Maastricht University

School of Business and Economics

A Guide to Academic Writing Skills

Second edition

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"The mere habit of writing, of constantly keeping at it, of never giving up, ultimately teaches you how to write."

Gabriel Fielding (British novelist 1916-1986)

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Preface to the first edition (2002)

We have written this guide for you to help you on the way to becoming proficient in your chosen field of economics or business administration. As you advance in your studies, you will demonstrate your proficiency through the essays, papers, case reports, and other texts that you write. Your writing is thus a marker of your relative expertise in your discipline. Yet, it is also a means in itself. Writing helps you organize your own ideas, discover the strengths and weaknesses in your thinking, and internalize the knowledge you construct. We hope this guide will help you on your way. But like all guides, it does not contain everything. As Voltaire said, "the best way to be boring is to leave nothing out". This guide acts as a starter – it is up to you to go deeper.

Just as you will find with your writing assignments, we too have gone through the writing process in the construction of this guide. We constructed a plan, consulted numerous sources and people, wrote the text, revised it, and edited it, all the time trying to keep it clear and simple. In putting together this guide, we have aimed to follow Ernest Hemingway who said, "My aim is to put down on paper what I see and what I feel in the best and simplest way." We hope we have succeeded.

Henri Mennens, MSc
Robert Wilkinson, MSc

Second edition (2010)

The second edition of this guide to academic writing is a thorough revision of the first edition (2002). Apart from changes to chapter 2, we have significantly changed chapters 3 and 5. In addition, we have completely rewritten chapter 4 on citing and referencing in line with the current (2010) citation and reference norms of the American Psychological Association. Major changes also entail the introduction of many more examples. In addition, the format requirements for submitting papers has changed.

We have not included information on grammar and punctuation, since we expect students at the School of Business and Economics to have a good command of these aspects on entry. However, we are aware that many users of this guide will wish to seek reassurance in this respect. We recommend users to consult a good grammar book or one of the many good writing sites on the Internet.

Robert Wilkinson, MSc
Jeannette Hommes, MA

NOTE: the Guide is not presented in the format that you have to present your papers (see section 5). However, where extracts of student essays are given, these are in the required format.

Acknowledgements

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1. Introduction

Academic writing covers the wide range of specific writing tasks that you are required to write during the course of your academic studies: papers, reports, literature reviews, projects, case studies, dissertations, theses, research papers, and articles. Some of these text types are quite rare outside the academic environment (papers, literature reviews, dissertations, theses); others (reports, projects, etc.) may well be aiming at a much broader public. However, what they all have in common is a similar type of reader: a person educated in the specialist field (here economics or business studies), and usually acting as a professional in that field. These target readers represent the professional community of which you aim to become a member. To be accepted as member requires you to meet the norms and standards that the professional community expects. Thus with regard to writing, you are expected to adhere to the norms expected by the (international) academic community.

> Compare this to a relay race in athletics. In the relay race, you run with three other runners. If you are one of the two middle runners, you have to collect the baton smoothly from the previous runner and pass it on to the next runner. In the relay race your team runs against other teams (your local community). All of you have to run according to the set of rules agreed by the sports governing body (the professional community). If you do not, your team may be disqualified. The rules set the framework for a potentially great race, and within the rules there is vast scope for individual flair and talent. So with academic writing: you have to write according to the 'rules', but to write well demands your own individual talent and enterprise. Just as a highly skilled athlete knows how to use the rules to his advantage, so an expert writer uses the norms and standards of professional academic writing to persuade readers of the power of his argument.

We should not extend this athletics analogy too far: sports have clear sets of rules that everyone can read and study; academic writing does not. What a professional academic field has is a set of *overt norms*, such as a style guide. This guide is based on the editorial style requirements described in the sixth edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (2010). Alongside these is a set of *covert norms* that are just as powerful. Examples of the covert norms will be the nature of argumentation that is considered acceptable in the field. Covert norms are hidden and therefore take a long time to acquire. Most novice writers acquire them through *extensive reading* in the field, and by paying active attention to the way other writers use language. This process of acquisition demands close observation of how expert writers use words and expressions differently in different types of text, e.g. literature reviews or case studies in a single field (e.g. marketing).

Academic papers (and most other forms of academic writing) are typically expository or argumentative. An expository or informative paper describes or explains a particular set of phenomena, and provides an account of why these phenomena are found in one or more specific situations or contexts. The goal of the expository paper is also to acquaint the reader with a body of knowledge. An argumentative or persuasive paper must choose a side, make a case for it, consider and refute alternative arguments, and prove to the undecided reader that the opinion it presents is the best one. You must be aware of other sides and be fair to them; dismissing them completely will weaken your own argument. It is always best to take a side that you believe in, preferably with the most supporting evidence.

To develop a good academic paper you should go through a number of stages, called the writing process. The following seven stages can be distinguished:

The writing process	
1. Thinking stage	
2. Research stage	Planning process
3. Outline stage	
4. Drafting stage	Transfer in a first draft output
5. Revising stage	Revising & editing
6. Editing stage	
7. Final version stage	Final output

Figure 1. Stages of the writing process

1. Thinking stage In this stage you determine your topic area (which may of course already be given), brainstorm about ideas on the topic, select, reject and focus those ideas, before arriving at your final choice.

2. Research stage Here you search for and study background literature and other materials, analyse the results, draw your own conclusions and interpretations, etc.

3. Outline stage In this stage you draft an outline of the paper you intend to write, setting out your main aim or purpose in the paper (the purpose statement or thesis statement), sketch how you will develop the points that follow from the purpose, and indicate how you will conclude the paper.

4. Drafting stage Here you put down on screen successively improved versions of your paper.

5. Revising stage In this stage you scan your work on a macro level for logical coherence, checking whether you need to add or delete information, whether sections need rephrasing for clarification.

6. Editing stage Here you edit your text on a micro level, checking the grammar, spelling, punctuation, in-text citations, references and the layout.

7. Final version stage In this stage you set out the final paper neatly and clearly.

Writing a paper is recursive: you do not start at the beginning, and work through straight to the end, and that is that. At all times you will be 'backtracking' or 'looping', so that as you are writing your first draft, you may discover you need to add more information and have to return to the research stage. During the revising stage, you may discover that your original plan was too broad, and so decide to cut out a whole section. You may produce several revised versions of the paper before your final version. Do not forget to allow yourself plenty of time between writing your first draft and your final version. Figure 2 illustrates the three groups of actions in writing a paper, the planning process, the transfer, and revision and editing. The figure emphasizes the recursive nature of writing a paper in that each action not only feeds into the next but feeds back into the previous actions, entailing revision of those actions.

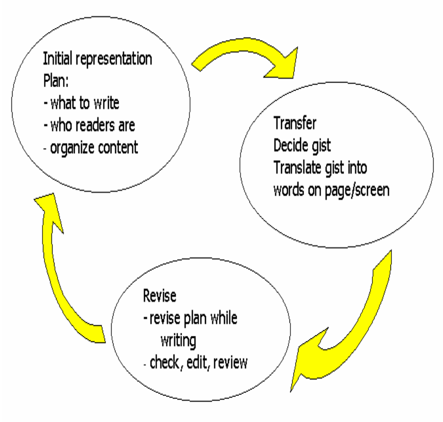	*"You may start with a plan, conduct some research (reading, library and/or Internet search), analyse and then synthesize the information you have acquired, construct a question or a statement that you will examine, draft an outline, write a rough draft of the introduction, start writing the body, then stop. You go back, conduct some more research, adjust your outline, rewrite the body, write a bit more, adjust the introduction, perhaps adjust the statement of your purpose, then stop again. You conduct more research, rewrite the body again, draft a conclusion, go back to the introduction, adjust the purpose, rewrite the introduction, then stop. You let the paper 'simmer' for a while, then reread it, adjusting here and there for content accuracy, perhaps search or check for a contrary argument, throw out less relevant parts of the paper, check the logical development of your ideas and arguments, and wrap up the conclusion. Then you check again for spelling (using the spellchecker, but also reading carefully word by word), check for grammar (using the grammar checkers wisely), check all punctuation, check the layout, check the citations and the references. You check too for sentence length (eliminate very long, rambling sentences), check paragraph structure (particularly if the topic of the paragraph changes in the paragraph – check the subjects of the main verbs), check the logical links between paragraphs and sections. And so on."*

Figure 2: The writing process and its recursive nature (Bruer, 1993).

This guide is organized as follows. Chapter 2 focuses on the planning process, describing the planning activities and the construction of an outline. Chapter 3 elaborates on the structuring of the paper, through a detailed discussion of the three parts of a paper, introduction, body, and conclusion. Moreover, structuring a paper effectively requires that you write well-constructed paragraphs: this chapter also provides brief guidelines on paragraph organization. Chapter 4 explains the importance of citing sources and giving references, and provides guide-lines how to put them in the paper in a correct way. Chapter 5 concentrates on finalizing the paper. This chapter discusses the format requirements, text revision and the evaluation of the paper.

To conclude, this guide helps you to master the process of academic writing, which you can apply to the specific writing assignments during the course of your academic studies. It speci-fies the elements necessary to a successful academic paper. But keep in mind two things. First, each assignment will be different and require a different organization. Second, writing is a skill;

you only get better at a skill through regular practice. Regular practice leads to routine and expertise. The application of the principles of this guide can be of use until your last writing examination: the final thesis. However, this guide just contains a brief summary of the different topics discussed. For more information you should consult literature, especially the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (2010, 6th ed., in the University Library), and the Internet. Besides, keep in mind that the writing process is not just simply following a set of rules. Try to develop your own style, expertise and talent, in order to distinguish yourself. Good luck with your writing career!

2. The planning process

In order to get a good start to writing your paper, it is important that you go successfully through the planning process. This chapter describes the different activities of the planning process. Then, section 2.2 discusses the most important stage of the planning process: the construction of an outline.

2.1. The planning activities

During the planning process, according to Hannay and Mackenzie (2002), you are concerned with six major activities:

1 *Generating ideas for the content.* Ideas for content can come from several sources: from your own knowledge, from discussions with other people, and from various media sources (written texts, audio-visual media and electronic media). Brainstorming techniques help you to generate ideas in the first two categories.

2 *Selecting and classifying points.* Here you are concerned with ordering your ideas. Analyse them to determine the extent to which they are connected with each other. Ideas and concepts that are highly connected are likely to form key points in your texts. Those which are less closely connected may form essential supporting topics, or may need to be abandoned. Some may require more development. Always be prepared to get rid of ideas that prove not to be relevant to your argument.

3 *Establishing your perspective.* In this activity you need to decide what angle you are going to take with your material. Are you taking a historical perspective, or only discussing the present situation? Are you taking an objective position, or are you bringing in your own personal standpoint? Are you taking a general viewpoint, or only a specific case? Are you looking at the matter from your home country's perspective? Are you discussing a general issue or only a national situation?

4 Determining your intention. Now you need to consider what you want to do with the text. Do you want to present both sides of an argument equally, or do you want to present only one side? Do you need to give examples, or will your argumentation be sufficient on its own? Do you want to persuade the reader of your opinion, or are you only wishing to describe the matter? Do you want just to present a problem, or do you want to offer solutions as well? What you are going to do with your text must become very clear to the reader in the thesis statement: this statement directs the readers to the purpose of the text.

5 Formulating a draft title, structuring the introduction and conclusion. Here you should set down a working title and devise a draft structure for the introduction and the conclusion. At this stage your drafting should only be provisional: you should write the actual version only after you have written the body of the paper. This is because you do need to know what your introduction is indeed introducing, and you need to know what your conclusion is concluding. A useful rule of thumb is: Plan your introduction, then your conclusion, and then your body, but write your body, then your conclusion and then your introduction.

6 Drafting paragraph themes. At this stage, go back to the ideas (themes) you have selected and classified. Now you have to decide which will be suitable for your text. Each theme usually is the basis for a single paragraph. Each theme too will require sufficient development; so do not try to include too many. As a rough guide, you probably cannot treat adequately more than about 4 themes in a 1000-word paper (roughly 3 pages), while a 2500-word paper (roughly 6 pages) will seem overwhelming if it includes more than 9 or 10 themes. Once you have selected your themes, list the points that you need to make to support the theme in the paragraph.

2.2. The planning outline

The goal of the planning outline is to help you organize your ideas, and present them in a logical order. It serves to identify the relationships between the ideas: it allows you to see how related ideas can be grouped together, and which ideas you can cut out, and which ideas need more support. A good outline helps you to maintain the direction in your paper, and prevents you from getting distracted into irrelevant information.

Figure 3 lists six steps that may be considered in the development of a planning outline.

1 Decide the purpose of your paper and the audience you are writing for.

2 Develop a statement in which you define the goal or purpose of your paper (commonly called thesis statement). This clarifies what you are going to present or argue in the paper. At this stage you may not have a definitive version of this statement.

3 List all the important points you want to handle in the paper. These points have to be split in three main parts: introduction, body, and conclusion.

The points in the introduction include the items that lead to the purpose or thesis statement (so-called background information), and a statement of the purpose or goal that should now be defined precisely. When you are planning your paper, you will group all your ideas around one central theme. This theme forms the core of your purpose or thesis statement or research question.

The points in the body have to be logically organized so that they follow from your purpose and lead towards the conclusion. In a larger paper (for example a Master's thesis), you usually develop a set of subquestions, covering the points that lead to an answer to the research question. By answering step by step the different subquestions in the body, you can draw a structured and well-founded conclusion at the end.

The points in the conclusion include the summary of the facts that lead to an answer to the statement or question you started with and the answer itself.

4 Categorize the points in the body under general headings so that you can identify which points need more development (e.g. you have to do more reading) and which points are not useful or relevant (delete these). Choose precise, concrete words for the headings: avoid vague terms. Relate the headings to the purpose of your paper. If your paper is describing a situation, you are more likely to choose noun structures for headings (for example: Failure of Bretton Woods). If your paper is oriented to action, you may choose verbal structures; typically *-ing* forms in English (for example: Reforming the auditor's duties).

5 Work out how one idea follows logically from the previous one. Note down how you will make the transitions from point to point. This is a key step, but one that is often underrated. Failure to think out the transitions in the planning stage can cost you more time in the revising stage.

6 Finally, look back at the whole outline, and check that you are satisfied that it all hangs together logically and conceptually. Now you are ready to start writing.

