

# **A Writing Resource Guide for Warnell Students**



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**WARNELL**

**SCHOOL OF FORESTRY AND NATURAL RESOURCES**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA**

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## Simplicity in writing

*“We are a society strangling in unnecessary words, circular constructions, pompous frills and meaningless jargon...[T]he secret of good writing is to strip every sentence to its cleanest components. Every word that serves no function, every long word that could be a short word, every adverb that carries the same meaning that’s already in the verb, every passive construction that leaves the reader wondering who is doing what—these are the thousand and one adulterants that weaken the strength of a sentence.”*

– William Zinsser in *On Writing Well*

Academic writing often involves complex subject matter. This, however, doesn’t necessarily mean the writing has to be complex. Some beginning scientific writers—and for that matter, some experienced writers—fall into the trap of using inflated language, sentence length, and complexity in an effort to make the writing seem more “scientific” or to sound more “intelligent.” But trying to explain complex subjects and processes with lengthy, complicated language can result in long, jargon-filled sentences that are barely intelligible. The art of scientific writing is explaining those complex subjects and processes in clear, concise language that the reader can understand.

Some basic principles for scientific writing are as follows:

- Use simple language and sentence structure whenever possible.
- Choose simple words over jargon or long, convoluted words
- Omit unnecessary words that add nothing to the sentence.
- Use active voice.

### *Use simple language and sentence structure*

The writer often is required to possess a better understanding of the subject matter to be able to describe it simply. Avoid long, convoluted words that can muddle meaning and confuse the reader. Beginning science writers will sometimes try to pack too much into a single sentence. Long, complicated sentence structures in which the subject and verb are separated by great distance often make it difficult for the reader to comprehend the sentence’s meaning on first

reading. Using multiple shorter sentences to convey complex information more clearly and systematically can help the reader understand the material more easily.

*Choose simple words over jargon*

Because the purpose of science writing usually is to inform the reader, precise language is a must. And short, simple words can often do a better job of explaining complex subject matter than “scientific” jargon. Some examples follow.

<b>Instead of...</b>	<b>...use...</b>
deleterious	harmful
elucidate	show
etiology	cause
impact (verb)	affect
prior to	before
subsequent to	after
methodology	method
usage	use (noun)
utilize	use (verb)

*Omit unnecessary words*

The omission of words that add little or nothing to a sentence makes the writing more concise. Every circular construction that uses several words to convey a meaning that a single word or two could convey “thickens” the writing and obscures meaning. Following are some examples of wordy phrasing.

<b>Instead of...</b>	<b>...use...</b>
a large majority of	most
a small minority	few
has the capacity to	can
at this point in time	now
at that point in time	then
due to the fact that	because

in the event that	if
a new initiative	an initiative
in close proximity	near [or] close
plays a key role in	is essential to
whether or not	whether
as to whether	whether
in a careful manner	carefully
are in agreement	agree
each and every	each [or] every
inside of	inside
off of	off
very unique	unique
past history	history
referred to as	called
through the use of	by
take into consideration	consider
was of the opinion that	thought [or] believed
necessitates the inclusion of	necessitates [or] requires

### *Use active voice*

Active voice is preferable for scientific writing because it's more concise. In active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action, automatically linking subject and verb. Example: *We calculated stand density...* rather than the passive *The stand density was calculated by us.* In passive voice, the subject receives the action instead of performing it. Passive voice adds unnecessary words—some form of the verb “to be” together with another verb—and lessens clarity. With passive construction, although the reader may know what action occurred, more words are needed to describe who or what did it. Active voice allows the writer to choose the appropriate active verb to convey the information and action precisely using fewer words. And the reader immediately knows who did it—the sentence's subject. The perfect active verb in the correct spot drives the manuscript, making the writing crisp and clear.

*Resources*

Council of Science Editors, Style Manual Committee. (2006). *Scientific Style and Format* . (7<sup>th</sup> ed.) Reston, VA: The Council.

