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Guidelines for Preparing a Research Article in
APA Style-Redux

Bob Algozzine
Fred Spooner
Ya-yu Lo
Amy Kemp-Inman

RICHARD LAMBERT
CHUANG WANG
MARK D'AMICO
SERIES EDITORS

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Guidelines for Preparing a Research Article in APA Style-Redux

Bob Algozzine

Fred Spooner

Ya-yu Lo

Kemp-Inman

University of North Carolina at Charlotte

Bob Algozzine, Department of Educational Leadership, University of North Carolina at Charlotte; Fred Spooner, Ya-yu Lo, and Amy Kemp-Inman, Department of Special Education and Child Development, University of North Carolina at Charlotte.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Fred Spooner, Special Education and Child Development, College of Education, UNC Charlotte, Charlotte, NC. E-mail: fhspooone@uncc.edu

This is an update of a now irrelevant article (Algozzine, Spooner, & Karvonen, 2002) on preparing a manuscript in the style presented in a prior edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (American Psychological Association [APA], 2001).

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Abstract

In this article, we review key considerations for preparing a manuscript for submission to a journal that uses guidelines in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). We describe features of primary sections of a research paper and provide examples for review and consideration. For the method and results sections of the paper, we offer more detailed descriptions for side heading/subsection material (e.g., participants and setting, procedure, data analysis and design, tables and figures). We include additional information on checkpoints for manuscript preparation, some APA rules (e.g., spacing, numbers, italics, abbreviations, quotation marks), guidelines for headings, citations for sources in text (e.g., single author, multiple authors, books, periodicals) as well as the development of the reference list. Miscellaneous considerations and the review process also are addressed.

Keywords

writing for publication, APA style, article guidelines

Box 1.1

The second page of your manuscript should be an abstract (i.e., a brief, comprehensive summary of your paper). It should be a single paragraph in block format (i.e., without paragraph indentation). It should reflect the content of the article, with no more than 960 characters, including punctuation and spaces (usually, 120-200 words, 5-7 sentences) that does not exceed the limits specified by the journal to which you are submitting. The abstract should be followed by three to five keywords representing the content of the paper. Section 2.04 of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (Manual: APA, 2010, pp. 25-27) provides list of content that should be included in abstracts for different types of articles.

A research article is one in which a question or series of questions derived from a body of literature is addressed by the collection of original data which are subsequently used to provide answers that can be generalized with appropriate limitations and restrictions. In most research articles, the organizational frame includes a brief (3-4 pages) introduction, followed by sections describing the **method** (4-6 pages), the **results** (3-5 pages, maybe supplemented by **tables** or **figures**), and a **discussion** (4-6 pages) linking the work to extant literature, bringing forward the implications of the work and its limitations, and summarizing the value of the research for improvement of the knowledge

base and professional practice. The content, emphasis, and length of each section will vary with the thrust of the article and the audience as well as the nature of the study.

The beginning of the article should make the purpose, worth, and need for the research immediately clear; it should describe what is known about the topic under investigation, why the study was necessary, what was intended to be accomplished, and why the outcomes are important. The introduction is typically a “review of literature” identifying the problem statement(s), establishing the background, and providing a clear indication of the purpose and rationale for the study. Research questions or hypotheses often

conclude the Introduction section. A common practice in preparing this section of the article is to use several paragraphs to discuss other studies pointing to different opinions or raising questions that have been answered in the study. Any literature used in the Introduction section (or any other sections) should be listed in the reference section. A good introduction answers the following questions and gives the reader a firm sense of what was done and why (APA, 2010, pp. 27-28):

- What is the point of the study?
- How do the hypotheses and design relate to the problem?
- What are the theoretical implications of the work and how does it relate to previous research in the area?
- What are the theoretical propositions tested and how were they derived?

Articles based on dissertation research often require the most cutting in areas related to the introduction and literature review. Sometimes, however, if the dissertation began with a brief introduction placing the problem in context and concluding with a statement of purpose or overview of methods, that section may be used almost as is for the introduction of the article.

METHOD

The Method section is used to describe in detail how the study was conducted (APA, 2010, pp. 29-32). This section often begins with a one- or two-sentence overview of the method that was used to conduct the study. A list of hypotheses or a sentence description of the purpose and objectives can also be used to “introduce” the method before formally describing what was done in the study. The description in the Method section should provide the readers with sufficient information

to evaluate the appropriateness and integrity of what was done as well as the reliability and validity of the outcomes derived from doing it. This section should also provide enough detail for other investigators to replicate the study if they so desire.

