

PART 3

A Guide to Finding and Using Information

Conducting research in a college or university library or online may at first seem like a daunting task: the sheer number of sources available to you can appear overwhelming. However, taking the time to learn what kinds of research materials your library and the Internet provide and how to use them will ultimately lend depth as well as validity to your essays.

When they hear the word *library*, most people naturally think first of books. But a library contains numerous other sources, such as academic and scientific journals, magazines, newspapers, government publications, dissertation abstracts, bibliographies, databases, and, with Internet access, the full array of Internet sources. Any of these sources may prove invaluable to your research. Books can provide a thorough treatment of some particular issue, articles in journals and newspapers can provide up-to-the-minute information on the same subject, and Internet sources, along with providing up-to-the-minute information, offer the benefits of hypertext. Such current information is especially important in disciplines where new experiments and research are almost constantly altering past findings and conclusions.

Nothing will be more helpful to your discovery of the library's resources than the assistance of trained research librarians. These members of the library's staff are usually located at the reference desk. Before you begin searching for sources for a particular paper, consult a research librarian to help you identify the sources that are best suited for the level of research necessary for the paper. Never be embarrassed to ask reference librarians anything about the library or its workings: their job is to assist you, and their expertise is wasted unless it is used.

As you uncover the wealth of resources available in the library, keep in mind that the purpose of research is to expand your argument, not to replace it with a series of statistics or quotations. The sample papers at the end of this part illustrate the appropriate use of the material you find in your library research.

LOCATING BOOKS

One of the first steps in writing an essay or a research paper is to find an appropriate topic, one that is not too broad or too narrow. If you have only a general subject in mind rather than a specific topic, looking in the library catalog and in the books in the relevant shelves of the stacks can help.

For a general overview of a broad topic, articles in encyclopedias can also be helpful, and they often end with a list of recommended books. However, because the information in encyclopedias is often general and always dated, you should use it only to help you find appropriate sources for your paper, and not as a source itself.

The Library Catalog

The library catalog is a record of all the library's books, classified alphabetically by their authors, titles, and subjects. The catalog records may be stored on cards or in a computer. If you know the title or author of a specific book you want, simply do a computer search by author or title or look for the author or title in the card catalog. For example, if you

wanted to find a copy of *Walden*, by Henry David Thoreau, you would type in the book title or the author's last name to reach a computer screen resembling this one:

Or you would look for the title in the W section of the card catalog or for the author in the T section to locate a card resembling this one:

The call number on the first line of the computer screen and in the upper left corner of the card is the book's "address" within the library. If you go to the shelf that houses books with this call number, you will be able to locate your book unless it has been checked out. Computerized catalogs often can provide information about the loan status of a book. When you go through the library catalog, always have a piece of paper handy on which to record call numbers, and be sure to copy them completely and accurately. You may waste time looking for PZ4014 because you forgot that the proper number of your book is really PZ4114(t). The extra seconds you spend writing down call numbers could save you minutes when searching the shelves (commonly called "stacks").

Subject cards are slightly different from the author and title cards. They allow you to look up a particular subject (which can be a person, event, or issue) and find a list of books in the library that address the topic. For example, if you were researching animal rights, you would look under "animal rights" to find a number of computer entries or cards identifying books on the topic.

If the library catalog provides no works dealing with your specific topic, try looking under related topics before stopping your search. If, for example, you were researching a paper on some aspect of artificial intelligence, you might find under the main heading, "Artificial Intelligence," a cross-reference entry for "Artificial Intelligence—Computers" or a card that reads "See Also: Computers." In addition to using these cross-references, try to think of other headings, such as "Robotics," in order to be sure you do not overlook what might be an important source. You might find it helpful to consult the *Library of Congress Subject Headings* (LCSH), usually located near the catalog. This reference book shows the particular wording that most libraries use to name subjects; for example, "Flying Saucers," and not "UFOs," is the subject heading for information about unidentified flying objects. For each subject heading, the LCSH also lists subtopics and related subjects.

Online Catalogs and Databases

Some libraries subscribe to large databases that are used across the United States and Canada. The chief virtue of a database is that it usually provides up-to-date listings for specific articles and books concerning topics in different fields and disciplines. If you would like to search a database, your library may allow you to do so yourself, or a reference librarian may do it for you. Since online computer time can be expensive, your library may charge a fee for this service. Some of the more popular online databases are Bibliographical Retrieval Services (BRS)

Dialog (a compendium of databases)

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

Research Libraries Information Network (RLIN)

Online Computer Library Center (OCLC)

Remember that if you are given a book title from a database, you will then have to look it up in the library catalog to find out whether your library owns the book and where it is shelved.

Call Numbers and the Stacks

Libraries use one of two systems to assign call numbers to books. The first is the older Dewey Decimal System, which uses numbers to classify books according to their categories:

000–099

General Works

100–199

Philosophy

200–299

Religion

300–399

Social Sciences

400–499

Language

500–599

Natural Science

600–699

Technology

700–799

Fine Arts

800–899

Literature

900–999

History and Geography

These divisions are further subdivided by groups of ten to classify works more narrowly within their broader fields. For example, 800–899 indicates literature in general, and the numbers 810–819 indicate American literature. Many public libraries still use this system to classify their books.

The Library of Congress system begins with letters to classify books within twenty-one general categories:

A

B
C
D
E,F
G
H
J
K
L
M
N
P

General Works
Philosophy, Psychology, and Religion
Auxiliary Sciences of History
History (General)
American History (North and South)
Geography, Anthropology, and Recreation
Social Sciences
Political Science and Official Documents
Law
Education
Music
Visual Arts
Language and Literature

Q
R
S
T
U
V
Z

Science
Medicine
Agriculture
Technology
Military Science
Naval Science
Bibliography and Library Science

Like the Dewey Decimal System, these categories are further subdivided according to more specific topics. Most university libraries now classify their books according to the Library of Congress system; however, some of those libraries still classify their older holdings by the Dewey Decimal System.