Figure 3. Six steps in the planning process.

Outlines are generative. They are most useful if you modify them as you write in line with new thoughts or information. Some of you may find that a simple, less detailed written outline is sufficient – you may be very competent in holding the full structure in your mind – but you may add more detailed points to the outline as you progress. Most of you, however, find that a relatively detailed outline on paper is an effective reminder of what the goal of your paper is and of what you have selected from the literature, and an efficient guide to how far you have come.

An outline as a simple list of points (see Figure 4, box a) may not help you organize and structure your paper. A more organized outline (see Figure 4, box b) will help you see how the different parts hang together and may facilitate the writing. Many American writing textbooks and websites provide detailed guidance on writing outlines. Under the American convention, outlines are structured using the following symbols (Roman numerals, capital letters, Arabic numerals). This is *only a convention* used in the writing process: it is *not* part of APA style, and under no circumstances should it be used in the final paper (see for example Purdue University's Online Writing Lab: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/544/03/). Box c (Figure 4) illustrates the framework using the American conventions.

a Unhelpful outline	Topic: The Struggle for the Mobile Phone Market 1. Description of the European mobile phone market. 2. Major players: Nokia, Ericsson, Siemens. 3. Focus of youth market. 4. Future trends in the market
b Structured outline	European Commission case on choline chloride cartel 1. Introduction 1.1. Background to case: choline chloride cartel 1.2. Aim of paper (thesis): European Commission took the right decision to fine the firms, because they had formed a cartel, but the fines are not sufficient to discourage cartel forming in the future. 2. Key economic issues 2.1. Market description 2.1.1. Producers 2.1.2. Consumers 2.2. Agreements 2.2.1. Price fixing 2.2.2. Market sharing 3. Economic impact on competition 3.1. Fixed prices raised income for producers 3.2. Market sharing reduced competition 3.3. Economic impact of cartel (Perloff) 3.3.1. Oligopoly 3.3.2. Welfare analysis 4. European Commission decision 4.1. That the market is an oligopoly 4.2. That the market is not competitive 4.3. Punishment for firms 4.3.1. Fines 4.3.2. Leniency ruling 5. Conclusions 5.1. Summary 5.2. Price setting agreements have a big impact on the market 5.3. Fines based on gravity and duration of infringement 5.4. Leniency: fines not high enough to discourage cartel formation in future.

c Classic formal outline (American style)	I. First item
	II. Second item
	    A. sub-item
	    B. sub-item
	        1. sub-sub-item
	        2. sub-sub-item
	III. Third item

Figure 4. Examples of outlines.

3. Structuring

On the basis of the outline, described in the previous chapter, it is now possible to continue with the structure of your paper. You started the structuring process already in steps three and four of the construction of an outline, described in section 2.2. The structuring process continues by implementing these steps in the paper, starting with the introduction. Section 3.1 discusses the structuring process of the introduction, section 3.2. covers the middle part (or body), and section 3.3. the discussion and conclusion. Structuring a paper effectively also requires that you write well-constructed paragraphs. This is discussed briefly in section 3.4.

3.1. The introduction

The introduction has three functions, all of which must be present. First, it sets the *context* by introducing the topic of your paper. This is called the background information. This information leads to the second function: it specifies the *purpose* of the paper. Finally, the introduction contains a short *outline* of how you are going to handle the aspects of your topic in the rest of the paper. Any introduction in which one of these functions is missing is necessarily incomplete.

The length of the introduction varies from one paragraph to several pages, depending on the total length of the paper. Three other factors influence the length. First, how *familiar* are your readers with the context? If, for example, you are writing about small and medium-sized businesses in Nepal, you may have to explain much more of the Nepalese background for readers who are less familiar with that country, since the readers may wish to compare Nepalese SMEs with those in other developing countries. Second, what the type of paper (or *genre*) are you writing? If, for example, you are writing a review of the academic literature on internet auction markets, your introduction might be quite short, since you will include the information from your review in the middle of your paper. Similarly, if you are examining a competition case from, say, the European Commission or the US Department of Justice, then you may not need much background information, for you can refer almost straightaway to the case. On the other hand, in a paper in which you argue a point of view (e.g. the abolition of export subsidies), then you may need to present adequate background information before introducing your purpose. Third, what economics or business *discipline* are you addressing? The length of introductions may differ between econometrics, labour economics, marketing, strategic management, and so on. It is wise to check by reading relevant previous papers in the target discipline and the target genre, as well as taking the readers 'familiarity into account.

Nevertheless, as a useful rule of thumb, it is valuable to think of your introduction as being about one-eighth of the length of the text you are writing. Thus, the introduction to a 1000-word paper would be about 125 words; the introduction to a 10,000-word dissertation would contain about 1250 words, and may well appear as a short chapter in its own right. So treat the one-eighth concept as a guideline, not as a straightjacket.

Writing the introduction depends heavily on personal preference. Some writers like to know exactly how they will begin before they start to elaborate the text they are aiming to write; other writers prefer to know what they have written first, and then write the introduction to fit it, so that it leads to the purpose statement. Yet, a good rule of thumb is to write a draft introduction that leads to your purpose statement, then write the whole text, right to the conclusion, progressively editing as you go along. Only then do you return to your introduction and adjust or rewrite it so that it does indeed fit your paper neatly and satisfyingly.

3.1.1. The background information

The introduction prepares the readers for what follows. Thus, the introduction has an *orientation* function. Thus, it should therefore present enough background information so that the readers will recognize that the middle of your paper follows logically and coherently from the introduction - you need to pay attention to what the reader can be expected to know already and what will be new. Your introduction is more effective when it progresses from the known to the unknown (Figure 5).

	Prediction markets and their applicability for organizational decision making
	1. Introduction
Background information (known → less known)	Whether firms are successful or not depends to a great extent on their decisions about new products. Therefore, top management has large incentives to have as accurate information as possible on future demand and success of new products. Usual methods of gathering this information include customer surveys and expert opinions. Often, however, these approaches are very inaccurate and misleading. In order to avoid problems linked to the two methods mentioned above, firms came to think about whether or not to make use of prediction markets as information gathering tools (Ho & Chen, 2007).
New information (topic)	Prediction markets, also known as information markets or future events (Wolfers & Zitzewitz, 2004), are markets in which price is used as an indicator of the probability that a certain event will occur in the future (Manski, 2006). Market participants buy and sell contracts of the particular event they think will be likely to take place and they receive money when they betted correctly (Wolfers & Zitzewitz, 2004).
Purpose of paper	This paper investigates the question whether or not firms should engage in prediction markets to make informed decisions.
Outline	Firstly, it explains some general aspects of prediction markets. Secondly, it describes examples of this forecasting tool, focusing for illustration on the Iowa Electronic Market and finally it compares benefits and disadvantages of implementing prediction markets in businesses.

Figure 5. Example of an introduction from a first-year business paper.

3.1.2. The purpose statement

The purpose statement is a vital component in academic papers. It marks the high point of the introduction. This statement is a clear expression of the purpose that your paper is expected to assert, explain, support, or defend (Fulwiler & Hayakawa, 2000). It summarizes the main idea of a paper and makes that idea explicit to the readers. The statement answers the questions the critical reader has: "So what? Why does this paper exist? What's it all about?"

In the literature on academic writing, you will meet the term 'thesis statement'. This term covers the statement that the writer is going to argue in his or her paper. Strictly speaking, it is relevant to argumentative papers where you are advancing a claim (the thesis), and then in the paper you present the arguments (evidence) that demonstrates whether the claim holds. An example of an argumentative paper is a *position paper* in which you set out a particular theoretical position (opinion) based on arguments (evidence).

Many papers that you write will not be essentially argumentative papers. You may often simply be explaining a phenomenon or showing and analysing data. Sometimes, you may simply be answering an exploratory question. However, all papers do require a statement or question that neatly summarizes what you are going to do in your paper (see Table 1).

Table 1. Types of papers and associated purpose statements*.

Type of paper	Purpose expressed as:	Explanation	Example
Argumentative paper	Thesis statement	You argue a proposition (claim). You present the arguments (evidence) for and against the claim, and decide whether the claim is supported or not.	Government action to restrict the bonuses paid to investment bankers is unwise because it is harmful to the economy as a whole.
Experimental paper	Research question; hypothesis	You start with a question about a phenomenon, and devise one or more hypotheses that you will test in your research. Your experimental paper reports the results.	Are poor people more generous than rich people? Poor people will give a larger percentage of a monetary gift to poor people than rich people will.

Exploratory data analysis	Research question	You conduct a survey or a series of interviews, for example, but do not have an explicit hypothesis before you start. You have a research question, but do not know in advance what the answers may be.	How much do students know about financing small and medium-sized businesses? Or: This paper explores the knowledge students have about the financing of …
Literature or practice review article	Purpose statement	Your goal is to examine what has been researched previously or what practices are used in particular business or economics activities.	This paper reviews recent experimental research into the principal-agent relationship.
Expository paper	Purpose statement or question	Your goal is to explain a phenomenon and to inform readers about it. Your paper will mainly be presenting facts (evidence), although you may include some opinions, especially regarding your conclusions. However, your main focus is not on opinions.	This paper examines whether the economic grounds for approving the merger were sound. OR: Were the economic grounds for approving the merger sound?
Case study	Thesis statement or purpose statement	Your goal is to analyse the case and draw a conclusion. You may present your purpose as a thesis statement (proposition), which you will argue in the paper (see Argumentative paper above). You may decide not to argue a claim beforehand but just rely on the evidence to lead you to a conclusion.	The European Commission was justified in fining the lift manufacturers as their cartel had distorted competition and reduced consumer welfare. OR: This paper investigates whether the European Commission was justified in fining the lift manufacturers.

* With acknowledgement to Adam Turner, personal communication, 24 June 2010.

At the same time, the purpose statement defines the scope of the body of the paper: it makes a commitment to the reader and creates expectations that the reader expects to be fulfilled. It also points the way forward to the conclusions that you will draw at the end of the paper.

Some characteristics of the purpose statement are especially important to bear in mind if you are writing an argumentative paper (i.e. with a thesis statement). The purpose statement is, characteristically, a generalization usually in one sentence (sometimes more): it summarizes the main point of your text which is then supported and developed throughout the rest of the paper. You can conceive of your purpose statement as a formula (Lynn Nygaard, personal communication, 17 June 2010):

x is y because z,

where x = the thing you are trying to saying something about (topic), y = what you are trying to say about the thing (claim), and z = the basis on which you are making this claim (logic, theory, or empirical evidence). For example, *Government action to restrict the bonuses paid to investment bankers (x) is unwise (y) because it is harmful to the economy as a whole (z).* This formula allows you to generate a formal purpose statement, which will help you construct your argumentative paper. It may be that the final version presents the purpose differently (e.g. *This paper argues that government action to restrict the bonuses paid to investment bankers would be unwise*.).

Purpose statements are effective when they conform to one or more of the following criteria:

1. Imply rather than state that the discussion will follow.

The question arises whether the West should be more proactive in the fight to reduce world poverty.
Any decision to place restrictions on the free movement of capital should follow from a careful consideration of the pros and cons of the freedoms enshrined in the European Union.

2. Use conditional constructions, to make effective, suggestive purpose statements:

If the West were to consider its long-term interests, its leaders would appreciate the need to become more active in dialogue with popular movements in North Africa and the Middle East.

3. Use a question form, if that helps make your purpose statement more striking. It also implies a more balanced, neutral assessment of the topic. This style applies more to expository papers.

Should the common agricultural policy be scrapped before new countries accede to the European Union?

4. Do not personalize the purpose statement: personal preferences do not entice the reader to read further.

5. Do not present a statement of fact or definition in your purpose statement: such statements leave no room for expansion.

3.1.3. The short outline in the introduction

The last part of the introduction contains a short outline that describes how you are going to answer the purpose statement, and how you are going to handle the aspects of your topic in the rest of the paper. This part actually describes the (remaining) structure of the paper. Figure 6, illustrates the short outline that comes after the related background information and the specification of the purpose statement:

Purpose statement Outline of paper	To investigate this <core of purpose statement>, this paper compares the investment strategies of three companies against two criteria. Section 2 discusses the similarities and differences in the companies' approach with respect to <criteria 1>. Section 3 compares the companies' performance regarding <criteria 2>. Finally, section 4 concludes by evaluating the findings under the two criteria against the <core of purpose statement>, and offers recommendations for further study.

Purpose statement Implied hypotheses Outline of paper	In this paper, we examine the impact of the moral hazard problem in agency relationships using the data from laboratory markets. This data will then be used to test the predictions of three competing models. In Section 2, we outline the experimental design and give a description of the laboratory markets. In Section 3, we present the three models which give competing price and quality predictions for the laboratory markets we examine. The fourth section contains a discussion of our results and the final section is a summary. (adapted from Dejong, D.V., Forsythe, R., & Lundholm, R.J. (1985). Ripoffs, lemons, and reputation formation in agency relationships: A laboratory market study. *The Journal of Finance*, *40*(3), 809-820.)

Figure 6. Example of outline paragraphs in academic papers. The upper box illustrates a theoretical structure, the lower box an actual example.

With specific regard to larger papers such as a Master's thesis or dissertation, the introduction may well form a short chapter in its own right. The short outline is then expanded to a whole section, the last one in the introduction. In this section you will indicate the contents of each chapter of your Master's thesis or dissertation. When you are planning a larger paper such as a Master's thesis, you will have broken your research question down into a series of subquestions. Now, you will usually devote one chapter to the analysis and discussion of each subquestion. Finally, after you answered each of these subquestions in the related chapters, in the final chapter you conclude by providing the answer to the research question. The outline of your paper, described in the introduction, shows the reader the path that leads to the final answer to the research question, by concisely describing the contents of the different chapters. In the outline you mention each of the chapters indicating first what subquestion is going to be answered and why (clearly indicating the link to the previous step and the next step in answering the thesis statement so the reader can follow the line of the story) and also what issues will be dealt with.

3.1.4. The organization of paragraphs in the introduction

Although the organization of paragraphs is discussed in section 3.4, special attention has to be paid to the construction of an introductory paragraph, containing the background information, the purpose statement, and the outline. Especially, topic sentences in the introductory paragraph demand great care. The topic sentence, usually the first sentence of a paragraph, tells the reader what the paragraph is about. After all, in the introductory paragraph the topic sentence represents the starting point for your readers, and can attract or repel them!