The Method section is typically divided into labeled subsections. These usually include a description of the *participants and setting* and the *procedure*, including subsections for instrument explanation and technical adequacy evidence, and *research design and data analysis* explication. The purpose here is to provide “information essential for others to comprehend and replicate the study. Insufficient detail leaves the readers with questions; too much detail burdens the readers with irrelevant information” (APA, 2010, p. 29).

Participants and Setting

Sample characteristics and information on the setting for the study should be provided early in the Method section. The goal here is to set the context for the research, including information about the participant selection criteria, demographics, and where the study took place. When describing a group design study, use numbers to represent who participated in the study, if appropriate, and whenever possible, indicate the sample’s representativeness with regard to the population under investigation. When describing a single-case research design study, describe the participant(s), listing parameters such as age, characteristics, IQ, and performance or behavior relevant to the purpose of the study. For qualitative studies, with “participants” ranging from a single individual to an entire cultural group, use a variety of methods to describe the participants. When possible, individual participant characteristics should be described much like those in a single-case research, with attention

to characteristics that are especially relevant to the research questions. If a larger entity (e.g., a school system) is the focus of the study, descriptive characteristics about that organization should be included. In general, this section helps readers understand who participated and sets the parameters for generalization of the obtained outcomes.

Procedure

This subsection is used to summarize important aspects of the research method, including what was done to address the research questions of interest. The description should be of sufficient detail to warrant confidence in other researchers relative to what was done and direct them in conducting similar work. Qualitative researchers may wish to place additional emphasis on the rationale of their approach, especially if it includes procedures that are less familiar to the audience. If appropriate, consider dividing this section into subsections for detailed descriptions of the intervention and instrumentation (and apparatus) as well as design and data analysis, if appropriate and necessary.

Intervention. If the study involved a treatment or program implementation, it should be described clearly. If the assessment of an intervention, rather than the intervention itself, was the focus of the study, devote less space on the description of the intervention. If, on the other hand, the focus of the research was testing a new or complex intervention, it is important to extensively describe it so others can replicate or use it. This rule of thumb applies to both quantitative and qualitative studies. The focus of an applied behavior analytic study should be a detailed description of the intervention, to the extent that another researcher, with interest in the same topical area, could read the account of

the intervention that you have written and replicate or reproduce the procedure(s).

Instrumentation. Describe measurement tools used for data collection and their technical adequacy in a subsection if warranted by their importance to the study. Physiological measurements are typically described first, followed by observations and questionnaires or interviews, thus moving from more objective and precise data to more subjective and imprecise information. Provide an indication of the acceptability and previous use of all measures, relying on previous research and established technical adequacy data (e.g., validity and reliability) to support use whenever possible. Additionally, it is important to describe the rationale, development procedures, and technical characteristics of any measures produced specifically for the study. If appropriate, describe any special apparatus or material used in the study as well as their function with regard to the outcomes. The use of recording devices (e.g., videotape recorders) in qualitative studies should also be noted if used to ensure the accuracy of data. The key is that the description of the instrumentation should prepare the readers for the findings that will be described in the Results section and establish relevance for the readers.

In survey research, this section often includes a description of the development procedures for the questionnaire or survey used for data collection. Numbers and content of items as well as technical considerations are typically described in sufficient detail to support adoption, adaptation, or application by others. In applied behavior analytic research in the area of skill training for persons with disabilities, this section might require the description of the task analysis that was used to teach the skill.

Some additional considerations are warranted for those writing about qualitative

research. Because qualitative studies often employ non-standardized instruments created specifically for the study (e.g., researcher designed focus group interviews), the instrument content (e.g., open-ended questions), development process (e.g., pilot testing), and format (e.g., semi-structured interview) should be described in some detail. It is also considered best practice in qualitative research to describe the role of the researcher in relationship to the study participants (e.g., participant observer).

Design and Data Analysis

Thesis writers frequently explain in detail the technical operations they engaged to organize and analyze their data, sometimes even naming the statistical package used to arrange, compile, and conduct statistical analyses and significance tests. In a journal article, it is generally expected that the researcher(s) understand the design and statistics that were used and have dealt appropriately with their research questions, hypotheses, and data. Design and data analysis information is generally included only when this aspect of the study needs clarification to support replication. In this subsection, the applied behavior analytic researcher would delineate the experimental design (e.g., multiple baseline across participants) that was used in the study, and explain the type of analysis (e.g., visual inspection) that was employed to examine the potential effects of the intervention. Qualitative studies should include a summary of the data collection schedule, as well as descriptions of the data coding process, identification of themes, and the approach(es) used in data analysis (e.g., grounded theory).