Once you have compiled your list of call numbers, you are ready to search your library's stacks. Simply go to the shelf that houses works on the subject depicted by your book's call number. For example, if your call number was PN1899.W5, you might find it on a shelf marked PN1860–2000. Larger, multifloor libraries often feature maps near elevators or staircases. Consult these to save time.

After you find your book, it is a good idea to scan its "home shelf" for other books on the same topic. Since the library uses a classification system based on subjects, books concerning the same subject will be housed together. This check will show you the range of titles the library offers on your topic. It will also provide a rough idea of the extent to which people have written about your topic; for example, the number of books on the death penalty will be considerably larger than the number of books on the death of Socrates. You also may find some titles you overlooked when searching the library catalog. Finally, if the book you seek has been slightly misplaced, you may find it near its proper position.

Recalls and Interlibrary Loans

If the book you want has been lent to another patron, many libraries allow you to recall the book and then borrow it for a designated length of time. If you want a book not owned by your library, you may acquire the book by requesting an interlibrary loan in which your library will try to borrow the book from another library and then lend it to you. Both recalls and interlibrary loans are performed by the library's staff; consult the circulation librarian for specific details.

LOCATING ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS

A periodical is any newspaper, magazine, or academic journal published on a regular basis. Most libraries subscribe to a number of periodicals, which they keep on their periodical shelves for a predetermined length of time. After this time is up, the periodicals are bound in covers (usually marked according to volume number) and housed in a different part of the library. Almost any research project must feature periodicals, because they are the primary sources for current information and opinions. When searching for periodicals, proceed in the same manner as you would when searching for books: Keep a list handy to which you add complete citations as you research your topic, and, after compiling your initial list, search the library's periodical stacks for the articles. After finding roughly ten citations, search for the articles. Keep in mind, however, that your library may not subscribe to all the periodicals you need; if this is the case, you may want to talk to your circulation librarian about an interlibrary loan.

Indexes

Because the library catalog lists only books, you will need to consult periodical indexes, which are usually located in the periodical section of the library, to find articles about your topic. These indexes may be published as printed volumes, on CD-ROMs, or online (online indexes can usually be accessed from either a modem or a terminal in the library). In general, one volume of a printed index covers only one year of articles, but online and CD-ROM indexes usually contain bibliographic listings for several years and may include abstracts of articles as well. Your research librarian can help you locate specific indexes or collections of periodicals.

THE READERS' GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE Available in print, on CD-ROM, and online, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* is the most widely consulted

periodical index. It lists all the articles in more than 230 general-interest magazines and the *New York Times*.

To use the *Readers' Guide*, simply look up your subject, which will be listed alphabetically. For example, if you were researching the ethics of genetic engineering, you might find the following entry:

Engineering, Genetic

Change for the Better? [scientists debate virtues of gen. eng.] W. Waltz. il *Scientific Quarterly* 11:17–22 Nov 7 '92

This entry tells you that the article “Change for the Better?” was written by W. Waltz, is illustrated (il), and appears on pages 17 through 22 of *Scientific Quarterly*, volume 11, which is dated November 7, 1992. The bracketed passage is a summary of the article. The *Readers' Guide* features such summaries only when the title of the article does not connote in some way the subject of the article.

Your library may also have other periodical indexes in addition to the *Readers' Guide*. The InfoTrac series of indexes, available online and on CD-ROM, covers general-interest magazines and scholarly journals, a number of major newspapers, and U.S. legislative documents. University Microfilms (UMI) also publishes electronic indexes, including the ProQuest series, for general-interest magazines and newspapers. These indexes use a format similar to the one employed by the *Readers' Guide*; if you have difficulty understanding the codes, instructions on how to read them appear in the index's preface.

NEWSPAPER INDEXES For background information and overviews, magazine articles are usually better sources than newspaper articles. But for a detailed chronicle of events as they develop, newspaper articles are better. Some widely circulating newspapers, such as the *New York Times* and the *Wall Street Journal*, provide their own indexes, arranged by subject. NewsBank is a monthly index to newspapers from over 500 cities in the United States. Texts of the indexed articles are available on microfiche.

INDEXES TO SCHOLARLY JOURNALS Articles in the journals of various academic disciplines are listed in specialized indexes, which may be available on CD-ROM and online as well as in print. Some of the most common indexes are

Social Sciences Index for fields such as anthropology, psychology, sociology, economics, and political science

Education Index for all areas of educational theory and child development

Humanities Index for an interdisciplinary variety of topics, including history, classics, folklore, religion, philosophy, and the arts

Index Medicus (print) and *Medline* (electronic) for biomedical literature, nursing, and dentistry

MLA International Bibliography for books and articles on literature, modern languages, linguistics, and folklore

PAIS [Public Affairs Information Service] International in Print for social and economic issues and international relations.

Abstracts

An abstract is a short summary of the main points of a book or article. Collections of abstracts allow you to “skim” a number of articles in one sitting without having to look for the articles themselves. Although you will eventually have to read a number of

articles carefully, reading abstracts can save you time by helping you narrow your search to articles that pertain directly to your topic. Abstracts are especially helpful to those researching a scientific issue, for they frequently summarize the findings of experiments and research. Some of the most popular collections are

Biological Abstracts

Book Review Digest

Chemical Abstracts

Historical Abstracts

Physics Abstracts

Women's Studies Abstracts

Government Documents

Many university libraries are listed as United States Government Depositories. Every time any branch of the government releases a publication (such as the results of a study, the findings of a congressional committee, or analysis of information from the last census), a copy of that publication is sent to each of these libraries. Even if your library is not a government depository, it should still own the current indexes to these publications and should be able to acquire the ones you need through interlibrary loan.