1. Make sure your first sentence is fairly uncontroversial –you do not want to put off or irritate immediately those readers who may disagree with you.

2. Make sure the topic sentence of the introductory paragraph is relatively timeless'; that is, it should not be directly linked to the time of writing. You cannot always know when a reader is going to be reading the text. General time expressions like *in recent years* or *in the last years of the twentieth century* can be freely used, but do not use expressions like *last year, last week, this month, yesterday*, etc.

3. Although the topic sentence of the introduction occurs immediately under the title, the convention is that the introduction should always be seen as a fresh start. Do not make the topic sentence simply a reformulation of the title.

4. Do not make the topic sentence depend on the title for its interpretation: as a rule, the first sentence should not refer back to the title.

Elaboration sentences explain or exemplify the topic stated in the topic sentence (see below section 3.4). There are two key functions for the elaboration sentences in an introductory paragraph: to *contextualize* the topic and to indicate the *perspective* from which it is viewed.

Contextualizing means providing sufficient background against which your subsequent argument can unfold. This may concern simple matters of time and place. But note the following points:

- Readers will assume you are writing about the present unless you clearly indicate otherwise.
- Readers of texts in English will assume the texts refer to the English-speaking environment unless you specifically indicate otherwise. Make sure, for instance, that specific references to a German, Dutch or Spanish context are clear for non-German, non-Dutch or non-Spanish readers.

Perspective concerns the angle you wish to adopt to your subject. For example, if you are writing about the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), you should indicate your perspective on the topic. Do you approach the topic of the EBRD from a purely economic standpoint, or do you approach the issue from a socio-political point of view?

In the elaboration, especially in short papers, you will often have to indicate the areas of the topic that you cannot cover in the text. Preferably, do this by focusing on what you will be dealing with, rather than going on at length about things you will not discuss. An expression like *of particular interest* enables you to focus on the topic you are dealing with, but at the same time implies that there are other aspects which are, for current purposes, of less interest.

3.2. The middle sections of your paper

The middle part of the paper, or body, is the meat in the sandwich as it were. Body ’is simply an abstract term used to refer to this part of the paper. In step four of the construction of an outline (as discussed in section 2.2), you categorized the points in the body under general headings to identify which points need more development and which points are not useful or relevant. Now, you choose specific *numbered headings* that relate to the different sections you mention in the short outline of the introduction. Then, you define the different subsections and related headings to finalize the structure of the body. However, too many headings in a short paper do not help the readability of your paper: on the contrary, they appear as a series of unconnected chunks of information and give the impression of an unfinished set of notes.

The body must logically follow from the purpose statement, and you must develop the points adequately and sufficiently to elaborate, support or refute your purpose statement. The body must be organized under *clear content-relevant headings*: never use the term body ’as a label for the section in your papers. The content in the body must be written in clear, logical paragraphs.

Where necessary, the content should be supported by exhibits (figures, tables, charts, photographs, etc.). Try to refer to the exhibit in the text first before it appears on the page. Ensure that you explain the important features of the exhibit in the text – do not leave your readers to work it out for themselves, for they could well draw different conclusions.

The middle part of a paper is usually the largest, approximately three-quarters of the total length. In most papers that you will write for your studies, you will need to indicate the different sections of the middle part by giving appropriate *subheadings*. In very short papers (i.e., 500 words), however, you do not need to use subheadings for the different sections – the text is short enough.

Ideally, your paragraphs should derive from the outline of the arguments you wish to present in your paper. However, you may wish to split a long paragraph in two. If so, ensure that each of the two new paragraphs is internally consistent: that is, they both have topic sentences and adequate elaboration. Similarly, you may wish to join two short paragraphs, and the same considerations apply. Aim to ensure that your paragraphs are *well-balanced* in length.

The direction you take in the body of your paper will be determined by the approach you have adopted. This indicates the overall organizing principle of your paper. For example, a paper on the historical origins of the European monetary union is likely to be controlled by a *chronological* structure. Each paragraph will deal with events in clearly delimited periods of history. In contrast, if your perspective in a similar paper on the origins of the European monetary union is from an analysis of the banking system, you may adopt an *opposition* structure. In this case, you may contrast the different approaches to EMU taken by various banking authorities and specify these in separate paragraphs. A third organizing principle is that of *relative strength*, where you are asserting a particular claim (in your purpose statement) and you then order the pieces of evidence in terms of their strength. This may apply to a paper in which you assert that countries with booming economies should increase taxation.

3.3. The discussion and conclusion

Many papers you will write need to be concluded with a section called *Discussion and conclusions* or simply *Discussion* or sometimes just *Conclusion*. In papers where you present empirical or experimental data in the middle part, you do not usually discuss your results in that part, but in the *Discussion*. This is where you interpret and account for the results. In argumentative papers, especially position papers, your argument is in the middle part of your paper, and you may simply need a *Conclusion* section. The same applies to most literature reviews and theoretical papers.

Naturally, a paper must close with an effective conclusion. The conclusion finally provides the answer to the purpose statement. In longer papers, e.g. Master's theses, where you have a longer discussion of the evidence, then the answer to your research question may be presented over several paragraphs. In short papers, the conclusion may be a single paragraph. The concluding paragraph is organized in the following way.

The topic sentence of a concluding paragraph must serve as notice that the body is over and the conclusions are about to be drawn. Note that the signalling words *so, however, thus* and *therefore* are too weak to signal the change from body to conclusion. Other signals, such as *to conclude, by way of conclusion, to sum up* are clear, but may be too explicit, especially in short papers.

Adverbs seem to work best for this purpose, such as *certainly, clearly, indeed, arguably, undoubtedly*. In longer papers, indicate the conclusion by a clear heading.

The elaboration of the conclusion should cover three functions: first, a summary should been given of what has been presented in the middle part (body). This summary leads to the second function, the answer to or resolution of the purpose statement. Finally, you should indicate your own interpretation of the conclusion: this is your judgement or opinion, but aim to express it in a non-personal way.

The final sentence should be striking and memorable, and so end the paper on a communicatively important and positive note. It should not depend for its interpretation on the preceding sentences. It should stimulate the reader to think further. So, take care that the conclusion ends strongly (Figure 7).

As a useful guide, the conclusion should comprise about one-eighth of the whole text; thus in a 500-word paper the conclusion should not be more than about 60-70 words, i.e. one single paragraph, usually without a heading. In a larger paper (e.g. 2500 words), the conclusion may consist of several paragraphs. In a Master's thesis, for example, it will form a separate chapter.

	5. Conclusion
Summary	Prediction markets have enormous benefits for an organizational decision of a product launch. They predict future demand and success of goods more accurately than consumer surveys and they outperform expert opinions in most cases. They are less costly than meetings and allow more employees to participate and reveal their true opinion. Additionally, prediction markets encourage group learning by publishing the beliefs of all members and they always show the latest movement in the forecasting process. Nevertheless, prediction markets cannot be used at all times and in every organization. When implementing this method, firms have to consider certain aspects such as the number of their employees and how to motivate them to participate successfully in the prediction market. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that the sources of information are independent and different form each other and that the members of the prediction market only trade to make money.
Answer to purpose statement	In conclusion, if firms have taken these conditions into account and have eliminated potential problems, they should engage into prediction markets to make best informed decisions.

Figure 7. Example of a conclusion paragraph from a 2000-word paper. Note that the writer's opinion is expressed impersonally and merged with the answer to the purpose statement (see also Figure 5).

3.4. The organization of a paragraph

Paragraphs are not the same as sections. Papers are divided into sections, and a section is organized into paragraphs. Paragraphs are the organizing units of writing, indicating which ideas go together and how they relate to each other. Good paragraphing gives readers clues to how to read your paper. Moreover, the visual impact of paragraphs on the page or screen helps show the reader when you have moved on to the next step in your ideas. Readers expect your paragraphs to be *unified* – that is, each paragraph discusses one main issue. They also expect your paragraphs to be well *organized* – in that the development of the ideas follows a clear order. Finally they expect your paragraphs to be *coherent* – so that each sentence logically follows from the previous ones, in advancing and supporting the topic of the paragraph. Always ask yourself: how does this paragraph fit in the whole paper?

The paragraph starts with the so-called *topic sentence*, and subsequently, treats the issue in a series of linked sentences: the *elaboration*. The high point of the paragraph comes at the end, the *closure*, which concludes the paragraph. If you do not fulfil these three components of a paragraph, you leave your reader with a feeling of incompleteness and dissatisfaction. Avoid using one-sentence paragraphs. The one-sentence paragraph is a technique that should, as a rule, not occur in a paper. It is a technique of informal writing, e-mails, webpages, manuals, guides, correspondence and of some types of popular journalism, but, with rare exceptions, has very limited place in academic writing.

3.4.1. The topic sentence

The foundation of every paragraph is of course the initial sentence, the topic sentence. This sentence has two functions. First, it announces the topic of the paragraph, i.e. what the rest of the paragraph will deal with. A paragraph will be internally coherent if all sentences in that paragraph fall under the scope of the topic sentence. Secondly, it relates the paragraph to the surrounding text, especially to the preceding material (Hannay & Mackenzie, 2002). The topic sentence helps the writer and the readers to grasp the issues (the topic) being discussed in the paragraph (Figure 8). When you check your work, you can quickly see whether information in the sentences of the paragraph are all related to the topic, or whether some information needs to be deleted or moved to a different paragraph, or even whether a paragraph needs splitting in two.

Topic sentence Elaboration	Third, the Internet has made it relatively easy for researchers to conduct field experiments. The earliest example we know of is work by Lucking-Reiley (1999), who examined how differences in auction rules affected the revenue raised by the auctioning of hundreds of items (in his case trading cards) over the Internet. Such experiments have the advantage of allowing researchers to examine the behavior of real market participants rather than, say, college undergraduates given artificial incentives. Furthermore, Reiley's experiments were inexpensive to conduct. The sub-

Closure	sequent growth of eBay has made auction experiments even easier to carry out. Some interesting examples are Lucking-Reiley and Katkar (2000), Hossain and Morgan (2003) and Bajari and Hortacsu (2003). To our knowledge, economists using the Internet to run field experiments have so far limited themselves to the study of auctions. We imagine, however, that in the future, economists may build their careers by running experiments in different settings. For example, one could set up and operate a number of "competing" websites selling similar products. Existing retailers already take advantage of the mutability of websites to experiment with different prices, product mixes or look-and-feels. Such experimentation could be a powerful tool for estimating characteristics of demand and testing models of consumer decision making. (Source: Ellison, G., & Ellison, S.F. (2005). Lessons about markets from the Internet. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 19*(2), 139-158.)

Figure 8. Sample paragraph illustrating the topic sentence, the elaboration sentences, and the closure.

3.4.2. The elaboration and closure

The largest part of the paragraph is the elaboration of the topic sentence, the part of the paragraph that offers the most information. The final sentence is the closure. It may be explicitly linked to the topic sentence, but is never a mere restatement (see Figure 8 above). Rather, it serves to state the point, to make clear the cognitive gain of the paragraph and can sometimes point ahead to the topic sentence of the next paragraph.

We can distinguish seven different types of elaboration (Hannay and Mackenzie, 2002), depending on the communicative goal of the paragraph.

1. Spatial elaboration
2. Temporal elaboration
3. Analytical elaboration
4. Deductive elaboration
5. Inductive elaboration
6. Dialectical elaboration
7. Enumerational elaboration

1 *Spatial elaboration* is found in paragraphs whose goal is to describe some aspects of reality, especially the spatial configuration of things and places. Such paragraphs typically have a topic sentence that introduces the location, an elaboration that takes the reader on an imaginary journey around the area being depicted, and a closure sentence that identifies some point as being of particular importance for the ensuing text. Although this type is frequently found in tourist guidebooks, it is not common in academic writing, but is found in companies 'annual reports (Figure 9).

Topic sentence (location) Elaboration of areas within location	Zone Americas had sales of CHF 32.2 billion. Organic growth was 6.5% and RIG was 2.8%, above the level achieved in 2008. The EBIT margin increased by 20 basis points to 16.8%, reflecting the benefits of the strong growth and mix. In North America, petcare, ambient dairy, soluble coffee and chocolate performed particularly well. Overall, North America achieved higher RIG than in 2008. In Latin America, Brazil achieved double-digit organic growth and there were good contributions also from Mexico and the other regions. By category, there were strong performances from most categories in Latin America, with chocolate, soluble coffee, ambient culinary, petcare, biscuits and powdered and ready-to-drink beverages all achieving double digit organic growth.
Topic sentence (location) Elaboration of areas within location	Zone Europe had sales of CHF 22.5 billion. Organic growth was 0.3% and RIG was –0.9%. The EBIT margin was unchanged at 12.4%. This was a resilient EBIT margin performance during a year in which marketing spend increased noticeably. Great Britain, France and Switzerland achieved good growth. Amongst the categories there was strong growth in petcare, soluble coffee, powdered beverages and sugar confectionery. Eastern Europe achieved mid-single digit organic growth despite the tough economic environment in many countries. Soluble coffee, ambient culinary and powdered beverages all contributed well. (Source: Nestle S.A. (2010). Annual Report 2009. Retrieved 9 August 2010 from: http://www.nestle.com/Resource.axd?Id=585806D1-BC1B-404B-A03F-F7A68A68F436)

Figure 9. Spatial elaboration (annual report).

2. *Temporal elaboration* is used where various pieces of historical evidence are cited for the claim made in the topic sentence (Figure 10). Just as the body as a whole should show chronological sequencing, so the paragraph should give the succession of events in the order of their actual occurrence in time. The closure sentence should present the historical high point of the time period under discussion.

Topic sentence (claim) Chronological sequencing Closure	Another key dynamic concerns the make up of the Council itself, and its progressive enlargement. It is certainly the case that both the 1973 and 1995 enlargements – which brought the UK, Denmark, Ireland, Sweden, Finland and Austria into the mix – tended to pull the EU in a 'northern' direction. If so, both the 1980 and 1986 enlargements, bringing in Greece, Spain and Portugal, pulled the Council in a southern direction (but again, note that 'northern' or 'southern' votes are far from a sure thing). The 2004 enlargement, which took the EU from fifteen to twenty-five members, by contrast was a rather balanced package. Countries as different as Poland, Estonia, the Czech Republic and Cyprus map pretty well on to the existing balance of trade policy interests in the Council, and have not significantly tilted the balance one way or the other except perhaps on issues relating to Russia, for obvious reasons. (Source: Baldwin, M. (2007). EU trade politics – heaven or hell? *Journal of European Public Policy*, *13*(6), 926-942.)