RESULTS

The Results section is used to summarize the data collected and the statistical treatment of the data in support of the research questions addressed in the study (APA, 2010, pp. 32-35). The main outcomes are typically presented first, with sufficient detail to justify conclusions with regard to underlying and organizing hypotheses. All relevant results, statistically significant ones as well as those that are not significant, should be addressed, including those that run counter to preconceived questions. For a single-case experimental design study, the researcher refers the reader to the charted data, usually presented in a figure, and describes in the text the effects including the mean, range, trend, and level of variability of baseline and intervention performance(s) for each participant, one at a time. The results obtained from qualitative studies vary widely according to the data collected and the analysis method used; as a result, there is generally greater flexibility in the manner in which qualitative results are reported. The results section should include the identification of common or emergent themes, exceptions to the primary findings, and unexpected outcomes. Data collected qualitatively and summarized quantitatively also should be summarized here. Most findings are reported within the text and may be supported with direct quotes from participants or examples that support the findings; however, some data may be best reported graphically (e.g., in a causal flowchart).

Tables and figures

Most journals rarely have space for more than two or three tables or figures. Before you include a table or figure, try to decide if it contains information that is essential to organize and add to the presentation of

findings. Tables provide exact values and efficiently illustrate outcomes. For example, means, standard deviations, and obtained *t* statistics for achievement scores for male and female participants might be presented in tabular form to depict an important comparison and its outcomes (see Table 1). Figures, such as charts and pictures, attract the readers' eye and are also used to illustrate outcomes; however, they are usually not as precise as tables (see Figure 1). Figures may tend to be more valuable in qualitative studies, where a detailed analysis of a social phenomenon, for example, might yield a causal model or an ethnographic decision model that cannot be adequately conveyed in tabular form.

Summarizing analyses and results in tables and figures instead of text can be very helpful, especially when large amounts of data are reduced by representation in a form other than sentences in long or repetitive paragraphs; however, using tables or figures for data that can easily be presented in a few sentences of text is not recommended. Tables and figures should augment rather than duplicate text, conveying essential facts without distracting details. The goal is to achieve a parsimonious balance in presenting the outcomes of the study. If you use tables and figures in an effort to do this, be sure to mention all of them in the text. Refer to all tables as *tables* and all charts, graphs, photographs, drawings, or other depictions as *figures*. Tables and figures supplement the text; they do not "stand alone." It is important to always tell the readers what to look for in the tables and figures and provide sufficient explanation to make the presentation easily comprehensible. Extensive information on displaying results and tables and figures is available in other sources (cf. APA, 2010, pp. 125-167).

DISCUSSION

The final section of the article ties the outcomes of the research to the literature and takes readers beyond the facts to the meaning they reflect, the questions they raise, the ideas to which they point, and the practical uses and value they have for the extension of knowledge. Consider opening this section with a clear statement relating the findings to the original questions or hypotheses. Similarities and differences between the study's outcomes and the work of others are also useful beginnings for the Discussion section. Be careful, however, not to simply reformulate, rehash, and repeat points made earlier in the article.

The discussion also includes sections describing recommendations and/or implications for future research and/or the improvement of practice, limitations of the research, and conclusions. Statements in the discussion should contribute to a position and to the reader's understanding of the problem. This section can be ended with a coherent and defensible commentary on the significance of the study and its contribution to what we already know about the topic. Finally, avoid overemphasizing limitations or generalizing beyond the outcomes of the study. "This concluding section may be brief or extensive provided that it is tightly reasoned, self-contained, and not overstated" (APA, 2010, p. 36).

REFERENCES

- Algozzine, B., Spooner, F., & Karvonen, M. (2002). Preparing special education research articles in APA style. *Remedial and Special Education, 23*, 24-30.
- American Psychological Association [APA]. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

American Psychological Association [APA].
(2010). *Publication manual of the
American Psychological Association* (6th
ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Box 1.2

Useful Internet Resources about APA

Purdue University Resource: <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>

The University of Maryland APA style guide: <http://www.lib.umd.edu/tl/guides/citing-apa>

Cornell University Library Citation Management:

<http://www.library.cornell.edu/resrch/citmanage/apa>

Dr. Abel Scribe PhD, APA Lite for College Papers: <http://www.docstyles.com/apalite.htm>

Vanguard University Department of Psychology, APA Style Guide:

<http://psychology.vanguard.edu/faculty/douglas-degelman/apa-style/>

Northern Michigan University APA Reference Style Guide:

http://library.nmu.edu/guides/userguides/style_apa.htm

Brigham Young University Linguistics, APA Reference Style (by David S. Baker and Lynn
Henrichsen): <http://linguistics.byu.edu/faculty/henrichsenl/apa/apa01.html>

Arizona State University APA Style Guide:

<http://www.library.arizona.edu/search/reference/citation-apa.html>

The Ohio State University Library APA Style Guide: [http://library.osu.edu/help/research-
strategies/cite-references/apa/](http://library.osu.edu/help/research-strategies/cite-references/apa/)

