics. Statistics, particularly those that vary across sources, must be cited. (For example, cite where you get the Gross National Product of the United States).

What don’t you need to cite?

- Dates. Unless there is a discrepancy among authors, you do not need to cite dates something occurred (e.g., that Carter became President on January 20, 1977)
- Generally accepted figures. If there are figures that every author accepts or that are widely accepted estimates (e.g., that fifty million people died in WWII), you don’t need to cite it.
- Information that is common knowledge. This is admittedly vague. However, it can be information on which all authors on a given topic agree or it can even be knowledge that a well-informed person would have (the latter is more stringent and means that you’d cite more).

Rule of thumb: If you’re unsure whether or not to cite it, cite it! Better to over-cite than to under-cite.

Plagiarism is likely to result in, at minimum, a “0” for the assignment and can result ultimately in expulsion. It can ruin your academic career.
VERBAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

A Political Science major (or any well-educated student, for that matter,) should be able to communicate not only in writing, but also verbally. While both speaking and writing are forms of communication, conveying one’s ideas in these two formats require distinct skills and practice to develop more fully.

Informal communication—some tips
Almost all classes in the Department will include class discussion as one form of verbal communication. The only “tips” that are needed for these exercises are the following:

■ Quality is more important than quantity. It is what you say which is of importance, not how often you open your mouth. Try to give a little thought to what you’re going to say before saying it. This being said,

■ don’t be afraid to speak because you’re afraid of making a mistake. Unlike in written communication, you don’t always have a chance to edit your remarks before speaking. This is true of all of us (professors included!) and means that sometimes you may say something that is confusing or even wrong. None of us is perfect --- this is as good a place to learn that as any.

■ Communication, especially in class discussions, is a two-way street. This means that you need to listen as well as speak. Pay attention to what others say. Show respect for all speakers, even if their views differ from yours. This does not mean you cannot disagree (these are, after all, classes involving politics!), but that you should do so respectfully.

Formal communication—some tips
Some of your Political Science classes will require you to give a formal presentation. Some of these will be in groups, others as solo presentations. We know this makes you nervous; it makes everyone nervous. Standing in front of a group and speaking is a way of opening yourself to others, which means opening yourself to possible criticism. This is intimidating. However, whether as CEO of your own corporation, an elected member of a legislature, a representative to the UN, or the president of your local neighborhood improvement association, you may someday be put in the position of having to speak before a group. The more you do it the easier it will become, so you might as well start now.

Here are some tips on making the most of your opportunity in speaking before a group.

■ In oral presentations it is particularly important to organize your thoughts carefully and to tell your audience what to expect. In your opening, tell your audience what your position is. (“I will present an argument for abolishing the death penalty.”) You may want to give an outline of your argument before presenting it so they can follow you. (“There are two reasons for abolishing the death penalty: racial bias in application and human error.”) Use signaling language to tell your audience where you are. (“The second reason I take this position is.” Or, “In conclusion...”) It is harder to follow an oral presentation than to follow the same argument in writing. Your audience can’t turn back to page 2 to remind themselves of a point you made. You need to be sensitive to this
and give as many guideposts to your audience as possible. It is better to overdo this than to give too few.

- Speak directly to your audience. You could have the most important message in the world but if you do not engage your audience, it will not matter. Look at your audience. Do not read from a prepared text. Speaking to an audience and reading to an audience are two different things. The first will draw them in, the second will put them to sleep.

- On the other hand, you should be prepared for an oral presentation. There are few people who can make a quality presentation without writing out some notes. Your notes should be an outline of what you want to say. Having your talk written down verbatim only encourages you to read the notes. In addition to notes, being prepared means you have to

  **PRACTICE, PRACTICE, PRACTICE!** Do not think you can simply “wing it” and do a good job. Your audience deserves better (and it will affect your grade!). This means standing up in your room and running through the entire presentation aloud, just as you would in class. Practicing will help you:
  - Make sure your presentation is not too long nor too short.
  - Make sure you can comfortably, and correctly, pronounce words, especially proper names. If you don’t know how to pronounce something, don’t guess. Ask a faculty member or check out:
    1. Voice of America Pronunciation Guide. This has all major foreign figures and streaming audio and transliterations of how the Voice of America recommends pronouncing the names. This is the prime source. [http://ibb7.ibb.gov/pronunciations/](http://ibb7.ibb.gov/pronunciations/)
    2. Merriam-Webster online dictionary. This site has audio clips of words’ pronunciation. [http://www.m-w.com](http://www.m-w.com)
    3. National Public Radio. News shows such as Morning Edition and All Things Considered are archived here, and searchable, and their reporters are very good at getting the pronunciation right. They are also outstanding sources of information in their own right. Even a relatively obscure country such as Mauritania has over a dozen news show segments about it. Leaders, places, and the like are often mentioned. [http://www.npr.org](http://www.npr.org)
    4. Nightly News. For major countries, the nightly news shows will have reports in which the leaders’ names are pronounced. CNN and ABC do much better than CBS or Fox in their attempt to get the pronunciation correct.