Ludbrook, J. (2007). Writing Intelligible English Prose for Biomedical Journals. *Clinical and Experimental Pharmacology and Physiology*, 34: 508–514. doi: 10.1111/j.1440-1681.2007.04603.x

Strunk, W. & White, E.B., Jr. (1979). *The Elements of Style* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York: McMillan

Zinnser, W. (2006). *On Writing Well*. New York: HarperCollins.

## **Memos**

Memos are used within the scientific, business, and legal communities primarily for internal communication. The word “memo” is a shortened form of the word “memorandum,” which is derived from the Latin verb *memoro*, meaning to mention or call to mind. Memos normally are brief, concise messages about a particular topic and are often used for announcements, briefing reports, requests for action, or replies to previous requests.

The standard memo format allows the recipient to know immediately the “when, who, and what” of the message. The word “Memorandum” is often centered at the top and serves as the title of the document. The memo’s header includes the date, the recipient’s name, the sender’s name, and the subject. Each is flushed to the left-hand margin, with double spacing between as follows:

Date: *The date the memo was written*

To: *The recipient or recipients*

From: *The writer of the memo*

Subject: *What the memo is about*

Sometimes, rather than “Subject,” the memo writer will use the term “Re,” which is derived from the Latin *res*, meaning matter or thing. In modern context, it has come to mean “regarding the matter.”

The text or body of the memo is single-spaced, with double spacing between paragraphs. Usually, there is no indentation of paragraphs. The tone of a memo can be formal or informal, depending on the memo’s purpose and the degree of familiarity between the writer and the recipient. In business or academia, however, the tone should be polite and professional.

A memo can be as short as a couple of sentences or as long as several pages. Normally, however, memos are brief and direct. If there are several topics covered, subheads may be added for clarity. Any necessary background information should be included, and when necessary, expectations and instructions for responding should be clearly defined.

At the conclusion of the body of the memo, notations are used to indicate whether the memo will be copied to recipients other than those named in the header and whether enclosures are attached. The notation “cc” is used to indicate copies, followed by a colon and the copy recipients’ names. The word “Enclosure” or the abbreviation “Enc.” is used to indicate that something is attached, and often the type and number of attachments are listed.

In the Warnell School, the memo format is used in various classes for lab reports, policy briefs, and inter-office communication. A sample memo with enclosures follows.

An example memo is presented in the following page.

## Memorandum

Date: 10 July 2013

To: Phil Tomlin

From: Terri Nabors

Subject: Updated sea turtle nest numbers on Georgia's barrier islands in 2013

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According to numbers released by the Georgia DNR Sea Turtle Program, as of 9 July 2013, there were 1,627 nests. Nest number records were set in each of the last three seasons (Table 1), with the 2012 record total of 2,241 nests being the most since comprehensive nest surveys began in 1989. Officials believe by this season's end, numbers could again exceed 2,000 nests.

In 2013, loggerhead nests comprise 1,622 of the total; green turtles have laid three nests, and two nests are of unknown origin (Table 2). Fifty-three percent of the nests (852) are on Blackbeard, Cumberland, and Ossabaw islands, with a total of 15 barrier islands hosting nest sites (Table 2).

GA DNR officials are encouraged by the numbers, which show that the loggerhead, federally listed as threatened and Georgia's primary nesting sea turtle, is making a comeback. The USFWS loggerhead recovery plan set a recovery goal of a two percent annual increase in the number of nests for 50 years, which would result in 2,800 nests annually.

cc: William Butler

Enclosures: Tables (2)

Table 1. Loggerhead nests on Georgia beaches 2010 – 2013

<b>Year</b>	<b>Nests</b>
<b>2010</b>	<b>1,760</b>
<b>2011</b>	<b>1,992</b>
<b>2012</b>	<b>2,241</b>
<b>2013*</b>	<b>1,647</b>

