



The Research Process Guide 2011-2012

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All links last checked 28 July 2011.



Introduction

Use of This Guide

This Research Process Guide is meant to supplement and expand upon the discussion of research steps that is included in almost every college-level writing handbook and in additional research process books that might be assigned in a college-level composition or research class. The Library hopes that by going into a bit more detail about choosing, using, and evaluating sources and by using specific resources available in the duPont-Ball Library as examples, Stetson students will feel even more confident and prepared to begin any academic research project.

As all books will tell you, the steps outlined here are merely guides. No research project progresses in a completely linear manner, moving from Step A neatly to Step B, then Step C, etc. Like writing, research is a recursive process, that is, it doubles back on itself. Sometimes you get to Step C only to discover that you need to go back to Step A to get more information on something. Don't be discouraged by this. It happens to everyone; it's one of the interesting parts of doing research.

If you get stuck at any point in the research process, in addition to conferring with your instructor, you can always contact a librarian for help. Come into the library's Information Desk and ask to talk to a research librarian, call a research librarian at 386-747-9028, or email a question to the research librarians at http://stetson.edu/library/contact_askalibrarian.php

Before taking the first steps to research a topic, though, it might be helpful to look at a very brief overview of information: how it is defined, how it is produced, and what is its timeline.

Defining Information



The *New Oxford American Dictionary* gives the following definition of *information*:

1. facts provided or learned about something or someone: *a vital piece of information*.
 - (*Law*) a formal criminal charge lodged with a court or magistrate by a prosecutor without the aid of a grand jury: *the tenant may lay an information against his landlord*.
2. what is conveyed or represented by a particular arrangement or sequence of things: *genetically transmitted information*.
 - (*Computing*) data as processed, stored, or transmitted by a computer.
 - (in information theory) a mathematical quantity expressing the probability of occurrence of a particular sequence of symbols, impulses, etc., as contrasted with that of alternative sequences.

["in·for·ma·tion *n.*" *New Oxford American Dictionary*. Edited by Angus Stevenson and Christine A. Lindberg. Oxford University Press, 2010. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press. Stetson University. 28 July 2011 <http://www.oxfordreference.com/views/ENTRY.html?subview=Main&entry=t183.e1258019>]

But the *New Oxford American Dictionary* also makes the following distinctions among such words as *information*, *knowledge*, and *wisdom*:

Information may be no more than a collection of data or facts (information about vacation resorts) gathered through observation, reading, or hearsay, with no guarantee of their validity (false information that led to the arrest).

[*The New Oxford American Dictionary*, second edition. Ed. Erin McKean. Oxford University Press, 2005. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press.]

Knowledge

1. facts, information, and skills acquired by a person through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject: a thirst for knowledge | her considerable **knowledge of antiques**. ■ what is known in a particular field or in total; facts and information: the transmission of knowledge. ■ (Philosophy) true, justified belief; certain understanding, as opposed to opinion.
2. awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation: the program had been developed **without his knowledge** | he denied all knowledge of the overnight incidents.

["knowl- edge n." *New Oxford American Dictionary*. Edited by Angus Stevenson and Christine A. Lindberg. Oxford University Press, 2010. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press. Stetson University. 28 July 2011 <http://www.oxfordreference.com/views/ENTRY.html?subview=Main&entry=t183.e1261368>]

Knowledge applies to any body of facts gathered by study, observation, or experience, and to the ideas inferred from these facts (an in-depth knowledge of particle physics; firsthand knowledge about the company).

[*The New Oxford American Dictionary*, second edition. Ed. Erin McKean. Oxford University Press, 2005. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press.]

Wisdom

the quality of having experience, knowledge, and good judgment; the quality of being wise.
 ■ the soundness of an action or decision with regard to the application of such experience, knowledge, and good judgment: some questioned the wisdom of building the dam so close to an active volcano.
 ■ the body of knowledge and principles that develops within a specified society or period: the traditional farming wisdom of India.

["wis- dom n." *New Oxford American Dictionary*. Edited by Angus Stevenson and Christine A. Lindberg. Oxford University Press, 2010. *Oxford Reference Online*. Oxford University Press. Stetson University. 28 July 2011 <http://www.oxfordreference.com/views/ENTRY.html?subview=Main&entry=t183.e1306725>]

It is clear that what you will be concerned with in college is not merely amassing information, but forming information into knowledge and, hopefully, eventually wisdom.

How Information is Produced

Information can be produced by just about anyone (remember information doesn't have to be true, or good information to still be information) through established channels or "on the fly" (as when standing in a ticket line and word comes down the line that tickets are sold out). Information can be produced by individuals, non-professional groups, or groups whose profession it is to produce information. And it can be produced in many, many formats (TV programs, books, journal articles, newspaper articles, just to name a few). One of the most important parts of education is learning to question who produced certain information and for what reason(s).



Information Production Timeline

What's the timeline for producing information? Today the time it takes to learn about something that has just happened is very short, sometimes instantaneously. We have TV and radio and cell phones and text messaging and phone cameras, all of which can be used to transfer information almost immediately. However, scholars (while appreciating the speed of modern information sources) want to put some distance in time between when something happened and when they write about it. This time distance allows a scholar to research other things that might have influenced the original event or influenced how the event played out over time or how people reacted to an event. Time allows the researcher to see what some of the results of an event have been and what effects those results have had on people or subsequent events. Time gives scholars the opportunity to analyze and synthesize and to see the event from a larger perspective.

There is, therefore, an information cycle. Events are first reported on TV, radio, via cell phones, or on the internet. In the next days, the newspapers report the event in more detail than the original TV newscasts or internet posts. Popular weekly magazines (like *Time* or *Newsweek*) then publish lengthier stories, and investigative TV programs then air longer programs on an event or subject. In a year or two, scholarly journals will begin to publish articles of scholars' analysis of the event. And finally, anywhere from several months to many years later, books about the event will begin to appear.

So while TV and newspapers and the internet and cell phones are great for current information, for college research, students will most often be asked to look at publications that reflect that distance in time that scholars need. College-level research will most often be centered on scholarly journals and books—two mediums that are published on the longest time frame.



Choose any of the following to watch a short video on the information cycle:

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=898CmcAam0s> (last accessed 28 July 2011)

http://www.libraries.psu.edu/content/dam/psul/up/lls/audiovideo/infocycle_2008.swf (last accessed 28 July 2011)

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SjJBE9OWovI>

(last accessed 28 July 2011)



Image creator: Bo Kinloch. Image from
<http://transcriptions.english.ucsb.edu/research/index.asp>.
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Step One— Exploratory or Preliminary Research

Definitions of Terms

Just about every endeavor (profession/hobby/sport, etc.) has its own vocabulary. Scholarly research is no different. There are many words that are either unique to academic research or have specialized meanings when used by academic researchers.

We have tried in this Research Process Guide to define specialized terms as they appear, but if at any point you do not know what a word means, consult one or more of the glossaries listed below. If a word is not included in these glossaries, ask at the Information Desk in the Library, or call a research librarian at 386-747-9028, or send an email message to the research librarians at http://stetson.edu/library/contact_askalibrarian.php.

Links to definitions of research-related terms:

<http://www.lib.umich.edu/shapiro-undergraduate-library/library-glossary>

<http://library.boisestate.edu/Reference/BBRIN/jargon.htm>



Dr. Dirt--Image from www.texasbeyondhistory.net/kids/research.html.
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Choose, Define, and Develop a Topic

Choose a Topic--If you do not already have a topic, try some of the resources listed below to give you some ideas.

As you are looking at the suggestions, consider some of the following questions:

- How long will the paper/report/presentation be? This will affect the scope of your topic and the amount of information you will need.
- Has my professor limited the choice of subjects in some way or am I free to choose anything I'm interested in?



The following may suggest a topic:

- The "Issues and Causes" directory on Yahoo: [http://dir.yahoo.com/Society and Culture/Issues and Causes](http://dir.yahoo.com/Society_and_Culture/Issues_and_Causes)
- A link to several sites that suggest research topics: <http://www.rbc.edu/library/Research/research.htm>
- Edsitement (National Edowment for the Humanities): <http://edsitement.neh.gov/>
- Voice of the Shuttle (Humanities): <http://vos.ucsb.edu/>
- Science in the Headlines (National Academies): <http://nationalacademies.org/headlines/>
- If you would like to see a **visual representation** of how magazine/journal or reference articles on your general topic would "cluster" into related groups (which may give you some suggestions on how to narrow a topic), try one or both of the following:
 1. Magazine and Journal Articles
 - Go to the Library's Databases by Title page: <http://stetson.edu/library/databases.php>.
 - Scroll down the center, alphabetical list and click on EbscoHost Academic.
 - Click on the blue "Visual Search" at the top of the search page screen just under the search boxes.
 - Type your general topic (for example, military draft) in the search box. Enter.
 - You can then choose a display style and group or filter by various factors.

2. To see a visual representation of how entries in reference books about your subject might look in a concept map (and thus perhaps give you ideas on how to narrow the focus a broad topic), do the following:
 - Go to the Library's Databases by Title page: <http://stetson.edu/library/databases.php>.
 - Scroll down the center, alphabetical list and click on Credo (Reference Works).
 - Click on Concept Map.
 - Type in your general subject term, such as the military draft. Enter.
 - You will see a concept map form from the articles in the reference books that are included in the Credo database. It can take a minute or two to complete the concept map. Wait until everything stops moving.
 - You can click on any of the entries for further information or you can get a short definition of the entry by moving your mouse over the concept map.



- Reference Books (either print or e-books): Look at the chapter headings and sub-headings for ideas. Also, those articles in reference books make **excellent** starting places in your research.

There are two ways to see if the duPont-Ball Library has a specialized reference book on your topic. Both start with going to the **Library's home page**, then clicking on **Databases by Title**.

1. Scroll down and click on WebCat, Stetson Library Catalog.
 - Click on Advanced Search.
 - Type your subject on the top line, then scroll down to the "Search Limits." Under the "**location**" menu, highlight "**Reference.**" This choice will limit your search to books in the Reference Collection.
2. OR to see if the duPont-Ball Library has a specialized **electronic** (e-book) reference book on your topic, scroll down and click on WebCat, Stetson Library Catalog.
 - Click on Advanced Search.
 - Type your subject on the top line, then scroll down to the "**Item Type.**" Under the "Item Type" menu, highlight "**EBOOKREF.**" This choice will limit your search to electronic reference books. There are links directly to these electronic books in the cataloging record.