Finding Your Periodicals

Once you have compiled your list of citations, find out whether your library subscribes to the periodicals you need by consulting the library's Union List of Serials, an alphabetical listing of all your library's periodical holdings. Next look on the periodical shelves to see how long your library keeps its periodicals before binding them. If the articles you need are already bound, find out where your library keeps its bound periodicals, and locate your article there. Some periodicals may be kept on microfiche; ask your research librarian for details.

Online Catalogs and Databases

In addition to references to books, most databases, such as Dialog, ERIC, and OCLC (see page 544), also gives references to articles and essays in periodicals, such as scholarly journals, magazines, and newspapers. Databases may locate articles and essays for you in full text, and in that case, you can print out what you have found or, in some cases, e-mail it to your home computer and print it out there. On the other hand, you may not be given full text, but rather a citation (the title of the article, the author, the name of the journal or magazine, and the date when the article appeared). In that case, you will need the help of your library catalog or librarian to learn whether your library subscribes to that periodical. If your library does not, a librarian may be able to help you order the item you want through interlibrary loan.

INTERNET SEARCHES

Today, many writers use the Internet, at home, in dorm rooms, or in libraries or computer centers on campus, to help with research projects. The Internet provides a dazzling array of information, which offers a wealth of resources, as well as two major challenges. The first challenge is learning how to use the Internet effectively to find the information you need. The second challenge is evaluating the information you find to ascertain its usefulness and validity for the research project in which you are engaged.

Using the Internet Effectively

The suggestions given in the next few paragraphs are intended primarily for those who are new to the Internet or those who would like to increase their efficiency in using the

Internet. To become proficient in using this amazing resource, you'll want to spend several hours exploring and practicing, through trial and error, to become acquainted with the paths and byways that lead to various treasure troves of information. You may find online tutorials, such as <http://home.sprintmail.com/%7Edebflanagan/main.html>, which are helpful guides that offer both useful hints and practice exercises.

Once you get on the Internet, it helps to understand that you look for information by using *search tools*. There are three main types of search tools: meta-search engines, search engines, and directories.

META-SEARCH ENGINES Meta-search engines will search other, more selective or specific search engines. If you begin your research with a meta-search engine, you can get an idea of which more specific search engines will most likely provide you with the most information. Two useful meta-search engines are Dogpile <<http://www.dogpile.com>>

MetaCrawler <<http://www.metacrawler.com>>

SEARCH ENGINES These are the main tools you will use for research. Each search engine has its own database, although some of the same data may appear in more than one database. Some search engines have small and highly selective databases, while others have large databases that include a very wide range of documents and Websites. Some search engines you may find useful include

AltaVista

Google

HotBot

Infoseek

NorthernLight

DIRECTORIES A directory is organized by subject and has a smaller, more selective database than a search engine does. You search by subject, and not by key word. Subject directories usually offer general information about a topic and, like printed encyclopedias, can often be helpful when you first start working with a topic and are trying to narrow your subject. You may find the following directories helpful:

Yahoo! <<http://www.yahoo.com>>

eBlast: Encyclopedia Britannica's Internet Guide

<<http://www.eBLAST.com>>

Galaxy <<http://www.einet.net>>

Guidelines for Using Search Engines

1.

Understand the **distinctive features** of each search engine. Read the descriptions of each engine to discover answers to the following questions:

-

Can you search for a phrase, or must you use a key word?

- Can you organize the hits by date, so that you can find the most recent materials quickly?

- Does the database arrange hits in order, with those most likely to be relevant appearing first?

2.

Understand how to use **search terms**. (The use of search terms can vary according to the engine you are using, but most use at least some of the following strategies.)

- Enclose phrases in quotation marks:

“Vietnam War”

- Enclose proper names with more than one word in quotation marks:

“Flannery O’Connor”

- Use the word AND or the plus sign + to make your search more specific:

violence AND women

violence AND women AND “New York”

+violence+women

- Use parentheses and the word OR to help the search engine find common synonyms for your key terms:

violence AND (women OR females)

- Use the words AND NOT or the minus sign (with no space after it) to avoid getting information that will not address your topic:

vegans AND NOT vegetarians

vegans –vegetarians

- Use the asterisk (*) to *truncate* (shorten) terms so that the search engine will find variations of the words:

mechan*

(will find mechanical, mechanic, mechanism)

EVALUATING INTERNET RESOURCES

Perhaps the most important thing to keep in mind when you are using Internet resources is that one of the Net’s greatest strengths—the amazing amount of information it provides—can also challenge writers with a potentially great pitfall. For example, when you use resources from a library, you can be certain that nearly all of the information you obtain has gone through a process of evaluation for reliability and accuracy. The information in most books, for instance, is assessed not only by the author but also by a series of editors and reviewers. Also, in a library trained librarians are available to help you make evaluations of articles in magazines and journals, if you have questions about their currency or about the philosophy of their publishers and authors. On the other hand, anyone with access to an online computer can publish anything he or she wants on the Internet. If you are using the Net in your dorm room or at home, there are no librarians

handy to help you evaluate sources. The following guidelines suggest considerations for making such evaluations.

Guidelines for Evaluating Internet Resources

With each new resource you consider, think about the following issues:

•**Authority:** What are the credentials of the individual or organization who has posted the information? For example, information posted by a professor at a university is likely to be more accurate than a research paper written by a seventh-grade student on the same topic.

•**Source:** Where does the information come from? Is it from an academic institution, a business, a government organization, or an individual? You can tell the source (also called the *domain*) by looking at the last part of the Web address. Typical domain indicators: .com (business); .gov (government agencies); .org (nonprofit organizations); .mil (military). A tilde (~) in a Web address means that the page belongs to an individual. This person may have expertise in the area you are researching, or he or she may simply be expressing undocumented opinions. You need to be careful about using such sites to gather data for research papers because it is difficult to be sure of their accuracy.