\* as of 10 July 2013

Table 2. Number of nests per island by species as of 10 July 2013

<b>Beach</b>	<b>Unknown</b>	<b>Loggerhead</b>	<b>Green</b>
Blackbeard	0	206	0
Cumberland	0	387	1
Egg Island	0	0	0
Jekyll	1	132	0
Little Cumberland	0	42	0
Little St. Simons	0	93	1
Little Tybee	0	15	0
Ossabaw	0	266	0
Sapelo	0	117	0
Sea Island	1	60	1
St. Catherines	0	127	0
St. Simons	0	3	0
Tybee Island	0	14	0
Wassaw	0	184	0
Williamson	0	1	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1,647</b>	<b>3</b>

Note: All data used with express written consent of the GA DNR Wildlife Resources Division

## Reflection Papers

*“Study without reflection is a waste of time; reflection without study is dangerous.” – Confucius*

Reflection papers are personal reflections about how a particular experience affected you. They can be about an academic course, an inspirational person, an event, a place—virtually anything from which you’ve gained knowledge, insight, or inspiration. They are often included in application materials because they give the applicant the chance to demonstrate reasoning and critical thinking skills, as well as personal expression. Reflection papers—sometimes called reflective essays—examine the experience and its impacts on the writer. They encourage self-awareness and promote deeper understanding through analysis, context, and application. The reflection paper usually follows the format of other common writing assignments, with an introduction, body, and conclusion. As with any academic writing, in-text citations and references should be included for any quotations or material cited.

The introduction is an overview of the paper. It should be relatively brief, but it should provide an overall statement on your perspectives regarding the experience, i.e., your thesis. An effective thesis statement acts as the central theme and conveys to the reader your purpose for writing, e.g., “Before my international study abroad trip to Costa Rica, I was, for the most part, unaware of the far-reaching and profoundly harmful effects of marine pollution on migratory seabirds.”

A commonly used structure for the body of the reflection paper comprises the “three whats”: What? So what? Now what? The “what” entails a description of the experience. In the case of a course reflection paper, it provides a brief summary of the material covered and the methods of instruction—lecture, readings, labs, etc. The “what” answers questions such as “What took place?” What concepts were introduced or drawn upon? What did you observe? It also often includes the writer’s preconceptions of the experience, as well as how the experience affected the writer at the time; i.e., what did you expect beforehand, and what were your feelings during the experience?

The “so what” is marked by a shift from description to interpretation. It focuses on the importance of the knowledge accrued and its effects on the writer. The “so what” answers

questions such as “What did you learn?” Did you encounter anything unexpected? What had the greatest impact on you personally? How have your preconceptions changed? What did you like or dislike about the experience? How did the experience differ from conceptual theory? Why was the experience important to *you*?

The “now what” focuses on context and application. The writer examines how the experience fits into a big-picture or real-world setting. The “now what” answers questions such as “How can you—or how will you—apply the knowledge in the future?” What new insights have you gained? Has the experience changed your perception? How can/will you use the new knowledge for planning for the future or setting new goals?

Finally, the conclusion should reiterate your thesis statement and how the experience has affected you. Encapsulate the personal insights you gained and the perspectives you acquired, and convey to the reader the experience’s overall importance to you personally.

## **Business Letters**

A business letter is a more formal type of communication that often contains the following basic components: heading, inside address, salutation, body, complimentary closing, and signature.

The purpose of a business letter is to convey information in a proper and professional manner.

**1. Heading** – The heading includes the return address of the letter writer and the date. The writer’s name is not included. If letterhead stationery is being used, only the date is needed. The date can be written in either of the following styles: February 5, 2013 or 5 February 2013. Skip one line between the return address and the date. Usually neither telephone numbers nor email addresses are placed in the heading. If you wish the recipient to call you or send an email in reply, make the request and supply the contact info in the body of letter. Triple-space (skip 2 lines) after the date.

**2. Inside Address** – The inside address is the complete mailing address of the recipient, including the person’s name and title. If the letter is being written to a company or department, use the company’s or department’s name as the recipient. Double-space (skip one line) after the inside address.

**3. Salutation** – The salutation addresses the recipient of the letter and is followed by a colon. Usually the word “Dear” is used along with the recipient’s title (e.g., Dear Dr. Patterson:). If the letter is addressed to a department or committee, you can use either “Dear” or “To the...” as the salutation. Double-space following the salutation.