Talk to your professor or talk to a research librarian.

Define (Refine) a Topic-- Once you have a broad topic (for example, driving a car) you will need to define and narrow it. Consider again the length of your paper or presentation and the type of paper you are writing.

You may also be able to refine or narrow your topic by one of the following methods:

- Place—What location are you interested in researching? the whole U.S.? just Florida?
- Time—Are you looking at only the last few years? across many decades? into the future?
- Discipline—What viewpoint are you taking: environmental laws related to motor vehicles from a legal standpoint, from an environmentalist's standpoint, from an economist's standpoint, from a business standpoint?
- Population—Are you considering your topic from a population characteristic such as age, race, gender, nationality, ethnicity?

The majority of college papers expect that you will establish a **thesis** and then support that thesis with evidence in the paper. In other words, you will be asked to take a stand on an issue that may have many perspectives and then show what evidence you have in support of your stand.

So ask yourself questions about your topic. A thesis statement is the answer to a question. For example, with the broad topic of driving a car, you could ask do I want to write about drivers or the vehicles or the rules of the road or driver training or something else?

- Let's say you want to write about drivers. What do you want to say about drivers? Let's say you want to explore the question of whether older people (over what age?) should be allowed to drive cars? Let's say you want to explore the facts to see if older drivers should have required testing more frequently in order to keep their licenses because older drivers cause a lot of accidents.

Your thesis answers a question like "should people over a certain age be allowed to drive cars, and if so, under what conditions?"

- Your preliminary thesis, then, might be something like the following which answers the question posed in the previous bullet point above:
Every two years, every driver over the age of 65 should be required to pass a mandatory eye exam and driving test to receive a driver's license in order to reduce the number of traffic accidents caused by drivers over the age of 65.
- Now you will need to look at the evidence. Do statistics support the fact that drivers over the age of 65 cause more accidents, proportionately, than drivers of other ages? If you find evidence that drivers over 65 cause a disproportionately large number of accidents, then that evidence will support your thesis. If, however, you find that drivers over 65 do not cause more accidents than drivers in other age groups, then you will have to revise your thesis.
- Likewise, if you're going to recommend that drivers over age 65 have mandatory eye and driving tests, did you find any evidence that poor eyesight is the cause of many of their accidents? If not, then recommending eye exams doesn't address the problem. Likewise, is there any evidence to suggest that requiring more frequent driving tests cuts down on the number of accidents experienced by drivers over the age of 65? If not, then your thesis will need to be revised.

- You should not be afraid to revise your original thesis. In fact, that's one sign of an open mind and good research.
So asking yourself questions about your topic is a good way to start to narrow a topic.

You can always talk to your professor or a librarian about ways your topic can be limited.



Develop a Topic--As you are doing your preliminary reading, you can help your research and save yourself time later on by doing some or all of the following:

- **Keep good notes** on where you have searched and what term or terms you used in searching.
- **List the vocabulary** that is used to talk about your topic. What words keep appearing? Are there words that are used as synonyms such as aging, elderly, gerontology, senior citizens, or global warming, greenhouse effect, climate change, ozone depletion? Identify the key concepts of your topic.

For example, if you had decided to narrow your topic on older drivers to research on drinking, driving, and older people, you might want to set up a chart listing the key concepts in different columns and synonyms listed in the same column.

Concept #1	Concept #2	Concept #3
drinking	driving	elderly
alcoholism	car accidents	senior citizens
intoxication	DUI	aging

- Look not only for key vocabulary, but also for the names of important people, variations in the spelling of key words or people's names, and key dates or incidents related to your topic.
- **Put your topic into a context.** For example, you may not be able to find a whole book on drinking and driving accidents in senior citizens, but there are many books on alcoholism or drinking among senior citizens, and there may be a chapter or part of a chapter on alcohol's influence on senior citizens' driving abilities. Even if there isn't any information specifically on driving, certainly a book on alcoholism and senior citizens would give you lots of background information on the topic.

As another example, let's say you have to research the Battle of Chaeronea. There may not be a whole book on that battle, but if you know that that battle was part of the ancient conflict between Macedonia and Greece, then you could look in a reference book titled *Encyclopedia of the Ancient World*, in which this Battle is discussed.

- **Look at general and specialized reference sources** to get an overview of your topic and to get background material for more specific research later. (See the section above on Choosing a Topic for instructions on how to find reference books.) Also, note that many reference books include bibliographies at the end of an article or in the back of the book. Use those bibliographies as places to start your more focused research.

In developing your topic, you may need to identify if you will need to research **primary** or **secondary sources** or a combination.

Primary Sources—What is a primary source? The term “primary sources” indicates the original materials of a study or the closest materials one can get to an event. Primary sources contain direct evidence regarding a topic. Original musical scores, poems, letters, diaries, treaties, speeches, audio recordings, data from a survey, minutes of an organization, photographs or videos of an event, newspaper reports at the time of an event, and data collected from government agencies such as police reports, birth certificates, death certificates, court documents, and census data are all examples of primary materials.



Image from: <http://www.ohiohistoryteachers.org/02/04/index.shtml>. Used with permission.

The designation of what is primary, however, is relative and sometimes not so clearly defined. For example, if one is studying or analyzing the text of a poem, then the poem itself is the primary material and the criticism written about the poem is the secondary material. However, if one is studying literary criticism, the criticism becomes the primary material for the study.

Likewise, some scholars consider the raw data from a survey as primary materials, while other scholars will call the first **reporting** of that data primary material.

Most scholars will accept newspaper reports, public opinion polls, and even popular fiction and films which came out at the time as primary evidence of popular opinion or of how people were thinking at a particular time.

Secondary Sources—Secondary Sources are those materials written in response to other materials. Secondary sources interpret or analyze an historical event or a phenomenon. For example, the text of a treaty ratified by a government would be a primary source and the journal, magazine, or newspaper articles about the treaty would be secondary materials. If, however, one were studying journalism, the newspaper reports of the treaty would then become the primary source.

Examples of Primary and Secondary Sources

Subject	Primary Source	Secondary Source
Art	Original artwork	Article critiquing the piece of art
History	Pioneer diary	Book about the Oregon Trail
Literature	Original manuscript	Book review
Political Science	CNN.com report	Newspaper editorial
Science	Journal article reporting research results	Textbook
Theatre	Videotape of a performance	Encyclopedia of drama

[Thanks to many librarians from academic libraries in the Utah Academic Libraries Consortium (UALC) for creating the Internet Navigator from which this chart was taken. Licensed under a Creative Commons License:
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/2.0/>]

Visit any of the following sites for more information on primary and secondary sources:

<http://www.lib.berkeley.edu/TeachingLib/Guides/PrimarySources.html>

http://www.yale.edu/collections_collaborative/primarysources/

At this point, you should be familiar with the steps in the suggested research process and may have done sufficient background reading to have a preliminary thesis, or at least a narrowed focus for your topic. If you feel you still do not have a grasp of the research steps or of how to explore and narrow a topic, go to any of the following sites for additional help in guiding you through the research process.

Writing research papers:

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/658/01/>

<http://hcl.harvard.edu/research/guides/libraries/researchprocess.html>

Step Two--Preparing for Focused Research: Understanding a Citation and Searching Electronic Databases



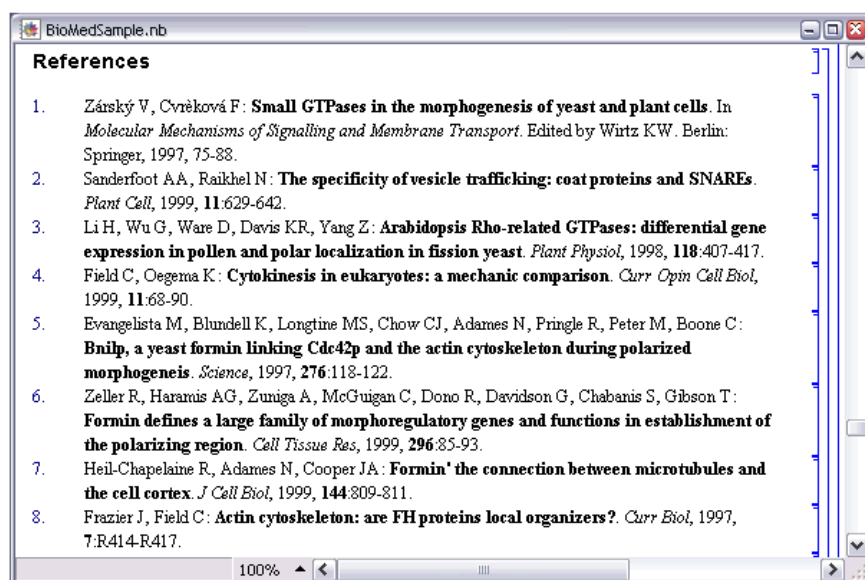
Before proceeding to focused research, two research tools need to be reviewed: understanding a citation and how to search electronic databases.

Understanding a Citation

What is a CITATION? A citation is the act of mentioning, listing, or bringing forward as support, illustration, or proof. Citations are what are called footnotes, endnotes, or items in a bibliography. They refer the reader most often to books, chapters from books, journal articles, newspaper articles, government documents, and Web sites.

You find citations primarily in footnotes, bibliographies, and in electronic databases such as EbscoHost Academic, ProQuest, Lexis-Nexis, ABI/Inform, and many others.

It is important to recognize what kind of citation it is (book, journal article, government document, essay or chapter from a book, newspaper article, Web site). Knowing what kind of material the citation is determines where you would look for that material. You will need to look in different places depending on if the citation is to a book, journal article, newspaper, government document, or some other type of material.



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Understanding a Citation: Book

Book

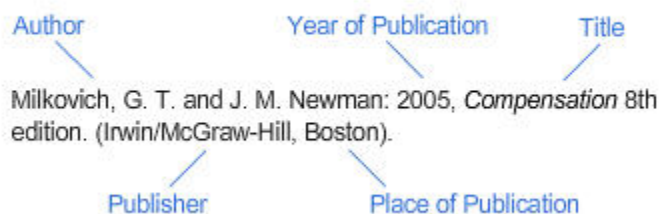


Image from Capella University Library. Used with permission.