- Do not overuse technology. Power Point presentations, overheads or video clips are fine to emphasize a point, but do not rely on them to make your presentation. A Power Point slide should only contain a few key items to highlight your point and not be a complete version of your talk.

- Verbal communication requires different language and a different style than written communication. You need to present information more simply. Use shorter sentences. Avoid jargon with which your audience may not be familiar.
Define terms that are important to your presentation. Do not hesitate to repeat important points. This is not because your audience is not intelligent, but it is necessary because all of us are more likely to pay attention to a speaker if we can follow him/her with ease. If listeners have to work to hard to follow what you have to say, they will tune out.

- A good way to pick up pointers on public presentations is to pay particular attention to a public speaker who impresses you. What is it about her/his style, language, and manner that “works?”

- Appear professional in your presentation. It never hurts to dress a little more formally on the day of a presentation. If you act with authority, people will pay more attention. Even if you don’t dress up, avoid the following pitfalls:
  - chewing gum while speaking;
  - wearing a hat while speaking;
  - mumbling;
  - slouching;
  - fumbling with a pen, paper clip or other item while speaking. If it is helpful, use a podium and grasp the sides to keep your hands still.
  - looking everywhere but at your audience. We guarantee you, they will not bite (or at least we have never seen this happen!)

Again, the more often you speak before a group the easier it will be. We will try to make the classroom as welcoming as possible for these exercises but they will not work unless you make the attempt.
Citation Guide

We are using a modified APSA-style, author-date system. It is modified to include page numbers in the in-text citations. It is mandatory that you cite references and write your bibliography in this format.

In-text citations
- In-text citations should follow the quotation or other specific information (even if not a quotation), but precede any other punctuation.
  “…of mayoral power” (Bailey 1987, 24).
- A comma should separate date and page number. There should be no “p.” “pg” or other indicator of “page.”

Examples of in-text citations
- General reference to a work need not include the page number—this is useful if you are referring to a general argument or issue running throughout a book. For example: The book focuses on the argument that starvation is caused by war (Bailey 1987).
- If you are referring to the author in the text of the sentence: Bailey (1987, 24) disagrees with…
- One author: (Bailey 1987, 314)
- Two or three authors (Kelly, Colter, and Lane 1980; 33) Note the semicolon
- Four or more authors, include et al (Angel et al. 1986, 34)
- If you use works by two or more authors that have the same last name, designate them by first initial (B. Ripley 1988, 343; R. Ripley 1922, 78).
- If works by the same author are used, designate by year (Bailey 1987, 34; Bailey 1998, 44).
- If works by the same author were published in the same year, add lowercase letters to the dates of publication. These must match the letters given in the bibliography—they should be in alphabetical order (by title of work): (Franks 1957a, 12; Franks 1957b, 45)
- If you are listing a number of sources in a citation, they should be done alphabetically (Hare 1965, 57; Lipple 1995, 27; Singer 1963, 217). Each should be separated by a semicolon. This is useful when there are a number of authors arguing the same thing. (e.g., if all argue that war is caused by ethnic hatred).
- For many documents, particularly online works, if there is no individual author, the document was sponsored/written by an organization. Treat that organization as the author (Freedom House 2004)
- No author or organization: use the book or article title. If the title is long, use the first two or three words: (The Military Balance 2001, 31).
- If you are using older works with reprints, provide both the original and reprint dates: (Marx and Engels [1933] 1964, 25)
- If you are using works with translators, list by original author (Foucault 1980, 45)