Research and Documentation Online, Social Sciences (By Diana Hacker):

http://bcs.bedfordstmartins.com/resdoc5e/RES5e_ch06_o.html

AUTHOR NOTE

An **author note** is not numbered or cited in the text. Start each paragraph of the note with an indent, and type a separate paragraph for the author(s)' names and affiliations first; then special circumstances, if any, regarding the study and acknowledgments of support for the work and preparation of the article, if any; and last, an address for correspondence (begin the sentence with "Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to..."). Though not suggested by APA, an abbreviated form of this information is sometimes included at the bottom of the first page of the article. When preparing a manuscript for submission to a journal for publication consideration (described further in Appendix G: "Review Process for Publications"), it will be important to exclude any information in the author note that will be linked to the identity of the author(s) from the manuscript for blind review purpose.

FOOTNOTE

¹APA style is the manner of writing specified in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed., 2010). When editors refer to style, they usually do not mean writing style; they mean editorial style—the rules a publisher observes to ensure clear, consistent presentation of the printed word (APA, 2010, p. 87). This paper is meant to be used as a quick reference when preparing articles in APA style; it is **NOT** as a substitute for using the manual itself. When writing a paper in APA style for distribution in another format (e.g., course or conference presentation handout), specific organization requirements and instructions (e.g., headings with letters added) take precedence over those of the *Publication Manual* (p. 87). The page numbers at the end of each checkpoint (see Appendix) reference where to find information on the specific topic in the *Publication Manual*. Information presented in the appendices was compiled from a variety of resources. It includes basic format considerations, checkpoints for preparing the manuscript, some APA rules, guidelines for the use of headings, some key points regarding citations, elements and examples of references in APA Style, review process of publications, and some miscellaneous guidance that we have found useful when preparing or helping others to prepare research articles in APA style.

Table 1
Male and Female Participants' Math and Writing Achievement Comparisons

Measure	Male		Female		Obtained <i>t</i>
	M	SD	M	SD	
Math Achievement	117.72	17.57	95.83	12.63	3.71*
Writing Achievement	120.83	15.88	92.83	17.97	4.49*