Understanding a Citation: Chapters or Essays from a Book

Book Chapter

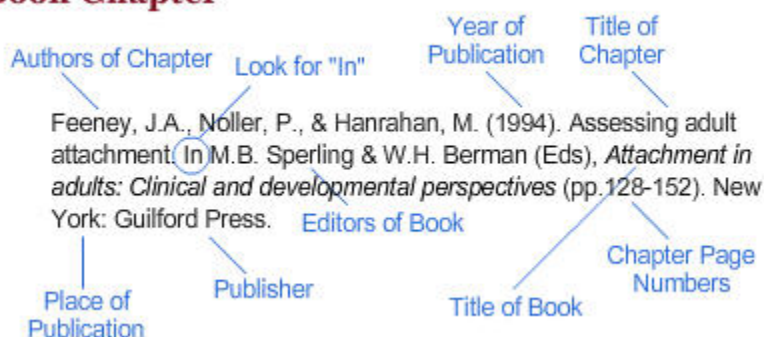


Image from Capella University Library. Used with permission.

If the citation is to a book or a chapter in a book, check the Library's catalog, to see if Stetson owns the book cited: go to the Library's home page at <http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>, click on Databases by Title, scroll down and click on WebCat, Stetson Library Catalog.

Understanding a Citation: Journal Articles

Journal Article

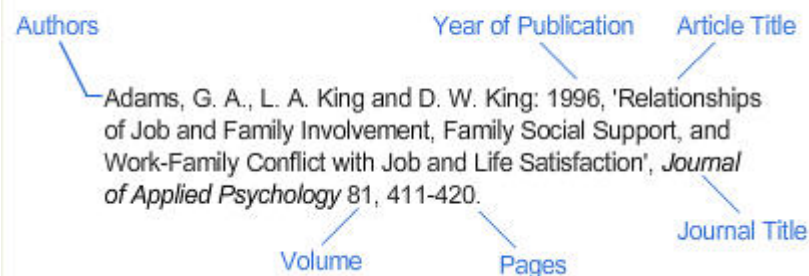


Image with thanks taken from Capella University Library. Used with permission.

Below are additional sample journal article citations:

Example of a citation to a JOURNAL ARTICLE IN A RESULT LIST FROM THE ELECTRONIC DATABASE EbscoHost Academic:

Characteristics of Frail Older Adult Drivers. By: Carr, David B.; Flood, Kellie L.; Steger-May, Karen; Schechtman, Kenneth B.; Binder, Ellen F. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, Jul2006, Vol. 54 Issue 7, p1125-1129, 5p; DOI: 10.1111/j.1532-5415.2006.00790.x; (AN 21437357)

The parts of the article citation are as follows:

1. Title of the article [Characteristics of Frail . . .—Note that this article title is underlined because it is a link. Normally, titles of journal articles are put in quotation marks when you make your bibliography or works cited list]
2. Authors of the article [Carr, Flood, Steger-May, Schechtman, Binder]

3. Title of the journal [Journal of the American Geriatrics Society]
4. Date of publication [July 2006]
5. Volume and Issue number in which this article appears [volume 54, issue 7]
6. Pages of this article [1125-1129]
7. Length of this article [5 pages]
8. Code numbers used by those producing the database. You don't need to be concerned with these. [DOI: 10.1111/j.1532-5415.2006.00790.x; (AN 21437357)]

Example of a citation to a JOURNAL ARTICLE TAKEN FROM A BIBLIOGRAPHY AT THE END OF A CHAPTER IN A BOOK:

Campbell, Gordon. "Milton." *YWES*. 1983;64:251-270.

The parts of the article citation are as follows:

1. Author of the article [Campbell]
2. Title of the article ["Milton"]
3. Title of the journal in which this article is found [*YWES* (which is an abbreviation for *Year's Work in English Studies*)]
4. Year of publication [1983]
5. Volume of the journal in which this article is found [64]
6. Pages within the journal where this article is found [251-270]

You can tell these are article citations because 1) there is a Journal title; 2) there is an article title; and 3) the citations give you volume numbers. Some will have abbreviated magazine/journal titles (if the magazine/journal title is abbreviated, look for a page that has the abbreviations spelled out).

If the citation is to a journal article: go to the Library's home page (<http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>), and click on **Journals List**. Search for that journal title in the Journals List to see if Stetson has that journal in a paper copy on the shelves or if the complete text of the article is available in one of the Library's databases.

If a journal title is found in this list, the list will tell you whether we have the journal in paper, microform, or in which database you need to search. If the title of the journal is listed as being in one of our databases, you will need to click on the link to that database or to that journal title and then search for the particular article you want to retrieve. If the title is **not** listed, we do **not** own the journal or have access to it full text through one of our databases, and you will need to order that article through interlibrary loan (http://www2.stetson.edu/library/departments_ill.php).

Journals and magazines in paper format in the Library are arranged alphabetically by the title of the journal. There are no call numbers for journal titles. Check where to find journals/periodicals in the Library by going to the map of the Library at http://www2.stetson.edu/library/maps_librarymap.pdf.



Understanding a Citation: Newspaper Articles



Creator: Stefanie Buck. Image from Western Washington University Libraries. Used with permission.

Below is an additional sample citation to a Newspaper Article:

Example of a citation to a NEWSPAPER ARTICLE FOUND IN A RESULT LIST FROM THE ELECTRONIC DATABASE EbscoHost Academic:

Driving Into Sunset Years, and Keeping Going. By: Cowan, Alison Leigh. *New York Times*, 6/16/2006, Vol. 155 Issue 53612, pB1-B6, 2p, 1c, 1bw; (AN 21506275)

The parts of the citation are as follows:

1. Title of the newspaper article [Driving Into Sunset Years. . . —Note that this article title is underlined because it is a link. Normally, titles of newspaper articles are put in quotation marks when you make your bibliography or works cited list]
2. Author of the article (if the article has one; newspaper articles frequently do not have authors) [Cowan]
3. Name of Newspaper [New York Times]
4. Date the article appeared in the newspaper [6/16/2006]
5. Volume and issue of the newspaper in which this article appeared [Vol. 155, Issue 53612]
6. Section of the newspaper in which this article appeared (this is important for page numbers frequently start over in each section) and page numbers in that section on which this article appeared [p. B1-B6—so parts of this article appeared on pages B1 and B6 (not B1 through B6)]
7. Number of pages of the article [2p.]
8. Number of color photographs [1c]
9. Number of black and white photographs [1bw]
10. Code numbers used by those producing the database. You don't need to be concerned with these. [AN 21506275]

You can tell the above are newspaper citations because 1) a title of a newspaper is given; 2) sections and column numbers are sometimes given.

To determine if Stetson has that newspaper in paper format or has access to it full text electronically, go to the Library's Home Page (<http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>), click on **Journals List**, and search for that newspaper title.

If the newspaper title is found in this list, the list will tell you whether we have the newspaper in paper, microform, or in which database you need to search.

Important Note: The Library has other databases which cover hundreds of newspaper, both U.S. and papers from other countries, which are not included in the Journals List:

ProQuest Newspapers

Lexis-Nexis

NewsBank InfoWeb.

To reach these newspaper databases, go to the Library's home page

(<http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>) and click on Databases by Title. Scroll down and highlight one of these newspaper databases.



Understanding a Citation: Government Documents



Creator: Stefanie Buck. Image from Western Washington University Libraries. Used with permission.

Below is a sample citation to a U. S. Government Document:

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. *Testing, Teaching and Learning. Report of a Conference on Research in Testing.* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1979.

The parts of the citation are as follows:

1. Authoring person, agency, bureau, etc. [U. S. Dept. of Health . . .]
2. Title [Testing, Teaching . . .]
3. Place of publication [Washington, D. C.]
4. Publisher [National Institute of Education]
5. Year of publication [1979]

The big clue here that this is a government document is the fact that the author is a government agency (Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare). Another clue is that the place of publication is Washington, D.C. and the publisher is another government agency (National Institute of Education).

Once you realize that this is a government document, you will need to determine if Stetson owns this document. First, check the Library's catalog. Go to the Library's home page (<http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>), then click on **Databases by Title**, scroll down and click on **WebCat, Stetson Library Catalog**. If you do not find it in the catalog, check with the Information Desk in the library, email a research librarian at http://stetson.edu/library/contact_askalibrarian.php, or call a research librarian at 386-747-9028.

Review how to interpret citations by going through the online tutorial at

http://www.umsl.edu/services/libteach/cites/start_cites_tut.html. (If prompted, click on "cancel" to continue anonymously. If you take the optional survey at the end, the results of the survey will be sent to the University of Missouri, St. Louis, Library, not Stetson's library.)

Searching Electronic Databases



Before you proceed with looking for books, journal articles, newspaper articles, or Web information, you will need to understand what electronic databases are and how they work.

What Is a Database?

Wikipedia gives a definition that fits the library context: "A database is an organized collection of [data](#) for one or more purposes, usually in digital form. The data are typically organized to model relevant aspects of reality (for example, the availability of rooms in hotels), in a way that supports processes requiring this information (for example, finding a hotel with vacancies). The term "database" refers both to the way its users view it, and to the logical and physical materialization of its data, content, in files, [computer memory](#), and [computer data storage](#). This definition is very general, and is independent of the technology used. However, not every collection of data is a database; the term database implies that the data is managed to some level of quality (measured in terms of accuracy, availability, usability, and resilience) and this in turn often implies the use of a general-purpose [Database management system](#) (DBMS). A general-purpose DBMS is typically a complex [software](#) system that meets many usage requirements, and the databases that it maintains are often large and complex."

[<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database>]

Nowadays, when one thinks of databases, one thinks of those that are accessible via the Web. The electronic database resources that the Stetson Library provides are part of what is sometimes called the "invisible" Web. The information in the Library's subscription databases is found using the Web, but the information in these databases cannot be retrieved by using traditional search engines such as Google or Yahoo.

