GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Style Guide

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Instructors in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies retain the right to specify formatting and presentation requirements that differ from and supercede the guidelines presented in this Style Guide. See Section 1.2 for further details on this matter.
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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of this Style Guide

This Style Guide has been created:

- To provide students with a standard reference for the formatting and preparation of written assignments in Geography courses.
- To allow instructors of Geography courses to have a standard reference for the formatting and preparation of written assignments, and thereby inform students of standard expectations in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies.

1.2 Supersession of Course- or Instructor-Specific Requirements

Instructors in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies retain the right to specify formatting and presentation requirements that differ from and supersede the guidelines presented in this Style Guide. Therefore, the following rules of precedence apply:

- These guidelines apply if an instructor does not provide specific formatting and presentation requirements.
- Any formatting and presentation requirements that an instructor specifies verbally or in an assignment handout supersede these guidelines.
- If an instructor provides limited formatting and presentation requirements, follow them; for remaining matters that the instructor does not address specifically, these guidelines apply.

Listen to instructors’ verbal instructions and read assignment handouts carefully to determine if any specific requirements are given.

Some of the common examples where instructors’ preferences are known to differ from these guidelines are noted throughout this Style Guide.

For GEOG 4529 (Honours Research Project), there is a set of specific formatting and presentation guidelines that must be followed. All Honours students should obtain a copy of the guidelines from the departmental office before beginning their research project.

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2. **How to Format a Written Assignment in Geography and Environmental Studies Courses**

Formatting refers to the arrangement and appearance of material on the page. Although distinct from content, attention to formatting is an important factor contributing to the overall quality of a written assignment.

2.1 **Title Page or Title Section**

The first page of the submitted work must show some key information that identifies the student, the course, and the assignment. The first option is to create a separate title page presenting the information listed below. Alternatively, instead of using a full page, the title page information may be compressed into a section at the top of the first page of text, as doing so tends to reduce paper usage if the assignment is printed.

*Note: Instructors may specify that title page information must be presented on a separate page.*

- Title of the assignment, in bold text
  - Title should be short but descriptive. It does not have to be witty or catchy, but it should give the reader a general idea of the topic.
  - It should not be generic (as in solely consisting of “Assignment #1”), but the assignment number may be shown on the title page to help identify the work.
- Your name
- Your student (A) number
- Course number
- Name of the instructor of the course
- Date of submission

Arrangement of the information on the title page is left to the student’s discretion. The Sample Paper (Section 9) shows examples of acceptable layouts.

2.2 **Table of Contents (optional)**

A table of contents is an optional feature; when used, it should align with headings shown throughout the text (see Section 2.6). Generally, only longer and more complex assignments require a table of contents.

2.3 **Page Numbers**

Number all pages consecutively, beginning with the first page of text. If there is a separate title page or a table of contents, those pages are not numbered.
2.4 Margins and Fonts

Margins and fonts (including typeface and size) are left to the discretion of the student. Apply common sense when selecting these characteristics.

Text should have a left-justified margin only.

Do not mistake a certain number of assignment pages for being a reliable substitute for a certain number of words. Using unusually wide margins or a large font artificially increases page length. Be aware that such tricks usually raise a red flag to your instructor as they are often an indication that the assignment is lacking the depth that is expected.

2.5 Line Spacing and Indentation

Use double line spacing: this gives your instructor space for comments.

Note: if printing the assignment, you may ask your instructor if 1.5 line spacing or single line spacing is acceptable, instead of double line spacing, to reduce paper usage.

To mark the beginning of a new paragraph, either:

- Precede the paragraph with a blank line but do not indent the text, or:
- Indent the first line of the paragraph one tab space, but do not precede the paragraph with a blank line.

2.6 Headings: Numbered vs. Unnumbered

To help readers understand the structure of your assignment, use headings. Headings are normally hierarchical: that is, in multiple levels. In most cases, a maximum of three levels of headings is needed for regular assignments in Geography courses.

Two heading options are possible: numbered (more common in science) and unnumbered (more common in social science and humanities).

2.6.1 Numbered Headings

All levels of numbered headings have the same formatting: not indented, in bold text, and first letters of all main words in uppercase.

For all levels, paragraph begins on the line below the heading.

In Section 5 of this guide, a fourth level of heading was required (e.g., 5.3.6.1 Book by one author).
2.6.2 Unnumbered Headings
(following American Psychological Association [APA] style)

Unnumbered headings are differentiated by formatting instead of numbering. If required, a fourth level of heading (not shown here) would have the same format as the third level, except the heading would also be in italics.

See Section 2.5 for guidelines on whether or not new paragraphs are indented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level One Heading</th>
<th>Centered, boldface, first letter uppercase for all main words.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First line of paragraph is on the line below the heading.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level Two Heading</th>
<th>Left-justified, boldface, first letter uppercase for all main words.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First line of paragraph is on the line below the heading.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level three heading</th>
<th>Indented one tab space, boldface, first letter of words upper-case only for first word and proper nouns, ends with a period.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph begins on the same line as the heading, and continues without indentation on the next line.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.7 Numerical Values and Units of Measurement

2.7.1 Numerical Values

Spell out numbers between zero and nine.

Only eight people attended the meeting today.

My father has three sisters.

Exceptions to this rule:

- Use numerals when grouping a number between zero and nine with a larger number.

Only 8 out of 40 people attended the meeting today.

- Use numerals when writing a measurement or ratio: 4 cm; 7%. 
Use numerals for numbers 10 and higher.

This event was last held 23 days ago.
There were 542 people in attendance at the hockey game.

Exceptions to this rule:

- Spell out the number when it begins a sentence.

  Forty-eight voted for the bylaw.