Figure 10. Temporal elaboration.

3. *Analytical elaboration* occurs where the topic sentence presents a generalization and the following sentences serve to particularize, exemplify or specify that generalization. After a topic sentence such as: *all the major religions of the world have underrated the potential of their female adherents*, the elaboration sentences would then provide examples of how this applies to each of the world's most important religions. The closure sentence would both add more detail to the topic sentence and link in naturally with a following paragraph. Analytical elaboration does not necessarily entail a closure sentence (Figure 11).

Topic sentence (generalization) Particularizations (as support for the generalization) Note: the example could also be viewed as temporal elaboration	Economists have long noted that trading activity can be strikingly concentrated. In medieval Europe, people would travel hundreds of miles to trade fairs to buy a year's provisions (Walford, 1883). When Daniel Defoe (1724 [1986], pp. 102–104) visited the annual Sturbridge Fair in 1723 (over 500 years after it started), he was amazed to find a half mile square field full of "goldsmiths, toyshops, braziers, turners, milliners, haberdashers, hatters, mercers, drapers, pewterers, china-warehouses, and in a word all the trades that can be named in London," as well as vast wholesale trade in woolens, hops, *etc.,* and wondered "… why this fair should be thus, of all other places in England, the centre of that trade; and so great a quantity of so bulky a commodity be carried thither so far." In the modern world, great fish markets like New York's Fulton fish market and Tokyo's Tsukiji are similar phenomena. Stock exchanges are another well-known example of the agglomeration of trade. (Source: Ellison, G., & Ellison, S.F. (2005). Lessons about markets from the Internet. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 19*(2), 139-158.)

Figure 11. Analytical elaboration.

4 *Deductive elaboration* is found where the topic sentence tends to make an assertion that has some obvious validity and the elaboration develops the logical consequences of that assertion (Figure 12). For example, a topic sentence like: *language is a vital tool of human communication*, would be followed by elaboration sentences such as: *any study of language must therefore take account of its role in communication*. The closure of the paragraph takes the form of a conclusion to the argument presented in the elaboration: *it follows that every effort should be made to elaborate a functional theory of language*.

Topic sentence (assertion) Evidence Closure (conclusion)	Turning from the process to the dynamics of EU trade politics, I would argue that far too much is simplistically made of the differences in the Council between the 'northern liberals' and the 'Club Med' protectionists. Indeed, these labels themselves have tended to enshrine the view of 'camps'. The reality is different. Italy and other southern member states can be vociferously 'liberal', particularly with regard to sectors where they have strong commercial interests. The Netherlands or the UK can equally be vociferously 'protectionist' in defence of their own suppliers of cut flowers or salmon. It is true that France and a number of other member states fear that reform of the common agricultural policy (CAP) has gone too far, too fast, while Sweden and others would like to abolish the CAP tomorrow. Yet, these distinctions are rarely a good guide to predicting how the Council will react on a given issue on a given day. (Source: Baldwin, M. (2007). EU trade politics – heaven or hell? *Journal of European Public Policy*, *13*(6), 926-942.)

Figure 12. Deductive elaboration.

5. *Inductive elaboration*, by contrast, occurs when the topic sentence makes some claim, the validity of which is not immediately obvious, and the subsequent elaboration presents evidence to support the claim. A topic sentence such as: *the world is a safer place today than it has ever been*, would be followed by elaboration sentences such as: *the Soviet Union, the major threat to world peace, no longer exists*. The closure sentence offers a (typically positive) evaluation of the evidence (Figure 13).

Topic sentence (claim) Evidence Closure (evaluation)	Thus, in countries with a highly independent CB, the monetary authority leans against inflationary wage increases by contracting money growth in response to wage inflation. Casual evidence about the industrial organization of labor negotiations in Germany as well as recent empirical evidence concerning monetary policy reaction functions supports the theoretical discussion above. Studies on industrial relations in Germany, such as Berghan and Detlev (1987) and Streek (1994), report that the Bundesbank often threatened to tighten monetary policy in response to excessive wage settlements. Hall (1994, p. 12) and Hall and Franzese (1998) note that, due to the high level of independence of the Bundesbank, labor unions usually took this threat seriously but that, from time to time, the German CB actually tightened monetary policy in response to high wage settlements in order to maintain its credibility. This view is corroborated by empirical evidence in Cukierman, Rodriguez and Webb (1998). (Source: Coricelli, F., Cukierman, A., & Dalmazzo, A. (2006). Monetary institutions, monopolistic competition, unionized labor markets and economic performance. *Scandinavian Journal of Economics, 108*(1), 39-63.)

Figure 13. Inductive elaboration.

6. *Dialectical elaboration* involves presenting two sides of an argument in one paragraph. The topic sentence (plus possibly one or two further sentences) advances the proposition to be discussed, the elaboration offers the counter-argument (Figure 14). Finally, the closure sentence can then contain the synthesis of the two; a resolution of the opposition that preserves something of both sides of the argument. For example, a paragraph might begin: *many people consider that the high fees charged by medical specialists are contributing to the difficulties being experienced in financing health care*. After a couple of sentences amplifying this side of the argument, you can switch to the counter-argument: *it must be conceded, however, that these specialists have invested many years of their lives in attaining their high degree of expertise and moreover incur many expenses that are not immediately visible to outsiders.* Again after a couple of sentences elaborating the counter-argument, the closure synthesizes both viewpoints: *the answer lies in moderating the fees, but also in making visible the hidden expenses with a view to reducing them and maintaining the specialists 'standard of living*.

Topic Argument A Transition (*on the other hand*) Argument B Closure	Our experiments have shown that fairness concerns may have important consequences for the optimal provision of incentives. Incentive contracts that are optimal when there are only selfish actors perform less well when some agents are concerned about fairness. On the other hand, implicit bonus contracts that cannot work when all actors are selfish provide powerful incentives and become superior when there are also fair-minded players. Our results indicate that the principals understand that fairness matters and predominantly choose the superior bonus contract that relies on fairness as an enforcement device. (Source: Fehr, E., Klein, A., & Schmidt, K.M. (2007). Fairness and contract Design. *Econometrica*, *75*(1), 121-154.)

Figure 14. Dialectical elaboration.

7. *Enumerational elaboration*, finally, is encountered in those paragraphs in which the topic sentence serves merely to quantify the points that are to be made in the elaboration (Figure 15). After a topic sentence like: *there are five arguments in favour of abolishing capital punishment in the USA*, the elaboration must then contain exactly five distinct arguments against the preservation of capital punishment. Enumerational paragraphs often lack a closure sentence. If they do have one, then it usually picks out some justification for presenting the various arguments in combination: *these arguments, taken together, call for an immediate implementation of a ban on capital punishment*.

Topic sentence (quantification) Elaboration (examples of the point made in the topic sentence)	There has been considerable discussion about the price and quality of services provided within certain principal-agent relationships. For example, the Securities and Exchange Commission and Congress have focused a great deal of attention on the price and quality of outside audit services to investors. The Securities and Exchange Commission and the Department of Justice have considered the regulation of investment banking contracts because of their concern over the price and level of services provided. Finally, a large and growing literature has focused attention on the conflict between owners and managers and the problem of shirking by managers. (Source: Dejong, D.V., Forsythe, R., & Lundholm, R.J. (1985). Ripoffs, lemons, and reputation formation in agency relationships: A laboratory market study. *The Journal of Finance, 40*(3), 809-820.)

Figure 15. Enumerational elaboration.

4. Citation of sources

Citation is the process of giving due credit to the sources of facts, opinions and ideas that you refer to in your writing. If, for example, you find an interesting fact in a book, journal article, webpage, or other publication, and you want to use it in your paper, then you must indicate in your paper exactly where you got the information. If you report an author's opinion, hypothesis, or idea, you must also give due mention in your paper. You always cite the source you use. If you describe Porter's generic strategies in your paper, and you used an introductory textbook on international strategy, then do not cite the original book of Porter's, but cite the textbook you used. Figure 16 presents an example of appropriate citation of sources.

Three separate sources, each with two authors. One source with three authors Three sources, in parentheses, each with two authors	Some of the earnings differentials in the 1980s may have been due to customer preferences. Gwartney and Haworth (1974), Kahn and Sherer (1988), and Burdekin and Idson (1991) showed that team racial composition can have significant effects on attendance. Despite empirical evidence indicating a diminishing earnings gap between White and Black players in the 1990s, Burdekin, Hossfeld, and Smith (2005) continue to find evidence of racial preferences in NBA attendance patterns. Also, in baseball, where evidence of salary discrimination has always been sparse, empirical results suggest that fans maintain racial preferences for players (Anderson & La Croix, 1991; Fort & Gill, 2000; Nardinelli & Simon, 1990). (Adapted from: Pedace, R. (2008). Earnings, performance, and national discrimination in a highly competitive labor market as an analysis of the English professional soccer league. *Journal of Sports Economics*, *9*, 115-140.)

Figure 16. Example of appropriate citation of sources. Note the difference between a citation in the grammatical structure of the sentence (the first two instances) and a citation in parentheses (last instance).

4.1. The importance of citation

Three main reasons may be identified why (correct) citation is that important in academic writing, and why you need to check carefully that what you tell in your story of the information from your cited authors is an accurate representation. First, you demonstrate your understanding of the different concepts that you have learned and afterwards applied in the text. Secondly, the reader can retrieve the different sources you refer to in the text for further research or other purposes. You too would be very grateful for the research of your final thesis if you could easily retrieve the sources from another author's work. The third reason is to avoid being charged of plagiarism. This last reason may need some further explanation.

Plagiarism is the deliberate or unintentional reporting of facts, opinions, ideas, etc., as though they were your own. It is a serious academic offence that may have some serious consequences.

You may think that academic knowledge is shared, objective knowledge, and is therefore a kind of communal property. Nothing could be further from the truth. When anyone invents something or discovers some new fact, he tries to register that invention or that fact under a patent or through the copyright acts. Music, logos, commercial ideas can all be protected as the intellectual property of the inventor, and these are protected because they are the source of livelihood for the inventor. If the rights are infringed, then the inventor or owner of the rights can take legal action. The same principles apply to academic facts, ideas and opinions: although few academics will make money out of them directly, this academic knowledge does underpin their jobs and career prospects. In the same way, your ideas will lay the basis for your own careers.

While academic knowledge is freely available, it is necessary to give due credit to the source of that knowledge. That makes your own work academic.

Why might you fall into the trap of plagiarizing? Firstly, you may do so unintentionally. You have forgotten where you found the information, because you have read so much. The solution is to keep careful records of the sources of information that you need for writing a paper. Another unintentional reason is that you may have a false idea of what it means to write a paper. A paper is not simply the assembly of lots of facts and ideas gathered from various sources, and your task is just to put them together. That would be a collection of notes. A paper implies that you are telling your story about that facts and ideas, and you need to identify which pieces of information are yours and which are your sources. Similarly, you may be rather unsure about what is "common knowledge" and what is specific knowledge for which you need to cite a source. This grey line between these areas is difficult to determine, especially at the beginning of your studies. However, the more you advance in your studies, the more you will discover what is the shared common knowledge – you find it as the background in lots of textbooks and articles. In the early stages of your studies, it is wise to cite all the authors of sources, just to be on the safe side.

Secondly, you may plagiarize because you think your own writing is not good enough. While using other people's work to learn how to write can be beneficial, plagiarism itself will not help you produce a good writing. What you need to do is to learn how to express other people's ideas in your own words, by trying different structures, by distilling the gist of what an author wants to say and then saying it in your words.

The third reason for plagiarism is much more serious. This is deliberate: you may be under time pressure, or you have other priorities, so you decide simply to copy chunks of text from the sources you read, and pass it off as your own work. This is of course easy to do with electronic sources. The trouble is, though, that usually it is also easy to spot: the style of writing changes, the relevant references do not appear in the text as they should, and errors of grammar and interpretation are simply repeated in your work. Worst of all, it does not help you acquire an effective understanding of the sources, nor does it help you develop your own writing style.

Closely associated with this is plagiarizing other students and self-plagiarism. You may not think of this as plagiarism; after all, it is just copying text that is not copyright. You may think another student's work is hardly intellectual property, but it is. Similarly, if you have submitted your own work for one course, you may not submit it again for assessment in another course. This would also be plagiarism. This kind of activity eventually leads to the culprit being excluded from the academic community for life. In the end, doing this means you have destroyed your potential academic career.

Clearly, then, while plagiarizing may sometimes seem like the economically viable option in the short term, in the end it is simply not worth your while. The consequences for your academic studies and career and for you as a person are too great.

Maastricht University is introducing a university-wide anti-plagiarism policy. Check both the main website of the university as well as on Eleum, tab my SBE, section student A... Z; cheating and plagiarism (including the Exam Regulations) to ensure that you are familiar both with what plagiarism is and how you can avoid committing it.

4.2. How to cite information from other sources

This section covers the different techniques you can use to cite information from the sources you use. One choice you will make is whether to cite information by paraphrasing, summarizing, and using a direct quote (subsections 4.2.1. and 4.2.2.). Your second choice is whether to insert the citation in the grammatical structure of the sentence or to place it in parentheses after the information cited (subsection 4.2.3.).

4.2.1. Paraphrasing and generalizing

The preferred way to cite work by other authors is to write down the information you have found from another's work *in your own words* (*paraphrasing*). This can be done in two ways. In one way, you try to summarize those particular parts of another's work that are important to your paper. You summarize in your own words, because you are telling your story: you are interpreting the information you have found in the literature in the light of your conception of the topic. See Figure 16 at the start of section 4 (middle citation).

The other way is when you find several books or articles that discuss the same aspect of your topic: here you try to generalize from the several sources by summing up the general finding or conclusion that you draw from those works. See Figure 16 at the start of section 4 (first and last citation).

4.2.2. Direct quotes

When you are citing information from an author, you may do so in three ways. First, you can *directly quote* an extract from the author, putting the quotation in quotation marks ("inverted commas"). This way is not very common in many social scientific disciplines, but is used, for example, for important definitions. Indeed, quotes are relatively rare in economics and business academic papers. Incorporate direct quotes of less than 40 words within the sentence of your text (see Figure 17).