You must be an authorized Stetson user in order to use the Library's databases. Any computer attached to the DeLand Campus network should allow the user access to any of the Library's databases. If you are attempting to use the databases from off the DeLand campus, please see the instructions at <http://stetson.edu/library/offcampus.php>.

If it weren't for electronic databases (and their predecessors, print indexes and abstracts), anyone wanting to know if any journal has published an article on, say, global warming would have to come into the Library and start looking at individual issues of journals, issue by issue, journal title by journal title. Indexes, abstracts, and now electronic indexes, abstracts, and full-text databases do that for you. They take hundreds or even thousands of journal/magazine/newspaper titles and put them in an electronically searchable database. The Library has grouped the subscription

databases by disciplines or programs on its **Databases by Subject** pages (http://www2.stetson.edu/library/databases_subject.php).

For many research projects, the general

Search

 box on the library's home page will provide more than enough information on almost any topic. As you move into your discipline major, however, you will probably want to concentrate on your discipline's database or databases (for example: PsycInfo for psychology; SocIndex for sociology; the Modern Language Association Bibliography (MLA) for English and modern languages; ABI/Inform for business; Music Index for Music, etc.)

Electronic Databases: Records and Fields

All the information about one item (for example a book or journal article) in an electronic database is called a **record**. Electronic records are made up of many **fields**.

Database



Records



Fields

Below is a sample **record** from a database called EBSCOHost *Academic Search Premier*.

Formats:  Citation  [HTML Full Text](#)  [PDF Full Text](#) (542K)

Title: Tortuguero's Fertile *Turtles*.

Authors: [Hardman, Chris](#)

Source: [Americas](#); Jul/Aug2006, Vol. 58 Issue 4, p3-3, 3/4p

Document Type: Article

Subject Terms: *[GREEN turtle](#)
*[REPTILES](#)
*[TURTLES](#)
*[REPRODUCTION](#)

Geographic Terms: [COSTA Rica](#)
[TORTUGUERO \(Costa Rica\)](#)

Abstract: The article reports that green *sea turtles* in the beaches of Tortuguero, Costa Rica nest by the thousands. Continuing an upward trend, the 2005 nesting season was one of the busiest on record, with a total of 91,615 *sea* turtle nests recorded over a four-month period. Researchers from the Caribbean Conservation Corporation documented that in one night alone, *sea turtles* laid three thousand nests on a twenty-one-mile section of beach.

Full Text Word Count: 630

ISSN: 0379-0940

Accession Number: 21518037

Persistent link to this record: <http://search.epnet.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&an=21518037>

Database: Academic Search Premier

The headings along the left-hand margin (given in bold type) are the **fields**. Using the library's

Search

box, you will be searching all fields. If you want to search a specific field, you will need to go execute a basic search from the Search box, then an advanced search screen (with field choices) should be visible, or you can go to the library's Databases by Title page, click on the database you want to search and then designate the field(s) you want to search.

For example, each record in *Academic Search* (as in the sample record above) has a title field, a subject terms field, a source field, etc. In most databases, you, the searcher, can designate a field or fields you want to search. This is particularly helpful if you are doing a known-item search, that is, you already know an author's name or the title of an article. You would type the author's name, usually last name first, and designate that you wanted the computer to search for this name in the author field.

Note that this result in the above example also tells you that there is a link to the full text of the article: HTML Fulltext and PDF Full Text

You should determine how the database handles field searching in any new database you are using. Ask the following questions:

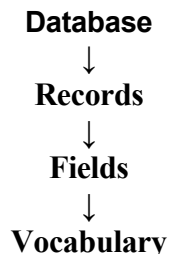
- What fields are included in the search?
- Does the computer search all fields automatically?
- Does it search only certain fields? Which ones?
- Can the user designate which field(s) to search?

Read the HELP screens or paper documentation to answer these questions. If you don't have HELP screens or paper guides available, you can experiment by trying different field searches to see how the database handles them. Or come into the Library and ask at the Information Desk for help in searching, email http://stetson.edu/library/contact_askalibrarian.php, or call a research librarian at (386) 747-9028.

Vocabulary

Electronic Databases—Vocabulary

Once you've chosen an appropriate database and understand that the database will be searching fields for the term(s) you've entered, you need to give serious thought to the vocabulary you enter into the computer.



Vocabulary: Keywords

There are two concepts relating to vocabulary and electronic searching: **keyword** and **subject (or controlled)**.

Keyword is a term that indicates that the user has entered what he/she considers to be a keyword (or keywords) for what the user wants to find. A keyword can appear anywhere in the citation, article, or any part of the electronic record.

In the example below, the keyword entered was **dolphins**.

Title: A sanctuary at risk.

Subject: Sable Island (N.S.); OIL well drilling, Submarine -- Atlantic Ocean;
Endangered species -- Atlantic Coast (North America)

Source: Maclean's, 03/30/98, Vol. 111 Issue 13, p26, 1p, 1c

Author: Geddes, John

Abstract: Reports that Canada may permit oil and natural gas exploration sites near a geographical marvel known as the Gully, off the coast of Sable Island, in the Atlantic Ocean. The Gully being home to many species of seals, whales, and **dolphins**; Efforts to protect the area; Comments of environmentalists; Presence of endangered bottle-nose whales and rare corals; Effort of Canadian Fisheries and Oceans Minister David Anderson.

AN: 415801

ISSN:0024-9262

Note: We do not subscribe to this magazine.

You can see the word "dolphins" in the abstract, but notice that it does **not** appear in the "Subject" field. This example points out the fact that keyword searching can sometimes produce lots of results that aren't really relevant to your topic. The above citation isn't really about dolphins, although dolphins are mentioned.

If you don't know the official subject heading(s), then keyword searching is your only choice. Keyword searching is also your only choice if the term or phrase you are searching is relatively new, for example, in the 1980's the word *glasnost* was new. Databases would not have adopted it as a controlled vocabulary word yet.

When doing keyword searching, the field designation should be left at "all," "any," "default," or as "keyword."

Vocabulary

Vocabulary: Subject Searching

Subject Searching or Controlled Vocabulary refers to the process by which those who put the database together decide which headings or vocabulary will be used to express certain ideas. Controlled vocabulary words are sometimes called **descriptors** or **subjects**. A subject term, descriptor, or controlled vocabulary is a category or topic assigned to a book or article when it is placed in the database. The subject word or phrase may or may not appear in the citation, article, or record.

For example, the term “women” might seem like a very straight forward descriptor. But in some databases, the term used to describe a journal article or book about women is “females.” In some psychological and biological databases, the term is “human females.” To assign a subject or controlled vocabulary term to an article or book means that those people who put the database together and index these books or articles feel that a significant portion of the article is about that subject.

In the example given on the previous page, the word “dolphin” showed up because it appeared in the abstract, but the article deals more with “endangered species” in general than with dolphins in particular. Thus, the subject term is “endangered species.”

Subjects or descriptors are searched only in the subject field which you usually must choose before you execute your search. **Therefore, subject searching cannot be done using the library's Search Box, although after you execute a quick search in the Search box, you will see a**

Search

screen come up from which you can do subject searching. You can also go either to the library's Databases by Title or Databases by Subject page and then click on a specific database in order to do subject searching.

When you find an article that is very good for your subject, note the subject terms or descriptors given in the record. Go back and search on those subject terms that are appropriate to your topic.

Some databases have what is called a listing of the controlled vocabulary words used to index the materials in that database. This list of vocabulary is sometimes called a subject list, subject search, subject index, subject terms, or thesaurus.

The following databases found on the Library's database page are examples of those databases using a controlled vocabulary or subject list: *ABI/INFORM*, *ERIC*, *PsycInfo*, *SocIndex*. You may want to consult the subject list to get an idea of what terms the database is using before you begin your search. Look for the button to click on in order to search the subject list or thesaurus.

Vocabulary: Analyzing the Topic

One of the keys to searching computer or electronic databases is to break your topic down into its key concepts and to think of the vocabulary you will use to construct your search statement.

For example, if you want to search for articles on the effects of pollution on manatees, the two concepts are pollution and manatees. You may decide there are additional or more specific words you could use for pollution such as effluence or run-off. Also, there is at least one synonym for manatee, sea cow. Therefore, you will want to list all of these terms so you can construct your search statement.

You may want to make a grid in order to organize your thoughts. A grid representing vocabulary you may want to use in searching for articles about pollution and manatees might look something like this:

AND



Before beginning a search, analyze your topic. To analyze your topic, do the following:

- a. Write down the major concepts or ideas for which you are looking.
- b. For each concept, determine if there are any **synonyms** for that concept.
- c. If there is a subject list for your database, determine which word(s) is used by the database producers to describe your concept(s).

The vocabulary you choose may be the single most important thing that influences whether or not you get good results from your electronic database search.

Search Statements

Once you have chosen an appropriate database and the vocabulary you want to enter, you will need to know how to put together your search statement (the terms entered into the computer and how they are logically related to one another).

There are three logical operators frequently used in computer database searching: **AND**, **OR**, and **NOT**. These words when used in the context of database searching are called Boolean operators. The term "Boolean" comes from the name of George Boole, a nineteenth-century British mathematician working in the field of symbolic logic. These three words tell the computer how to combine and search for more than one word at a time. Of course, you can still search one word on the computer databases, but one of the big advantages to computer searching is that the computer is able to search for two or more words or phrases at a time.

Simple uses of logical operators can be employed using the library's Search box. However, to use more advanced Boolean searches or Boolean searches in conjunction with field searching (subject, author, title), you will need to execute a simple search in the Search box (after which a more advanced screen should appear) or go either to the library's Databases by Title or Databases by Subject page, click on a specific database, then go to the database's Advanced Search.

Logical Operators: OR

In order to take full advantage of the database's searching capabilities, you must understand how Boolean or logical operators are used. The Boolean operators used most frequently in electronic database searching are the words **or**, **and**, **not**.

Boolean Operator *OR*

The **OR** operator retrieves those records in the database that contain either or any of the words entered as illustrated in the following search:

Find: college or university

The use of the Boolean OR can be illustrated in the following Venn diagrams. The shaded portion of the diagram below represents those items that would be retrieved when searching for **college or university** in an electronic database.