•**Intent:** What is the intention of the Website? Does it aim to simply give a brief overview of the topic you are covering? If so, it might not provide the depth you need for a really useful resource. Does it aim to sell a product? If so, the information about that product may be slanted.

•**Currency:** How recently has the site been posted or updated? Is it up to date? Many research topics require the writer to have absolutely current information in order to make accurate judgments. To check the currency of a site, you will usually find the posting or revision date at the beginning or end. Another way to evaluate currency is to test *links* that are provided by the Website. Links are words or phrases that are usually underlined or in bold print. You should be able to click on these words or phrases and get to other sites containing information relevant to the topic of the site you are currently visiting. If the links have become outdated and are nonfunctional, chances are that the site you've found may not be current.

TAKING NOTES

Some sources are so useful that you'll want to take many notes; others may be worth only a sentence or two of general summary; still others may turn out not to be useful at all. Before you start taking notes, skim the table of contents or the subheads. This quick look may tell you that the source isn't one you can use. If, however, it does seem to contain relevant information, read through it. Then take notes, which can be your responses to the source as well as a report of what the source says. Just be sure to indicate somehow which notes are your own evaluations.

You can write your notes on index cards; you can type your notes—or keep just the bibliographical information—on a computer; or you can annotate photocopies and highlight key passages. Or you can use some combination of techniques. Many writers like to photocopy articles so that they can refer to them throughout the drafting process, as they sharpen the focus of the paper and build their argument. Although every writer has a different system for taking research notes, there are two basic guidelines to follow as you develop a system for yourself:

organized.

and paraphrase instead of copying long quotations.

Be Organized

Use a new page or a new index card for each new note or piece of information so that you can easily rearrange your notes as you draft your paper. (Make sure you identify the source on each note.) Arranging the information in different ways can give you a feel for the different ways your paper could be organized. For example, what you may at first regard as a piece of evidence for your “supporting details,” you may later decide to treat as a separate “claim.”

Keep all your notes together. As you conduct your research, you may find an argument that sounds similar or flatly contradictory to one you previously encountered. Having all your notes in one place will make it easy to cross-reference arguments and facts.

Record the complete bibliographical information for each source you consult. It is much easier to delete information about sources you don't end up using than to try to retrace your steps and find missing information about sources you do use. Some writers keep bibliographical notes on 3 × 5 cards and content notes on 4 × 6 cards so that the two kinds can be easily differentiated. Those who keep their notes on computer make a separate file for their source notes, which they can alphabetize with a simple command (if the entries begin with the author's last name). If you choose to keep the source information on note cards (one source per card) or to photocopy it directly from the sources, you can arrange the cards or photocopies in alphabetical order when it's time to type the page of references or works cited for your paper.

Summaries, Paraphrases, and Quotations

Before you begin making notes about a source, read through it. Then make a note that summarizes the article or chapter. Next, consider whether there are any particularly important or useful ideas expressed in the work; if so, paraphrase them. Writing a paraphrase requires using your own words to express an idea in a source. Make a note of a quotation only if the idea needs to be expressed in the exact words of the source.

Figures 1, 2, and 3 are examples of a summary note, a paraphrase note, and a quotation note based on the following paragraphs. (Notice that the source, including the page number, is indicated at the top of each note.)

Human actions bring about scarcities of renewable resources in three principal ways. First, people can reduce the quantity or degrade the quality of these resources faster than they are renewed. This phenomenon is often referred to as the consumption of the resource's “capital”: the capital generates “income” that can be tapped for human consumption. A sustainable economy can therefore be defined as one that leaves the capital intact and undamaged so that future generations can enjoy undiminished income. Thus, if topsoil creation in a region of farmland is 0.25 millimeter per year, then average soil loss should not exceed that amount.

The second source of scarcity is population growth. Over time, for instance, a given flow of water might have to be divided among a greater number of people. The final cause is change in the distribution of a resource within a society. Such a shift can concentrate supply in the hands of a few, subjecting the rest to extreme scarcity.

Thomas Homer-Dixon, Jeffrey Boutwell, and George Rathjens, “Environmental Change and Violent Conflict,” *Scientific American*, February 1993, pp. 38–45.

USING YOUR NOTES

Your paper should not be a “quotation dump” in which you string together a large number of quotations without any of your own interpretations or remarks. Instead, it should express your own ideas and opinions, which you have developed and refined in the course of your research. The appropriate use of quotations is as *evidence that supports the claim or warrant at hand*. If you are relying on a claim with the backing of expert testimony or statistics, quoting that material will strengthen your argument’s credibility by showing your reader that your opinion is an informed one.

Always integrate quotations gracefully into your text; don’t just drop them in. Quoted material should flow into your prose. Compare these two treatments of a quotation:

Incorrect:

Samuel Johnson also praised London. “When a man is tired of London, he is tired of life.”

Correct:

As Samuel Johnson once remarked, “When a man is tired of London, he is tired of life” (Boswell 231).

Notice how the quotation in the second example is part of the sentence. A common way to incorporate quotations is to use phrases such as “once remarked,” “as one expert has said,” “as one critic has observed,” and “as one study has found.”

Notice also that the second example leaves no doubt about who said the quoted words and, moreover, indicates where they can be found. The parenthetical reference between the end quotation marks and the period identifies the author and the page number of the work where the quotation can be found. The full bibliographical information for the source is at the end of the paper under the author’s name in the list of works cited.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism means taking someone else’s words or ideas and passing them off as your own. However minor or innocent such an act might seem to you, any attempt to deceive one’s audience violates the spirit of the objective pursuit of truth. Institutions of higher learning always expect you to act as part of this great tradition, and the penalties for plagiarism are stiff, ranging from an F to expulsion.

