

Appendix 2: Sample Abstracts from Completed Theses

Note: Included here are sample abstracts from theses in Areas B and C. An additional abstract from a thesis in Area C is found in Chapter 4.

Abstract from a Behavioral Sciences Thesis: The Effect of Source Reinforcement on Preschoolers' Ability to Resist Suggestible Information

Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between source monitoring and suggestibility in preschoolers. We proposed that by reinforcing the sources of original events, children would be better able to resist suggestible information. If strengthening the relationship between memory and source resulted in improved memory for original information, this would further support the claim that source-monitoring difficulties contribute to the suggestibility effect in preschoolers. An ongoing story was presented to three- and five-year-old children via three source modalities—watching a video, listening to a story, and playing with toys. Following the presentations, children received either reinforcement of the presentations and the associated sources, reinforcement of the presentations without the sources, or no reinforcement. After listening to misleading post-event information, children were then tested for their memory of original events and their sources. As predicted, three-year-olds performed no better than chance regardless of whether they had received source of general memory reinforcement or not, suggesting that source-monitoring abilities for this age group are extremely rudimentary, if not absent. Five-year-olds, by comparison, showed significant improvements following reinforcement. Whether this was due to source reinforcement, or to memory reinforcement without the source, was inconclusive in this study. The results, however, support the predictions of the source-monitoring framework and suggest that memory for source involves other judgment processes in combination with memory characteristics. The dominance of the visual and participatory sources is also discussed in relation to the source-monitoring framework.

Abstract from a Social Sciences Thesis: Extra-Scientific Aspects of Sir Isaac Newton's Scientific Thought: His Views About God, and His Hypotheses of an Aether and the Subtle Spirit

Abstract

This study investigated two extra-scientific aspects of Isaac Newton's scientific work to determine whether Newton pursued these interests as separate activities and combined them with results from his scientific work into a unified and coherent view of the world. The extra-scientific aspects examined in this thesis are: a) his views about God and God's relationship to the world; and b) his varying commitments to the hypothesis of an aether and his notion of a subtle spirit, both of which he invoked to explain many of nature's phenomena. Evidence drawn from Newton's public and private statements about God shows that Newton held an unshaken belief in a providential God, whose everyday concurrence with the world ensures its order and perpetuity. Newton's speculations on various kinds of an aethereal medium and his speculations on a subtle spirit indicate that, for Newton, each was an active principle that is involved in phenomena of nature. Newton's views about God, and the explicatory roles in natural phenomena that he assigned to various aethers as well as to the subtle spirit, suggest that Newton was striving toward a unity of truth from knowledge that he garnered from diverse intellectual pursuits. This interpretation of Newton's thought must be tempered with the fact, however, that Newton does not explicitly state in the works examined in this study that a unity of thought was his lifelong objective.

Abstract from a Humanities Thesis: The Effect of English Attitudes toward Male Homosexuality on Eighteenth- and Nineteenth-Century Translations of Plato's *Symposium* and *Phaedrus*

Abstract

This paper studies how English attitudes toward male homosexuals during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries affected translations of Plato's *Symposium* and *Phaedrus*. During this period homosexual men were harshly punished by being pilloried or hanged due to the strong bias against them in English society. This same era also happened to see the publication of the first English translations of the *Symposium* and *Phaedrus*. Since these dialogues contain explicit references to male homosexual relations, the hostile social climate that existed in England when they were being produced affected the manner in which they were translated. By examining each eighteenth- and nineteenth-century English edition of these works, this study shows the extent of the impact of English anti-homosexual bias upon the translations. When we examine them, we find that most editions of the *Symposium*, those by Floyer Sydenham (1761-67), Thomas Taylor (1804), Percy Shelley (1840), and Benjamin Jowett (1868, 1892), were affected by the social conditions of the time. However, we also learn that in 1850 George Burges did publish an edition using more precise language. As far as the *Phaedrus* is concerned, we find that those versions by Thomas Taylor (1792), John Stuart Mill (1834), William Whewell (1860), and Benjamin Jowett (1868, 1892), all clearly show the effect of English prejudice against male homosexuality. Yet we also learn that Josiah Wright's and Henry Cary's separate 1848 publications reveal a greater concern for honest scholarship. Still, in spite of the publication of all of these editions, we ultimately discover that it is not until the twentieth century that unambiguous translations of the *Symposium* and *Phaedrus* are finally produced in the English language.