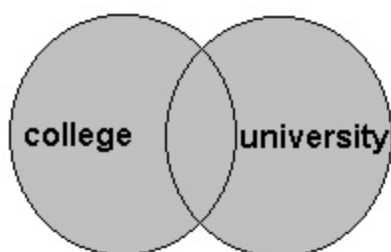


Image from <http://www.internettutorials.net/boolean.asp>. Used with permission.

In other words, everything with either the word “college” or the word “university” would be retrieved with the above search.

Searching for **college or university or campus**.

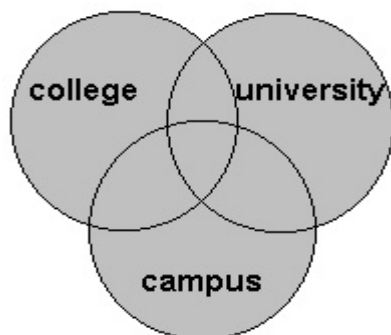


Image from <http://www.internettutorials.net/boolean.asp>. Used with permission.

The shaded portion of the Venn diagram above illustrates everything with either the word “college” or “university” or “campus” that would be retrieved in searching an electronic database.

The use of **OR** will very likely increase the number of hits or results in your search results.

Logical Operators: AND

The **AND** operator retrieves only those records in the database that contain all of the terms you entered. In other words, each record must contain all the words you entered.

For example, let's say you entered the "profession" and "ethics" connected by the logical operator **AND**. The computer will retrieve all of the records that have both terms in each record retrieved.

Find: poverty AND crime. Both terms have to be present for the item to be retrieved.

The use of the Boolean AND can be illustrated in the following Venn diagram. The shaded portion of the diagram represents the items that would be retrieved in searching an electronic database for the terms **poverty and crime**.

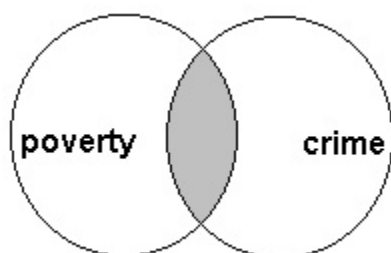


Image from <http://www.internettutorials.net/boolean.asp>. Used with permission.

Find: **poverty and crime and gender**. Now all three terms have to be present for an item to be retrieved.

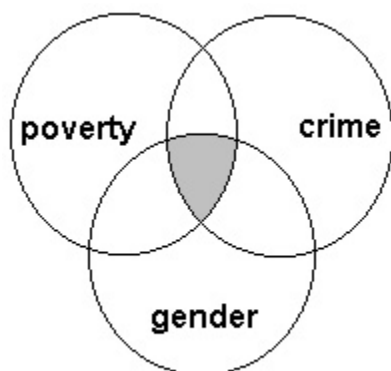


Image from <http://www.internettutorials.net/boolean.asp>. Used with permission.

The shaded portion of the Venn diagram above illustrates those items that would be retrieved in a computer search for poverty and crime and gender.

The use of **AND** will very likely decrease the number of hits in your search results.

Logical Operators: NOT

The third logical operator used, although not as often, is the word **NOT** (some databases use the words **AND NOT**). **NOT** eliminates those records containing a certain word or phrase.

Find: cats not dogs

The use of the Boolean NOT can be illustrated in the following Venn diagram. The shaded portion of the following diagram represents what would be retrieved in a search for **cats not dogs** in an electronic database.

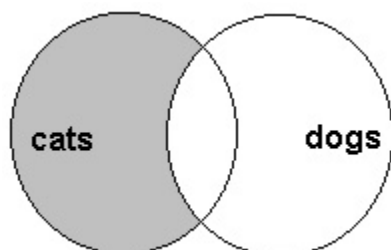


Image from <http://www.internettutorials.net/boolean.asp>. Used with permission.

The **NOT** operator should be used cautiously, however, for you can **NOT** out records that would be useful to you. For example, if you want information on lunar eclipses, if you search eclipse **NOT** solar, you may eliminate some useful materials that discuss both solar and lunar eclipses.

However, the NOT operator can be very useful when working with a word that can be used in two totally different senses. For example, the word *dolphin* can mean a sea creature, but it can also be used as the name of a national football league (NFL) team. So, if you are in a database that may have articles on dolphins in the sea and the Dolphins NFL team, then you may want to construct a search statement such as this: Find: dolphins not football.

Simple uses of logical operators can be employed using the library's box. However, to use more advanced Boolean searches or Boolean searches in conjunction with field searching (subject, author, title), you will need to execute a simple search in the Search box (after which a more advanced screen should appear) or go either to the library's Databases by Title or Databases by Subject page, click on a specific database, then go to the database's Advanced Search.

Use of Parentheses (Nesting)

When you want to group terms connected by OR together so that you can AND all of the synonyms with other terms, use parentheses to enclose all the ORed together terms.

Example: censorship and (movies or films or motion pictures)

When you use parentheses, you tell the computer to OR all the terms within the parentheses together as one operation and then AND those results with the other term or terms.

The table below illustrates how you might move from a statement to search terms to constructing a search statement.

Your topic:

"The **erosion** of the **wetlands** has a direct impact on New Orleans' ability to absorb the blow of a storm like Hurricane Katrina. For every 2.7 miles of wetlands, **storm surges** are reduced by about one 1 foot."

Becomes Search Terms:

Choose main concepts (nouns) and aspects (time or place)

wetlands

erosion

storm surges

New Orleans

wetlands AND erosion AND (hurricane OR "storm surges") AND "New Orleans"

Image from: <http://liblearn.osu.edu/guides/week1/pg1.html>. Used with permission.



For a tutorial on **Boolean operators**, go to http://lib.colostate.edu/tutorials/boolean_info.html

Search Limits

After executing a search with the Library's box, you will be able to choose other options or limits for your search (see Refine Search on left-hand side of screen).

- For example, you may limit your search only to those articles that are **peer reviewed**. Go to Step Four of this Guide for an explanation of the peer reviewed, or refereed, process.
- You may limit your search for only those articles that are available **full text**.
- You may limit your search to only those materials **Available in Library Collection**.
- You may limit by **date** range, or limit your search to articles in a **certain type of medium (for example academic journals, books, news)**.
- You may limit by a **specific periodical title** (click on Publication under Refine Search).

If you are searching in a specific database (such as PsycInfo, or SocIndex, or MLA, or ERIC), you will also be able to focus your search using most of the limits noted above.

Truncation/Wildcards

Almost all databases allow use of a **truncation symbol** and/or a **wildcard symbol**. Sometimes one symbol is used for truncation and another symbol as a wildcard.

Truncation most often means a symbol added to the right-hand side of the stem of a word which then allows for retrieval of all endings on that word. An example would be econo* which would find economics, economical, econometrics, etc.

Wildcards are most often used within a word to allow for variant spelling. For example, wom*n would find woman or women.

What symbols are used and how they are used varies from database to database. Read the Help screens of a database to find what symbol that database uses and how it is used.

Common truncation and wildcard symbols are *, #, \$, and ?. The asterisk * is the most common truncation symbol.

Step Three--Focused Research: Finding Books and Other Cataloged Materials, Journal and Newspaper Articles, Web sites, Government Information

Now that you know more about citations and searching electronic databases, you are ready to go on to focused research.



Books and Other Cataloged Material

The Library's Catalog

If you've used the library's box, you've no doubt had some of the library's books in your results. Or you may have gone to the Databases by Title page and clicked on the library's catalog, WebCat. Either way, now you have some citations to books in the duPont-Ball Library's collection. How do you find those books?

Call Numbers

Locating cataloged materials in the Library depends on understanding the Library of Congress Classification System and the layout of the Library.

The call number, of course, is the key piece of information you need to locate the book on the shelves. The duPont-Ball Library uses the **Library of Congress Classification System** to assign call numbers (see <http://lcweb.loc.gov/catdir/cpsolcco/lcco.html> for more information on the Library of Congress Classification System).

Basically, call numbers serve two purposes. One is to serve as an "address" so you can find the material on the shelf. The other purpose is to allow materials on similar topics to be shelved near each other.

Each book (or other material such as DVDs) is assigned a unique and specific call number, a combination of letters and numbers that designates the book by subject and then subdivisions within that subject. No two books or other materials have the same exact call number. Call numbers usually consist of 3 or 4 lines of letters or numbers that are found either on the spine of the book or on the front upper, left-hand corner of the book when the spine is too narrow.



Here are some examples of call numbers used in the duPont-Ball Library:

L	LA	LB	N	PS
901	227.1	2328.15	346	374
.P48	.W56	.U62	.A1	.U52
	2002	F66	S56	Z9
			1999	1981

Look at this call number:

GV
989
.H56

- The first line of a call number consists of one to three letters representing a general subject area. In this case, GV is for physical education, sports, and recreation.
- The second line consists of one to four numbers, plus, in some instances, decimal numbers after the basic number (as in the example LA **227.1** .W56 2002 from those above). In the GV example above, 989 represents lacrosse.

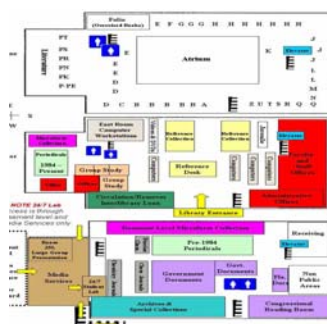
- The third line usually contains a letter-number combination. This line should be read as if a decimal began the line, even if one is not present on the book. Therefore, .B5 comes before .B53, but after .B47
- If there is a fourth line, it can also be a letter-number combination and should be read as if the line began with a decimal. Or it can show several things, including edition dates, volume numbers, copy number, or year of publication.

Go to at least one of the tutorials below to learn more about call numbers.

<http://www.lib.uidaho.edu/tutorial/s307.htm> (This tutorial includes information on more than call numbers. You need only do the call number section)

<http://library.ucr.edu/?view=help/guides/callnumbers.html>

Location Within the Library



When you are searching for materials in the Catalog, in addition to copying or printing the **call number**, note the **Location of the material (bottom line of the results)**.