The most obvious kind of plagiarism is to use someone’s exact words as if they were your own—for example, to repeat Samuel Johnson’s aphorism, “When a man is tired of London, he is tired of life,” without acknowledging that the words are Johnson’s. But there are other forms of plagiarism, such as writing “When a man is tired of Manhattan, he is tired of life.” To avoid plagiarism, you would need to add a phrase like “to borrow from Samuel Johnson.”

Another kind of plagiarism occurs when a paraphrase does not acknowledge the source. Here is an example:

Original passage:

“Anyone who knows the frantic temper of the present schools will understand the transvaluation of values that would be effected by [the abolition of grades]. For most of the students, the competitive grade has become the essence. The naive teacher points to the beauty and the ingenuity of the research; the shrewd student asks if he is responsible for that on the final exam.”—Paul Goodman, p. 34

Example of plagiarism:

If grades were abolished, our entire set of educational values would be upset. Many students see their grades as the essence of academic success; while their teachers may concern themselves only with their subject matter, the students want to know what they will need to know to pass an exam.

Although only a few exact words from the original appear in the example (*values, essence*), the exact idea is repeated without any credit to Paul Goodman. An example of quoting without plagiarizing would be

Correctly
quoted:

Paul Goodman has argued that abolishing grades would result in a “transvaluation of values” concerning education as a whole. Many students view their grades as the “essence” of education and are more concerned with what they need to know for exams than with the “beauty and ingenuity” of their subject matters (Goodman 34).

In general, when in doubt, provide a citation. This will save you the embarrassment of being accused of academic dishonesty.

DOCUMENTING SOURCES

The most obvious purpose of parenthetical references is to provide the source of information or of a quotation. Parenthetical references are used primarily to provide a list at the end of the paper. There are several systems for citing references. This text explains the MLA (Modern Language Association) and APA (American Psychological Association) systems.

The MLA System

The Modern Language Association (MLA) format for identifying sources is used primarily by scholars in English, foreign languages, and other humanities disciplines. The parenthetical references in the text, which identify the author and usually the pages, refer to a list of works cited, which are arranged alphabetically by author.

PARENTHETICAL REFERENCES Parenthetical references include the author’s last name and the page number of the source; for example, “(Goodman 34),” as shown above at the end of the correctly quoted version of the passage by Paul Goodman.

If the author’s name is mentioned in the sentence, only the page number is needed in the parenthetical reference.

If you are discussing an entire work, you do not need to include page numbers in the parenthetical reference.

If you consulted more than one work by the same author, include a shortened version of the title in your citation (underline titles of books; enclose titles of essays and articles in quotation marks): (Goodman, *Growing Up* 34)

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If the work has two or three authors, use all their names: (Goodman and Strong 143-44)

.

If the work has more than three authors, use the first name and *et al.*: (Goodman *et al.* 134)

.

If the work, such as a brief newspaper article, is not signed, identify it with a short version of the title: (Education 44)

If a statement has two or more sources, separate them with a semicolon: (Goodman 34; Strong 98-99)

If you consulted sources by authors with the same last name, differentiate them by including their first initials or first names in the parenthetical references: (Paul Goodman 34; Percival Goodman 178-79)

LIST OF WORKS CITEDThe complete information about the works identified in the parenthetical references comes on a separate page, titled "Works Cited," at the end of the paper. The entries are double-spaced, and the second and subsequent lines of each entry are indented half an inch (or five spaces if you are using a typewriter).

The formats for common and not-so-common sources can be found in the fifth edition of the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* (New York: Modern Language Association of America, 1999). (Also see the MLA Website at <http://www.mla.org/style/sources.htm>.) Every writer of research papers should consult this handbook when preparing his or her final draft. However, here are examples of formats for most of the kinds of sources you are likely to use.

BOOKS

Book by a Single Author

Willeford, Charles. *New Hope for the Dead*. New York: Ballantine, 1985.

Book by Two or Three Authors

Killian, James, and Robert Cole. *Medical Ethics in America*. Boston: Globe, 1991.

Book by More Than Three Authors

Barker, Francis, et al. *1642: Literature and Power in the Seventeenth Century*. Essex, Eng.: U of Essex, 1981.

Two or More Books by the Same Author

Sullivan, Michael. *The Arts of China*. Berkeley: U of California P, 1967.

---. *The Birth of Landscape Painting in China*. Berkeley: U of California P, 1961.

---. *The Meeting of Eastern and Western Art*. Berkeley: U of California P, 1989.

Book by a Corporate Author

Editors, Inc. *How to Write Effective Prose*. New York: Editors, 1990.

Edited Book

Peil, Manfred, ed. *Modern Views on Classic Films*. Los Angeles: Smithdon, 1992.

Book with an Author and an Editor

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If you do a lot of research with electronic sources, you may find it useful to consult "MLA-Style Citations of Electronic Sources," by Janice Walker, a five-page style sheet available online (<http://www.mla.org/style/sources.htm>) or *Electronic Style: A Guide to Citing Electronic Information*, by Xia Li and Nancy Crane (Westport, CT: Mecklermedia, 1996), which may be available in your library. This book covers a wider and more up-to-date variety of electronic sources than does the *MLA Handbook* or the *Publications Manual of the APA*, whose documentation style we turn to next.

The APA System

The chief alternative to the MLA system for documenting sources is the system used by the American Psychological Association (APA), described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 4th edition (Washington, DC: APA, 1994). This

system is used primarily in psychology, sociology, and other social science disciplines. The main differences from MLA style are that the parenthetical references show the date of publication and that the list of works cited is called "References" and has the date as the second element of the entries.

PARENTHETICAL REFERENCES As with the MLA style, the APA style requires short parenthetical references within the text. Unlike the MLA style, these references include the date of publication, but page numbers are included only for direct quotations. Here is an example of a parenthetical reference in APA style (note that the author's name does not appear in the parentheses here, because the name appears in the text):

Paul Goodman (1962, p. 34) argued that abolishing grades would have revolutionary consequences, because "the competitive grade has become the essence" for most students.