Appendix 3: Checklist for Format Review of Completed Thesis

Note: Once you have completed your thesis, you will submit it to your research advisor for format review. When the research advisor has finished carefully reading your work, you will receive the following form along with your thesis, indicating the errors that need to be corrected before the final thesis is approved. We include this form here so that you can use it as a checklist in the preparation of your thesis.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

DIVISION OF
CONTINUING EDUCATION



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Dear Candidate:

Congratulations upon finishing your thesis! Before I can give it final approval, however, a few errors in formatting must be rectified. Checked below are the problem areas to be corrected. *Be sure to examine each page of your thesis for comments.*

Front Matter

- Errors in title page (content or spacing)
- Blank page missing
- Error in formatting copyright
- Abstract needs revision (lengthening, shortening, clarification, correction)
- Errors in table of contents (content or spacing)
- Subheadings in text missing from table of contents
- Pagination in text doesn't match that in table of contents
- Errors in optional biographical sketch
- Errors in dedication or acknowledgments
- Errors in list of tables or list of figures
- Incorrect numbering of front matter
- Front matter out of correct sequence
- Margin (top, bottom, left, right) incorrect
- Use of more than one font or font size
- Other _____

Text of the Thesis

- Errors in spelling (check throughout)
- Errors in punctuation (check throughout)
- Use of ellipsis incorrect (check throughout)
- Accent marks or italics missing or incorrectly used in foreign-language words
- Margin incorrect (top, bottom, left, right)
- Text not double-spaced
- Typeface not 10-point or 12-point
- Poor quality printing: laser printing required
- Chapter headings incorrect (content or spacing)

- Chapter headings in text don't match those in table of contents
- Other major headings incorrect (content or spacing)
- A-heads, B-heads, C-heads incorrectly formatted
- A-head occurs adjacent to chapter heading without introductory text
- Page numbers incorrectly placed or numbered
- Paragraphs not properly indented
- Long quotations (in excess of 4 lines) not centered and correctly indented or punctuated
- Illustrations not correctly presented (figure number, title, legend; spacing; arrangement; clarity of image)
- Endnote numbers in text not superscripted or correctly placed
- Endnotes or footnotes not formatted according to *MLA Handbook*
- Footnotes not correctly spaced at the bottom of the page
- Notes misnumbered or do not occur on the correct page
- Subsequent endnote or footnote citations incorrectly formatted
- Superfluous duplicate endnotes/footnotes that should be cited parenthetically within the text
- Other _____

End Matter

- Endnotes—see above
- Appendices (errors in content, spacing, arrangement)
- Bibliography has errors (spacing, format)—check *MLA Handbook*
- Index has errors
- Other _____

Other

- Sample of thesis paper to be used not submitted or unacceptable
- Text too light—printer needs fresh cartridge

Consult your *Guide to the ALM Thesis* and the appropriate style handbook (*MLA*, *CMS*, *OR APA*) for exact specifications in all of the foregoing matters. If you have any questions, do not hesitate to call me.

It is also a good idea to contact your thesis director at this time to remind him or her to submit without delay a grade and a brief narrative evaluation of the thesis to the ALM office, without which you cannot graduate. *When you return the corrected thesis to me, please submit both the new copy and the old one so that I can quickly compare the two.* Good luck with this final hurdle.

Sincerely,

Your Research Advisor

Appendix 4: Common Problems in Grammar, Punctuation, and Usage

Affect and Effect. These two words differ by only one letter, but have completely different meanings. As a verb, to **affect** something means to influence it (“The cold weather affected his health”), or else to pretend something (“He affected indifference to the cold weather”). To **effect** something, on the other hand, means to accomplish it (“The cold weather effected his speedy departure”). As a noun, “affect” is used almost exclusively as a psychological term meaning strong emotion, whereas “effect,” a far more common noun, means a result (“His affect was an effect of the cold weather”).

Avoid Repetition of the Passive Voice Repeated use of the passive voice in English leads to dull and soporific writing. In other words, your reader *will be put to sleep* if the passive voice *is used* too much. Change passive voice to active voice. Your reader will wake up when you use the active voice.

Capitalization. Besides capitalizing all proper nouns, one should also capitalize abstractions used to represent a proper noun. For example, when speaking about “the Catholic Church,” one can simply use “the Church.” One should maintain a distinction between “the church on the corner” (a physical object) and the abstract concept of a “Church.”