  Two hundred forty-six people are in the Science program.

Use numerals when presenting:

- Numbers with decimals (825.3; 10.25)
- Divisions of books (Chapter 3; pages 7-10)
- Addresses (11 Maple Lane).

Spell out numbers for non-specific amounts

(millions of people; over one billion).

2.7.2 Units of Measurement

Use metric units with SI (Système International) abbreviations (m, km, °C, etc.) instead of spelling out the full word.

2.8 Illustrative Material (Figures and Tables)

Figures and tables are an efficient way to enrich a written assignment; used effectively, a figure or table can replace a significant amount of text. Figures and tables should be placed adjacent to either the top of the page or the bottom of the page, not in the middle of the page between passages of text.

2.8.1 Figures

Many possible items fit under the broad heading of figures: graphs of various types, maps, conceptual diagrams, photographs, aerial photographs, satellite images, flowcharts, and so on. Essentially, any type of image or diagram can be considered a figure. Well-constructed figures can help the reader visualize complex patterns, concepts, or datasets quickly and more effectively than a long passage of descriptive text. The key to an effective figure is to make it clear and easy for the reader to understand.
Figures should include the following information:

- Figure number: Number all figures consecutively in the order in which they are first mentioned in the text. Figures and tables are numbered independently of each other, each beginning with the number 1 (Figure 1, Figure 2, …).

  If reproducing a figure directly from a source, number it consecutively in your own sequence. Do not use the figure number used in the original source. Do not cut-and-paste the original title and caption – create your own instead.

- Title: The title should be brief and explanatory, but not a full sentence. Use uppercase for the first letters of all main words.

- Caption: If more explanation of a figure is required than can be contained in a brief title, a longer caption can be included, in full sentence form.

- Notes: General notes placed below the figure provide information about the figure and begin with the word Note (italicized) followed by a period. General notes include a citation to the reference source of the material in the figure, if applicable.

Here is an example of a figure that appeared in a journal and was reproduced:

Figure 3. Map of Former Progradational Ridges at Basin Head, PE

Reproduced from: Giles, P.T. (2002). Historical coastline adjustment at MacVanes Pond Inlet, Eastern Prince Edward Island. *The Canadian Geographer, 46* (Fig. 6).
Whenever you provide a figure, it should be referred to in the text, at the point where you want the reader to pause reading and view the information in the figure. Refer to figures specifically by their number (e.g., “see Figure 5”) instead of writing vague references like “see the figure shown above.”

This guide cannot discuss the specific appearance and requirements of all the various types of figures in detail. See the list of recommended further readings at the end for more detailed information on formatting figures.

2.8.2 Tables

Tables are used to present a large amount of data in a condensed format. Tables should be reserved for important data directly related to the content of your assignment, and for simplifying text that would otherwise be dense with numbers.

If you include a table in your paper, do not repeat all of the same information in your text. You should help the reader understand the significance of the data in the table by mentioning only the highlights or important information within the text.

Tables should include the following information:

- **Table number:** number all tables consecutively in the order in which they are first mentioned in the text. Tables and figures are numbered independently of each other, each beginning with the number 1 (Table 1, Table 2, …). If reproducing a table directly from a source, number it consecutively in your own sequence. Do not use the table number used in the original source. Do not cut-and-paste the original title and caption – create your own instead.

- **Title:** the title should be brief and explanatory, but not a full sentence. Use uppercase for the first letters of all main words.

- **Caption:** if more explanation of a table is required than can be contained in a brief title, a longer caption can be included, in full sentence form.

- **Headings:** each column and row should contain a short heading that does not make the column wider, or the row taller, than necessary.

- **Units:** indicate the units of measurement, when applicable, in round brackets, only in the respective column or row heading. This includes the % symbol. Do not repeat the units for individual values in a column or row.

- **Precision of values:** all values for a particular variable should be shown with the same precision (e.g., same number of decimal places).
• Alignment of numbers: within a column, digits of the same value, and decimal points when applicable, should be aligned vertically. Note that simply centering a column of values results in misaligned values unless all of the values have exactly the same number of digits, same sign, and same number of decimal places.

• Notes: Tables can contain two kinds of notes:
  o General notes placed below the table provide information about the table overall and begin with the word *Note* (italicized) followed by a period. General notes include a citation to the reference source of the data in the table, if applicable.
  o Specific notes refer to a particular column, row, or individual entry and are indicated by superscript numbers (e.g., ¹, ², ³). Below the table, the note begins with the same superscript number.

Show only horizontal lines. Tables in APA style do not contain any visible vertical lines.

Whenever you provide a table, it should be referred to in the text, at the point where you want the reader to view the information in the table. Refer to tables specifically by their number (e.g., “see Table 2”) instead of writing vague references like “see the table included above.”

Here is an example of a formatted table that was adapted from (not directly pasted in its original form) a journal article:

Table 1. Comparison of Service Network Parameters for Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago, 1994 and 2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ports</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>-17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic (m TEUs)</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>+124.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9 Spelling
Correct spelling is an important characteristic of a well-prepared assignment. Frequent spelling mistakes are a clear indication of sloppy work. Many mistakes are made because writers simply spell words according to how they sound. Here are just a few key points to keep in mind in regard to spelling:

- Use the spell-checking feature in your word-processing program to identify misspelled words.
- Use either American (e.g., organization) or British spelling (e.g., organisation), but do so consistently within the same piece of work.
- Remember that although a word may be spelled correctly according to spell check, the spelling of the word for the particular context may be incorrect (e.g., “there” and “their”; “it’s” and “its”; “affect” and “effect”; “principal” and “principle”). Therefore, in addition to using spell check, you must review your work manually before submission. Use a dictionary, either online or in book form.
- Learn the words that you tend to spell incorrectly, and focus on avoiding those errors.
- When you are reading published work, pay attention to how words are spelled!