* $p < 0.05$

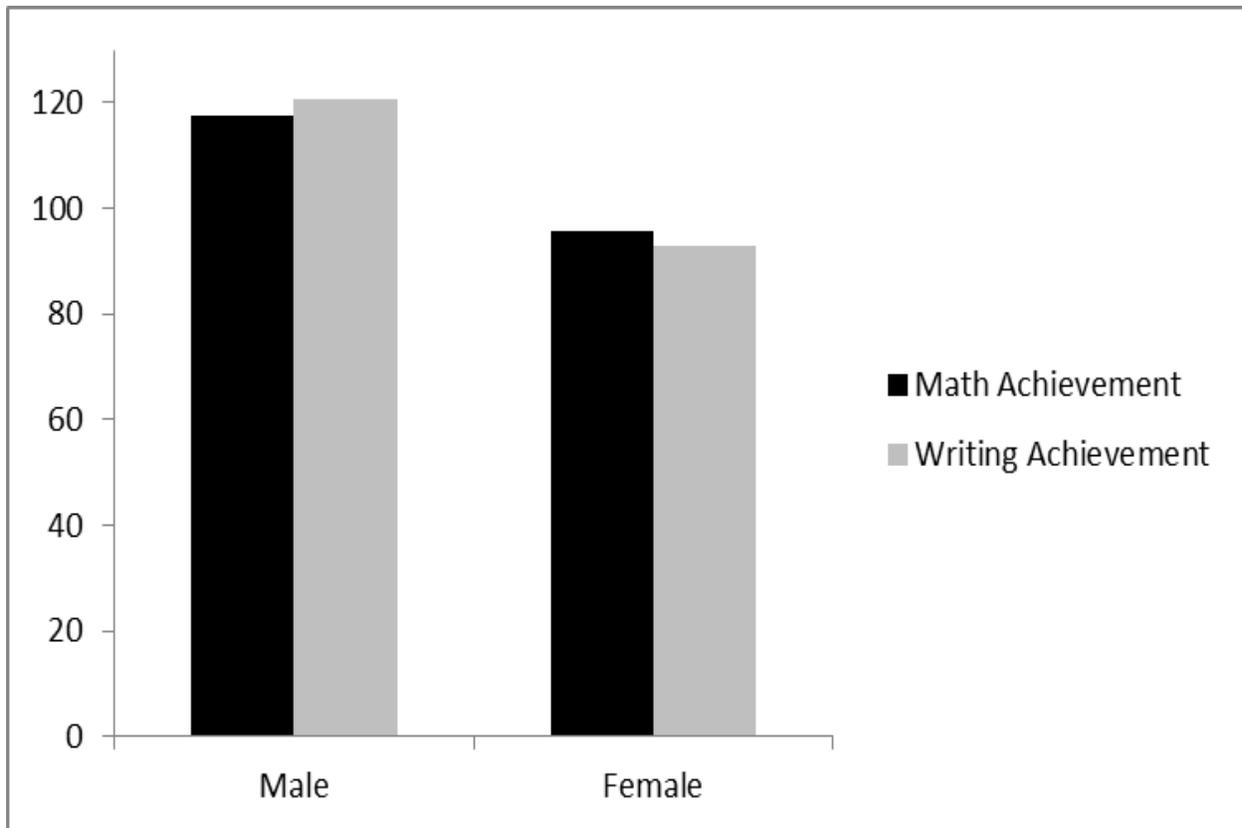


Figure 1. Male and female participants' math and writing performance in percent accuracy

APPENDIX A

Checkpoints for Manuscript Preparation

When preparing a manuscript for submission to a journal, set the margins to be 1 inch from top, bottom, and sides (except the manuscript page header with ½ inch from the top; APA, 2010, p. 229). Present content in a double-spaced format throughout the entire manuscript, using either Courier or Times New Roman font in 12-point size (pp. 228-229). Paragraphs are to be indented five to seven spaces or by ½ inch, and are presented with justification only on left side of paper, with the right side of the paper in ragged edges (p. 229). The manuscript page header at the top left of the page (½ inch down) is followed by the page number which appears on the same line at the far right. This should contain the first two or three words of your title as the running head. The page numbers (starting 1) begin with title page. Note that the running head is entirely capitalized and should be flushed left. The running head should be no more than 50 characters including punctuation and spaces. In the middle of the first page, type and center the following information: Full title of the paper (recommended title is 10 to 12 words), authors' name, and institution affiliation (APA, 2010, pp. 23-24, 229).

The abstract page should follow the title page. It should start on a new page and be page 2. Type the word "Abstract" centered on the first line of the page. The abstract should not be more than 960 characters long, including punctuation and spaces. It should be in block form and left justified, in other words, DO NOT indent paragraph. If the paper is being prepared using APA style but is not being submitted to a journal for possible publication, the abstract may not be required.

The text of the paper will begin on either page two or three, depending on whether or not there is an abstract. Begin by typing the

title of the paper and centering it. The next line should be indented five to seven spaces, or ½ inch, to begin the text (APA, 2010, pp. 28, 229).

The reference page follows the text. Begin on a new page and type the word References and center it. If there is only one reference, use the singular format (i.e., Reference). If the references take up more than one page, simply continue the listings without repeating the heading, "References" (APA, 2010, pp. 37, 230).

APPENDIX B

A Few Rules of APA

The following information summarizes some generalizations regarding selected functional and technical aspects of APA style.

Abbreviations

Abbreviations should be used sparingly throughout a research paper. Always spell out what the abbreviation means the first time it is used. An example would be Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). Thereafter, use the abbreviation, MMPI. According to APA (2010), the following abbreviations do not have to be explained: IQ, REM, ESP, AIDS, HIV, NAPD, ACTH (pp. 106-107).

Italics

Do not italicize for mere emphasis. Use italics for titles of books, introduction of new terms and labels (the first time only), statistical symbols (*t* test), and volume numbers in reference lists (APA, 2010, pp. 104-106).

Numbers

Use the Arabic symbol with numbers 10 and above (12, 50, etc.) except if being compared with numbers 10 and below (e.g., “the 4th and 11th grades took a test”). Use the numerical symbol for all numbers in the Abstract page. Spell out the number when beginning a sentence and numbers below 10. To make plurals out of numbers add “s” only with no apostrophe (the 1990s). Use combinations of written and Arabic numerals for back-to-back modifiers (six 2-point scales; APA, 2010, pp. 111-114).

Quotation Marks

Use quotation marks to set off the title of an article or chapter in a periodical or book when the title is mentioned in text, to introduce a word or phrase considered slang, or as an invented or coined expression. An example would be the “high tolerance” variable (no quotation marks after the initial usage; APA, 2010, p. 91).

Spacing

Space once after colons, commas, semicolons, after periods that separate parts of a reference citation, and after the periods of the initials of personal names (e.g., B. F. Skinner). Do not space after internal periods in abbreviations (e.g., a.m., i.e.; APA, 2010, pp. 87-88).

APPENDIX C

Guidelines for the Use of Headings

Headings indicate the organization of the manuscript and establish the importance of each topic. The *Publication Manual* (6th ed., 2010) covers the specifics on pages 62-63. The level of headings numbers from a Level 1 heading to a Level 5. Do not label headings with numbers or letters (unless instructed to do so for a paper or presentation). The following are examples of how the headings should be presented at different levels.