If you do not mention the author's name in the text, include it in the parenthetical reference: (Goodman, 1962, p. 34)

.
If your sources include two works by an author in the same year, differentiate them by putting a letter after the date, both in the parenthetical reference and in the reference list: (Goodman, 1962a)

.
If your sources include two authors with the same last name, use their first and middle initials in the parenthetical citations: (P. S. Goodman, 1962)

.
If a work has two authors, use an ampersand between their names in a parenthetical reference: (Goodman & Strong, 1962)

.
If the work, such as a brief newspaper article, is not signed, refer to it by the first few words of the title, starting with the first important word (underline book titles; enclose article and essay titles in quotation marks): ("Education," 1962, p. 34)

.
If you cite two or more works by the same author in one parenthetical reference, follow the author's name with the years in chronological order, separated by commas: (Goodman, 1962, 1972)

.
If you cite two or more sources in one parenthetical reference, give them in alphabetical order and separate them with semicolons: (Goodman, 1962; Strong, 1958)

.
Personal communications, such as letters, e-mail messages, and telephone conversations, do not need to be included in the list of references. They can simply be identified in the parenthetical reference in the text: (Goodman, personal communication, January 8, 1970)

.
LIST OF REFERENCES The MLA and APA requirements for the list of works cited are different on several counts. The first is that APA titles this page "References" rather than "Works Cited."

Notice also that MLA gives authors' first names, whereas APA shows only initials. Additionally, in APA style, only the first word of titles and subtitles of books and

magazine articles is capitalized. However, APA style for the titles of periodicals is like MLA style; namely, all important words are capitalized.

In APA style only, if the list of references includes more than one work written by the same author in the same year, the works are listed alphabetically by title, and a lowercase letter is added to the year. Thus, if the reference list showed two works by Goodman in 1962, the first would be "1962a" and the second, "1962b."

Finally, in APA style, the first line of each entry is indented five to seven spaces, and the subsequent lines begin at the left margin. Some instructors, however, may prefer a hanging indentation (that is, the first line is flush with the left margin and subsequent lines are indented), which is the style used in the MLA system and in printed APA publications as well.

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Book by a Single Author

Anderson, B. (1992). Modern sport psychology. New York: Jacobson Press.

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National Association of Anglers. (1990). The ten best bass rivers in America: A guide. Seattle: Nature Press.

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SAMPLE RESEARCH PAPERS

The sample research paper on pages 569–574 illustrates MLA style. APA style is shown following it, on pages 575–581.

MLA FORMAT

Kimberly Waibel

Professor Moekle

Writing 39C

15 November 1998

Changing Views Toward Interracial Adoption

While not all positions for social workers require dealing directly with issues related to adoption, many social service agencies encounter concerns related to today's changing family structure. Because adoption is an important part of that changing structure, it is essential that future social workers understand the complexities of interracial adoption. (The terms "interracial" and "transracial" adoption, which are interchangeable, refer to adoptions in which the child belongs to one race and the prospective parents, or one of the prospective parents, to another.) Transracial adoption has historically followed a dramatically changing pattern. For example, during the thirty years from 1958 to 1988, the Child Welfare League of America (CWLA) issued four different policy statements reflecting the League's view of interracial adoption (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I.). Considering the four different policy views of the CWLA and examining possible reasons for the changes will provide essential background information on this controversial topic.

The Child Welfare League of America is an agency that lobbies for and develops policy statements related to the well-being of children and adolescents in the United States. One of their concerns is adoption, and they would certainly have been aware of the fact that following World War II, there was a great increase in international adoption, with many of the children having fathers who had been in the American military (Bagley, Young, Scully). The placement of these children, some of whom were of mixed race, led adoption agencies within the United States to try interracial adoption as a way to find homes for the minority children they served. These adoptions, however, often faced condemnation by the families and communities of the adopting parents, as well as challenges from the legal system. In 1955, a case known as *In re Adoption of a Minor* was decided in Washington, D.C. The case involved a child born to an unmarried white couple. The birth mother then married a black man. With the mother's permission, the black man filed a petition to adopt the child. The court refused, citing that the child would lose the social status of a white man because his "official father" would be black (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I. 40). Although the court of appeals reversed the district court's ruling, the first ruling is an example of the strong prejudices of this time period.

In 1958, the CWLA published its guide *Standards for Adoption Service*, which reflects the racist attitudes of the era. This publication gave guidelines that specifically promote inracial (same-race) adoption as the only acceptable form of adoption. Under the subtitle

“Matching,” the CWLA held that “Physical resemblances should not be a determining factor in the selection of a home, with the exception of such racial characteristics as color” (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I. 4). During the same year that this policy was issued, 1958, the rate of interracial adoption, which had risen every year since 1945, began to drop. Several experts agree that the position stated by the CWLA, as well as the public attitudes leading to that position, influenced many adoption agencies to stop encouraging or even permitting interracial adoption (Austin; Bagley, Young, Scully).

As the country moved into the 1960s, however, changes occurred to bring pressure on agencies such as the CWLA to change their views. For example, Martin Luther King, Jr., was leading the nation’s civil rights movement, which promoted racial harmony and the full integration of black people into society. According to Jane Marent, Ph.D., professor of sociology, this movement led some social workers to argue strongly that transracial adoption should be looked at as acceptable. In addition, Dr. Marent stated, some proponents of the civil rights movement believed that interracial adoption would further the cause of racial integration. Furthermore, both the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the National Urban League made statements endorsing transracial adoption as a reasonable alternative to traditional adoption (McRoy). Subsequently, in the late 1960s, the CWLA reversed its earlier position, now stating that “. . . families who have the capacity to adopt a child whose racial background is different from their own . . . should be encouraged to consider such a child” (McRoy 149). In response to the changing times, as reflected by the reversal of the CWLA policy, approximately 5,000 to 10,000 transracial adoptions occurred between 1967 and 1972 (Simon, Alstein, Transracial Adoption 156).