2.10 Punctuation
As with spelling, there is much more to know about correct punctuation than can be covered in this guide. Poor punctuation can be confusing for a reader and good writing is characterized by correct use of punctuation. Here are a few key points to keep in mind in regard to punctuation:

- Detailed published guides to punctuation are available – correct use of punctuation does not have to be a mystery.
- When you are reading published work, pay attention to how punctuation is used to improve writing quality and clarity.
- Learn where you tend to make punctuation mistakes, and focus on avoiding those errors.
- Common errors include mixing up when to use a colon (:) or a semi-colon (;), when to use or omit a comma, and using uppercase for the first letter of a word when it is not warranted, among many others.
3. PLAGIARISM – AND HOW TO AVOID IT

3.1 What is plagiarism?

Plagiarism is defined in the Saint Mary’s University Academic Calendar as:

The presentation of words, ideas or techniques of another as one’s own. Plagiarism is not restricted to literary works and applies to all forms of information or ideas that belong to another (e.g., computer programs, mathematical solutions, scientific experiments, graphical images, or data).

(Saint Mary's University, 2013, pp. 19-20).

Therefore, plagiarism includes taking someone else’s words, sentences, or paragraphs and using them in your own assignment without indicating where you got them. However, this is not the only form of plagiarism. Plagiarism also involves taking someone else’s ideas or arguments, putting them into your own words, and then not citing the source. In addition, keep in mind that when you paraphrase an idea or information from a source, you need to change the structure of the sentence and put it into your own words as well as include a source citation (see Section 4.1). Simply changing or rearranging a few words is not sufficient.

The Academic Calendar lists several examples of plagiarism:

- quoting, paraphrasing, or summarizing text without proper acknowledgment;
- paraphrasing too closely (e.g., changing only a few words or simply rearranging the text);
- downloading all or part of a paper, journal article, or book from the Internet or a library database and presenting it as one's own work;
- purchasing documentation and presenting it as one's own work; and
- sharing papers including the selling of essays, tests, or other assignments.

(Saint Mary's University, 2013, p. 20).

3.2 Avoiding Plagiarism

To avoid plagiarism, cite all sources that you use in your assignment. Details about techniques to avoid plagiarism are not given in this section. Section 4 of this guide, Incorporating Source Material into an Assignment, is devoted to explaining the distinction between paraphrasing and quoting source material, using quotations, referring to secondary sources, and using illustrative material from sources. In Section 5, the use of in-text citations (or footnotes/endnotes) and formatting a list of references are described.
A writer does not need to have intent to commit plagiarism. Although plagiarism may be committed as a willful act by writers, it often occurs simply due to the writer’s neglect of the issues. Ignorance of the rules defining plagiarism is not a valid defence.

3.3 Common Knowledge

When you read published work, you will notice that not everything the author writes is cited. This is because “common knowledge” does not need to be cited. The difficulty (for students and professors alike) is knowing when something can be considered common knowledge, and when it can’t. After all, something might be common knowledge to expert researchers in a field, but be new information for a student.

There is no set rule for defining the boundary line for whether something is considered common knowledge or not. However, if you can reasonably answer “Yes” to this question – “Would everyone who studies Author A, Topic B, or Subject C know this information?” – then it can probably be considered common knowledge.

If the example you are considering is borderline, in your evaluation, then err on the side of caution and include a citation. If you weigh the question carefully and decide that the material is common knowledge, your instructor may advise that you should have cited the material. However, if you can defend your position with a reasonable argument as to why the example should be considered common knowledge, you are unlikely to be charged with plagiarism. Here are two examples to show the difference between common knowledge, not requiring citation, and material that does need to be cited:

Example of information that is common knowledge, not requiring citation:
Canada is the second-largest country in the world, behind only Russia.

Example of information that does need to be cited:
Canada has a landmass of 9.9 million square kilometers, second only to Russia (CIA World Factbook, 2010).
4. **TECHNIQUES FOR INCORPORATING SOURCE MATERIAL INTO AN ASSIGNMENT**

This section describes the difference between the techniques of paraphrasing and quoting source material. In either case, a source citation is required. Procedures for formatting citations are described in Section 5.

4.1 **Paraphrasing**

Paraphrasing allows you to incorporate an idea or information from a source into your paper without using the author’s original wording. Using the original wording means you are quoting, which is described in Section 4.2.

Because you change the original wording when paraphrasing, quotation marks are not used; however, a source citation must be given.

Remember from the discussion of plagiarism in Section 3 that when you paraphrase an idea or information from a source, you need to change the structure of the sentence and put it into your own words as well as include a source citation. Simply changing or rearranging a few words from the source text is not sufficient to avoid being accused of plagiarism.

APA style encourages, but does not require, the inclusion of page number(s) in a citation for paraphrased material (APA, 2009). However, it is more common in geography publications to give page number(s) for paraphrased material (unlike quotations, where page numbers are required in citations, as described below). To fit with disciplinary standards, this guide follows the practice of not normally including page number(s) in citations for paraphrased material.

You will occasionally see page number(s) given in citations for paraphrased material in geography publications, such as when the writer wants to point to data or a specific passage in the source. Therefore, including a page number in citations for paraphrased material will not considered “incorrect” in Geography courses.

4.2 **Using Quotations**

Unlike paraphrasing, where you represent an idea or information from a source in your own words, quotations are the word-for-word reproduction of source material in your assignment.