Canes (1974) showed that improvements in team quality have important negative external effects that may induce clubs to over-employ athletic talent. He suggested the need for institutional mechanisms such as revenue-sharing, reserve clauses and player drafts in order to "counteract the incentive to overinvest in team quality" (p. 109).

(Adapted from Dietl, H., Franck, E., & Lang, M. (2008). Overinvestment in team sports leagues: A contest theory model. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy, 55*: 353-368.)

A long-standing tradition in economics views human beings as exclusively self-interested. In most economic accounts of individual behavior and aggregate social phenomena, the "vast forces of greed" (Arrow, 1980, p. 25) are put at the center of the explanation. In economic models human actors are typically portrayed as "self-interest seeking with guile [which] includes … more blatant forms, such as lying, stealing, and cheating … [but] more often involves subtle forms of deceit" (Williamson, 1985, p. 45).

(Adapted from Fehr, E. & Gächter, S. (2000). Fairness and retaliation: The economics of reciprocity. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 14*(3), 159-181.)

Figure 17. Direct quotes incorporated in the text. Note the punctuation marks. The three dots (… ellipsis points) in the lower box indicate omitted material. The square brackets indicate inserted material inserted to clarify the grammatical structure. Neither are used to change the meaning!

Quotes longer that 40 words are displayed as indented freestanding text. The citation appears at the end of the quote, outside the final punctuation mark (Figure 18).

Lucien Freud considers his art a search for an elusive goal, but recognizes that because this goal is unattainable, what is most important is the process of the search:

> A moment of complete happiness never occurs in the creation of a work of art. The promise of it is felt in the act of creation but disappears towards the completion of the work. For it is then that the painter realizes that it is only a picture he is painting. Until then he had almost dared to hope that the picture might spring to life. Were it not for this, the perfect painting might be painted, on the completion of which the painter could retire. It is this great insufficiency that drives him on. Thus the process of creation becomes necessary to the painter perhaps more than it is in the picture. The process is in fact habit-forming. (Rose, 1987, pp. 17-18)

Freud's avoidance of preconception is such that he not only makes no preliminary studies for his paintings, …

(Adapted from Galenson, D.W. (2005). *Who are the greatest living artists? The view from the auction market.* National Bureau of Economic Research: NBER Working Paper 11644. Retrieved from http://www.nber.org/w11644)

Figure 18. Indented direct quote longer than 40 words. Note the placement of the citation, outside the final punctuation mark.

4.2.3. Placing the citation in the sentence or in parentheses

As you will have noticed (see Figure 16 above), you have a choice between incorporating the citation *in the grammatical structure of the sentence* ("Gwartney and Haworth (1974), Kahn and Sherer (1988), and Burdekin and Idson (1991) showed that team racial composition can have significant effects on attendance.") or placing it *in parentheses* ("Also, in baseball, where evidence of salary discrimination has always been sparse, empirical results suggest that fans maintain racial preferences for players (Anderson & La Croix, 1991; Fort & Gill, 2000; Nardinelli & Simon, 1990)."). How do you decide to do this?

Consider the case where you have summarized in your own words the research that an author has done, and your text amounts to a whole paragraph. Do you place the citation in parentheses at the end of the paragraph? See Figure 19.

Today, consumers are using sites that compare online auction markets like eBay, Amazon or Yahoo! and many others, for each particular product in order to protect themselves. In this way, the users have more power over their decisions where to purchase or sell the goods. EBay has also suffered under these changes and it has gotten a damaged image because of piracy. To accommodate these problems eBay designed security software and hired holder of rights in order to identify illegal auctions to delete them afterwards. It also changed its layout many times, because previous ones had been confusing. Those modifications raised the costs and therefore consumers had to accept higher listing fees charged by eBay. Consequently, eBay lost many users that were switching to other online auctions (Scholtys, 2007).

Figure 19. Example of a student paper (adapted) where the citation is placed at the end of the paragraph.

In the example in Figure 19, the reader does not know whether the source (Scholtys, 2007) relates only to information reported in the last sentence or to more sentences or even to the whole paragraph. The reader's default position is to relate the citation only to the sentence that contains the parenthetical reference.

Note that you cannot place the parenthetical citation outside the final punctuation mark and then claim it refers to the whole paragraph. That is simply not correct.

There are three questions you can ask yourself in making a choice between citing within the grammatical structure of the text (or integral citation) or citing in parentheses (or non-integral citation).

Question	Answer
1. How much do you wish to cite?	One sentence or less, or more than one sentence.
2. If you are citing one sentence or less, how important is the name of the source?	If it's the information that's important (not who said it), then you are more likely to use a non-integral citation (parentheses) (90% chance). If the name is important, then you are more likely to use integral citing (citation in the grammatical structure), and more likely to make the source (author) the subject of the sentence (10% chance).
3. If you are citing more than one sentence, how great is the chance that the reader might misattribute the information (i.e. think it is your opinion only)?	If the chance is higher, then you are more likely to use an integral citation, and more likely to make the source the subject (author) of the sentence (75% chance). If the chance is low, then you may use a non-integral citation (25% chance).

Figure 20. Questions to decide about integral or non-integral citations. The approximate likelihood percentages have been derived from data in psychology, based on Wilkinson, Rijlaarsdam, and van Essen (2005). The percentages serve only as a guide. No analysis has been performed in economics or business.

Whether you paraphrase (saying in your own words) or quote an author directly, the source should always be credited using either an integral citation or a non-integral one. The School of Business and Economics requires that you apply the APA (American Psychological Association) standards for the citation of sources. This chapter will discuss these standards, based on the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (American Psychological Association, 2010, 6th ed.). If you cite a source according to APA standards, you have to insert two components in the paper: a reference citation in the text (i.e., in-text citation) and a related entry in the references at the end of the paper. Section 4.3 discusses how to put a reference citation in the text in a correct way. Section 4.4 describes how to construct an entry in the references at the end of the paper. Section 4.5 continues by explaining the use of footnotes in an academic paper. Finally, section 4.6 shows you how to deal with tables, figures, and other exhibits from another source in your paper.

4.3. In-text citations

If you cite a source according to APA standards, you have to insert two components in the paper: a citation in the text and a related entry in the references at the end of the paper. This section discusses how to put a citation in the text in a correct way. The APA standards for reference citations in the text use the author-year method. That is, the surname of the author and the year of publication are inserted in the text at the appropriate point:

In a recent study of reaction times (Rogers, 2009)…	The standard parentheses (non-integral)
Rogers (2009) compared reaction times…	When the name appears as part of the narrative (integral)
Rogers also found…	Second mention within the same paragraph the year need not be included subsequently, if the name appears as part of the narrative. This only applies to integral citations in the same paragraph. For non-integral (parenthetic) citations, you have to give the name and year each time within the same paragraph.

If you directly quote an author, in addition, the related page number has to be put between the parentheses, and the quoted text has to be put in double quotation marks.

“A business model is a vague concept” (Rogers, 2009, p.5).	The standard parentheses
Rogers (2009, p.5) stated: “A business model is a vague concept”.	When the name appears as part of the narrative
Rogers also stated that “a business model is a vague concept” (p. 5).	Second mention within a paragraph the year has not to be included subsequently, if the name appears as part of the narrative

Often, for direct quotation at length, permission from the owner of the copyright is needed. This length varies from one copyright owner to another. If permission is requested and granted, a footnote should be made, acknowledging the permission (see section 5.2). Note that this footnote does not replace the related entry in the references, as discussed in the next section.

Now, both items author and date will be discussed into more detail.

4.3.1. One source by multiple authors

When a work has two authors, always cite both names every time (i.e. within the same paragraph and the subsequent paragraphs); in subsequent citations within the same first paragraph, exclude the year. In subsequent paragraphs, the first citation includes again the year; then within the same (subsequent) paragraph, the citation again excludes the year.

Rogers and Zoe (2008) found…	first citation in the text (integral citation)
Rogers and Zoe (2008) found…	subsequent first citation in any paragraph thereafter
Rogers and Zoe found…	second mention within the same paragraph, omit year from subsequent citations

When a work has three, four, or five authors, cite all authors and the year the first time the reference occurs; in subsequent citations within the same first paragraph, include only the surname of the first author followed by *et al.* In subsequent paragraphs, the first citation includes only the surname of the first author followed by et al. and the year; then within the same (subsequent) paragraph, the citation includes only the surname of the first author followed by *et al.* without mentioning the year.

Rogers, Tac, and Zoe (2005) found…	first citation in the text (integral)
Rogers *et al.* (2005) found…	subsequent first citation in any paragraph thereafter
Rogers *et al.* found…	second mention within the same paragraph, omit year from subsequent citations

When a work has six or more authors, always cite only the surname of the first author followed by *et al.* (i.e. within the same paragraph and the subsequent paragraphs); in subsequent citations within the same first paragraph, exclude the year. In subsequent paragraphs, the first citation includes again the year; then within the same (subsequent) paragraph, the citation again excludes the year.

Rogers et al. (2007) found… Rogers et al. (2007) found… Rogers et al. found…	first citation in the text (integral) subsequent first citation in any paragraph thereafter second mention within the same paragraph, omit year from subsequent citations

If a work has three authors or more, separate the different names with a comma including the last two, and join these names in narrative text (integral) by the word *and*. In a parenthesized citation in the text, the last two names have to be separated by an *ampersand sign* (= &).

Baaten, Jansen, and Noes (2008) found… In a recent market research (Baaten, Jansen, & Noes, 2008)	In narrative text, separate the last two names by *and* In a parenthesized reference citation in the text, separate the last two names by an ampersand sign

4.3.2. One source with no author

Sometimes the name of a group can serve as author (e.g., corporations, associations, government). This also applies to newspapers that do not identify the individual journalists, e.g. *The Economist*. This is called a group author.

In a telecommunications study (Vodafone, 2006)…

When a work has no author, cite in the text the first few words of the related reference entry (usually the title) and the year.

In an old report of the CIA (The Z-files of , 1967)…

When a work's author is designated as "Anonymous", cite the word Anonymous. Do not use this if the work has not been so designated.

In another report of the CIA (Anonymous, 1969)…

4.3.3. One source with no date

When a work has no date of publication, cite in the text the author's name, followed by a comma and n.d.

(Janssen & Schröder, n.d.)

4.3.4. Two or more sources

Distinguishing two or more sources from the same author

When you cite two sources from the same author with a different year of publication, there is no problem to distinguish them:

Baaten (2006) found… Baaten (2009) found…

When you cite two sources from the same author with the same year of publication, lowercase letters are placed immediately after the year of publication, so that you can distinguish them:

Baaten (2009a) found… Baaten (2009b) found…

The same principle applies to works with two or more authors in the same order. There is no problem to distinguish the works on first mention. However, if you shorten the reference citations with *et al.* on second mention (see above), then it would not be possible anymore to distinguish the works with multiple authors. In this case you must cite the surnames of the first authors and as many of the subsequent authors as are necessary to distinguish the two sources:

Baaten, Jansen et al. (2004) found…	second mention of Baaten, Jansen, Klaassen, and Zelt (2004)
Baaten, Jansen, Bank et al. (2004) found…	second mention of Baaten, Jansen, Bank, and Neus (2004)

When you cite two sources from different groups of authors that by coincidence all have the same surnames, then, in case of the same year of publication it would not be possible to distinguish them. You always have to include the first author's initials in the related reference citations.

R. Baaten, Jansen, and Noes (1994) found… V. Baaten, Jansen, and Noes (1994) found…

Even in the case of a different year of publication it would not be possible to distinguish both sources in the right way. If you did not include the first author's initials in the related reference citations, then it would look as if they were two different sources from the same authors and not from different groups of authors.

4.3.5. Personal communications and entire websites

There are two types of sources that do not need a related entry in the references at the end of the paper: *personal communications* and an *entire website*. These two types just need a citation in the text.

Personal Communications

Personal communications include non-recoverable data. They may be for example electronic communications such as e-mails, non-archived bulletin boards, memos, interviews, private letters, telephone conversations, and conference speeches. In the related citation in the text, the initials as well as the surname of the communicator have to be provided, and the date has to be stated as exactly as possible, instead of only providing the year of communication.

(K. Hacker, personal communication, April 18, 2010) K. Hacker (personal communication, April 18, 2010) said…

An entire website

An example of citing an entire website is the impression you got from visiting the homepage of the IBM firm. When you want to cite the related source, the citation in the text should only mention the web address (URL): *The homepage of IBM may be improved on several design aspects (www.ibm.com).*

However, usually you will not be citing a whole website, but electronic documents that you have downloaded, for example the Annual Report of the IBM firm. In this case, you have to insert the two components in the paper as mentioned at the end of subsection 4.2.3: an in-text citation and a related entry in the references at the end of the paper. Furthermore, apply all the same guidelines for printed sources, as described above. The only difference is the case of having no information about the year of publication. If the date of publication is not available, which is often the case when citing a document from the Internet, use the date of retrieval after the abbreviation n.d. For example, if you are citing a Project Report of IBM, which is available on the IBM website and IBM is the corporate author but no year of publication is given, then add the year of retrieval after a forward slash:

(IBM, n.d./2010)

Note that a firm's Annual Report will have a date of publication.

Table 2 summarizes the guidelines given in this subsection. For more detailed information, consult the APA Manual (2010).

Table 2. Basic citation styles

	Narrative or integral citation		Parenthetical (non-integral) citation	
Type of citation	First citation in text	Subsequent citations in text*	First citation in text	Subsequent citations in text
One work by one author	Galenson (2005)	Galenson (2005)	(Galenson, 2005)	(Galenson, 2005)
One work by two authors	Brandts and Charness (2004)	Brandts and Charness (2004)	(Brandts & Charness, 2004)	(Brandts & Charness, 2004)
One work by three, four, or five authors	Dejong, Forsythe, and Lundholm (1985)	Dejong et al. (1985)	(Dejong, Forsythe, & Lundholm, 1985)	(Dejong et al., 1985)
One work by six or more authors	Arrow et al. (2008)	Arrow et al. (2008)	(Arrow et al., 2008)	(Arrow et al., 2008)
Groups (readily identified through abbreviation) as authors	International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2009)	IMF (2009)	(International Monetary Fund [IMF], 2009)	(IMF, 2009)
Groups (no abbreviation) as authors	University of Edinburgh (2008)	University of Edinburgh (2008)	(University of Edinburgh, 2008)	(University of Edinburgh, 2008)

Adapted from *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (2010, 6th ed., p. 177).