**4. Body** – The business of the letter is conducted in the letter’s body. Paragraphs are single-spaced, with double spacing between paragraphs. The letter’s tone should be business-like and polite. Avoid superfluous language; a business letter should be only as long as is necessary to convey the message. Double-space after the final line.

**5. Complimentary Closing** – The most common closing is the word “Sincerely” followed by a comma. Other closings that are sometimes used include “Cordially” and “Respectfully.” Always place a comma after the closing.

**6. Signature Block** – Skip four lines after the closing and type your name. Your title or position within the organization is placed under the name. Your signature is written in ink between the closing and your typewritten name.

**7. Initials** – If the letter is typed by someone other than the writer, the writer’s initials (can be 2 or 3 letters) in upper case are followed by a colon or a slash (/) and the typist’s initials (can be 2 or 3 letters) in lower case as follows: BF:ny [or] BNF/nby. These are placed 2 lines below the signature block and are flush with the left-hand margin, regardless of the format being used. If the writer is the typist, no initials are needed.

**8. Enclosures** – If you are enclosing something in the envelope with the letter, skip one line after the signature block (or the initials), and type the word “Enclosure.” If there are multiple enclosures, type “Enclosures” followed by the number of items in parentheses [e.g., Enclosures (2)]. If you want, you can specify the enclosed items as follows:

Enclosures (2): resume; application. Like the initials, the enclosure notation is flush with the left-hand margin.

**9. Copies** – If you are sending a copy of the letter to others, skip one line after the enclosure notation (or the signature block if there are no enclosures) and type “cc” followed by a colon, and specify the recipient(s) of the copy or copies (e.g., cc: Dr. Michael Patterson). The copy notation is also aligned with the left-hand margin, regardless of the format used.

**10. Second and subsequent pages** – If the letter is longer than a page, a header should be used on all subsequent pages. The header should contain the recipient’s name, the date, and the page number. If you are using full block format, the info should be aligned with the left-hand margin. Begin writing the text for the second page with the normal top margin. All subsequent pages should have the same header.

An example of business letter format is presented in the following page.

## Example Business Letter

Return address of sender  
Return address line #2  
Return address line #3 (if necessary)

Date

Recipient  
Recipient's address  
Recipient's address line #2  
Recipient's address line #3 (if necessary)

Salutation:

The first paragraph of a business letter is the introduction. Use it to explain who you are and why you're writing. If the letter is a follow-up or a reply to previous correspondence, refer to the earlier communication. The first paragraph should be brief and to the point.

Beginning with the second paragraph, conduct the "business" of your letter. Support your introductory paragraph with any necessary background information, discussion of the issue(s), and results, if applicable. Again, stay to the overall point of the letter. Business letters should be kept as brief as possible. The recipient is likely to be busy, so write no more than is necessary to fully convey the intended message; several short, direct "business" paragraphs are usually sufficient. Keep the tone of your letter formal, business-like, and polite.

The final paragraph is used to briefly summarize your letter. Tie the stated purpose to the important information you've conveyed. If further contact is necessary, provide contact information and describe how and when the contact should be made. Thank the recipient for his or her time and attention.

Complimentary closing,

Writer's signature goes here

Printed name of sender  
Sender's title (if applicable)

Enclosure(s) (if applicable)

cc: name(s) of copy recipient(s) (if applicable)

## Reference citation (APA)

Most journals in the social sciences use the reference citation format prescribed by the American Psychological Association (APA). References serve a twofold purpose: (1) they ensure academic and intellectual integrity by crediting those individuals and organizations whose previous work contributed in some way to the research being reported, and (2) they provide the reader with information about how to identify and locate the cited works. In academic publications, references are displayed in two forms: in-text citations and end references. The in-text citation refers the reader to the corresponding end reference, which provides full information about the cited work, including its location.

### APA in-text citations

*One author:* (Watson, 2010).