1 Most information, and some of the citations, are taken from the Style Manual for Political Science (Washington, DC: American Political Science Association Committee on Publications, 2001).
2 Note: some of the citations given are real works, many are not.
- If you are using sources which refer to volumes, chapters, parts, etc (chapters and verses in the Bible, for example), then cite as (Thucydides 1963, 2.40.2-3)—this indicates Book 2, Section 40, sentences 2 and 3. Order in terms of largest division (book or volume) to smallest (line, paragraph, or sentence).
- Government Documents and Electronic Documents should be done as books—in the modified author-date system. The author may be the U.S. Congress or other government body.
- Legal Citations—an in-text citation to a statute or court case should include the name of the case (in italics except for “v.”) or the statute and the year. A case (Baker v. Carr 1962) and a statute (Budget and Impoundment Act 1987).
- Interviews should be cited by name of the interviewee and year (Smith 1999). If it is a published interview, give the page number as well.
- If you use a chapter in an edited volume, refer to the source by the chapter author, not the book’s editor.

**Bibliographical References:**
- Bibliography should follow everything else. It must start on a separate page and should have a title (bibliography, works cited, references, etc.). Note that works cited means just that—these are works you’ve cited in the paper. If you’ve included others, it should not be called “works cited”.
- You may (but are not required to) divide the bibliography into multiple sections. This may be helpful if you have a number of primary sources (e.g. court cases or archival documents) that you want to distinguish from the secondary sources.
- Each citation must be single spaced, with a space between each. The first line must start at the left-hand margin. All other lines should be indented.
- Authors are listed last name first (see below for multiple author listings).
- Bibliography is in alphabetical order by author (or if no author, then by article or book) name.
- Do not use “Anonymous” or “No Author”. If there is no author listed, list the work by its title.
- Book, journal, and newspaper titles must be italicized (preferred) or underlined.
- Titles of book chapters and articles taken from journals, and newspapers must be put in quotation marks.
- You must give the entire URL address for items gotten off the Internet. The exception to this is citing articles obtained from an online database in which case you need to note the database. See below.
- If the work has a subtitle, you should include it, following a colon.
- You should include all words in the publisher’s, newspaper’s or journal’s name, include “a,” “the,” “inc.,” etc.
- Note punctuation in the following examples
Examples of bibliographical references
Carefully note the punctuation, inclusion of editions, and other details.
Each is also given with an example of the in-text citation for that source. When writing a bibliography, do not give the in-text citation.

Books
- Book, one author:

  In-text citation: (Kessel 1968, 34)

- Book, two or three authors: (note that only the first author has the surname first)

  In-text citation: (Sorauf and Beck 1988, 34)

  In-text citation: (Sorauf, Spearman and Beck 1992; 23).

- Book, more than three authors:

  In-text citation: (Sorauf, et al 1996; 23)

- Book, no author: (note that the date goes after the title of the book). In the bibliography, do not use “A” or “The” when alphabetizing.

  In-text citation: (*The Military Balance* 2001, 31)

- Chapter in an edited volume: If you have a volume edited by one (or more) author with chapters by multiple authors, you must cite each chapter you use separately. Thus, in a book edited by Robert Keohane, if you use a chapter by Ken Waltz and another by Keohane, you must cite them separately, both in the text and in the bibliography:

  In-text citation: (Keohane 1986, 12)

- If you use one volume in a multi-volume work:


  Also, note the above use of a translator reference. Translators do need to be referred to in the bibliographical citation (but they are not referred to in the in-text citation).

- Older works: Include the original date for reprints or new translations/editions.


**Journal articles:**
- Journal articles should include author(s), date of publishing, title of article, title of journal, volume/issue, and pages. See below for an example


- Journal articles from an online database. If the article is downloaded as it originally appeared in the journal, use the normal citation format for the written form (above). If it is a different format (as is the case for those documents available in HTML from EBSCOhost), then include the above information as well as the source of access.

  Keohane, Robert O. and Leslie Martin. 1997. “Mercantilism and Dependency.” American Political Science Review 74/2 (September): 622-634. Accessed via EBSCOhost <http://www.ebscohost.com> In-text citation: (Keohane and Martin 1997) (NOTE: if it’s not in the original format, you would not have the page number)

**Newspaper articles**
- Newspaper article: include the author (unless anonymous), title or article, title of paper, day, month, year, and section if relevant. Also give the edition (eastern edition) and the page. (Below, A3 indicates section A, page 3.)

- If the article is taken from a database (e.g. Lexis-Nexis). Include that in the citation:

  In-text citation: (Cuff 1985) If there is only one page to the article, you should include that in the in-text citation. If there is more than one page, because Lexis-Nexis and others do not have the same pagination, omit the page number (you don’t know whether your cite came from the first page or the third).