* This applies to subsequent citations in subsequent paragraphs. See above for subsequent citation within the same paragraph.

4.4. The list of references

As stated several times before, if you cite a source according to APA standards, you have to insert two components in the paper: a citation in the text and a related entry in the references at the end of the paper (except for a personal communication or an *entire* website). This section describes how you have to construct an entry in the references at the end of the paper.

However, first the distinction between the *references* and a *bibliography* has to be explained, since these terms are often confused. A bibliography is more extensive than the references. The list of references contains only those works that are *actually* cited in the text. A bibliography, on the other hand, contains *in addition* all the works that have been consulted during the research, and that are considered relevant for further reading on the topic, but are not cited in the text. In most cases, at the SBE you will be required to construct a list of references. Only in the rare cases where your supervisor or instructor explicitly so requests you should you construct a bibliography.

The list of references begins on a new page. At the top of the page type the heading "References" (without the inverted commas) (or "Bibliography" if your supervisor has so requested). Note that you do not give a number to the heading References, nor do you use any bullet points for each reference entry.

The following rules have to be applied in the construction of a reference entry:

A. Alphabetical order

The different entries should be arranged in alphabetical order by the surname of the first author. Each entry starts with a hanging indent and 1.5 line spacing between. Furthermore, each entry has to be aligned *left* (not justified). For the alphabetical order, the following rules have to be applied:

General

- Alphabetize letter by letter. Remember, however, "nothing" precedes "something". For example: Brown, J. R. precedes Browning, A. R.
- Alphabetize the prefixes *M'*, *Mc* and *Mac* as if they were all spelled *Mac*.
- Alphabetize surnames that contain prefixes (*de, la, du, von, van* etc.) by starting with the surname: Akker, G. J. van de.

- Alphabetize entries with numerals as if the numerals were spelled out.

Order of several works by the same first author

- Single-author entries by the same author are arranged by the year of publication.
- Single-author entries precede multiple-author entries beginning with the same surname.
- Reference entries with the same first author and different second or third author are arranged alphabetically by the surname of the second author and so on.
- Reference entries with the same authors in the same order are arranged by the year of publication, the earliest first.
- Reference entries with the same author (or by the same two or more authors in the same order) and with the same publication date are arranged alphabetically, by the first significant word (i.e. excluding *A* or *The*) of the title that follows the date. Important: lowercase letters are placed immediately after the year of publication in the reference entry.

Order of several works by different first authors with the same surname

- Works by different authors with the same surname are arranged alphabetically by the first initial.

Order of works with no author

- If a group author can be used, alphabetize by the first significant word of the name. Spell out the full name of a group author. Do not use abbreviations. For example, *The Economist* (2010) would be alphabetized under E.
- If, and only if, the work is signed "Anonymous", then the entry begins with the word Anonymous spelled out, and alphabetized as if anonymous were a true name.
- If there is no author, the title moves to the author's position before the date of publication, and the entry is alphabetized by the first significant word of the title.

B. Categories of different types of sources

It is probable that most of the sources you consult for your papers will be available electronically, and you retrieve them from the University Library. You will probable retrieve different types of sources, such as journal articles (online), books (both hardcopy and electronic), and official reports. Under the Sixth edition of APA guidelines (2010) you are obliged to give the electronic source if that is where you retrieved the information, even if a hard copy is also available. Besides finding sources in the library, you may also retrieve information from other Internet sources, such as business firms or even TV or radio podcasts.

For each type of source you use in your academic papers you have to construct a different reference entry. Subsection 4.4.1. describes the general principles of the entries and subsection 4.4.2. presents examples of each entry type. Note carefully the order of elements in the entries and the specific punctuation used.

4.4.1. General principles governing elements of reference entries.

The APA referencing system follows a very consistent pattern, comprising the following elements:

Author element	Publication date	Title	Publication information	Electronic sources and locator information

Author element

- Give the authors 'surname and initials for up to and including seven authors. If eight authors or more, then list the first six followed by three ellipses ... and the last author.
- Use commas to separate each author, to separate authors and initials, and to separate initials and prefixes and suffixes.
- Use an ampersand (&) before the last author.
- Use period after each initial.
- Spell out the name of a group author in full. Put a period after the group author. Sometimes the publisher may be the author (e.g. *The Economist*).
- In a reference with no author, move the title to the author position, before the date of publication. Put a period after the title. (This will be rare, as you can nearly always trace a group author or publisher.)

- In a reference to an edited book, place the editors 'names in the author position, and insert the abbreviation *Ed*. or *Eds*. in parentheses after the last author's name. put a period after the parenthetical abbreviation (*Eds*.). (Note: italics are only used for emphasis here; you should not italicize these abbreviations in the reference entry.)
- In a reference to a chapter in an edited book, invert the chapter authors 'names as above, but do not invert the editors 'names and initials (see example below). Insert In before the editors 'names.

Single author	Friedmann, M.
Three authors	Güreck, Ö., Irlenbusch, B., & Rockenbach, B.
Group author	International Monetary Fund.
Title when no author or publishing organization can be traced	Oil glut won't last.
Edited book	Pandic, V. A., Hunter, G., & Pauwels, N. G. A. (Eds.).
Chapter in an edited book (see examples in subsection 4.4.2.).	Ruskin, S. (2009). Title of chapter. In V. A. Pandic, G. Hunter, & N. G. A. Pauwels (Eds.). Title of book.

Publication date element

- Give the date of publication in parentheses.
- For magazines, newsletters, and newspapers, give the year and the exact date of publication (month or month and day), separated by a comma and enclosed in parentheses.
- For papers or posters presented at meetings, give the year and month of the meeting, as above.
- Write in press for articles that have been accepted for publication but not yet published.
- If no date is available, write n.d. in parentheses.
- Close the element with a period after the parentheses.

Year of publication	(2009).
Publication date of newsletter or magazine	(2010, May).
Publication date of newspaper	(2010, September 3).
Article accepted for publication, but not yet published	(in press).
No publication date known	(n.d.).

Title element

- For an article or chapter title, capitalize the first word of the title and of the subtitle, if any, and any proper nouns. Do not italicize the title. Do not place quotation marks around the title. Close the element with a period.
- For the title of a periodical (journal, newsletter, magazine), give the periodical title in full, in uppercase and lowercase letters. Italicize the name of the periodical. (See publication element below.)
- For the title of a non-periodical (book, report), capitalize the first word of the title and of the subtitle, if any, and any proper nouns. Italicize the title. Add any additional information for identification and retrieval (e.g. edition, report number, volume number) in parentheses immediately after the title. Do not put a period between the title and the parenthetical information. Do not italicize the parenthetical information.
- Close the element with a period.

Title of article	Fairness and retaliation: The economics of reciprocity.
Title of journal	*Journal of Labor Economics.*
Title of book	*The wisdom of crowds.*
Title of report	*Who are the greatest living artists? The view from the auction market* (NBER Working Paper 11644).

Publication information element

- For a periodical (journal, newsletters, magazines)
    - Give the volume number after the periodical title. Italicize it. Do not use *Vol.* before the number.
    - Add the issue number (if known, and need for identification) in parentheses immediately after the volume number. Do not italicize it.
    - Give the inclusive page numbers of the cited material.
    - Close with a period.
- For non-periodicals (books and reports)
    - Give the location (city and state in the USA, city and country if outside the USA) where the publisher is located (check on the title page of the cited document).
    - Use a colon after the location.

- Give the name of the publisher in as brief a form as is intelligible. Omit superfluous words such as *Publishers, Co*., and *Inc*. Retain words like *Books* and *Press*.
- If two or more publisher locations are given, give the location listed first or the publisher's home office.
- Finish the element with a period.

Periodical (journal)	*Journal of Economic Issues, 25*: 215-234.
Publishers (books)	New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. Bern: Peter Lang. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Electronic sources and locator information element

Electronic publishing is now the rule for much academic information. The general APA rule for citing electronic documentation is to use the same elements, in the same order, as for a fixed-media source, and add as much electronic retrieval information as is needed for others to locate the sources you cite. These include in particular uniform resource locators (URLs) and digital object identifiers (DOIs). Because electronic information can be moved, restructured or deleted, leading to broken hyperlinks and non-working URLs, scholarly publishers now assign DOIs to journal articles. A DOI is a unique alphanumeric string for articles. APA recommends that when DOIs are available, they are used for both print and electronic sources.

In most cases you will be able to locate the document you require through the University Library (via EBSCO or similar database). However, if you know the DOI, you can locate the document via http://www.doi.org/ It may occur that you do not always have access to the document without a subscription, but usually you will be able to get most documents through the library.

Publication data for electronic sources

- For electronic sources based on a print source (e.g. pdf), give inclusive page numbers for the article cited. Use pp. before the page numbers in references to newspapers.
- Give the DOI if one has been assigned to the content. Usually the DOI will be on the first page. Copy and paste the DOI, as it can be a long complex string.
- Give the DOI in the references as: doi:xxxxxxxxxxx

- When a DOI is used, no further retrieval information is necessary.
- If no DOI is assigned, provide the URL of the document, journal, publisher. Make sure your hyphenation is turned off for this part of the referencing process.
- Do not insert a hyphen if you need to break a URL across lines; if necessary, break the URL before a punctuation marker. Do not add a period after the URL.
- Do not include retrieval dates unless the source material may change over time (e.g. Wikis).

DOI number	doi:10.1126/science.1123633
URL	http://ezinearticles.com/?Book-Review---The-Economic-Institutions-Of-Capitalism-By-Oliver-Williamson&id=480351

4.4.2. Examples of references

Table 3 gives examples of the different types of references. For cases not included in this table consult the APA Manual (2010).

Table 3. Examples of references

Periodicals		
1.	Journal article with DOI Note: DOI appeared at the bottom of the first page Note: DOI appeared at the top of the first page	Bajeux-Besainou, I., Joshi, S., & Vonortas, N. (2010). Uncertainty, networks and real options. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization, 75,* 523-541. doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2010.06.001 Chong, A., & Gradstein, M. (2009). Volatility and firm growth. *Journal of Economic Growth, 14*, 1-25. DOI 10.1007/s10887-009-9037-y
2.	Journal article without DOI Note: The issue number is not strictly necessary as this journal is paginated by volume. As there is no DOI, give the URL if you retrieved it online. No retrieval date is necessary.	Hopkins, W. E., & Hopkins, S. A. (2002). Effects of cultural recomposition on group interaction proc-esses. *Academy of Management Review, 27*(4), 541-553. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=3&hid=106&sid=1a214bd4-c6f4-400c-aad7-b4f68f0dacde%40sessionmgr112

3.	Journal article without DOI, title translated into English	Alonso Martín, P. (2008). Estudio comparative de la satisfacción laboral en el personal de administración [A comparative study of work satisfaction among public servants]. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones, 24*(1), 25-40. Retrieved from http://scielo.iscii.es/pdf/rpto/v24n1/v24n1a02.pdf
4.	Journal article without DOI, print version Note: This is a journal that you looked at the physical hard copy in the library. You did not retrieve it online.	Glass, V., & Cahn, E. S. (1997). A queueing model of organization structure. Journ*al of Business and Economic Studies, 3*, 13-28.
5.	Newspaper article Note: The publisher (*The Economist*) is the author in this case. There is no need to repeat the publisher. Give the exact date of publication.	*The Economist* (2010, May 15). Emergency repairs. 71-73.
6.	Online newspaper article Note: The publisher's URL is sufficient in this case, as the exact date is already given.	Goodley, S. (2010, August 10). Jaguar and Land Rover sales boost Tata and Pendragon. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from http://www.guardian.co.uk/
7.	Special issue of a journal Note: Page numbers are not required as you are referring to the whole issue.	Estelami, H., & Maxwell, S. (Eds.). (2007). Pricing [Special Issue]. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 16*(7).
Books, reference book, book chapters		
8.	Entire book, print version	Williamson, O. (1985). *The economic institutions of capitalism: Firms, markets, relational contracting*. New York: The Free Press. Perloff, J. M. (2009). *Microeconomics* (5^{th} internat. ed.). Boston: Pearson Addison Wesley. McDowell, M., Thom, R., Frank, R. H., & Bernanke, B. (2009). *Principles of economics* (2^{nd} European ed.). Maidenhead, UK: McGraw-Hill.

9.	Entire book, electronic version Note: In this case, the entry concerns a classic work. It is not necessary to give all the original publication details. In this in-text citation use the following: (Smith, 1776/2009).	Smith, A. (2009). *An enquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations* [EBook #3300]. Retrieved from http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/3300 (Original work published in 1776)
10.	Book chapter, print version Note: The editors' initials appear before the surname and no comma is used between two editors.	Arrow, K. J. (1987). Rationality of self and others in an economic system. In R. M. Hogarth & M. W. Reder (Eds.), *Rational choice: The contrast between economics and psychology* (pp. 201-215). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
11.	Book chapter, electronic version	Stiglitz, J. (2009). Regulation and failure. In D. Moss & J. Cisternino (Eds.), *New perspectives on regulation* (pp. 11-23). Cambridge: The Tobin Project. Retrieved from http://www.tobinproject.org/twobooks/pdf/New_Perspectives_Full_Text.pdf
Technical reports, annual reports, research reports		
12.	Corporate author, government report Note: Reporting an annual report from a firm could be in the same way as the Sanofi-Aventis entry, if available online. Note: The publisher is also the author, so the identification of the publisher in the publication element is not strictly necessary. Note: The second OECD report is available in book form and as a downloadable document.	Sanofi-Aventis S.A. (2010). *Half-year financial report 2010*. Retrieved from http://en.sanofi-aventis.com/binaries/Half-Year_Financial_Report_2010_tcm28-29029.pdf Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). (2010). *OECD economic surveys: South Africa, July 2010*. Paris: OECD. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). (2004). *Understanding economic growth: A macro-level, industry-level, and firm-level perspective* (Report No. 112004011E1). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave-Macmillan/OECD. Retrieved from http://browse.oecdbookshop.org/oecd/pdfs/browseit/1104011E.PDF
13.	Authored report Note: The authors are named together with the IMF Research Department.	Ghosh, A. R., Ostry, J. D., Tsangarides, C.G., & International Monetary Fund Research Dept. (2010). *Exchange rate regimes and the stability of the international monetary system* (Occasional Paper No. 270). Washington, DC: IMF.