A Century Used Adjectivally. When used as an adjective, the form is “nineteenth-century” and “twentieth-century” (with a hyphen). Otherwise, no hyphen is used. For example, “nineteenth-century architecture,” but “the architecture of the nineteenth century.”

Changes or Additions in Quotations. Any change in, or addition to, a quotation should be given within brackets: “[a]ny change in, or addition to, a [direct] quotation should be given within brackets.”

A colon is usually used to introduce a quotation that begins with a capital letter. If a quotation begins with a capital letter, but if the quotation is grammatically part of your introductory phrase, then you should lower case and place in brackets the first letter of the quotation. Thus: The paper judged “[t]hat it was folly. . . .”

Commas in a Series. Commas should appear after all the items in a series, including the penultimate item: “Run, jump, and throw.”

Consistency in Abbreviations. Be consistent with abbreviations: either US or U.S.; either USSR or U.S.S.R. Abbreviations occurring within direct quotations are left just the way they are.

Digitizing Numbers. The numbers “ninety-nine” and below are written out. The numbers 100 and above are digitized.

Ellipses. If you omit something from a direct quotation, you must indicate the omission with ellipsis points, i.e., three spaced periods: “If you omit something from a direct quotation, . . . indicate the omission with ellipsis. . . .” If the ellipsis occurs at the end of a sentence (as in the example above), four spaced periods must be used (one of which is a sentence period).

Fewer and Less. “Fewer” applies to units that you can count, “less” to a quantity that you can measure. If what you are counting is made up of individual things such as milk bottles or people, use “fewer” (“Fewer people drink milk in France than in America”). If what you are counting does not have individual units but is a collective noun such as “milk” or “butter” or “money,” then use “less” (“People drink less milk in France than in America”). The phrase “less people” is incorrect, since you can count people. The phrase “fewer money,” for obvious reasons, is also incorrect.

The Hyphen in Compound Words. Check the dictionary to see whether two or more words used together should be hyphenated (water-repellent), combined (waterproof), or written as two separate words (water table). If the compound is not in the dictionary, then treat it as two words. *Note:* dictionaries sometimes differ on whether a compound should be one word or two (e.g., fire fighter or firefighter). Use a hyphen to connect two or more words used as an adjective before a noun: “Make an all-out effort to write clearly.” Do not use a hyphen when such compounds follow the noun: “The effort was all out.” Do not use a hyphen to connect *-ly* modifiers (usually adverbs) to the words they modify: “A slowly moving truck won the Indianapolis 500.”

Identifying the Author of a Quotation in Your Text. It is important that you identify in your text (not just in the footnote) the author of any quotation you use. (E.g., John Wilson states, “The bird population is decreasing annually.”)

Identifying Centuries. Write out the names of the centuries: “nineteenth century,” “twentieth century,” *not* “1800s” or “1900s.”

Identify What “This” Is. Avoid beginning a sentence with an unspecified “this”: “This led to unspeakable atrocities.” Be specific about what “this” might be: “This issue came before Congress.”

Impact. “Impact” is a noun frequently misused as a verb. There is a correct meaning of the verb “to impact,” which is “to pack firmly together.” If you want to say that something had an impact on something else, however, then you should use those very words, or else the verb “to affect” (see **Affect and Effect**, above). “The President’s speech impacted his audience” means that it packed them firmly together, like sardines in a tin. “The President’s speech had an impact on his audience” means that it left a strong impression on them.

Imply and Infer. Another pair of words frequently confused. “To imply” means to suggest or to hint at something (“She implied that she would be late”). “To infer” means to draw a conclusion or make a deduction based on an implication (“He inferred from what she said that she would be late”). Put another way, “to imply” means to send a veiled message, while “to infer” means to interpret one.

Incomplete Sentences. Complete sentences always contain a subject and a verb. Rarely, and principally for emphasis, an accomplished writer may use a sentence fragment. But for a professional writing style in a thesis, sentences should be complete.

Insolvable and Insoluble. “Insolvable” means “incapable of being solved,” as in the sentence “This puzzle is insolvable.” “Insoluble,” on the other hand, means “incapable of being dissolved,” as in “Lead is insoluble in water.” You could, of course, say “This puzzle is insoluble,” but that would simply mean that it does not dissolve in liquid.