*Two authors:* (Carney & Cho, 2012). *No comma precedes the ampersand (&).*

*When citing a work with three to five authors, list all authors in the first in-text citation.*

*A comma precedes the ampersand. For subsequent citations of that same work, list only the first author's last name followed by "et al.," and the year within the parentheses. "Et al" is an abbreviation for the Latin phrase "et alia," which means "and others." A period and a comma follow the abbreviated "al."*

*Three to five authors—in this case, four:* (Timmons, Andreas, Atkins, & Perez, 2012)

*Subsequent citation to that same work:* (Timmons et al., 2012).

*Six or more authors: Cite only the first author's name followed by "et al.," even on the first citation:* (Watson et al., 2013).

*If the author's name is used in the text, the citation becomes only the year of publication enclosed in parentheses following the name, with no citation at the end of the sentence. When multiple authors' names are used in the text, the final two are joined by "and," rather than the ampersand used in parenthetical citations.*

Watson (2010) examined the frequency of visitor interaction...

Carney and Cho (2012) found that user compliance with off-limits signage...

Timmons, Andreas, Atkins, and Perez (2012) studied visitors' perceptions of clear-cuts in...

*Two or more works by different authors within the same parentheses:* (Bair, 2012; Singh 1998).

*Two or more works by the same author(s):* (Terry & Meadows, 2007, 2009).

*Two or more works by the same author, same year:* (Swift, 2011a, 2011b).

*Two or more works by different authors, same year:* (Day, 2007a, 2007b; Pella, 2006a, 2006b).

*List multiple citations of works by different authors within the same parentheses in alphabetical order of authors' last names. Separate citations of different authors with semicolons. List multiple citations by the same author(s) in chronological order, separated by commas. Use lower case letters (a, b, c, etc.) to identify works by the same author(s) in the same year. The letters are assigned according to the order of the works in the end references, based on the alphabetical order of the titles of the works.*

### **APA end reference format**

Author(s). (Year of publication). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, Volume(Number if needed), page numbers.

*All the issues of a journal published in one year make up one "volume." If the journal's page numbers run sequentially over the course of the year—e.g., one issue ends on page 268, and the next begins on page 269—the number of the issue is usually deleted, as in the following example. But if each issue begins with page 1, the number is included after the volume, as in the second example. The volume numeral is italicized. Titles of books, journals, newspapers, and symposia also are italicized. APA citation requires a hanging indent for all end references.*

#### *Single author*

Watson, L.M. (2010). Frequency of visitor interaction with educational interactive kiosks at Great Smoky Mountains National Park. *Journal of Outdoor Education*, 61, 438-447.

*Two authors*

Carney, T. & Cho, K. (2012). User compliance with off-limits trail signage at Colorado's Breckenridge Ski Resort. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 9(2), 68-79.

*Three or more authors—in this case, four*

Timmons, C.T., Andreas, L.M., Atkins, H.T., & Perez, L.C. (2012). National forest clear-cuts:

Visitor perception and response. *Journal of Forest Recreation*, 38, 214-226.

*List all authors for articles by six authors or less. If there are more than six authors, the first six are listed in the reference, and “et al.” is used to indicate there were additional authors:*

Wilson L.J., Bhatti, P.C., Dow, G.T., Andrews, L.R., Chen, L., Harris L.C., et al. (2013). GPS geocaching: Gauging NPS visitor interest. *Outdoor Technology Quarterly*, 14(3), 9-26.

**Online journal article**

Author(s). (Year) Title of article. *Title of journal*. Volume (number), page numbers. DOI if available [or] retrieval date and URL

*Digital object identifiers (DOI) are unique ID numbers used to identify and quickly access a particular article within a database. The DOI is usually found on the first page of an online journal article. If a DOI is available, use it as shown in the following example, with no retrieval date. Otherwise, use the retrieval date and URL as shown in the second example:*

Williams, T.J., & Cantor, L.M. Teaching backcountry survival skills. *Adventure Education Quarterly*. 9(2), 114-123. doi:10.1016/aeq.2012.0505

Williams, T.J., & Cantor, L.M. Teaching backcountry survival skills. *Adventure Education Quarterly*. 9(2), 114-123. Retrieved Nov. 14, 2012 from <http://www.AEQ.com/bc/sur/skl>

## Books

Author(s). Year. *Title of Book*. Location where published: Publisher.