In 1972, however, a new influence, which was to influence yet another change in CWLA policy, made its voice heard. At its annual conference, the National Association of Black Social Workers (NABSW) developed an official statement strongly opposed to interracial adoption. The 5,000 members of the association passed a resolution stating that “black children in white homes are cut off from the healthy development of themselves as black people” (McRoy 150). Furthermore, the NABSW went so far as to call transracial adoption “a form of genocide” (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I. 15). Support for the NABSW came from African American separatists who surfaced in response to the civil rights movement. These separatists believed that integration would destroy the sense of black identity and pride. Several of these separatist groups reinforced the NABSW’s position by stating that the adoption of black children by white families would be detrimental to the African American community as a whole (Hayes 30). As a result, the CWLA again reversed their position, restating the importance of inracial placements in order to facilitate a child’s integration into its adoptive family (McRoy 150). Following the statements made by the NABSW and the CWLA, the rate of transracial adoptions decreased dramatically. In 1975, the last year the federal government collected information on adoption statistics, the number of transracial adoptions was 831, as reported by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This number is much lower than the record high in 1971 when 2,574 transracial adoptions were recorded (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I. 5).

The most recent statement from the CWLA, its 1988 Standards for Adoption Services, shows yet another change. While the organization still maintains inracial adoption to be the best alternative, the new policy states, “If aggressive, ongoing recruitment efforts are

unsuccessful in finding families of the same ethnicity or culture, other families should be considered” (Simon, Alstein, A.R.I. 32). This statement indicates that the objections of such organizations as the NABSW are being taken seriously, yet interracial adoption is now looked at as a reasonable alternative to having the children remain in the custody of the state where, according to social worker Eric Blogden, they are often simply moved from one crowded foster home to the next. The latest change in the CWLA’s statement is supported by the results of a twenty-year study, carried out from 1971 until 1991 by sociologists at the University of Illinois. This study included 133 families who adopted children interracially. The families and children were contacted regularly and were found by researchers to have done very well. In fact, in publishing some of the results of the survey, sociology professor Rita Simon notes the following:

In conclusion, I want to emphasize that the findings in our study are neither unique nor unusual. All of the studies, even those carried out by researchers who were initially skeptical, reported that transracial adoptees grow up emotionally and socially adjusted, and aware of and comfortable with their racial identity. (76)

For future social workers, continuing to watch the policy statements of organizations such as the CWLA and the NABSW will provide a way to follow the developing views on interracial adoption. This topic continues to be highly controversial, and because it may well touch the lives of people who seek help from various social service agencies, future social workers should make themselves aware of the complex history and the continuing changes related to this important issue.

Waibel

6

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APA FORMAT

Changing Views1

Changing Views Toward Interracial Adoption

Kimberly Waibel
Rutgers University

Changing Views²

Changing Views Toward Interracial Adoption

While not all positions for social workers require dealing directly with issues related to adoption, many social service agencies encounter concerns related to today's changing family structure. Because adoption is an important part of that changing structure, it is essential that future social workers understand the complexities of interracial adoption. (The terms "interracial" and "transracial" adoption, which are interchangeable, refer to adoptions in which the child belongs to one race and the prospective parents, or one of the prospective parents, to another.) Transracial adoption has historically followed a dramatically changing pattern. For example, during the thirty years from 1958 to 1988, the Child Welfare League of America (CWLA) issued four different policy statements reflecting the League's view of interracial adoption (Simon & Alstein, 1992).

Considering the four different policy views of the CWLA and examining possible reasons for the changes will provide essential background information on this controversial topic. The Child Welfare League of America is an agency that lobbies for and develops policy statements related to the well-being of children and adolescents in the United States. One of their concerns is adoption, and they would certainly have been aware of the fact that following World War II, there was a great increase in international adoption, with many of the children having fathers who had been in the American military (Bagley, Young & Scully, 1993). The placement of these children, some of whom were of mixed race, led adoption agencies within the United States to try interracial adoption as a way to find homes for the minority children they served. These adoptions, however, often faced condemnation by the families and communities of the adopting parents, as well as challenges from the legal system. In 1955, a case known as *In re Adoption of a Minor* was decided in Washington, D.C. The case involved a child born to an unmarried white couple. The birth mother then married a black man. With the mother's permission, the black man filed a petition to adopt the child. The court refused, citing that the child would lose the social status of a white man because his "official father" would be black (Simon & Alstein, 1992, p. 40). Although the court of appeals reversed the district court's ruling, the first ruling is an example of the strong prejudices of this time period.

In 1958, the CWLA published its guide *Standards for Adoption Service*, which reflects the racist attitudes of the era. This publication gave guidelines that specifically promote inracial (same-race) adoption as the only acceptable form of adoption. Under the subtitle "Matching," the CWLA held that "Physical resemblances should not be a determining factor in the selection of a home, with the exception of such racial characteristics as color" (Simon & Alstein, 1992, p. 4). During the same year that this policy was issued, 1958, the rate of interracial adoption, which had risen every year since 1945, began to drop. Several experts agree that the position stated by the CWLA, as well as the public attitudes leading to that position, influenced many adoption agencies to stop encouraging or even permitting interracial adoption (Austin, 1991; Bagley, Young & Scully, 1993). As the country moved into the 1960s, however, changes occurred to bring pressure on agencies such as the CWLA to change their views. For example, Martin Luther King, Jr., was leading the nation's civil rights movement, which promoted racial harmony and the

full integration of black people into society. According to Jane Marent, Ph.D., professor of sociology, this movement led some social workers to argue strongly that transracial adoption should be looked at as acceptable. In addition, Dr. Marent stated, some proponents of the civil rights movement believed that interracial adoption would further the cause of racial integration. Furthermore, both the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the National Urban League made statements endorsing transracial adoption as a reasonable alternative to traditional adoption (McRoy, 1989). Subsequently, in the late 1960s, the CWLA reversed its earlier position, now stating that “. . . families who have the capacity to adopt a child whose racial background is different from their own . . . should be encouraged to consider such a child” (McRoy, 1989, p. 149). In response to the changing times, as reflected by the reversal of the CWLA policy, approximately 5,000 to 10,000 transracial adoptions occurred between 1967 and 1972 (Simon & Alstein, 1977, p. 156).