- **Shakespeare and narrative / edited by Peter Holland.** Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2000. 01/01/2000 ix, 357 p. : ill. ; 25 cm. Language: English;

Call No. PR2888 .C3 V.53 **SHELVES: MAIN**

- **Global warming [electronic resource] / Brian C. Black and Gary J. Weisel.**
By: Black, Brian. Santa Barbara, Calif. : Greenwood, c2010. 01/01/2010 xv, 188 p. ; cm. Language: English;

Call No. QC903 .B53 2010 EB **ELECTRONIC: MAIN**

The designation of **Main** indicates the building on the quadrangle, east of the fountain. A map of all three floors of **the duPont-Ball Library** on the DeLand Campus can be found at http://www2.stetson.edu/library/maps_librarymap.pdf.

Shelves Indicates the Library's circulating (able to be checked out) collection. All circulating books in the duPont-Ball Library are located on the mezzanine (top) floor. If the material is checked out, where the above example says "Shelves" would say **Checkedout** so you would know that this material is not available right away.

Electronic means that this material is available electronically, and you will find a URL link to click on to get to the material.

Materials can also be located in specialized collections within the duPont-Ball Library.

Some specialized collections located in the Main Library building or special place designations are the following:

- **Compact Disc (CMPACTDISC)** —This refers to listening CDs. Located on Main Floor, north wing, looking out to the CUB.
- **Electronic**--This designation refers to anything that is available through a URL link. In the Catalog record, just click on the link to be taken to that site.
- **Feature Film**-- This location includes videocassettes and DVDs of popular motion pictures and television programs. Main Floor, duPont-Ball Library
- **Folio**--This location includes books that are too large to fit on regularly spaced shelves. Northeast corner, Mezzanine floor, duPont-Ball Library
- **GovtDocs**--Government Documents, Ground Floor (basement), duPont-Ball Library
- **In-Process**--Item has been received by the Library, but it is not yet on the shelves.
- **Microform**--This location includes microfiche and microfilm. Microfiche and microfilm of older journal articles is located on the Main Floor, northeast corner, duPont-Ball Library. Government Documents microfiche, newspaper microfilm, and cataloged microfilm is located on the Ground Floor (basement), East Wall, duPont-Ball Library.
- **Reference**--The Reference Collection includes indexes and books that give background material, overviews, or definitions, among other things. Southeast end, main floor, duPont-Ball Library.
- **Reserves**--A professor has placed this item on reserve. Ask for reserves at the Information Desk.
- **Software**--This location includes CD-ROMs and computer disks. Ask for software at the Information Desk.
- **Stetson****--Stetson Collection, University Archives, Ground Floor (basement) duPont-Ball Library
- **Treasure****--Treasure Collection, University Archives, Ground Floor (basement), duPont-Ball Library
- **Video**-- This location includes videocassettes and DVDs of nonfiction, educational, or performance video programs. Main floor, duPont-Ball Library

**Locked collection--please ask at the Information Desk for assistance.

See the map of the library floor plan for more information:

http://www2.stetson.edu/library/maps_librarymap.pdf

Journal and Newspaper Articles

Most researchers now use electronic databases to find periodical articles (*periodical* is a word librarians use to include anything published on a regular basis). Periodicals include general interest magazines, newspapers, and scholarly journals.



A search in the library's box will likely return many journal and newspaper articles on almost any subject. However, if you need to search in a discipline-specific database (such as PsycInfo, or MLA, or Music Index, or ABI/Inform), you will need to think about the following.

Appropriate Discipline-Specific Databases

The first step is to search in a database that is likely to contain the information you want. You won't find many articles on ways to teach fractions to elementary students in a business database. Likewise, you won't find many articles on leveraged buyouts in the education databases.

Consider not only if the database covers the subject matter you need but also does the database include the years that may be relevant to your research. For example, if you are researching a corporate scandal that took place in 1972, although certainly later articles could have been written about it, you will want a database that goes back to at least 1972.

The path of reasoning leading to a successful search of an electronic or computer database can be illustrated as follows:

DATABASE → Record → Field → Vocabulary

Choosing the wrong database is like trying to buy oranges at an auto supply store: you can walk up and down the aisles all you want, but you probably aren't ever going to find oranges. You can search and search in a database like *ABI/Inform* (a business database) for scholarly articles on schizophrenia, but it's unlikely you would ever find anything. A much better choice would be *PsycInfo* (a database of scholarly articles from psychological journals).

The Library has suggested subscription databases for all disciplines/program on the Databases by Subject page.

Also on the Library's Databases by Subject page you will see in the alphabetical listing of all the Library's databases a button with a question mark ? to click on for more information on each database.

You must be an authorized Stetson user in order to use the Library's databases. See the section below on Web pages for more information on authorization.

If you are in doubt about an appropriate database, ask at the Information Desk, call a research librarian at 386-747-9028, or email a research librarian at http://www2.stetson.edu/library/contact_askalibrarian.php.

Go to **Step Two—Preparing for Focused Research** for tips on searching electronic databases.

Does Stetson Own the Journal or Newspaper?

To determine if Stetson owns a newspaper, journal, or magazine (all are considered periodicals), check the **Journals List** on the Library's Home page at <http://www2.stetson.edu/library/index.php>.

Note that this list tells you if Stetson owns a periodical or has access to it full text (that is, the entire articles in that journal are available from the computer). If Stetson does have access to it full-text through one of its subscription databases, a link to that database is given. If a title of a periodical is not listed, Stetson does not own it or have full-text access to it.

The list also tells you what years Stetson has of a particular periodical and if we have certain years of the periodical on microfilm or microfiche.

If you are looking for a **journal or magazine** in paper format, the journals and magazines from 2009-to the present are shelved on the left-hand east side of the main floor of the Main Library. **They are shelved in alphabetical order.** There are no call numbers on journals or magazines. Journals and magazines in paper format older than 2009 are shelved along the east side of the ground (basement) floor of the Main Library.

If the **newspaper** title is found in this List of Journals, the list will tell you whether we have the newspaper in paper, microform, or in which database you need to search.

Important Note: There are hundreds of newspapers not included in the Journals List. If you do NOT find the newspaper on the Journals List, you may want to try some of the databases listed below. These databases cover hundreds of newspaper, both U. S. and papers from other countries, that are not included in the Journals List:

ProQuest Newspapers
Lexis-Nexis
NewsBank InfoWeb.

Web Sites



Almost everyone uses the Web to do research. With little effort, one can type a topic into a Google or similar search and retrieve hundreds or thousands of results. However, this approach to Web searching is likely to result in hundreds or thousands of results that are irrelevant, useless, or not appropriate for college research.

The following pages are designed to help your Internet searching so that your results are more focused, relevant, and appropriate.

First, a couple of housekeeping statements:

1. See page 18 above for information re. authorized users of Stetson's subscription databases. Anyone using the Internet over Stetson's Internet lines is bound by the Stetson University Code of Conduct for Stetson Computer Lab Use, the ResNet Code of Conduct, and the Networking Code of Computing Ethics. Copies of these documents are available at the office of the Center for Information Technology, on the IT Web pages (<http://www.stetson.edu/administration/it/home/nw/policies.php>), and are on reserve in the Library. Using Stetson's Internet connections indicates tacit agreement to abide by these Codes.
2. If you are interested in reading about the history and structure of the internet in addition to dozens of other internet-related topics (such as Netiquette, Internet Legends and Myths, Internet Security, and more), go to The Living Internet Site at <http://www.livinginternet.com/i/i.htm>.

Search Engines—Subject Directories

There are basically two types of search engines. The first is a **subject directory** which classifies Internet resources according to broad categories and sub-categories. Users click on the category of their choice, then on the sub-categories until they reach the addresses of the type of information they are seeking. Some subject directories have limited search capabilities within the directory.

Subject directories are compiled by people. Here are some good examples of internet subject directories:

About.com: <http://www.about.com/>

Info Mine: <http://infomine.ucr.edu/>

Internet Public Library2: <http://ipl2.org/> (merger of Internet Public Library and Librarians' Internet Index)

Scirus: <http://www.scirus.com/srsapp/> (science information)

Search Engines—Web Databases

The second type of search engine is the **Web database** which is really what most people think of when using the term "search engine."

A Web database is constructed by a software program (a "robot") that visits Web sites and downloads information from the Web sites into a database.

Whether or not a Web database is very helpful to the searcher depends on the software that is visiting Web sites and downloading information. Web databases collect enormous amounts of information and rank the results of matching your search statement with what information it has about Web sites. Some Web database search engines, such as MetaCrawler, search several other search engines at a time.

Most Web databases compile sites based on relevancy ranking. For example, if you type in three words, the search engine looks for Web sites with all three words first, then the first two words,

then the first word. Many search engines give a relevancy ranking (a number or percentage) to give you an idea of how close an exact match to your search was made.

For a chart which compares features of several search engines, go to the following site:

<http://www.infopeople.org/search/chart.html> .

An online tutorial on how to choose a Web search engine is available at

<http://www.internettutorials.net/choose.asp> .



Government Information

The Government Documents collection in the Library consists of materials published by the United States government or by the State of Florida. In 1887, Stetson became the first library in the state of Florida to be designated a Federal Depository Library. The Library has received Florida State Documents since 1968. Stetson's library receives about 30% of the material the U.S. government makes available to depository libraries. We will not have every document, but we do have many, and we make many more available electronically.

Your first step in locating government documents should be the Library's Catalog (library home page, Databases by Title, WebCat, the Library Catalog) to see if the library has cataloged that document. MANY documents, especially more recent documents, have been cataloged, but many of Stetson's 370,000+ documents, especially older documents, are not listed in the catalog. To locate government documents that are not in the Catalog, you should ask at the Information Desk on the main floor.

Assistance in locating documents is available in the Government Documents Office (Room 142 of the Library) or at the Information Desk on the main floor. Many of the items in the Government Documents collection may be checked out at the Circulation Desk.

Step Four Evaluating Sources

Overview

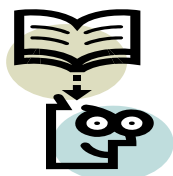
One of the hallmarks of college research is evaluation. Not all sources, whether print or electronic, are equally appropriate or credible. Some sources are appropriate for certain topics

or kinds of papers that would not be appropriate for other topics or types of assignments. There are some publications, for example tabloid newspapers, whose content cannot be trusted to be accurate or even that the events reported really happened. The tabloid newspapers are easy to spot as sources whose credibility is suspect. Other sources are not so easy to evaluate.