Because the writing is not your own, quotations should be used sparingly. Save the use of quotations for emphasis and effect, not simply as a quick and easy way to reduce your work. Instructors are interested in what you think about the topic – supported by quoted (or paraphrased) material where appropriate – more than your ability simply to arrange a string of quotes copied from sources.
Direct quotations must be reproduced exactly as shown in the original text. This includes wording, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.

Quoted material must be surrounded by quotation marks (or be indented, for long quotations; see below) while paraphrasing does not use quotation marks.

Avoid dropped quotations. A dropped quotation occurs when your sentence consists only of quoted material and its citation, but none of your own words. Instead of doing this, incorporate the quotation so that it becomes part of your sentence, not the entire sentence. Study the examples below to see how this is done correctly.

Here is an example of a dropped quotation, with an alternative:

Incorrect, dropped quotation:

Fluvial geomorphic patterns have been shown to change downstream. “Observations from modern distributive fluvial systems suggest general recognisable changes in geomorphic elements and floodplain soils with increasing distance downstream” (Davidson et al., 2013, p. 94).

A valid alternative structure:

Fluvial geomorphic patterns have been shown to change downstream; for example, Davidson et al. (2013) stated that “[o]bservations from modern distributive fluvial systems suggest general recognisable changes in geomorphic elements and floodplain soils with increasing distance downstream” (p 94).
4.2.1 Short Quotations

Quotations shorter than about 40 words should be incorporated into the text and enclosed by double quotation marks. The quotation is followed by the source citation, including page number(s).

Here is an example of incorporating a short quotation into text, with two alternative sentence structures (both valid):

In this structure, the author’s name, followed by the year of publication, is part of the sentence. The page number is included at the end of the quotation.

Based on his study of MacVanes Pond Inlet in Prince Edward Island, Giles (2002) concluded that, “[a]ccelerated sea level rise may cause faster shoreline retreat and an increasing proportion of shoreline with cliffs as Holocene sediment deposits are eroded or become flooded” (p. 15).

Note that the page number in round brackets is placed between the closing quotation mark and the period ending the sentence.

In this structure, the entire citation is included in the round brackets following the quotation.

MacVanes Pond Inlet in Prince Edward Island provides a case study on accelerating shoreline retreat. Findings showed that “[a]ccelerated sea level rise may cause faster shoreline retreat and an increasing proportion of shoreline with cliffs as Holocene sediment deposits are eroded or become flooded” (Giles, 2002, p. 15).

Note that the page number in round brackets is placed between the closing quotation mark and the period ending the sentence.
4.2.2 Long Quotations

For quotations longer than about 40 words, indent all lines of the quotation (not just the first line) from both margins. Do not use quotation marks. Indenting the quotation serves the purpose normally served by the quotation marks.

Here is an example of a long quotation:

As Sharpe and Conrad (2006) pointed out:

While the scientific literature indicates that community watershed groups have the ability to generate data of adequate accuracy and precision, this can only be achieved with sufficient resources, through the use of standardized protocols, and use of Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) procedures. (p. 401)

Entire quotation is indented from both margins.

Note that the page number in round brackets is not part of the source text, so it is placed after the period that ends the original sentence.

4.2.3 Changes to Quotations

To make the quotation flow properly with the structure of your sentence, sometimes you need to change letters or words slightly from the original text. If so, then enclose the changes in square brackets.

In this example, “the” in the original text needed to be changed to “The.”

[T]he ultimate fate of the Red Man of North America is absorption and extinction: just as European animals introduced into Australia and other regions frequently drive natives of the country from their haunts, and may even exterminate them. (Dawson, 1881, p.157)

4.2.4 Omissions from Quotations

Sometimes it makes sense to exclude parts of a quotation that distract from the objective of including a quotation. If you omit words from a quotation, then include an ellipsis (three periods: …) to indicate where words have been omitted. If the omission occurs at the end of a sentence, use four periods.

Keep in mind that the quoted material which remains must still make sense grammatically, and the quote must still embody the original idea. The author you are quoting must be represented fairly and not out of context.

Here is an example of material quoted verbatim:

“For instance, obstructions constructed by humans (jetties, harbours, groins, etc.) are likely to produce changes in the configuration of the shoreline” (Drapeau, 1980, p. 295).
A writer might consider the list of examples of obstructions to be unnecessary. To make the sentence flow more smoothly without changing the overall sense of the quotation, the list of examples in round brackets might be omitted:

“For instance, obstructions constructed by humans … are likely to produce changes in the configuration of the shoreline” (Drapeau, 1980, p. 295).

4.3 Referring to Secondary Sources

On occasion, you may come across cited material within a source that you would like to incorporate into your work. If this is the case, you should always first attempt to find the original source of the quotation and quote or paraphrase it directly. However, sometimes you will need to quote a source that quotes a secondary source (for example, if Saint Mary’s library does not have access to the original source). If this is the case, then after you paraphrase or quote the original source, use “as cited in” followed by source you consulted.

Here is an example:

A reduction in sedimentation during hurricanes could be a result of increased wave activity (Pethick, 2001, as cited in van Proosdij et al., 2006, p. 65).

4.4 Using Illustrative Material from Sources

Ideally, customized illustrative material should be created to fit the specific purpose and context of your assignment, but sometimes it makes sense to use material that appears in another source. Although it is not text, including illustrative material directly from a source is essentially the equivalent of quoting (if you reproduce the material directly without any modifications) or paraphrasing (if the material is adapted slightly but is in essence the same as the original material).

Therefore, including a citation below the illustrative material in question and a corresponding entry in the list of references is essential. Otherwise, you have used someone else’s work without attribution and are guilty of plagiarism.

Section 2.8 shows examples of a figure that was reproduced directly from a source, and a table that was adapted by the author. Note the citations provided.
5. DOCUMENTING SOURCES

As noted above, to avoid committing an act of plagiarism, you must document your sources. Documentation involves two parts: citations either in-text or using footnotes or endnotes, and a corresponding list of references.