Level 1 Heading

Centered, Boldface, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading

Level 2 Heading

Flush Left, Boldface, Uppercase and Lowercase Heading

Level 3 Heading

Indented, boldface, lowercase paragraph heading ending with a period.

Level 4 Heading

Indented, boldface, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading ending with a period.

Level 5 Heading

Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading ending with a period.

In papers with: (a) two levels of headings, use levels 1 and 2; (b) three levels of heading, use levels 1, 2, and 3; (c) four levels, use 1, 2, 3, and 4; and (d) five levels, use 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. In most cases, a level 1 heading can be used throughout a paper. Please note that this paper contains three levels of headings and therefore uses levels 1, 2, and 3.

APPENDIX D

Citation of Sources in Text

The citation of sources is a key point in writing in APA style format. *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed., 2010) states that “whether paraphrasing, quoting an author directly, or describing an idea that influenced your work, you must credit the source. . . . For a direct quotation in the text, give the author, year, and page number in parentheses” (p. 170). If any material is left out, use three ellipsis points (. . .) within the sentence; use four ellipsis points (. . . .) when material is left out between two sentences. If inserting explanations in a direct quotation, use brackets, not parenthesis. If any incorrect spelling, grammar, or punctuation in the source might confuse readers, insert the word *sic*, italicized and bracketed (i.e., [*sic*]), immediately after the error in the quotation (APA, 2010, pp. 172-173).

Examples (Example of a Level 2 Heading)

Quotation 1. (Example of a Level 3 Heading). The *DSM IV* defines the disorder [dysthymic] as being in a chronically depressed mood that occurs for “most of the day more days than not for at least two years (Criterion A). . . . In children, the mood may be irritable rather than depressed, and the required minimum duration is only one year” (APA, 2010, p. 345).

Quotation 2. Issac (1995) states that bipolar disorder “is not only uncommon but may be the most diagnostic entity in children and adolescents in similar settings. . . . and may be the most common diagnosis in adolescents who are court-remanded to such settings” (p.275).

With quotations of 40 or more words, DO NOT use quotation marks. Set off the

quotation in Block style format (i.e., starting quote on new line indented five spaces). Each subsequent line is also indented (APA, 2010, p. 171).

Quotation 3. Elkind (1978) states,

In general, our findings support Piaget's view that perceptions as well as intelligence are neither entirely inborn nor entirely innate but are rather progressively constructed through the gradual development of perceptual regulations. The chapter has also attempted to demonstrate the applicability of Piaget's theory to practical issues by summarizing some research growing out of an analysis of beginning reading. (p. 183)

When paraphrasing someone else's material, citation is required. For example, "Smith (1996) found that test scores do not necessarily always correlate with IQ scores." Make sure that anything referenced in your paper is cited on your Reference page and anything on your Reference page is used in your text (APA, 2010, p. 174). Note that the reference page used in this paper is for example purposes only.

All citations in a text contain two parts, including the author and year of publication. Always insert the year after the author the FIRST time it is used per paragraph, unless it can be confused with a different study, article, or book. When a citation contains two or more authors, use the following rules (APA, 2010, pp.175-178).

Two authors. (Smith & Jones, 1994), or Smith and Jones (1994) found ...

In 1994, Smith and Jones researched ... Always cite both names in text.

Three, four, or five authors. Cite all the authors the first time the reference occurs.

In subsequent citations, use the first author's surname followed by "et al." For example,

Strasburger, Jorgensen, and Randles (1996) found differences ... (first time used).

Strasburger et al. (1996) also created tests ... (first subsequent citation per paragraph).

Starsburger et al. found discrepancies ... (further citations within SAME paragraph, omit year).

Six or more authors. Cite only the first surname and follow with "et al." Smith et al. (1996) ...

Groups as authors. For the first time cited, spell out the group; for example, (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 1996). Thereafter, use the abbreviation followed by the publication year. For example, The NIMH (1996) examined ...

Citation of a work discussed in a secondary source. A primary source is the article, book, etc. that you have read and used to cite in your paper. In some cases you might wish to use a citation from that work. This is called a secondary source. You should always try to consult the original source; however, if you cannot, you should cite the source in the text, and refer to the sources you actually read. In the reference section, include only the source that you actually consulted. For example, suppose you read a paper by Borst (1997), and in that paper he refers to a paper by Weisenmiller (1996). If you DID NOT actually read Weisenmiller (1996) yourself, then in the text, you might say, Weisenmiller (as cited in Borst, 1997) recommends working in the computer industry. In the reference section, you would include a reference for Borst (1997), but NOT for Weisenmiller (1996).