*With major cities such as New York, Toronto, or London, it's unnecessary to list the publisher's state or country. Lesser known cities, however, should be followed by the state or nation.*

### *Single author*

Terrance, D.L. (2004). *Losing and Finding the Great Outdoors*. New York: Scribner and Sons.

Terrance, D.L. (2004). *Losing and Finding the Great Outdoors*. Hillsdale, NJ: Phoenix Press.

### *More than one author*

Sigman, J.V., & Everett, P.T. (2006). *Battle Above the Clouds – Assault on Denali*.  
Santa Clara, California: Collier and Rowe.

### *Edited book*

Billups, T.J. & Khan, N.L. (Eds.). (2002). *National Parks and Monuments of the Great Lakes*.  
Detroit, MI: Candler Publishing.

## Proceedings of a meeting or symposium

*Proceedings comprise all the papers presented at a meeting or symposium in a single, bound volume; they're often available online as well. References to papers presented at a meeting or symposium are similar to references to journal articles but include the name of the conference, as well as the publisher of the proceedings.*

Author(s). (Date). Title of paper. In: Editor's (s') name(s), *Name of symposium* (page numbers). Location of publication: Publisher.

Lassiter, JW, & Timmons, WD. (2013). Bridging the gap: Providing access to the outdoors.

In: Jenkins, C.D. & Tillman, B.L, (Eds.). *Southeastern Symposium on Recreation and Special Needs* (pp.132-146). Raleigh: North Carolina State University Press.

*If the name of the state appears in the name of the publisher as in the example above, it's unnecessary to place it after the name of the city.*

## **Newspapers**

Author(s). (Year, Month Day). Article title. *Title of newspaper*, Page number(s).

Ginn, D. (2013, April 14). Budget cuts force state park closures. *Macon Times*, pp. A1, D4 – 5.

*If an article appears on only one page, use “p.” to abbreviate “page.” If an article appears on multiple pages, use “pp.” to abbreviate “pages.” Separate non-consecutive pages with a comma; use an en dash or hyphen to indicate consecutive pages. See example above.*

## **Reference citation (CSE)**

Journals in the life sciences normally require that references be formatted according to one of the styles prescribed by the Council of Science Editors (CSE). References serve a twofold purpose: (1) they ensure academic and intellectual integrity by crediting those individuals and organizations whose previous work contributed in some way to the research being reported, and (2) they provide the reader with information about how to identify and locate the cited works. In academic publications, references are displayed in two forms: in-text citations and end references. The abbreviated in-text citation refers the reader to the corresponding end reference, which provides full information about the cited work, including where it can be found.

### **CSE in-text citations**

There are three systems used for CSE in-text citation, and each journal's editor chooses which format will be used. The chosen format determines the order in which the end references will be listed. The three systems are name-year, citation-sequence, and citation-name. Each system has its advantages and disadvantages.

#### *The name-year system*

The most popular format within the natural sciences is the name-year system. Under the name-year format, in-text citations consist of the author's last name and the year of publication, both of which are enclosed in parentheses. The greatest advantage of the name-year system is the information supplied by the in-text citation. Because the various scientific disciplines—whether wildlife, forestry, fisheries, or ecology—comprise researchers and academics who often are familiar with one another and the associated research, the information supplied in-text is often sufficient for the reader to identify the study being cited. Also, the end references are listed alphabetically, so it's easy to locate the full reference and other references to the same author. The greatest disadvantage to the system is that the many parenthetical citations can be disruptive to reading. Also, there are a number of rules that must be followed for referencing multiple authors or multiple papers by the same author(s).

### *Examples*

*One author* ...led to increased sediment in lotic systems (Watson 2010).