Meetings, symposia		
14.	Conference, symposium contribution Note: The title of the conference presentation is italicized.	Nijkamp, P. (2009, April). *A micro-simulation model for tourism e-services in cultural heritage*. Paper presented at Advances in Tourism Economics 2009 Conference, Lisbon, Portugal.
15.	Conference paper abstract retrieved online Note: The title of the paper is italicized.	Byrne, J., & Fayolle, A. (2009, June). *Corporate entrepreneurship training: How to evaluate its effectiveness*. Paper presented at 16th EDINEB International Conference, Baltimore, MD. Abstract retrieved from http://www.edineb.org/sessiondetail.asp?conferenceID=24&entryID=1200
Internet message boards, electronic mailing lists, online communities		
16.	Message posted to newsgroup, discussion group, electronic mailing list Note: Most online forum comments or discussion board postings would not be considered reliable for academic purposes. So use with great care. Note: Authors often use a 'screen name', as in this case.	Vangogh (2008, July 7). Re: Starting a home based business [Online forum comment]. Retrieved from http://www.small-business-forum.com/showthread.php?t=35401
17.	Blog post Note: Most blog posts would not be considered reliable for academic purposes. So use with great care.	Norris, F. (2010, August 2). Herd behavior [Web log message]. Retrieved from http://norris.blogs.nytimes.com/
18.	Video or TV programme, video blog post Note: Radio and TV recordings are often archived or are available as podcasts. Video recordings may include blogs, as well as YouTube clips. Beware that they may not all be acceptable as academic sources.	Asia Society & Fora.tv. (2008, February 5). Joseph Stiglitz: The economics of information [Video file]. Retrieved from http://fora.tv/2008/02/05/Joseph_Stiglitz_Economics_of_Information

For more elaborate details and other types of references, see chapter 7 of *The Publication Manual of the APA* (2010, 6th ed., 193-224).

5. Manuscript presentation

This chapter considers the presentation of your paper. The format requirements for papers at the School of Business and Economics are specified in section 5.1. The use of footnotes is treated in section 5.2., and the presentation of tables and figures in section 5.3. The chapter concludes with brief comments on revision of style, grammar and punctuation (section 5.4.).

5.1. Format requirements

Most papers that you submit to the SBE will comprise a number of pages of text divided into *sections* and *subsections*. Papers, articles, case studies, literature reviews do not have chapters.

A long assignment, such as a Master's thesis, which may contain 100 pages, however, may be divided into *chapters*, each of which will comprise several *sections* and *subsections*. For a doctoral dissertation, which may be 250 pages or more, you may decide to group several chapters together as *parts*, e.g. Part I: Theoretical framework; Part II: Findings from practice; Part III: Synergy and conclusions.

In addition to your manuscript text, you may add one or more appendices. These contain information that you do not want to put directly into the text of your paper, since otherwise they would interrupt the reader and distract from the line of the story. For example, detailed or extensive tables and figures may best be placed in an appendix. Mathematical or econometric proofs, extensive data output (e.g. an SPSS output), and lengthy interview transcripts are further examples of information that is best put in appendices.

The following subsections deal with the format requirements of the paper.

5.1.1. Title page

The title of your paper has to be positioned as shown in figure 21 below. In the bottom left corner of the title page (also called cover page), the following elements are expected to be mentioned: Maastricht University, School of Business and Economics, place and date, your name and initials, your ID number, programme of study, course name and course code, your group number, your tutor's or supervisor's name, and the type of writing assignment (e.g. case study). In some circumstances, other details may be required. In the case of a Master's thesis or a dissertation, you should check the specific requirements that may apply.

Do not mention any other information on the title page. Items such as famous quotations do not belong here and should be stated elsewhere in the paper.

The title page should not be numbered. Numbering starts after the title page.

Ensure that the margins are wide enough to allow for binding.

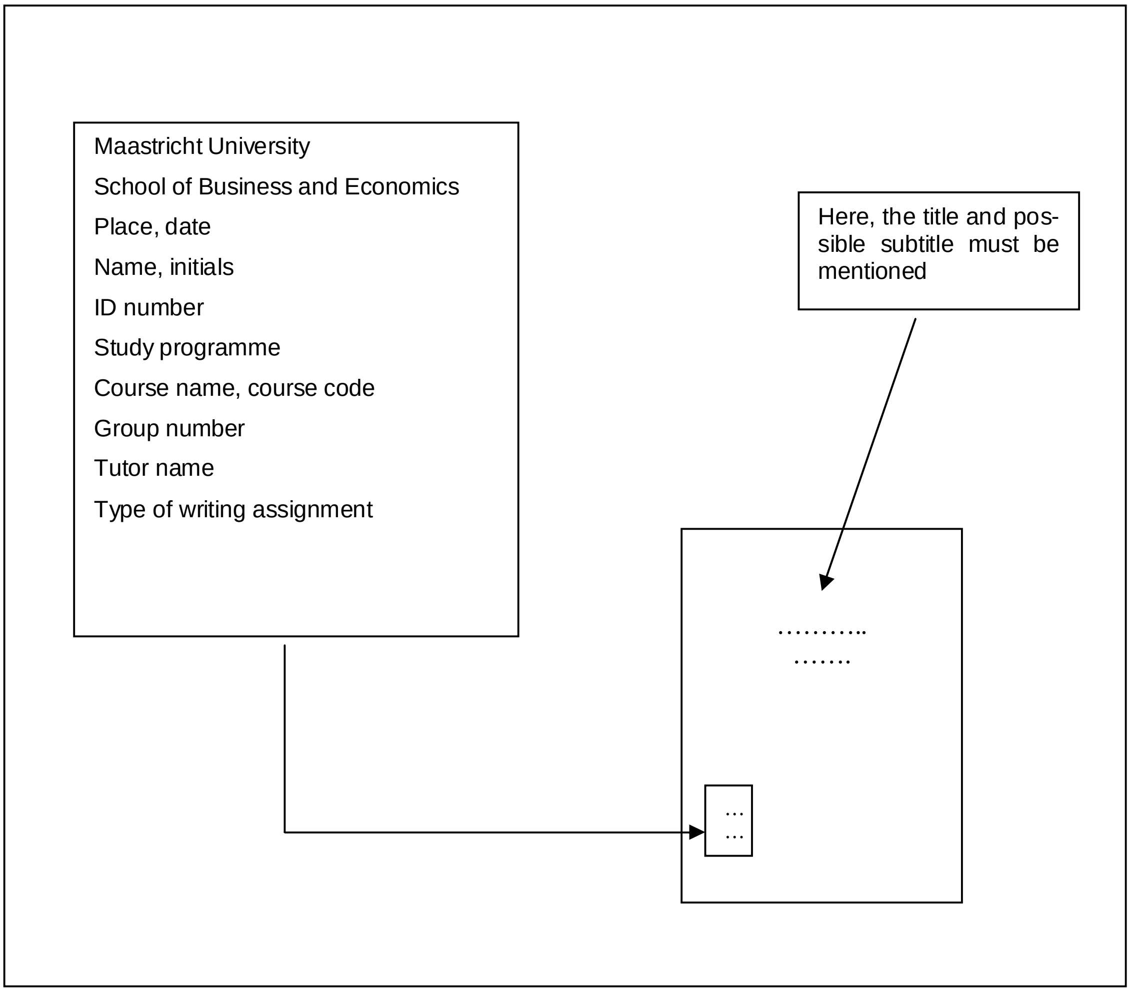

Figure 21. Title page.

5.1.2. The title

A paper must have a title, which gives the reader a clear indication of what the paper is about. It provides your readers with the first impression of your writing. A poor title puts your readers off: it may be too general or too vague, too emotional or too polemical, too chatty or too restricted. Make sure that it accurately reflects what you have written about. Relate your title to the nature of the paper: are you focusing on action or on facts? Titles that are focused on action typically start with a verb in the *–ing* form: *Harnessing the emotional strengths of your employees*. Titles that are focused on facts typically start with a noun: *The impact of credit availability on patterns of trade*. Titles may also be direct or indirect questions, to which your paper gives an answer: Why accounting firms should not merge. But, do not copy the complete thesis statement as the title. Finally, two-part statements are often used as titles, i.e. title plus subtitle: *Ohio school milk market: An indictable case of collusion.* Whichever form of title you choose, your paper has to reflect accurately the topic established in the title. The title should be clear, not too long, and immediately understandable. Finally, take care that the title does not tell your readers what the conclusion of the paper is.

5.1.3. Table of contents

In short papers a table of contents is not required. In papers longer than, say, 2000 words, it is desirable to insert a table of contents. You should also do this if the assignment requires a table of contents. Master's theses and dissertations do require a table of contents. See for example the table of contents at the beginning of this guide.

Conventionally, chapters, sections and subsections are indicated with Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, etc.). Appendices are indicated by capital letters (A, B, C, etc.). If you are writing a dissertation and have grouped the chapters into parts, then indicate the parts by Roman numerals (I, II, III, etc.).

The table of contents should list all the headings at least as far as third-level headings. For most academic papers fourth-level headings are generally best avoided. However, in business and technical reports you may well find fourth- or even fifth-level headings.

Figure 22. Extract from table of contents: three-levels.

All pages must be *numbered*, except the title or cover page. Page numbering is required to construct the table of contents, and it is also necessary for readers who may wish to refer to a particular statement in your paper, e.g. if they wish to quote your Master's thesis.

5.1.4. Sections of a paper

The organization of your paper will depend on the genre you are writing. Thus, a literature review will have different sections compared with a paper reporting an experimental study. A critical analysis of an economic theory will similarly have different sections compared with a case study. In all cases, number each of your sections, including the introduction. The introduction will, in almost all circumstances, be numbered 1.

1. Introduction
2. Theoretical background
3. Experimental method
4. Results
5. Discussion
6. Conclusions

Figure 23. Example of principal section headings in an experimental paper.

5.1.5. General format requirements

- Apply "1.5 line spacing" between all the lines, except for changing from section to section. In the latter case leave two blank lines, as shown in figure 24 below.
- Leave one blank line between a main section heading and the first paragraph. Do not leave a blank line between a subheading (second or third level) and the subsequent paragraph.

- Main (first-level) section headings in bold; second- or third-level subsection headings italicized. Ensure that a heading does not occur right at the bottom of a page: move it to the next page.
- Font: Times New Roman; font size: 12 points.
- Margins (top, bottom, left, right): 2.54 cm (= 1 inch).
- Paper size: A4 (210 x 297mm).
- Alignment: justified, using block paragraphs. This implies that *no indentation* of the first line is required for starting a new paragraph. Between two paragraphs there is a one-line (1.5) blank space.
- Do not justify the list of references. Align left, using a hanging indent.
- Choose one appropriate English spelling for the whole document.
- Enable "hyphenation", to avoid large spaces between words, because of the justified alignment applied.
- Do not enable "hyphenation" for the list of references.
- In cases where a hardcopy has to be submitted, the paper should be bound before you hand it in.
- Note: special format requirements may apply to long texts, such as Master's theses and dissertations. Check with the regulations that apply.

1.5 line spacing 1 blank line (1.5) 1.5 line spacing	(…) is a violation of the EC Antitrust Rules and is therefore illegal (European Union, 2004). This paper examines whether the European Commission decided correctly when accusing TCCC and its bottlers of infringing the EC Treaty. To answer this question, it is important to understand the position of TCCC and how their actions affect the whole market for CSDs. The second section of this paper explains the Coca-Cola case in detail. Subsequently, section three discusses the main arguments of the European Commission and the evidence presented. Section four clarifies the effects of an abuse of a dominant market position on both consumers and potential competitors. This leads to an explanation of the Commission's decision, and in the final section the decision is evaluated.
2 blank lines (1.5) Section heading (bold) 1 blank line (1.5) 1.5 line spacing	**2. The Coca-Cola Case** The parties belonging to TCCC that are involved in the Commission's concerns are Bottling Holdings (Luxembourg) sarl, Coca-Cola Erfrischungsgetränke AG, and Coca-Cola Hellenic Bottling Company SA. The relevant geographic regions are the Community, Iceland and Norway. The case also concerns two different channels that these parties supply: the 'take-home channel' and the 'on-premise channel'. The first refers to beverages that consumers buy, for example in supermarkets, to take home for later consumption. The second refers to those beverages consumers buy for direct consumption, for example in restaurants or bars (European Commission, 2005).
1 blank line (1.5) Subsection heading (italicized); no blank line afterwards 1.5 line spacing	*2.1. Carbonated soft drinks (CSDs)* The relevant beverages belonging to CSDs are "cola-flavoured, lemon- and/or lime-flavoured, other fruit-flavoured CSDs and bitter drinks" (European Commission, 2004). (…)

Figure 24. Example of line spacing and layout. The text is reduced here purely for display purposes.

5.2. Footnotes

The use of footnotes within the APA standards is not meant for a replacement of citations in the text and related reference entries. They are used in two ways: content footnotes and copyright permission footnotes.

Content footnotes

These kinds of footnotes supplement or amplify substantive information in the text. They should not include complicated, irrelevant, or non-essential information. A content footnote should convey just one idea. Since they are distracting to readers, these footnotes should only be used if they strengthen the discussion. In most cases, however, important information should be integrated in the text. An example of a content footnote:

In the text: The objective of this paper is the construction of a business model[1] for e-tailing.
Footnote: [1] In this paper, a business model means the approach used to conduct business according to Van der Zee (2000): "a classification of the arrangement of business processes, structure, and the allocation of resources, either within an organization or within a whole vertical chain of activities in which multiple parties co-operate" (p235).

Copyright permission footnotes

These footnotes acknowledge the source of long direct quotations in the text (see also subsections 4.2.2 and 4.3). For specific details, check in the APA *Publication Manual* (2010).

An example of a permission footnote:

[1] From: *On competition* (p. 100), by M. Porter, 1999, Boston: Harvard Business School Publishing. Copyright 1999 by Harvard Business School Publishing. Reprinted with permission.