- If the newspaper article is derived from a website, the bibliographical citation should be as close to the written form as possible. You must also include 1) the entire URL and 2) the most recent date of access as items may not be permanently available.

  In-text citation: (Cuff 1985, A3)

**Government documents**

*Many of these assume you acquire your information through certain sources; if that is not the case, change the relevant information to suit your source.*

- Congressional reports and documents, including bills and resolutions and publications by commissions, should begin with “U.S. Congress” and then “House” or “Senate” followed by any committee, year, title, Congress, session, and report or document number of committee print number.

  In-text citation: (U.S. Congress 1956)

  In-text citation: (U.S. Congress 1934)

- Hearings: same information; however include the exact date in place of report or document number.

  In-text citation: (U.S. Congress 1985)

- Statutes: provide the name of the statute, source (*U.S. Code* or *Statutes at Large*), volume, section, and (if relevant), page.

  In-text citation: (Administrative Procedure Act 1946)
- Congressional Debates: Begin with *Congressional Record*, followed by the year, Congress, session, volume, and part.

  In-text citation: (*Congressional Record* 1966)

- Presidential Proclamations and Executive Orders should include the president’s name, year, title or description, *Federal Register*, volume, number, and page

  In-text citation: (Reagan 1984, 341)

- Treaties should include corporate author, year, treaty name, date, treaty series, volume and part or number.

  In-text citation: (U.S. Department of State 1963).

- Executive Department Documents should include corporate author, year, title, city and publisher. If author and publisher are the same, repeat the name or use an acronym.

  In-text citation: (U.S. Department of Commerce 1975)

- Legal references: list full bibliographic information for court cases in the references. Give the case, year, volume, source, page on which the case begins, and (in parentheses) the district of any lower federal court. Remember, court cases should be italicized.

  In-text citation: (*Baker v. Carr* 1962)

  In-text citation: (*Lessard v. Schmidt* 1972)

**World Wide Web (WWW) sites**

Give as much information as is known: author’s name, document date (year), title of the work in quotation marks, title of the complete work if applicable, any additional date information (month and day), URL address (the full address!), and the date you accessed the site. The access date is a protective measure for you. If the faculty member pulls up the site and gets an error message, that does not necessarily mean you plagiarized. It may
mean the site has been moved or deleted—the faculty member can check on this and find
that, yes, the site did exist when you accessed it.

Evans, Michael, ed. 2002. “War in Colombia: Guerrillas, Drugs and Human Rights in
U.S.-Colombia Policy, 1988-2002.” National Security Archive Electronic Briefing
Book No. 69. 3 May. <http://www.gwu.edu/~nsarchiv/NSAEBB/NSAEBB69/>
(9 September, 2002).
In-text citation: (Evans 2002)

<http://www.freedomhouse.org/media/pressrel/071404.htm> (20 July 2004).
In-text citation: (Freedom House 2004)

Many organizations’ websites contain tremendous amounts of information. Simply
saying you got the information from www.freedomhouse.org is not sufficient. You must
give the individual page’s description and the full URL, even if you use multiple pages.

Miscellaneous:
- If you have multiple works by an author, all but the first one should be indicated by
an 8-space underline. The works should be listed in alphabetical order by title of the
work. Joint works should follow. Note also how the works published in 1986 are
marked.

Keohane, Robert O. 1984. After Hegemony: Cooperation and Discord in the World

_______. 1986a. “Realism, Neorealism and the Study of World Politics.” In

_______. 1986b. “Theory of World Politics: Structural Realism and Beyond.” In
University Press, 158-203.

_______. 1997. “Mercantilism and Dependency.” American
Political Science Review 74 (September): 622-634.
[In order, the in-text citations would read: (Keohane 1984, 35), (Keohane 1986a, 23), (Keohane 1986b,
167), (Keohane and Martin 1997, 625).]

- If you have sources in foreign languages, translate the title into English in brackets
after the title in foreign language.

Miyamoto, Yoshio. 1942. Hosokokka [Broadcasting and the National Defense
In-text citation: (Miyamoto 1942)
It is acceptable to utilize acronyms in the text citations for some things, particularly long names of government agencies. You must note what the acronym is. For example, the first reference might be: (U.S. International Trade Commission 1978, 12; hereafter USITC). Later references can be then be (USITC 1978, 32). Don’t over-use this!
Sample Bibliography


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3 Using the sources listed above as examples. Note the spacing and punctuation.