*Two authors* ...nests in the upper reaches of conifer canopies (Jarrett and Fairburn 2012).

*3 or more authors* ...mist-netting over four consecutive nights (Timmons et al. 2012).

*Note: No comma separates the author and the year. For two authors, both last names are listed and joined by “and.” For three or more authors, use the first author’s last name followed by “et al.,” which is an abbreviation for the Latin phrase “et alia,” meaning “and others.” There is a period after the abbreviated “al.”*

If the author’s name appears in the text, the citation is simply the year placed in parentheses immediately after the name.

### *Examples*

Watson (2010) found that ATV use on trails in proximity to lotic systems increased...

Jarrett and Fairburn (2012) documented 16 nest sites in the upper reaches of conifer...

Over four consecutive nights of mist-netting, Timmons et al. (2012) captured 13 tri-colored...

There are a number of situations—such as multiple citations for the same fact or multiple works by the same author(s)—that require additional punctuation and style elements. Examples follow.

*Multiple citations, different authors* ...in lotic systems (Watson 2010; Ramirez et al. 2012).

*Multiple citations are sequenced oldest to latest, with semicolons used to separate them.*

*Same author(s), different years* ...increased sediment in lotic systems (Watson 2010, 2011).

*Multiple citations are listed oldest to latest and are separated by commas.*

*Same author(s), same year* ...increased sediment in lotic systems (Watson 2010a, 2010b).

...consecutive nights of mist-netting (Timmons et al. 2012a, 2012b).

*Lower case letters are used to differentiate works by the same author(s) in the same year. They are listed in order of publication and separated by commas. If the order of publication can’t be determined, they are listed in alphabetical order according to the articles’ titles.*

### *The citation-sequence system*

In the citation-sequence system, numbers are placed in the text that refer the reader to the end references. The references are numbered according to the order they first appear in the text, so the first citation would be reference number one; the second would be number 2 and so on. If the same reference is cited later in the text, it retains the original number. With modern word processing, the numbers are usually superscript numerals placed slightly above the text line, e.g.,<sup>1</sup>. The end references are then numbered correspondingly and listed in sequential order. The greatest advantage of the citation-sequence is that by using numerals only, there is very little disruption of the reading. Also, locating the end reference is easy. However, the biggest disadvantage is that the in-text citation provides no information other than the sequential number of the end reference; therefore, the reader may have to refer to the end references more often than under the name-year format. And because citations are numbered according to the order of appearance in the text, works by the same author may not be listed together in the end references.

### *The citation-name system*

The citation-name system combines elements of the other two formats. Under the citation-name format, the end reference list is compiled and listed alphabetically by the authors' last names. If there are multiple articles by the same author(s), they are listed alphabetically according to the first word in the title of each article; initial title words "a," "an," and "the" are disregarded for alphabetization. Then the end references are numbered in order, and the corresponding numbers are used as the in-text references. Unlike the citation-sequence system, however, the in-text numerals will not correspond to the order they first appear in the text. For example, once the end reference list is compiled and alphabetized, the first author might be Abbey, and the last article listed—of, say, 42—might be by Wright. The first Abbey article will be number one, and the last Wright article would be number 42. The in-text citation for the Abbey article then will be 1, no matter where it appears in the text. Likewise, the Woodson article would be 42, and it could be the very first citation. As in the citation-sequence system, the in-text citations are usually superscript numerals, e.g.,<sup>42</sup>. Like the citation-sequence system, the primary advantage of the citation-name format is minimal disruption of the text. Another advantage is that because the end references are first compiled alphabetically by author, all works by the same author(s) will be listed together in the references. Like the citation-sequence method, the greatest disadvantage to the name-sequence format is that the in-text citations provide little information.

## CSE end reference format

### Journal article

Author(s). Year of publication. Title of article. Journal. Volume(Number):page numbers.

All issues of a journal published in one year make up one “volume.” If the journal’s page numbers run sequentially over the course of the year—e.g., one issue ends with page 268, and the next begins on page 269—the number of the issue is usually deleted, as in the following example. But if each issue begins with page 1, the number is included after the volume, as in the second example.