In general, the use of in-text citations is preferred over using footnotes or endnotes. However, in the humanities in particular, footnotes or endnotes are the standard form of citation, so the technique is covered briefly in Section 5.4.

5.1 APA Style vs. Other Formatting Styles

This guide is based on a well-known standard for formatting in-text citations and lists of references: APA style. APA (developed by the American Psychological Association) is only one of numerous valid formatting styles that are used in geography publications. Have a look at a variety of books, journals, and reports to see the range of formatting that is used, particularly in the appearance of reference lists.

However, in order to set a standard of expectations regarding citation and reference list formatting across the department, in Geography courses you are required to follow the guidelines and examples shown in this guide unless your instructor indicates that alternative styles are acceptable. If you learn the style for one Geography course, you will be able to apply your knowledge in most, if not all, other Geography courses.

Note: unless an instructor explicitly gives permission to use an alternative formatting style, the guidelines provided here apply.

Exception to the rule:

Some formatting rules in this guide differ slightly from APA style: usually these changes occur in favour of simplification and have been made for your benefit. (For example, in Section 4.1 the APA preference for including page numbers in citations for paraphrased material was relaxed and is recommended as an exception rather than the norm.) If you are familiar with APA style, recognize the subtle differences, and prefer to use the precise style according to APA, you are free to do so.

5.2 Formatting In-Text Citations

In-text citations provide the author’s name (or authors’ names) along with the year of publication and, for quotations, the page number also. The format of citations differs somewhat depending the number of authors.

In several of the examples below, two alternatives for formatting citations are shown. The citation can be incorporated directly into the sentence by making the author(s) the subject of the sentence, with the year of publication shown in
round brackets, or the author(s) and year can both be included in round brackets. In the latter case, the citation normally appears directly following the paraphrased or quoted material.

The examples do not include page numbers in the citations and therefore correspond to paraphrased material, but remember that if material is quoted directly, you must provide the page number in the source document.

5.2.1 Citing a Source with One Author

Naismith (2007) suggested that [paraphrased or quoted source material here].

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (Naismith, 2007).

5.2.2 Citing a Source with Two Authors

Brown and Jones (2006) stated that [paraphrased or quoted source material here].

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (Brown and Jones, 2006).

5.2.3 Citing a Source with Three or More Authors

List only the first author followed by “et al.” There is a period after “al” because the phrase is an abbreviation of “et alia,” meaning “and others.”

de Blij et al. (2005) explained that [paraphrased or quoted source material here].

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (de Blij et al., 2005).

5.2.4 Citing a Source with a Group or Organization as Author

Sometimes a document will be written by one or more people for a group or organization, but individual authors are not named. In this case, use the name of the group or organization as the author.

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (Amnesty International Canada, 2008).

5.2.5 Citing a Source with an Anonymous Author

If the author of a work is designated specifically as *Anonymous* (rather than simply not listing an author), then write the word “Anonymous” in place of the author.

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (Anonymous, 2010).
5.2.6 Citing Multiple Citations Within One Set of Round Brackets

If you are citing more than one source to support an idea or assertion, list the sources in order by date, with the oldest first. Within the parentheses, each source should be separated by a semicolon.

[paraphrased or quoted source material here] (Martin, 2007; Tellier, 2008).

5.2.7 Personal Communications

Personal communications include various types of unpublished material such as letters, e-mail messages, personal interviews or conversations, and similar sources that contain unrecoverable data (e.g., your own class notes). They are not included in the list of references, but they still need to be cited in your text. To cite personal communications, include the initials and last name of the communicator, and an exact date.

C. Slater (personal communication, April 12, 2009) discussed traditional cultures and their impact on environmental change.

A discussion of traditional cultures and their impact on environmental change was presented (C. Slater, personal communication, April 12, 2009).

5.3 Formatting a List of References

5.3.1 Purpose

A reference list placed at the end of the text includes bibliographic information for all of the sources you referred to, using in-text citations, throughout your assignment (except for personal communications). The information must be provided for these reasons:

- In case a reader wants to verify the information or interpretations from the sources that you have given in your assignment;
- In case a reader wants to verify the authenticity or location of the sources you have cited; or
- In case a reader wants to find the source for his or her own or research activity or to pursue a topic for personal interest.

APA formatting style for reference list entries is shown in the examples below. The characteristics of any good formatting style are completeness, accuracy, and consistency. The keys are:

- To provide complete and accurate bibliographic information so that the reader would be able to locate the source material independently if he or she so chose;
- To format entries consistently throughout the entire reference list.
Reference-list formatting for a single style is based around a common set of principles that are adapted to the many different types of publications and documents you may consult. In the examples given below, look for the common elements that define the style overall – pay particular attention to the use of punctuation and appearance of text – and note how appropriate modifications are made for the different types of publications.

For example, in the case of reference written by a single author: how is the author’s name presented? Look at the punctuation and text styles: where are commas, periods, round brackets placed? Which text is italicized, and which words begin with uppercase letters? Attention to these details is critical for the construction of a List of References.

5.3.2 Entries with Multiple Authors

Regarding the formatting of reference-list entries for materials with multiple authors:

- Separate authors’ names with commas, with the word “and” preceding the final author’s surname.
  - Smith, J. R., Franklin, J. W., and Bailey, W. A.
- If there are only two authors, separate the names with “and” but do not precede “and” with a comma
  - Smith, J. R. and Bailey, W. A.
- List the authors in the order they appear in the article – do not reorder the names alphabetically within an individual reference list entry.