Works with no authors. When a work has no author, cite in text the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. For example: In an investigation of depression in adults (“Study Finds,” 1997), it was reported that ...

When a work’s author is designated as “Anonymous,” cite in text the word Anonymous followed by a comma and the date; for example, (Anonymous, 1997). In the reference list, an anonymous work is alphabetized by the word Anonymous (APA, 2010, pp. 176-177, 183).

APPENDIX E

Elements and Examples of References in APA Style

The Reference page begins on a new page. The references should be listed in alphabetical order. Consider author’s names such as McAfee and Macwerner literally. Macwerner would come first. For two or more references with the same author, list first whichever one has the earliest publication year, and single author citations precede multiple author citations. If there is NO Author, the title moves to the author position, and the entry is alphabetized by the first significant word of the title (APA, 2010, pp. 181-183). In instances where there are two or more references that contain the same author and year, differentiate them by placing a, b, c, d, etc. after the year. For example:

National Institute. (2014a). *Depression* (Report No. 001). Indianapolis, IN: Dista Products.

National Institute. (2014b). *Bipolar disorder* (Report No. 006). Indianapolis, IN: Dista Products.

Then use the appropriate year and letter when citing in text.

All references should be double-spaced and hanging indented (APA, 2010, p. 180). The following reference formats are given as examples, and do not cover how to cite every type of reference. Consult the APA Manual for more information (APA, 2010, pp. 198-224).

Periodicals with One Author

Required information for referencing periodicals: Author’s surname and initials of first and middle name (if given). (Year of publication). Title of article. Publication

information which includes: Journal title and volume number (italicized), the inclusive page numbers. Note: If, and only if, each issue of a journal begins on page 1, give the issue number in parentheses immediately after the volume number. If no publication date is available, write “n.d.” in parenthesis. (pp. 185, 198).

Teri, L. (1982). Depression in adolescence: Its relationship to assertion and various aspects of self-image. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 11, 101-106.

Periodicals with Two Authors

Sonne, J. L., & Pope, K. S. (1991). Treating victims of therapist-patient involvement. *Psychotherapy*, 28, 174-187.

Unpublished Manuscript with a University Cited

Borst, W. U. (1996). *Guidelines for writing in APA style*. Unpublished manuscript, Troy State University at Phenix City.

Books

Information needed: Book authors or editors, date of publication, book title, publication information.

Elkind, D. (1978). *The child's reality: Three developmental themes*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Edited Book

Marshall, F. J. (Ed.). (1996). *Common ground*. Atlanta, GA: Make Believe Publications.

Article in an Edited Book

Duckworth, J. C., & Levitt, E. E. (1994). Minnesota Multiphasic Personality

Inventory-2. In D. J. Keyser & R. C. Sweetland (Eds.), *Test critiques: Vol. 10* (pp. 424- 428). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Groups as Authors

American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Note: This is also an example of how to reference editions of books. When the publisher and author are the same, use “Author” for the publisher.

ERIC Document

Simms, H. S. (1996). *The title of the article goes here* (Report No. NCRTL-XX-99-East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 888 096)

Informally published or self-archived work

Author, I. M. A. (2014). *The last time I try to publish this*. Retrieved from http://www.gaggle.com/mystuff/last_time

Video Blog Post

Gilmore, H. W. (2014, December 25). How to safe everything. [Video file]. Retrieved from <http://www.uboattube.com/watchitnow=Vjsign14KLDMx>

Personal Communication

Personal communications may be memos, letters, lectures, seminars, interviews,

telephone conversations, e-mail, or the like. These types of sources do not provide *recoverable* data and are NOT included in the reference list. Cite personal communications in TEXT only. Give the initials as well as the surname of the communicator, and provide as exact a date as possible: W. U. Borst (personal communication, April 7, 1997) said that these are not included in the reference list or (W. U. Borst, personal communication, April 7, 1997).

APPENDIX F

Miscellaneous Considerations

1. Avoid biased and pejorative language. Do not use “men” to refer to all adults. Some commonly used acceptable references to populations: African Americans, Native Americans, sexual orientation (not sexual preference), people with depression and people with AIDS (not depressives or AIDS victims or sufferers), Asian Americans (not oriental), older persons (not elderly), lesbians and gay men (not homosexual; APA, 2010, pp. 73-77).
2. Avoid one-sentence paragraphs.
3. Avoid lengthy paragraphs. A paragraph should be no longer than one double-spaced page.
4. Professors sometimes require annotated bibliographies. These are nothing more than references containing brief and descriptive information concerning the references. Instead of typing “References” at the top of your paper, use “Annotated Bibliography.” This page or pages follow your reference page(s).
5. In general, use Scientific Journals for references (e.g., *Remedial and Special Education*, *The Journal of Special Education*, *Exceptional Children*, *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *Focus on Autism and Other Developmental Disabilities*). In other words, avoid using “popular opinion” journals and magazines, or both (i.e., *Time*, *Newsweek*, *USA Today*, *National Enquirer*, *Redbook*, etc.).