Introductory Adverbial Clauses. The rule for introductory adverbial clauses is to set it off from what follows in the sentence with a comma: “When Irwin was ready to eat, his cat jumped onto the table.”

Without the comma, an ambiguity can arise in the reader’s mind as to what Irwin was ready to eat. The comma introduces the cat as the subject of the sentence, not the object of Irwin’s appetite. The principle to follow is that you do not want to make your reader read your sentence twice in order to understand it. Unless you are writing poetry or evocative prose, avoid ambiguity.

Exception: A comma at the end of an introductory adverbial clause is not needed when two conditions are met: (1) the clause is short and (2) no possible ambiguity exists. Here is an example of a short introductory adverbial clause that requires a comma: “In 1919, cases of flu were reported.”

Notice that without the comma the number “1919” could be taken, on first reading, to indicate the number of flu cases. With the comma, there is no ambiguity.

Its and It’s. One of the most common mistakes in A.L.M. theses is the confusion between “its” and “it’s.” “Its,” with no apostrophe, means “of it” (“The cat ate its food”). “It’s,” with an apostrophe, is a contraction meaning “it is” (“It’s about time that the cat ate its food”). One reason for this mistake is that possessives formed from proper nouns, such as “John’s” or “Mary’s,” end in apostrophe “s.” But possessive pronouns do not. Would you write “hers” with an apostrophe: “her’s”? We hope not. Please remember, whenever you write “it’s,” you are really writing “it is.” When you mean to say “of it,” use “its.”

Long Quotations. Single space and indent quotations of more than four typed lines. Indent one inch from the left margin, and omit the quotation marks. A colon generally introduces a quotation displayed thus.

Methodology. This word means the study of method or methods (“Professor Jones has a strong interest in methodology in nutrition”). It should not be used in place of the word “method” (“Professor Smith used an incorrect method”). Using “methodology” when you mean “method” is not only inaccurate, but also sounds pretentious. And most of the time you will almost certainly mean “method,” since it is a far more common noun.

Modification of Superlatives. Superlatives such as “unique” (meaning “the only one”) should not be modified. Something cannot be “almost unique” or “very unique”—it is either unique or not. Qualifying superlatives is equivalent to using “most” with adjectives ending in “-est”; we hope that you would not write or say “most biggest.” By the same token, you should not write “most unique.” Other superlatives that should never be modified include “endless,” “final,” “foremost,” “highest,” and (despite the example offered by the preamble of the U.S. Constitution) “perfect.”

Nonsexist Language. Despite the practice of grammarians since the eighteenth century, it is no longer considered appropriate to use the masculine pronouns “he,” “him,” and “his” as generic pronouns because of their obvious exclusion of women. Instead, one should use “he or she” or “him or her” or “his and her”: “Each student should thoroughly research his or her topic.” If this form seems awkward, it can be avoided by using a plural noun and a plural pronoun: “Students should thoroughly research their topic.” For further assistance, consult the MLA publication *Language, Gender, and Professional Writing: Theoretical Approaches and Guidelines for Nonsexist Usage*, by Francine Wattman Frank and Paula A. Treichler.

Run-On Sentences. Avoid run-on sentences, generally two sentences thrust together without any intervening punctuation or without the use of a coordinate conjunction between them: “I finished my thesis I had it bound.”

Significantly. This adverb has a technical definition in the sciences. It does not mean “highly” or “very,” but rather a statistically significant association between two facts or occurrences (one whose chance of random occurrence is .05 or less). So a sentence like “His chances for a raise were significantly affected by his good work habits” implies that you can demonstrate a statistical correlation between work and income. If this is not your intention, be sure to use the word in such a way as to differentiate it from a statistical context.

That and Which. The relative pronoun “that” introduces restrictive clauses containing information necessary to the correct meaning of the main clause: “An office manager for a corporation that had government contracts asked her supervisor if she could reprimand her co-workers for smoking.” The relative pronoun “which” introduces non-restrictive clauses containing extra but unnecessary information about the noun that precedes it: “The Saudis buy spare parts, which cannot be produced locally, from Great Britain.” A comma precedes the use of “which,” while no comma precedes “that.”

Their, There, and They’re. These three words are frequently confused. “Their” is possessive (“Their house is white”). “There” is demonstrative (“Their white house is over there”). “They’re” is a contraction for “they are” (“They’re in their white house over there”).