5.3.3 Ordering References In List

- A List of References should be ordered alphabetically by the surnames of the first authors of each source.
- A reference may be written by one author or a multiple-author team. The order of multiple authors may not be alphabetical, but the order that is shown in the publication should be retained.
- Group all references by one author or author team together, in order of publication date. List all the references by a single author, followed by references in which that author is the first author of a team. For example, an order of references by James Smith would be: Smith (2001); Smith (2006); Smith and Jones (2005); and Smith et al. (1999).
- Do not number the reference-list entries.
5.3.4 Additional Information for Online Material

If you access material online rather than in hard-copy form, prepare the reference-list entry as shown below but also include these pieces of information at the end of the entry:

a) One of the following location identifiers:
   - Digital object identifier (DOI): a DOI is assigned to an online article to indicate its unique location on the Internet.
     - Example of a DOI: DOI: 10.1016/j.quaint.2007.01.008
   - Uniform resource locator (URL): if no DOI is available, show the URL (i.e., web address) where you viewed the article. Use the phrase “Retrieved from URL.”

and

b) After the DOI or URL, the date on which you accessed the material. Use the phrase “Accessed on date.”

The examples below are prepared for print material.

5.3.5 Journal Articles

5.3.5.1 Journal article, single author:

5.3.5.2 Journal article, multiple authors:


5.3.6 Books and Parts of Books

If you access a book online, prepare the reference-list entry as shown below but also include the uniform resource locator (URL, i.e., the web address) at the end of the entry.

Required bibliographic information about a book can normally be found on the publication page immediately after the inside title page. Note that it may be necessary to combine some of the elements of the examples shown below.

5.3.6.1 Book by one author


5.3.6.2 Book by more than one author

5.3.6.3 Book – other than first edition

State the edition number in round brackets after the book’s title, and before the period that follows the title.


Edition number: in round brackets after the book’s title; followed by period.

5.3.6.4 Edited book

When citing an entire book compiled by an editor or editors, cite the editor(s) as though they were the author(s).


Write Ed. if there is one editor, or Eds. for multiple editors, in round brackets after the initial of the last editor, followed by a period after the closing bracket.

5.3.6.5 Part of an edited book (e.g., section or chapter)

Writing “In” before the names of the editor(s) is required to indicate that the source is part of a larger work.


Writing “In” before the names of the editor(s) is required to indicate that the source is part of a larger work.

Writing Ed. if there is one editor, or Eds. for multiple editors, in round brackets after the initial of the last editor, followed by a comma after the closing bracket.

State the chapter number (if applicable) and page or page numbers in round brackets immediately after the book’s title. When citing multiple pages use “pp.” instead of “p.”

Here the editor’s (or editors’) initials come before the last name.
5.3.7 Other Types of Sources
Examples of reference-list entries for various materials are given below. If your source does not fit the description of any of these examples, find an example that most closely matches your source, and use your own best judgment to construct a similarly-formatted reference-list entry.

If you access source material online, prepare the reference-list entry as shown below but also include the uniform resource locator (URL, i.e., the web address) at the end of the entry.

5.3.7.1 Entry in a reference work (encyclopedia, dictionary, etc.)


Writing “In” before the names of the editor(s) is required to indicate that the source is part of a larger work.

Write “Vol.” for the volume number.

5.3.7.2 Article in a popular magazine


Give the date of the magazine issue, preceded by a comma, after the year.

5.3.7.3 Newspaper article


Give the date of the newspaper edition, preceded by a comma, after the year.

Include the section (letter) and page number. If citing an article where pagination is not continuous, give all page numbers separated by commas (e.g. pp. A4, B9-B12).

5.3.7.4 Map

5.3.7.5 Government document without an author

Use the name of the group or organization as the author.


5.3.7.6 Report


If there is no publisher named, give the name of the institution.

5.3.7.7 Fact sheet, brochure, or pamphlet


“Author” is used to indicate that the publisher is the same as the author of the work.

5.3.7.8 Article in a newsletter


Within material that is italicized, text that would normally be italicized switches back to plain text.

5.3.7.9 Thesis or dissertation


Include the university, city, and country. For Canada and the U.S.A., omit the country and give the province or state instead, using the appropriate two-letter abbreviation.
5.3.8 Web Pages

Many of the materials found online will be in one of the categories already described in the examples above. If so, the appropriate formatting style should be used, along with giving the URL at the end of the reference-list entry.

For general web pages that do not fit the description of any of the examples above, select an appropriate format from those shown below, depending on what information is available about the author(s).

In these generic examples:

- For *year* use the year that the material was created or last updated, if shown; if there is no year specified, indicate no date: write (n.d.) instead of (year).
- Replace *URL* with the actual web address (e.g., http://www...).
- Replace *date* with the date that you accessed the material.

The differences among these generic examples are principally in how authorship of the page is indicated on the web page:

- If an author is named:
  

  Guidelines for listing multiple authors are given at the beginning of Section 5.4.

- If the author is listed specifically as Anonymous:
  

- If no author is named but a group or organization responsible for the material can be identified, use the name of the group or organization as the author:
  
  Name of group or organization (year). *Title of web page*. Retrieved from URL. Accessed on date.

- In rare cases where neither an author nor a group/organization can be identified, omit the author and give the year in round brackets after the title of the web page:
  
Here are some specific examples of materials retrieved online:


5.4 Formatting Footnotes and Endnotes

The preferred method for acknowledging sources in written assignments for Geography courses is to use in-text citations with a corresponding List of References placed at the end of the assignment. However, footnotes or endnotes are used in some geography publications, so a brief description is given here.

- Footnotes and endnotes are used not only for referencing sources. They may also be used for textual asides and further discussion of points in the main text.