The following pages will give you some tips on how to evaluate information. Things that scholars consider in evaluating information include the following:

1. Who or what is the author or group/institution responsible for the content of the information? What do you know about the person or group? What are the author's or group's credentials? Does the author or group have a known bias or particular agenda on the subject?
2. Who is the intended audience?
3. What is the purpose of the information? To inform, to persuade, to entertain, to sell something?
4. What is the date of the information? Are there parts of your source that may be outdated?
5. What is the quality and level of writing?
6. How relevant is your source to your needs? Is the treatment of your topic in your source detailed enough?
7. Is your source mostly fact or opinion? Are the opinions based on fact? Is supporting evidence given? Is there an obvious bias? Are the examples given representative examples? Is the Information accurate and credible? Can you corroborate the facts in other sources?
8. Last, but probably most important, read the material. How does it fit (or not) with what you already know? What makes sense? Why? What doesn't "add up"? Why?

Books



In evaluating books (which sometimes scholars call monographs), scholars will look at

- who the author is and his/her credentials for writing the book
- who published it (some publishers are known to publish more solid research than others)
- when the book was published.

Then scholars will look at the content of the book for such things as the

- methodology used to conduct the study or research the topic
- the sources used to research the topic
- the depth of the research into this topic
- the scope of the research on this topic
- obvious bias or a preconceived agenda for writing about the topic
- the purpose of the book
- what the book adds to the field of scholarship



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Journal and Magazine Periodicals

The definition of a periodical is a publication that appears at regular intervals. Newspapers, magazines, and journals are all considered periodicals.

However, many people in academia make the distinction between a journal (sometimes called a scholarly journal) and a magazine. In general, a magazine is defined as a periodical containing various types of information: stories, news, pictures, and advertising. Magazine usually implies a non-scholarly periodical meant for a non-specialist audience. In general, the term journal implies a periodical written by specialists or experts for specialists or experts.

As in evaluating books, here are some general questions to ask of periodical articles:

- Who is the author? What do you know about this individual or group?
- What's the purpose of the article? to inform, to entertain, to persuade, to sell?
- How balanced is it in its treatment of the subject?
- Who is the intended audience?
- What's the range and depth of the coverage of the subject?
- What or whose point of view is represented?
- What is the quality and level of writing?
- Are there sources listed for the data or conclusions made in this article?

To evaluate journal articles found on the Web, if the article was retrieved from a database of articles, check to see if the database allows you to limit your search to articles in **refereed** or **peer reviewed** or **scholarly** journals. Check the citation of the document to locate the author's name. Does the information in the record also list the author's affiliation (the institution where the author works)?

If the article is a Web page, but did not come from an obvious database, see if there is a link to the author's personal home page or author's institutional affiliation. Check traditional reference sources such as *Who's Who*, *Gale Literature Resource Center* (person search), or *Biography Reference Bank* (all available from the library's Databases by Title page) for more information on an author. Who published the Web document? Look at the URL to see if an educational institution or non-profit organization published the document; a domain of .edu or .org often lends the article higher standing in the academic community than a commercial (.com) site.

To evaluate journal articles found in print copies, read the information on the inside front cover about the periodical; often this information will tell you who the intended audience of the publication

is. Also look to see if the journal is **refereed** or **peer reviewed** (that is, has a group of experts that critique and judge articles that are published) or if there is a board of advisors listed (who are the advisors? what are their credentials?). Check traditional reference sources such as *Who's Who*, *Gale Literature Resource Center* (person search), or *Biography Reference Bank* (all available from the library's Databases by Title page) for more information on an author.

For any periodical, look for the characteristics of popular, professional, and scholarly periodicals listed below.

Popular Periodicals

POPULAR periodicals have many of the following characteristics:

- printed on slick paper
- contain color photos
- *usually produced on a quick time frame (weekly or monthly)
- *lots of advertising
- *articles are usually short, a few pages at most
- *authors of the articles are not always identified, are frequently staff writers
- *articles have no references or bibliographies
- *intended audience is non-specialist

- EXAMPLES: *Time*, *Newsweek*, *National Geographic*

*these characteristics will also help you determine popular periodicals in an electronic database

Practical or Professional Periodicals

PRACTICAL (OR PROFESSIONAL) periodicals may have many of the following characteristics:

- may also be printed on slick paper with color photos, or may be on dull paper
- advertising will usually be on one subject (the subject of the periodical)
- *produced on a slower time frame (often monthly, sometimes quarterly)
- *often reports the news of the field
- *authors and their credentials are usually given
- *articles are longer
- *may contain references and bibliographies, but not always
- *may contain a lot of case studies (this is how I (we) did it)
- *articles are usually written by practitioners for other practitioners (although scholars do write for practitioner periodicals)

- EXAMPLES: *The American Sociologist*, *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, *Chain Store Age Executive*, *The Church Musician*, *Educational Leadership*

*these characteristics will also help you determine practical (or professional) periodicals in an electronic database

Scholarly Periodicals

SCHOLARLY periodicals may contain many of the following characteristics:

- heavy stock paper
- usually no color photos (in fact, few photos)
- advertising is usually only for books or conferences in the field
- *produced on the slowest time frame (quarterly or more)
- *authors are identified and often a short biography of the academic credentials is given
- *articles tend to be long

- *articles have numerous references and bibliographies; sources of the data used to form the thesis of the article are given
 - *articles are written by scholars for other scholars
 - EXAMPLES: *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*; *Journal of Research and Development in Education*; *The Academy of Management Review*; *AJS (American Journal of Sociology)*; *The Journal of Social Psychology*
- *these characteristics will also help you determine scholarly periodicals in an electronic database

Scholarly journals are often called **peer reviewed or refereed journals**. Peer reviewed or refereed journals are the most prestigious scholarly journals. See the next section for more information on peer reviewed or refereed journals.

For additional information and discussion on how to identify and evaluate scholarly periodical literature, visit any of the following:

<http://www.umuc.edu/library/guides/identify.html>

<http://www.library.cornell.edu/okuref/research/skill20.html>

<http://library.weber.edu/ref/guides/howto/scholarlyarticles.cfm>

Peer Reviewed or Refereed Journals



What are peer-reviewed or refereed journals? Peer reviewing or refereeing is the process by which an author's article is critiqued by experts in the field before it is accepted for publication in a journal. In some publications, when the article is published, the critiques are published with it. The terms "peer reviewed" and "refereed" are used interchangeably.

Peer reviewed or refereed journals are considered the most academic and prestigious in which to publish although there can be significant differences in the procedures and stringency of the review or referee process among journals.

Limit Your Search to Peer Reviewed--Most electronic databases allow the user to limit the search to peer reviewed or refereed journals or scholarly journals. The screen of results from a search using the library's box allows you to limit to Academic Journals, and then to

Scholarly (Peer Reviewed) Journals.

When using a discipline-specific database, on the database search screen, look for a box that says something like "Peer Reviewed," or "Show Peer Reviewed Publications," or "Scholarly Journals." Check that box to limit your search only to those journals that are refereed, peer reviewed, or scholarly.

Many databases dedicated to one discipline only (e.g., Modern Language Association Bibliography, Sociological Abstracts, PsycInfo) do not offer the option of limiting a search to peer-reviewed only because all of the journals covered in the database are considered relevant to that discipline. Most (but not all) will be peer-reviewed publications.

If you do not know if a specific journal is peer reviewed, if you have a copy in print (paper), look inside the front cover of an issue of the journal. Often the information on the journal given in the front part of an issue will tell if the journal is refereed or not.

If you don't have a copy of an issue that you can look at, you can check a database called *Ulrich's Periodical Directory*. To get to Ulrich's, go to the Library's home page, <http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>, and click on Databases by Title. Type in the name of the journal you want to find. Enter. When the journal you are looking for appears, look for the icon that indicates it is refereed or click on the title to get to more information on that periodical.

If that doesn't work, see if you can find a Web site for that publication and see if the publication criteria state if articles are refereed. If you are still in doubt, ask a librarian for help.



Web Sites

As in evaluating books and articles, here are some general questions to ask of Web sites:

- What individual or group is the author? What do you know about this individual or group? What's the purpose of the site? to inform, to entertain, to persuade, to sell?
- How balanced is it in its treatment of the subject?
- Who is the intended audience?
- What's the range and depth of the coverage of the subject?
- What or whose point of view is represented?
- What is the quality and level of writing?
- Are there any sources listed for the data or conclusions made on the site?
- When was this site last updated?
- Can I get into this site consistently?

Here are some tips for getting the information to answer some of the above questions.

- Look at the Web address. Who produced this site?
- Is an author listed? Is there a Webmaster listed with contact information?
- Is there an "About Us" or "Who We Are" button somewhere that takes you to information on who is responsible for the site?

- What is the domain (the three-letter extension at the end of the address)? Those with domains of .edu come from educational institutions. **In general**, the content of these addresses tends to be more accurate and reliable. Those addresses with a domain of .gov are for U.S. government sites. Those addresses with a domain of .org are, **usually**, from non-profit groups.
- Try truncating (shortening) the Web address, starting on the right-hand side of the address, to get back to the home page of the group putting the Web pages up.
- What do others say about this site? Find out what other web pages link to the page you are evaluating. Go to alexa.com. Type or paste the URL you are evaluating into alexa.com's search box. Click on "get details." You will see (some of the following depends on the volume of traffic to the page) traffic details to that page, related links to other sites visited by people who visited the page, sites that link to that page, contact/ownership info. for the domain name, a link to the "Wayback Machine," showing what the page looked like in the past.
- Is the page mentioned or rated in a trusted Web Subject Guide such as Librarians' Internet Index or Infomine.ucr.edu?

For additional information on evaluating Web sites and information on the internet, visit any of the following:

<http://www.ithaca.edu/library/training/think.html>

<http://www.lib.purdue.edu/rguides/studentinstruction/evaluation/index.html>



To see a short video on using and evaluating the information in **Wikipedia**, go to <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QY8otRh1QPc>

Step Five—Citing Sources



Image from Western Kentucky University
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Plagiarism

A basic characteristic of scholarly work is citing the sources used or referred to or borrowed from. It is academic dishonesty to use ideas from (even if you put them in different words), paraphrase, or quote from someone else's work without acknowledging the other source.