APPENDIX G

Review Process for Publications

Dissemination of research through publications in refereed journals is important in extending our knowledge about the research and practice fields. A primary, if not sole, goal of writing is to publish and disseminate rigorous research and innovative practices that will contribute to our understanding about the world. Successful publications not only depend on a well-written manuscript of a well-designed and well-executed research study, but also require the writers' understanding of the review process. When a manuscript is submitted to a refereed journal for publication consideration, it will undergo a peer-reviewed process during which field reviewers with expertise in the content of the manuscript are asked to conduct a critical review of the manuscript to determine its appropriateness and acceptability for publication in the journal.

Due to the varying focus and scope of respective journals, it is important for authors to be aware of a journal's editorial policies and author guidelines (e.g., scope of the journal, types of manuscripts appropriate for the journal, page limit, types of research methodologies) to ensure the "fit" between the manuscript and the journal prior to submission. In some cases, failure to adhere to the journal's editorial policies and author guidelines can lead to an immediate rejection. When in doubt about the fit, soliciting responses from the editor(s) of the journal through an informal email correspondence is often a great way to help with the decision making.

In a peer-reviewed process, a journal's editor, associate editor, or managing editor typically will solicit two to four reviews from members of the journal's editorial board or guest reviewers who have content and/or

methodology knowledge about the specific manuscript under consideration. The reviewers independently write a set of narrative comments addressing the quality, rigor, and appropriateness of the manuscript with a recommendation regarding publication. The editor or associate editor also conduct an independent review and, with the recommendation from each reviewer, will make an editorial decision to be communicated to the corresponding author (e.g., accept as is, accept with revisions, reject-revise-resubmit, reject). For many journals, the review process follows a "double-blind" review format; that is, the identity of the author(s) is blind to the reviewers and vice versa in order to minimize subjectivity during the review process. Generally, the lag time between the manuscript submission and the initial editorial decision is 30 to 90 days, depending on the respective journal's review process.

Once the author(s) receive the editorial decision about their manuscript, an important task is for the author(s) to carefully review the comments suggested by the editor, associate editor, and/or reviewers and plan for the next step. In rare cases, an author will receive a recommendation of *accept as is*; the editor and reviewers often will suggest changes that can further fine-tune and improve the quality of the manuscript for final publication. If a manuscript is well written, is appropriate for the journal to which it is submitted, has merits to enhance the field's knowledge base, and overall shows great quality of the content, an editorial recommendation of *accept with revisions* is a common outcome. The suggested revisions may be minor (e.g., deleting subsections, adding new citations, clarifying information, reformatting tables/figures) or substantial (e.g., reorganizing the introduction section, conducting new data analyses, rewriting subsections). Regardless of the types or nature

of the revisions to be made, providing successful revisions that satisfactorily respond to the editor's and reviewers' suggestions is vital to the final acceptance. A cover letter listing how the revisions responded to the suggestions can provide a very helpful documentation to assist the editor with final decision. Revised manuscripts responding to the editorial decisions of *accept as is* and *accept with revisions* may be reviewed by the editor or associate editor alone for determination of final acceptance; these manuscripts may undergo another round of peer-reviewed process (typically with the same reviewers) especially if the revisions are substantial.

Some special education journals such as *The Journal of Special Education*, *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, *Learning Disability Quarterly*, and *Remedial and Special Education* have a unique decision category of *reject-revise-resubmit*. Manuscripts that present critical flaws in theoretical framework, methodology, and/or data analyses but have potential contribution to the field may receive an editorial decision of *reject-revise-resubmit*. Typically, the revised manuscripts responding to such an editorial decision are processed as new manuscripts (rather than revisions), that will undergo a new review process with different reviewers. Authors may take on this resubmission opportunity to revise and resubmit their manuscript to the same journal, or determine that submitting the manuscript elsewhere is a better option if the requested revisions present major conflict with the original purpose or theoretical framework of the work. The least favorable editorial decision is *reject*. Manuscripts receiving this decision often present flaws or problematic issues that are too substantial to be revised in a modified paper to meet the acceptance criteria for publication in the journal. Examples of problematic issues are insufficient information to determine

adequacy of the methodology, lack of experimental control, threats to validity and reliability, inadequate or inconsistent data collection procedures or data analyses, and lack of implications to the field. Prolific researchers take critical comments in a rejection letter to plan for their next research studies and use the feedback to improve their rejected manuscript, if feasible, for submission to another more suitable journal for publication consideration.