Although the information in the footnote about the other source is quite elaborate, a complete citation in the text and a related entry in the references should be made. In general, it is unlikely that you will need to seek permission, since you are very unlikely to use long quotes; that is a feature of textbooks, in particular. It is possible that you may do so in a Master's thesis or a dissertation. If so, you must seek permission to use the long quotation.

If you are reproducing a table, figure or other data display, then the acknowledgement (with permission, if granted) should appear immediately below the table or figure (see subsection 5.3.1.).

5.3. Tables and figures

For more information on APA style for tables and figures, see chapter 5 of *The APA Publication Manual* (2010). Here are some brief guidelines.

- Decide carefully whether you need tables and figures.
- Design the tables and figures so that your message is displayed effectively. Do not put in more information than you need to communicate your message.
- Do not use a large number of tables and figures in relation to the amount of text. It is easy for a reader to lose track when sorting through many displays.
- Label and caption your tables and figures appropriately and clearly. Consider carefully whether the reader will be able to understand.

When you are presenting your own tables or figures, you do not need to add yourself as the source, of course.

5.3.1. Tables, figures, and other exhibits from another source

Authors must obtain permission to reproduce or adapt all or part of a table, figure, or other exhibit from a copyrighted source. Although some owners of copyright give the permission to reproduce one table (or more), it is recommended to request always for permission. If permission is requested and granted, do not insert a permission footnote, as in case of a direct quotation in the text. Nor should a reference citation in the text be made. However, a complete reference entry must be included in the references. Instead of the permission footnote and the standard reference citation in the text, the following has to be applied. Any reproduced table, figure, or other exhibit must be accompanied by a note at the bottom of the reprinted table (or in the figure caption) giving credit to the original author and to the copyright holder.

Example of a reproduced table:

Table 4. Extent of innovative activity (1989-2000).

Extent of innovative activity (1989–2000)

Pavitt sector	Observations	UK patent active	EPO active	Trade mark active
(1) Supplier dominated, manufacturing	4288	0.207	0.116	0.323
(2) Production intensive, scale	3556	0.319	0.207	0.489
(3) Production intensive, specialist	1869	0.393	0.293	0.426
(4) Science based	2273	0.415	0.327	0.498
(5) Information intensive[a]	5597	0.066	0.030	0.380
(6) Software-related[a]	1115	0.035	0.013	0.274

Note: Pavitt sectors 1–4 are based on 1989–2000 data. 'Active' refers to the firm-year observation having some reported R&D expenditure in accounts or at least one patent or trade mark.
[a] Pavitt sectors 5 and 6 on 1996–2000 data.

Note. (...) From: "The value of innovation: The interaction of competition, R&D, and IP," by C. Greenhalgh and M. Rogers, 2006, *Research Policy*, 35, p 565 (Table 2). Copyright 2006 by Elsevier B.V. Reprinted with permission.

In the place "(...)" any information can be put to clarify the table, like explanations and comments. If a permission was not requested, the last part of the note, "Reprinted with permission", is omitted.

Example of a reproduced figure:

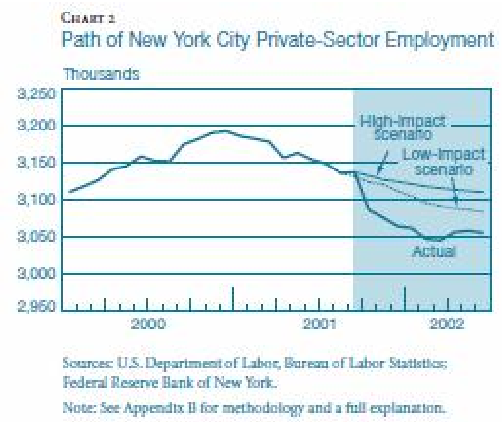

Figure 25. Path of New York City private sector employment. (…) From: "Measuring the effects of the September 11 attack on New York City," by J. Bram, J. Orr, and C. Rapaport, 2002, November, *FRBNY Economic Policy Review*, p. 7. Copyright 2002 by Federal Reserve Bank of New York. Reprinted with permission.

In contrast to a table, the figure caption is placed outside the figure. In addition, all figure captions are collected in a separate part in the paper called *list of figures*. See example at the end of the Guide.

Again, in the place "(...)" any information can be put to clarify the figure, like explanations and comments. If a permission was not requested, the last part of the note, "Reprinted with permission", is omitted. Usually permission is not required for internal assignments, but may be required for publicly available papers such as Master's theses and dissertations.

In some cases where you use the table or figure from another source, you will need to adapt it so that it matches your purpose. This may mean you exclude information in the table or figure that does not relate to your topic. In most cases, you will have to redraw the figure. However, you still need to acknowledge the source, as above, but insert "*Adapted from*" instead of just "*From*".

5.4. Revising the paper

Revision concerns everything that you do to create a text. Thus, it covers revision of your content, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. In this section we will focus on content; style and tone, grammar and punctuation.

5.4.1. Revising the content

Your first consideration when revising your paper is the content. You need to check if your paper correctly responds to the question or problem set, defined in the purpose or thesis statement. Check what you have written against the outline that you made during your planning, and check that your paper does match the purpose set.

Your purpose statement will have provided your paper with the controlling idea. Check that each section (and each subsection) in the body of the paper does expound and clarify the goal you have set yourself. If you find some information is not clearly relevant, then either delete it, or rewrite it in such a way that it is relevant. Consider the order of the points you make: do they occur in the most effective order for your topic, or should you reorder them? Check whether you have provided sufficient support for the points you wish to make. If you find that information is missing, that you have not provided adequate evidence, then add it.

One way of checking your work is to read the paper without the introduction; just read the middle part and conclusion. As you read, see if you can identify a clear pattern of organization of information: each point and each sub-point should logically fit into a pattern.

Next, you should check your conclusion. You must conclude by providing the succinct response to the purpose or thesis you set yourself. The conclusion needs to be based on the evidence or the arguments that you presented in the body. Do not have claims in the conclusion for which you have not provided any evidence before.

You also need to check the sources you have cited. Checking is not merely a question of correct citations in the text and the related references at the end of the paper; it concerns the accurate reporting of the information your sources have provided. Your aim should be to summarize or paraphrase the facts, ideas, and opinions that your sources advance: you are aiming to tell your story, after all, referring accurately to the sources of the facts and ideas.

Check that you have not plagiarized. If you have quoted a source directly, make sure that you have put the quotation in quotation marks, and that you have given the page reference for the quotation as well. Finally, check that all the sources you have cited in the text are accurately listed in the references. Your references should include only the sources cited in the text.

5.4.2. Revising the style and tone

The style of your paper should be appropriate to formal academic writing. Eliminate jargon that complicates your message. If you have used jargon or fashionable phrases (e.g. "an empowering environment"), ask yourself what it means. If you cannot explain it, you should not use it. The same applies to slang expressions, street language, and regionalisms (e.g. Briticisms and Americanisms that non-Brits and non-Americans do not readily understand). Specialist technical terms are not jargon if they are used in the appropriate context: they may, however, need a quick explanation. Check whether you need to do so.

Check that you have not filled your paper with unnecessary words (e.g. firms can be "bought" and "sold", not "bought up" and "sold off"). You should cut all the unnecessary words. Writing in a short, precise style is a mark of good academic writing.

Style also implies using the active voice, rather than the passive. This strengthens your writing, and makes it livelier. When you are revising, check every passive sentence to see if you really need it. In some circumstances, there are sound reasons for using the passive. Although the passive may seem to indicate an objective report of the facts or opinions, that is a myth: too many passive forms makes your writing dull and long.

Writing in an academic style also means writing clearly. Make sure that if you use abbreviations and technical jargon, you explain what they mean. Some very well-known abbreviations may be used without explanation (e.g. "GDP").

Academic style implies avoiding first-person pronouns (I, we, my, our, etc.). Cut out the first-person forms and rephrase the relevant sentences: this *may* mean switching to a passive structure or choosing different words. For multi-authored papers, "we" may be used.

Tone concerns the degree of commitment and emotion. Cut out needless repetition of "him or her" (making the sentence plural will often be a solution). Avoid emotional language (e.g. "the plan is stupid", "the organization is very bad"). Do not isolate your reader.

Avoid using contracted forms (e.g. "isn t", "aren t"): Do not try to be too smart: you are likely to irritate or bore your readers. Finally, do not try to teach your readers: cut out as many imperatives as you can (e.g. "Recall that ... ", "Remember ... ", "Consider ... ", "Note ... ").

5.4.3. Revising the grammar, spelling and punctuation

This guide does not include a section on grammar. At entry to the SBE you are expected to have good English and thus to have mastered the basic principles of good sentence structure and coherent paragraph writing. If you have specific problems, consult a grammar book.

Your first check is at the level of the paragraph. You check whether each paragraph is well structured, whether there is a topic sentence, and whether the paragraph is adequately developed. If you are comparing, for example, does your paragraph compare? If you are explaining the causes of a situation, does your paragraph give the causes? Then you look at the pattern of nouns and verbs to see if they are consistent. In other words, make sure that you do not mix up different kinds of sentence structure. For example, the more frequently you change the subject of sentences, the more difficult the text is to read. Similarly, if you change frequently from active to passive verb tenses, you make it more difficult for your readers to understand. Consistent chains of subject within a paragraph ensure that your paper is easier to read.

Secondly, check the connective words and phrases to see whether they support your argument. Connective words function at two levels; at a rhetorical level between paragraphs and between sentences, and within sentences, as links between clauses and phrases. Some connective words will function at both levels, but most will not.

You need to check too whether you are using the appropriate connective word, for example:

Words for addition	in addition, moreover, for example, for instance, in particular, and, also, both ... and, as well as
Words for cause	thus, consequently, as a result, so, therefore, as a consequence, thus
Words for contrast	but, however, although
Words for sequence	briefly, first, finally, next, then, in short, second, third

Check whether you have used too many connective words or not enough: how well does your argument hang together? Can your readers follow, or do they have to infer too much between points? Are you patronizing your readers by using too many connectives? The message risks becoming obscured by the means.

At the level of each sentence, you need to check the nouns, the verbs, the pronouns, and the syntactic structures. Check that your sentences are not ambiguous or unclear. Especially check that you can clearly identify what every pronoun, especially "it", "that", and "this" refers to. Use a grammar checker if available, but they are not infallible.

Similarly, use the spell checker carefully before you submit your paper. However, spell checkers are not perfect, so double-check in a good dictionary if you are in doubt. Papers with careless spelling errors usually attract lower grades. Whether you choose British or American English, be consistent throughout your paper.

There are numerous websites that will help you with grammar. We only mention one here: Purdue University's Online Writing Lab:
http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/544/03/

Finally, double check all your punctuation. For example, there are differences in punctuation practices between English and many European languages, such as the use of the comma. Check by using a good guide. Many are available electronically.

5.5. Evaluation

As stated before, it is not possible to give a blueprint for the writing of a paper. The same applies to the assessment of a paper. Every paper is tailor-made and needs to be considered as such. However, the assessor refers to a defined set of criteria when correcting your paper. All these criteria are discussed in the preceding text in this guide. The criteria are displayed on the "Assessment form for writing assignments" (see figure 26 below). It is highly recommended to use this score form as a checklist, when finalizing your paper. When correcting your submitted paper, the assessor will fill in the different items on the score form. You will get a copy of this form, when you get the assessed paper back. In order to acquire routine and expertise, always evaluate your performance afterwards by analysing the returned paper and the related score form.

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Maastricht University School of Business and Economics</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Assessment Form for writing assignments (year 1)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Papers are assessed on four sets of criteria. In order to pass, your paper must be rated satisfactory on content and on language. For the latter, each of the three criteria (structure, accuracy, format & citing) must be satisfactory.
Assessors must record their judgment on the overall item in each set of criteria. They will indicate other items where they are noticeable (poor/unsatisfactory or good/very good), to provide the student with more information.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Content *
The title is effective ... .
Literature and course concepts are correctly and sufficiently applied ... .
The assignment is correctly and sufficiently elaborated ... .

Assessment of content as a whole satisfactory/unsatisfactory
(please cross out which does not apply):

Language
Structure
Sufficient background information is given to introduce the topic ... .
The introduction contains a <u>purpose statement</u> that presents clearly what the paper is about and addresses the main issue ... .
Introduction ends with a short and clear <u>outline</u> ... .
The paper is coherent: it has a clear structure and direction, and focuses on main issues (no irrelevance) ... .
Conclusion follows logically from arguments developed in paper and answers thesis statement ... .
Paragraphs are well structured ... .
Assessment of structure as a whole satisfactory/unsatisfactory
(please cross out which does not apply):</td><td><u>Block Code:</u>

<u>Academic year:</u>
... ...
<u>Name of student:</u>
... ...
<u>ID number:</u>
... ...
<u>Group number:</u>
... ...
<u>Grade:</u>

PASS / FAIL
Criteria: content (50%) and language (structure, accuracy, format) (50%) both have to be satisfactory.</td></tr>
<tr><td>*Accuracy*
Grammar is sufficiently accurate ... .
Terminology, vocabulary, and expressions are accurate and appropriate ... .
Spelling is sufficiently accurate ... .
Punctuation is sufficiently accurate ... .
Style and tone are appropriate to formal academic writing ... .
Assessment of accuracy as a whole satisfactory/unsatisfactory
(please cross out which does not apply):</td><td>

Any grade above is solely advisory and does not have any official purpose. It may not be used as a basis for appeal.</td></tr>
<tr><td>*Format and Citing*
Paper is presented correctly (cover page, headings, block paragraphs, line spacing, etc.) ... .
Tables and figures are presented correctly ... .
<u>Citations</u> in the text are correct and complete ... .
<u>References</u> are correct and complete ... .
Assessment of Format and Citing as a whole satisfactory/unsatisfactory
(please cross out which does not apply):

Assessment of Language as a whole satisfactory/unsatisfactory
(please cross out which does not apply):</td><td><u>Name of assessor:</u>
... ...
<u>Department/ Section:</u>
... ...
<u>Date:</u>
... ...</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Overall impression and comments: [THIS BOX IS LARGER ON THE ACTUAL FORM]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">* Instruction: – – = poor; – = unsatisfactory; + / – = borderline; + = good; + + = very good.
Note each item has a different weight; the outcome is not simply the sum of pluses and minuses.
Essential items are underlined: if one of these items is missing, the paper will not pass.</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 26. Assessment form for Writing assignments.

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