- Footnotes and endnotes are marked in the text with superscript numbers (e.g., 1, 2, 3) where the superscript number is used instead of an (author, date) in-text citation.

- With footnotes, bibliographic information (or other note material) is placed at the bottom of the page on which the citation is marked.
  - Separate the footnote from the last line of text on the page with a solid line that extends approximately ¼ across the page.
  - The footnote begins with the same superscript number used in the text, thus creating an unambiguous link between the citation and the reference.
  - Because the bibliographic information is provided in the footnotes, no List of References is required at the end of the text.

- With endnotes, the references containing bibliographic information (or other note material) are collected in a single list (titled Notes, not List of References) placed at the end of the text.
  - Endnotes are listed in the sequential order of appearance in the text.
  - Unlike a List of References corresponding with the in-text citation method in which entries are ordered alphabetically by the surnames of the first authors, it is unlikely that the surnames of the first authors will be ordered alphabetically.
Recall also that the Notes section may contain notes other than references to sources. It would not make sense to try and order the notes alphabetically given the mixture that might be present. It does make sense to list the notes in sequential numerical order.

- Each endnote begins with the same superscript number used in the text, thus creating an unambiguous link between the citation and the reference.

   • Except for the footnote or endnote beginning with its superscript number, format each reference in the same way as shown for the various types of references in Section 5.3.

If you are familiar with footnotes or endnotes and prefer to use them in your assignment, ask your instructor whether these methods are acceptable (or perhaps more appropriate than in-text citations, depending on the circumstances).

6. Assignment Submission

6.1 Paper vs. Electronic Submission

There is no departmental standard regarding whether assignments should be submitted on paper or electronically (e.g., as an e-mail attachment or through Brightspace). It is the responsibility of each instructor to specify the mode of submission, either verbally or in the assignment handout.

6.2 Printing

The expectation in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies is that written assignments should be prepared on a computer, not handwritten. Exceptions are if you are given a form to fill in by hand, or in similar cases where the submission of handwritten material makes sense and is approved by the instructor.

If you are directed to submit the assignment on paper, the instructor may provide information stating whether double-sided printing is acceptable or not. Environmentally, double-sided printing is preferable to reduce paper usage; however, the mechanics of the marking process or individual preference may lead an instructor to specify single-sided printing only.

If you are in doubt about printing your assignment single- or double-sided, look for the information in the assignment handout. If there is no mention of it, then ask your instructor.
7. **Further Guides to APA Style**

Due to space limitations, only the most common situations encountered by students in Geography courses have been addressed in this style guide. The definitive guides to APA style are published by the American Psychological Association:


A thorough online reference for APA style is available at:


Other useful sources include the following books. As these books address matters beyond just citation formatting and reference-list styles, acquiring one for reference throughout your university career is strongly recommended.

8. ASSISTANCE FOR IMPROVING WRITING

Writing is a skill that can be developed and improved with dedicated effort. Three sources of assistance with writing are suggested: The Writing Centre, books, and your instructor.

- The Writing Centre offers:
  - Tutoring services and advice on specific assignments;
  - Handouts on elements of writing; and
  - Online writing guides.

To book an appointment or for more information about services, contact:

The Writing Centre
Burke Building, Room 115
(902) 491-6202
writing@smu.ca
http://www.smu.ca/academics/writing-centre.html

- Books: you can improve the quality of your writing by reading about the writing process, creating a structure and making an outline, revising drafts, and proofreading for grammar and punctuation.

  Several of the books listed in Section 7 contain advice that can help to improve your writing. For further suggestions, ask at The Writing Centre or at the reference desk in Patrick Power library.

- During regular office hours or by appointment, ask your instructor for help with the preparation of an assignment.
9. Sample Paper for Examples of Formatting

The following pages contain an example of parts of a paper that is formatted according to the information presented in this style guide. This sample is not a complete paper; sections have been developed to highlight formatting issues. Not everything represented in this guide can be included in a sample so the list below describes the principal formatting characteristics that are shown.

The sample text highlights:

- Presentation of title page information – using both alternatives: [p. 2]
  - First, the option to show title page information on a separate page; and
  - Second, the option to place title page information at the top of the first page of text instead of including a separate title page.
  
  Note: In an actual assignment, only one of these alternatives would be used. Do not prepare a separate title page and then repeat the information on the first page of text. With a separate title page the first page would begin with the first-level heading, Introduction.

- Numbering pages [p. 2]

- Formatting headings [p. 3]
  - The non-numbered style of hierarchical headings is shown, with three levels. To see examples of the numbered style, study the headings used throughout this style guide.

- Formatting paragraphs [p. 3]
  - The option of inserting a blank line between paragraphs and not indenting is shown. The alternative is to indent a new paragraph, without inserting a preceding blank line.

- Presenting figures and tables [p. 5]
  - Adding footnotes and providing source citations are illustrated.

- Incorporating source material [p. 12]

- Formatting in-text citations for source material [p. 17]

- Formatting a list of references [p. 19]

Note: single-line spacing is used in this sample paper. However, as noted on p. 3, the default specification for assignments is double-line spacing unless the instructor endorses the use of single- or 1.5 line spacing.
Spatial Patterns of Vegetation
Succession on Coastal Sand Dunes

Title page information may be shown on a separate page, or at the top of the first page of text as shown on the following page.
Although both options are illustrated here for instructional purposes, an assignment should use only one of these options to present the title page information.

Required information for the title page is listed on p. 2 of this guide. Arrangement of the information on the page is left to the student’s discretion. This example shows one possible arrangement.