Word Division. Students are often careless about where to place hyphens when dividing words at the end of a line. Words should be divided only at the end of a syllable, as defined in a standard English dictionary (such as *Webster’s* or *American Heritage*). Thus the word “syl-la-ble” has only two places where it can be divided correctly; to divide it as “syll-a-ble” would be incorrect and therefore unacceptable. Please consult a standard dictionary if you are in doubt about where to divide a word. Some words whose second syllable contains only a silent “e” cannot be divided at all. Examples include: “tamed,” “played,” and “fanned.”

Appendix 5: Word-Processing Issues

Note: Computers make the task of writing and revising papers much easier, but you should be aware of unexpected tricks your word-processing program, especially Microsoft Word, can play on you.

Different Kinds of Quotation Marks and Apostrophes

Watch out for two different kinds of quotation marks—not the left and right “smart” marks, but the left and right marks (“ ”), on the one hand, and the doubled neuter quotation marks (“ ”), on the other. The double neuter quotation marks came about as an attempt to save space on the typewriter keyboard (so they would not have to use two keys, one for the right and one for the left quotation mark). Most word-processing programs use “smart” marks that will give you a left quotation mark (“) or a right quotation mark (”) when you type the double neutered quotation mark key on your keyboard. Usually the way a double neutered quotation marks appears on your screen or in your paper is the result of “cutting and pasting” from another document (e.g., one downloaded from the Internet). You may use either the “smart” marks or the double neuter marks, but try not to use both in the same document (unless, of course, you have a particular reason for doing so). The same applies to mutatis mutandis to the neutered apostrophe or single neuter quotation mark (') and their curly equivalents (') and ('), respectively.

Underline or Italics

Another typewriter carryover to word processing is the underline. You may have notice that published works use italics to represent titles of books, journals, newspapers, etc., as well as for emphasizing words in the text. Most typewriters did not have an italics option (IBM did introduce a Selectric typewriter in the late 1970s with various typing balls that would allow you to change from Roman type to italics). So, to represent italics, people using a typewriter would simply underline the title or words that they wanted to emphasize. Now, with word processors, we can once again do italics. But this has led to confusion. In a paper, does one underline (as in the days of the typewriter) or does one italicize (as with published text)? We recommend italics, but underlining is still quite respectable for papers. Just don't use both in the same paper (unless, of course, you have a special reason for doing so).

Footnotes and Wrong Page

Almost all word-processing programs handle footnotes well. That is, they put the footnote on the same page as the corresponding superscript in the text. One widespread word-processing program does not handle footnotes well. That is Microsoft Word, which may have been packaged with the computer you bought. Word has a tendency to put footnotes on the wrong page. The telltale sign is the separator line at the bottom of the page of text and before the footnotes. Usually that line is 2 inches long, except when there is carryover from a footnote on the previous page. Then it goes

across the entire page. That is fine and what it should be doing. Sometimes, however, you may notice that the separator line extends the entire width of the page of text, but a new footnote appears at the top of the footnote section. That means this footnote should have been on the previous page. It is difficult to correct this errant footnote, but possible. But then once you get this footnote fixed, it tends to throw off the footnote placement on subsequent pages. The longer the paper and the more footnotes you have, the worse the problem is. One solution that has worked is to set line spacing to “exactly” for your document instead of “double,” then select 24 or 25 point in the accompanying box.

Em dash

Typewriters usually do not have an em dash (—), so typists used two hyphens (--) to simulate a dash. All word-processing programs have em dashes and some will automatically change the two hyphens to a dash if you tell them to (but note that Microsoft Word will sometimes change the first pair of hyphens to a dash but not the second accompanying pair). If you wish to insert an em dash manually in Word, go to “Insert” on the tool bar, then select “Symbol.” A grid will appear with various typographic and diacritical characters. Find the em dash and insert it in your document.

Suppression of Page Number on the First Page of Each Chapter

According to *A Guide to the ALM Thesis*, 5th ed.: “It is customary to omit the page number from a page containing a new chapter heading; however, the number may be centered at the bottom of the page (1/2 inch from the edge), if the student wishes to retain the page number” (p. 58). If you want to suppress the page number on the first page of each new chapter, you can create separate files for each new chapter and tell Word to suppress the number on the first page. But this is usually inconvenient because you have to reset the page number and the footnote numbering for each new chapter. If you want to keep your thesis in one file and suppress particular page numbers, you can do so by placing a square over the page number you wish to make disappear. First, go to the “Draw” toolbar. Click on “Autoshapes.” Then click on the “Basic Shapes.” Select the square and place it over the page number. Click on the square twice after you have placed it. The Format Autoshape dialog box should appear. Go to Line Color and select “no line.” That should cover up your page number.