If you use someone else's work—their words, ideas, art work, music, Web pages, software, or some other expression—you must acknowledge the author or creator. Failure to do so is an unethical practice called plagiarism. Stetson has an official policy regarding plagiarism in the Student Code of Conduct which can be found online under the Academic Honesty section: <http://www.stetson.edu/administration/judicialaffairs/StudentCodeofConduct.php> .

To avoid plagiarism, writers, musicians, web page designers, and others need to acknowledge where they got their ideas, quotes, music, or images. There are conventional ways of acknowledging that you have used someone else's work. There are different forms of citation for many academic disciplines. In other words, each discipline has its own preferred way of citing sources. Many disciplines have published their preferred citation conventions in what is called a **style manual or style guide (see below)**.



Try any of these video tutorials to expand your understanding of plagiarism and academic honesty:

Fairfield University: http://www.fairfield.edu/library/lib_plagiarismcourt.html

Rutgers University: <http://library.camden.rutgers.edu/EducationalModule/Plagiarism/>

San Jose State University:

<http://tutorials.sjlibrary.org/tutorial/plagiarism/tutorial/introduction.htm?flash=yes>

For more information on plagiarism and how to avoid it, go to the following sites:

<http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/pamphlets/plagiarism.shtml>

<http://plagiarism.umf.maine.edu/>

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/589/01/>

Style Manuals



Image from:
<http://www.library.unisa.edu.au/>. Used with permission.

To avoid plagiarism, writers, musicians, web page designers, and others need to acknowledge where they got their ideas, quotes, music, or images. There are conventional ways of acknowledging that you have used someone else's work. There are different forms of citation for many academic disciplines. In other words, each discipline has its own preferred way of citing sources. Many disciplines have published their preferred citation conventions in what is called a **style manual or style guide**.

Check with your classroom professors to see what citation style they wish for you to follow.

In citing any source (book, journal article, government document, Web site, whatever), be sure you have the following relevant elements for your notes and bibliography or works cited page:

1. Author. This may be an individual person, a government agency, a department within a larger entity (for example, the Sociology Department at a university), or a business.
2. Title of the journal article, newspaper article, chapter from a book, government document, or Web site AND title of the journal, newspaper, or book
3. Name of electronic database (if the article was retrieved through a database on the Web)
4. URL to Web site
5. Date of publication or date last visited on the Web
6. Volume number and issue number if the material is from a magazine, newspaper, or scholarly journal
7. Pages of the journal article or book

If what you need to cite does not fall into any of these categories, check with your professor as to what information you will need to properly acknowledge the source.

The most common style manuals used in college papers are the following:

MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers. 7th ed. New York: The Modern Language Association, 2009. REF LB 2369 .G53 2009 (Kept at the Information Desk.)

Help in citing using MLA format can be found at the following site:

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/747/01/>

Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association. Washington, 6th ed. D.C.: American Psychological Association, 2010. REF BF 76.7 .P83 2010. (Kept at the Information Desk.)

For help with citing electronic sources, go to

<http://www.apastyle.org/learn/tutorials/basics-tutorial.aspx> or
<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/2/10/>

Turabian, Kate. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. 7th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2007. REF LB 2369 .T8 2007 (usually referred to as just "Turabian").

(Kept at the Information Desk.) Help in citing using Turabian can be found at the following site:
http://www.press.uchicago.edu/books/turabian/turabian_citationguide.html

The Chicago Manual of Style. 16th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2010.
 REF Z 253 .C572 2003. (Kept at the Information Desk.) Samples using the Chicago Manual of
 Style can be found at http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide.html.

Scientific Style and Format: The CSE Manual for Authors, Editors, and Publishers. 7th ed.
 Reston, VA: Council of Science Editors in cooperation with the Rockefeller University Press,
 2006. REF. T11 .S386 2006.

Style Guide, 3rd ed. American Sociological Association. 2007, Ref. HM569 .A54 2007

Links to help with various citation guides can be found at
<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/2/>



Copyright

As more and more students make presentations at conferences and before prospective employers, they need to be aware that what was used legally for a classroom presentation, might not be legal in other situations. When in doubt, if making a presentation outside of the classroom, check on whether copyright clearance or permission from the author or performer is needed before using that material, soundtrack, or image.

What is copyright? “Copyright is a form of protection provided by the laws of the United States (title 17, U.S. Code) to the authors of ‘original works of authorship,’ including literary, dramatic, musical, artistic, and certain other intellectual works. This protection is available to both published and unpublished works.”

[U.S. Copyright Office Web site, <http://www.copyright.gov/circs/circ01.pdf>]

In general, the owner of the copyright has “the exclusive right to do and to authorize others to do the following:

- **“To reproduce** the work in copies or phonorecords;
- To prepare **derivative works** based upon the work;
- **To distribute copies or phonorecords** of the work to the public by sale or other transfer of ownership, or by rental, lease, or lending;
- **To perform the work publicly**, in the case of literary, musical, dramatic, and choreographic works, pantomimes, and motion pictures and other audiovisual works;
- **To display the copyrighted work publicly**, in the case of literary, musical, dramatic, and choreographic works, pantomimes, and pictorial, graphic, or sculptural works, including the individual images of a motion picture or other audiovisual work; and
- In the case of **sound recordings, to perform the work publicly** by means of a **digital audio transmission**.

“In addition, certain authors of works of visual art have the rights of attribution and integrity as described in [section 106A](http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#106a), <http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#106a> , of the 1976 Copyright Act. For further information, request Circular 40 <http://www.copyright.gov/circs/circ40.pdf>, ‘Copyright Registration for Works of the Visual Arts.’

“It is illegal for anyone to violate any of the rights provided by the copyright law to the owner of copyright. These rights, however, are not unlimited in scope. Sections 107 through 121, <http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html> , of the 1976 Copyright Act establish limitations on these rights. In some cases, these limitations are specified exemptions from copyright liability. One major limitation is the doctrine of ‘fair use,’ which is given a statutory basis in section 107, <http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#107> , of the 1976 Copyright Act. In other instances, the limitation takes the form of a "compulsory license" under which certain limited uses of copyrighted works are permitted upon payment of specified royalties and compliance with statutory conditions. For further information about the limitations of any of these rights, consult the copyright law or write to the Copyright Office.”

[U. S. Copyright Office Web site, <http://www.copyright.gov/circs/circ01.pdf>]

So what does all of this mean? It means very practical considerations like getting copyright permission to stage plays open to the public at Stetson’s Stover Theatre. It means being aware of the limits of using “phrases” from music in your music compositions. It means that copying music CDs is illegal. It means that producing a video for a college class that uses a popular rock tune over scenes of a TV program may be considered Fair Use (see section below). However, if you were then to put that same video up on the Web or show it at a conference or to an interview committee for a prospective employer, you would most likely be in violation of copyright.



Fair Use

Fair use is an exception to copyright under American law. Fair use allows limited use of copyrighted material for certain purposes and under certain conditions without permission from the author or owner. Note that in the list below of permissible uses of copyrighted material are uses for **teaching**, **scholarship**, and **research**.

However, there are limits for using copyrighted materials without getting permission, even for teaching, scholarship, and/or research. **Pay particular attention to the list of factors in determining fair use below.**

“Notwithstanding the provisions of sections 106 (<http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#106>) and 106A (<http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#106a>) [of the 1976 Copyright Act] the fair use of a copyrighted work, including such use by reproduction in copies or phonorecords or by any other means specified by that section, for purposes such as criticism, comment, news reporting,

teaching (including multiple copies for classroom use), scholarship, or research, is not an infringement of copyright. In determining whether the use made of a work in any particular case is a fair use the factors to be considered shall include —

- (1) “the purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of a commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes;
- (2) the nature of the copyrighted work;
- (3) the amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole; and
- (4) the effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work.

“The fact that a work is unpublished shall not itself bar a finding of fair use if such finding is made upon consideration of all the above factors.”

[U. S. Copyright Office Web site, <http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#107>]

What this means is that you should consider the four things listed above in putting together any presentation or performance or publishing any written work that involves using copyrighted material. It means that even in a classroom presentation, you have to be aware of the **amount** of that *Star Trek* episode you are using in a PowerPoint presentation or **how much** of a song you were using as background in a video. And certainly if you take your presentation or writing outside of a classroom, you will want to be aware of these four factors.

If you have a question about whether something can be used under the Fair Use provision without getting copyright permission, consult some of the sites below, the University’s Office of Academic Affairs, the appropriate Dean, or personnel in Media Services.

<http://fairuse.stanford.edu/>

<http://www.usg.edu/copyright/>

www.umuc.edu/library/copy.html

<http://www.library.ucla.edu/b Bruinsuccess/>

<http://www.loc.gov/copyright/>

<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/copyrightmystery/text/copyright/>

Step Six--Where to Get Help



Image from:
<http://travelinoma.blogspot.com/2008/04/help.html?showComment=1207541280000>. Used with permission.

Library Services

In addition to discussing your research project with your professor, you can find additional research help by taking advantage of any of the Library's research help listed below:

- Ask for a research librarian by coming to the Information Desk. For contact information for the research librarians, go to http://stetson.edu/library/departments_reference.php.
- Email a research librarian at <http://stetson.edu/library/contact.php>.
- Call a research librarian at (386) 747-9028. Voicemail will pick up when research librarians are not available. A research librarian will return your call as soon as possible.
- Schedule a one-on-one time to talk over your research project with a research librarian by calling Jane Bradford at 386-822-7190.

Additional Library Information can be found by going to the following Web pages:

- The Library's **Circulation Department** page for information on checking out materials: http://www2.stetson.edu/library/departments_circulation.php.
- The Library's **Reserves** page for information about materials placed on reserve in the Library: http://www2.stetson.edu/library/departments_reserves.php.
- The Library's **Interlibrary Loan** Page for information on interlibrary loans: http://www2.stetson.edu/library/departments_ill.php.

Other information about the Library, such as Library hours, the Library's calendar, and more can be found from links at the Library's home page: <http://www2.stetson.edu/library/>.

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 Please send questions or comments to jbradfor@stetson.edu.