Susan Taylor
A00760123
GEOG 3393
Dr. A. Ferdinand

October 24, 2012
Introduction

Where present, vegetation is an important component of the morphodynamic environment of sand dunes. Plants help to stabilize dune morphology, and the absence of vegetation allows dunes to be mobile, shifting with the wind. A key difference between coastal and desert sand dunes is the greater frequency and density of vegetation cover on the former. Coastal sand dunes tend to be less mobile than their desert counterparts.

Vegetation patterns on coastal sand dunes are not uniform. Strong environmental gradients exist in the coastal zone, and vegetation patterns usually exhibit corresponding transitions. In the harshest conditions, the smallest range of plants can survive but as the conditions moderate, vegetation communities become richer and more diverse. Research conducted in various locations around the world is reviewed to demonstrate the common spatial patterns of vegetation succession found in coastal sand dune landscapes.

Coastal Sand Dune Vegetation

Plants in coastal sand dune landscapes can be divided into three main categories: pioneer species, secondary or transitional species, and species in mature dune vegetation communities.

Pioneer (or Primary) Species

Only a few plants can survive in the harshest environmental conditions – the coastal foredunes located closest to the beach (Maun, 2009). Rates of wind-blown sand burial are high and levels of nutrients are low. On marine coasts, concentrations of salt spray are highest closest to the shoreline (Daubenmire, 1968, as cited in Maun, 2009; Krebs, 1994). Under these limiting conditions, few plants are adapted to survive. In different regions, there tends to be one dominant pioneer species adapted to withstand high rates of sand burial (Ranwell, 1972), thus serving as the principal species for building sand dunes.

Figure 1 illustrates how a plant traps wind-blown sand. By slowing down the wind, its sand transport capacity is reduced which leads to deposition of sand grains in the vicinity of the plant. In contrast, on desert dunes without vegetation, sand transport is not inhibited and the dune form migrates.
Wind-blown sand trapped at the base of the dune-building plant sea oats (*Uniola paniculata*). Photograph taken by author, at Cape Hatteras, NC, on Aug. 22, 2014.

**Principal dune building species.** Table 1 shows the principal species that can survive sand burial in different regions. These plants respond to the burial by growing upwards, leading to further trapping of wind-blown sand. In doing so, the sand dune is stabilized and builds upwards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Common Name</th>
<th>Latin Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America, northern Atlantic Coast</td>
<td>Marram grass¹</td>
<td><em>Ammophila breviligulata</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America, southern Atlantic Coast</td>
<td>Sea oats²</td>
<td><em>Uniola paniculata</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Marram grass</td>
<td><em>Ammophila arenaria</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia and New Zealand</td>
<td>Beach spinifex</td>
<td><em>Spinifex sericeus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Southern limit of marram grass is South Carolina (USDA, 2012).
² Northern limit of sea oats is Northampton County, Virginia (Hill, 2001).
Morphodynamic feedbacks between dune morphology and vegetation exist on coastal sand dunes. Hesp (2002) indicated that the morphological development of foredunes differs depending on the dune-building species present, stating that “[s]pecies such as the tall, dense Ammophila tend to produce higher, more hummocky peaked dune forms than lower, more spreading, rhizomatous plants such as Spinifex or Ipomoea, which produce lower, less hummocky dune forms” (p. 246). Section continues…

**Other pioneer species.** Although there is commonly one principal dune building species in a given region, some other plants may be found on the dunes located adjacent to the beach. Section continues…

**Secondary (or Transitional) Species**

When the environmental conditions are less severe, a greater range of plants is able to exist (Hesp and Martinez, 2007). In the dune slacks behind the foredune dune mats develop. Dune mats are areas of “[d]ense ground cover of herbaceous species on back dunes and sand plains” (Wiedemann and Pickart, 2004, p. 55). Section continues…

**Species in Mature Dune Vegetation Communities**

Dune surfaces that are stable for lengthy periods can be inhabited by mature vegetation communities. Furthermore, soils can develop as plants decompose and organic material accumulates. Eventually, shrubs and forests composed of trees adapted to well-drained surfaces may cover the dunes (Hesp, 1999). In such cases, the dune landscape is essentially fixed morphologically, as the vegetation cover protects the sand from being blown away by the wind. Because lichen are often found in these communities, mature dunes are often called “grey dunes” in contrast to the “yellow dunes” further seaward (European Environment Agency, 2012). Section continues…

**Spatial Patterns of Dune Vegetation Succession**

A transect oriented perpendicular to the shoreline across coastal sand dunes will show a spatial pattern with a succession from pioneer species to mature communities, corresponding to the reduction in severity of environmental conditions. Hesp (1991) explained that the presence of vegetation on the foredunes restricts the amount of sand transported landward so the rate of wind-blown sand burial is reduced, and salt spray concentrations also become lower, further from the shoreline.
Figure 2. Spatial Succession on Coastal Sand Dunes in South Africa

Reproduced from: Lubke, R. A. (2004). Vegetation dynamics and succession on sand dunes of the eastern coasts of Africa. In M. L. Martinez and N. P. Psuty (Eds.), *Coastal Dunes, Ecology and Conservation* (Fig. 5.2). Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

On coastal foredunes, vegetation cover may be mono-specific (Hesp, 2002), consisting of only the principal dune-building species found in the region. Moving landward, some secondary species appear in a transitional zone between the foredunes and the mature dunes. With increasing distance from the shoreline, species richness (number of different species per square metre) and vegetation cover (percent of surface that is not bare sand) both increase.

Detailed studies of coastal dune vegetation succession have been conducted. An example of the spatial pattern of succession is presented in Figure 2. *Section continues…*

**Conclusion**

Coastal sand dune landscapes are excellent sites to study patterns of spatial succession in vegetation communities. Strong environmental gradients create severe limiting closest to the shoreline and more hospitable conditions further landward, leading to spatial variations in species richness and percent cover. *Section continues…*