URLs

With the advent of the Internet, citations of information from websites appear more now in formal scholarly work. The URL is the website address. One recommended way to cite a website is the following:

Conrad J. Bladey, “The Potato Famine in History” <<http://www.intl.net/cksmith/famine/history.html>> (cited August 21, 1995).

Whenever possible, supply the name of the website, author, and date accessed. Note that in this system of citation the URL is enclosed in angle brackets: <<http://www. . . .>>. The *Chicago Manual of Style*, which used to recommend angle brackets to set off the URL, now recommends no enclosing marks because angle brackets are used in some markup languages. That does create a problem though for determining whether a punctuation mark that follows a URL is part of the URL or not.

When you have a long URL, the word processing program will drop it to the next line often leaving a wide blank space in the previous line. You can fill in that blank space by breaking the URL. The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends that the break come after a slash. You may also “break *before* a tilde (~), a hyphen (-), an underline (_), a question mark, or a percent symbol; or *before* or *after* an equals sign or an ampersand” <<http://www.press.uchicago.edu/Misc/Chicago/cmosfaq/cmosfaq.URLs.html>>. It recommends against adding a hyphen to indicate a break (since hyphens are often part of the URL) and after a dot (because it gives the appearance of a period at the end of a line).

Note also that URLs should not be underlined in your printed text, nor they should be in a different color. Here are some ways to turn off the underline based on Word 2000. On the menu bar of any open document, go to Tools/AutoCorrect/AutoFormat As You Type, then uncheck the box beside “Internet and network paths with hyperlinks.” Next click on the AutoFormat tab and uncheck the box next to “Internet and network paths with hyperlinks” (this needs to be done in both places). This double unchecking will preclude URL syntax from automatically being turned into a link from then on, but it will not undo those links that you may already have in one of your documents.

To unlink a URL, right click on it. From the drop-down menu, choose “Hyperlink” and then choose “Remove Hyperlink.” Doing so will not remove the URL, but will give the URL the same attributes as the surrounding text. It may also be possible to eliminate the hyperlink by selecting the text that contains the hyperlink, then typing Ctrl+Shift+F9. You may also have to remove the hypertext character style, which can be accomplished by going to the Format/Style on the menu bar. In WordPerfect 10, you can eliminate the hyperlink by opening the Codes Option through Alt+F3, then backspacing over the Hyperlink code command.

Appendix 6: Bibliography

We have found helpful discussions of research, writing, style, and organization in the works listed below. All are on reserve in Grossman Library.

Aaron, Jane, and H. Ramsay Fowler. *The Little, Brown Compact Handbook (APA Update)*. 4th ed. New York: Addison Wesley, 2000.

Altick, Richard D. *The Art of Literary Research*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1993.

Ambrose and Ambrose. *A Handbook of Biological Investigation*. 5th ed. Winston-Salem: Hunter Textbooks, 2001.

Barnet, Sylvan. *A Short Guide to Writing about Art*. 7th ed. New York: Longman, 2002. Part of a series by this press that includes:

A Short Guide to Writing about Literature by Sylvan Barnet;

A Short Guide to Writing about Biology by Jan A. Pechenik;

A Short Guide to Writing about Social Science by Lee J. Cuba;

A Short Guide to Writing about Film by Timothy Corrigan;

A Short Guide to Writing about History by Richard Marius.

Barzun, Jacques. *Simple and Direct: A Rhetoric for Writers*. New York: HarperCollins, 2001.

Becker, Howard S. *Writing for Social Scientists: How to Start and Finish Your Thesis, Book, or Article*. Chicago: U of Chicago P, 1986.

Burke, Peter, ed. *New Perspectives on Historical Writing*. 2nd ed. University Park: Pennsylvania State UP, 2001.

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- Strunk, William, Jr., and E. B. White. *The Elements of Style*. 4th ed. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 2000.
- Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. 6th ed. Chicago: U of Chicago P, 1996.