In 1972, however, a new influence, which was to influence yet another change in CWLA policy, made its voice heard. At its annual conference, the National Association of Black Social Workers (NABSW) developed an official statement strongly opposed to interracial adoption. The 5,000 members of the association passed a resolution stating that “black children in white homes are cut off from the healthy development of themselves as black people” (McRoy, 1989). Furthermore, the NABSW went so far as to call transracial adoption “a form of genocide” (Simon & Alstein, 1992, p. 15). Support for the NABSW came from African American separatists who surfaced in response to the civil rights movement. These separatists believed that integration would destroy the sense of black identity and pride. Several of these separatist groups reinforced the NABSW’s position by stating that the adoption of black children by white families would be detrimental to the African American community as a whole (Hayes, 1993, p. 30). As a result, the CWLA again reversed its position, restating the importance of inracial placements in order to facilitate a child’s integration into its adoptive family (McRoy 1989). Following the statements made by the NABSW and the CWLA, the rate of transracial adoptions decreased dramatically. In 1975, the last year the federal government collected information on adoption statistics, the number of transracial adoptions was 831, as reported by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This number is much lower than the record high in 1971 when 2,574 transracial adoptions were recorded (Simon & Alstein, 1992, p. 5).

The most recent statement from the CWLA, its 1988 Standards for Adoption Services, shows yet another change. While the organization still maintains inracial adoption to be the best alternative, the new policy states, “If aggressive, ongoing recruitment efforts are unsuccessful in finding families of the same ethnicity or culture, other families should be considered” (Simon & Alstein, 1992, p. 32). This statement indicates that the objections of such organizations as the NABSW are being taken seriously, yet interracial adoption is now looked at as a reasonable alternative to having the children remain in the custody of the state where, according to social worker Eric Blogden, they are often simply moved from one crowded foster home to the next. The latest change in the CWLA’s statement is supported by the results of a twenty-year study, carried out from 1971 until 1991 by sociologists at the University of Illinois. This study included 133 families who adopted children interracially. The families and children were contacted regularly and were found

by researchers to have done very well. In fact, in publishing some of the results of the survey, sociology professor Rita Simon (1977) notes the following:

In conclusion, I want to emphasize that the findings in our study are neither unique nor unusual. All of the studies, even those carried out by researchers who were initially skeptical, reported that transracial adoptees grow up emotionally and socially adjusted, and aware of and comfortable with their racial identity. (p. 76)

For future social workers, continuing to watch the policy statements of organizations such as the CWLA and the NABSW will provide a way to follow the developing views on interracial adoption. This topic continues to be highly controversial, and because it may well touch the lives of people who seek help from various social service agencies, future social workers should make themselves aware of the complex history and the continuing changes related to this important issue.

Changing Views⁷

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Running heads: writer's last name and page number

Introductory heading: double spaced at left margin. Writer's name, instructor's name, course, date

Title: Capitalize only first letter of words. Do not underline or italicize. Center

Double-space throughout.

Define important terms.

Provide a thesis introducing the topic of the research.

Citation: For paraphrase, give author's last name in parentheses. Period goes outside parentheses.

Direct quotation requires page number as well as author's last name. Here, shortened version of title is given because more than one source by same authors has been used.

Parenthetical reference indicates paraphrase information came from two sources.

Use of expert testimony to support points being made.

Ellipses indicate omitted words.

Example of transitional sentence to guide reader into new paragraph.

Citation must be given for statistics.

Title of book is underlined.

Author's name given in lead-in, so it does not appear in parentheses following quote.

Quotation of more than four lines should be indented ten spaces, double-spaced. No quotation marks. Parenthetical citation comes *after* period.

Conclusion sums up findings and rationale for research.

Works Cited list goes on new page. Title (Works Cited) is not underlined. Only first letter is capitalized.

Double-space throughout.

Entries are alphabetical according to first word (usually author's last name).

First line starts at margin. Subsequent lines are indented five spaces.

Period at the end of each entry.

Running heads: short version of title and page number.

Title page is numbered "1."

Title: Capitalize only first letter of words. Do not underline or italicize. Center vertically and horizontally.

Repeat title; title is centered.

Double-space throughout.

Define important terms.

Provide a thesis introducing the topic of the research.

Citation: authors given in parentheses, followed by comma. Period follows the parentheses.

With direct quotation, citation requires page number.

Use of expert testimony to support points being made.

Parenthetical reference indicates information came from two sources.

Use of ellipsis to indicate words omitted

Example of transitional sentence to guide reader into new paragraph

Citation must be given for statistics.

Title of book is underlined.

Author's name given in lead-in. Date directly follows mention of author's name.

Quotation of over forty words is indented ten spaces, double spaced. No quotation marks are used. Parenthetical citation comes *after* period.

Conclusion sums up findings and provides rationale for research.

References list goes on new page

Title (References) is not underlined. Only first letter is capitalized.

Double-space throughout.

Entries are alphabetized, according to first word (usually author's last name).

First line is indented five spaces. Subsequent lines start at margin.

Period at the end of each entry.

Figure 1. Summary note card.

Figure 2. Paraphrase note card.

Figure 3. Quotation note card.