#### *Single author*

Watson LM. 2010. Water quality impairment due to all-terrain vehicle use in Manitoba’s Big Rocks Provincial Park. *Canadian Journal of Hydrology*. 61:138-147.

#### *Two authors*

Jarrett JD, Fairburn ST. 2012. Nest-site preference of the Northern Goshawk in western Colorado. *Journal of Avian Ecology*. 9(2):68-79.

#### *Three or more authors—in this case, four*

Timmons CT, Andreas LM, Atkins HT, Harris LC. 2012. Echolocation acuity of tri-colored bats on Georgia’s barrier islands. *Journal of Mammalian Ecology*. 38:214-226.

*The way authors’ names appear in an end reference is journal-specific. Some journals reverse only the first author’s given name and surname; the rest are written in the normal order. Some journals will also place periods after initials and may require the word “and” before the last author. The examples above show only the basic, required elements of CSE citation.*

### ***Journal article on the internet***

Author(s). Title of article. Title of journal. Date of publication. [date cited];

Volume(number):page numbers. Available from: URL DOI

*Digital object identifiers (DOI) are unique ID numbers used to identify and access a particular article within a database. If available, provide both the URL and the DOI.*

Williams, TJ, Cantor, LM. Drought effects on spawning success of striped bass in southeast Georgia. *Marine and Coastal Fisheries* [internet] 2012. [cited 2013 May 12]; 42(6):132-146.

Available from: <http://marandcoasfish.org/content/46.2/drought/bass> doi:10.1326/mcf.42.6.132

### ***Book***

Author(s). Year. Title of Book. Publisher. City, State, Country.

*The location of the publisher is journal-specific. Whether or not the name of the city, state, or nation is included varies from journal to journal. If the state name appears in the name of the publisher, it's often deleted after the city, as in the following example.*

#### ***Single author***

Terrance, DL. 1984. *History of the Big Pines Gap National Wilderness Area*. Colorado State University Press, Fort Collins, USA.

#### ***More than one author***

Sigman, JV, and Everett, PT. 2006. *Customizing GIS applications for habitat and population assessment*. Collier and Rowe, Santa Clara, California, USA.

#### ***Editor as author***

Billups, TJ, editor. 2002. *Waterfowl of the Great Lakes*. Ohio University Press, Athens, USA.

## ***Conference proceedings and conference papers***

### *Conference proceedings*

*Conference proceedings comprise all the papers presented at a conference or symposium in a single, bound volume; they may also be available online. References to conference proceedings are similar to edited books and include the location and date(s) of the conference. References to papers presented at the conference are similar to references to journal articles but include the information about the conference.*

Editor(s). Date. Title of proceedings book. Number and name of conference; Date(s) of conference. Location of conference. Place of publication: Publisher.

Jenkins, CD, Tynes, BL, editors. 2013. Proceedings of the 23<sup>rd</sup> Conference on Southeastern Pine Beetle Research; 2013 Feb 9-12. Charlotte, NC. Raleigh. North Carolina State University Press.

### *Paper presented at conference and included in proceedings*

Author(s). Date. Title of paper. In: Editor(s). Title of proceedings book. Number and name of conference; Date(s) of conference. Location of conference. Place of publication: Publisher.  
Page numbers.

Lassiter, JW, Timmons, WD. 2013. Efficacy of biological control treatments for southern pine beetle in southeastern mixed pine forest. In: Jenkins, CD, Tynes, BL, editors. Proceedings of the 23<sup>rd</sup> Conference on Southeastern Pine Beetle Research; 2013 Feb 9-12. Charlotte, NC. Raleigh. North Carolina State University Press. p. 142-154.

## ***Newspapers***

Author(s). Date. Title of article. Title of newspaper (edition). Section: beginning page of Article (column number).

Spearing, D. 2013 Apr 14. New dam could imperil threatened raptors. St. Louis Dispatch (Morning Ed). Section B: 4 (col.1).