
**BHS
Research
Paper
Guidelines**

Revised August 1997

BEAUMONT HIGH SCHOOL RESEARCH PAPER GUIDELINES

Revised August 1997

INTRODUCTION

These guidelines, designed for Beaumont High School students, are not intended to be exhaustive, but are meant to provide a basic understanding of some of the fundamental principles and practices of research paper writing. Even though the research paper process is usually taught in English classes, the guidelines are purposely general enough to be feasible for use in all subject areas.

The following materials were used in compiling the guidelines:

- Capital Community-Technical College Humanities Department and Arthur C. Banks, Jr., Library. *A Guide for Writing Research Papers Based on Modern Language Association (MLA) Documentation*. 1997.
<<http://155.43.225.30/mla.htm>> 16 Aug. 1997.
- Dangle, Lorraine F., and Alice M. Haussman. *Preparing the Research Paper*. 4th ed. Fairfield, NJ: Cebco Standard, 1984.
- Elsbree, Langdon, Nell G. Altizer, and Paul V. Kelly. *Heath Handbook of Composition*. 10th ed. Lexington, MA: Heath, 1981.
- Fundamentals of the Research Paper: Official Beaumont High School Format*.
N.p.: n.p., n.d.
- Gibaldi, Joseph. *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. 4th ed. New York: Modern Language Association of America, 1995.
- Gibaldi, Joseph, and Walter S. Achtert. *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. 3rd ed. New York: Modern Language Association of America, 1988.

WHAT IS A RESEARCH PAPER?

In *Preparing the Research Paper*, the research paper is described as

a factual presentation that is (1) based upon reading or consulting several specified sources, (2) presented according to a standard method of procedure, (3) limited to a relatively narrow area of a subject, and (4)

original in its evaluation and selection of information and in its expression and conclusions (Dangle and Haussman 1).

The research paper is sometimes called a **library paper** because its preparation often involves extensive use of the library. It is sometimes called a **term paper** because the time allotted for writing it is sometimes the greater part of a semester or term. An "**I search**" paper often stresses the use of primary sources of information such as interviews or personal experiences.

WHY IS DOCUMENTATION NECESSARY IN A RESEARCH PAPER?

Words and ideas are property. If you borrow someone else's words or ideas for use in your research paper, it is only right to acknowledge or credit the sources of the words or ideas you have used. Failure to document borrowed words or ideas constitutes **plagiarism**. The *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* (3rd ed.) addresses this issue succinctly in the following passage:

In writing your research paper, you must document everything that you borrow--not only direct quotations and paraphrases but also information and ideas. Of course, common sense as well as ethics should determine what you document. For example, you rarely need to give sources for familiar proverbs ("You can't judge a book by its cover"), well-known quotations ("We shall overcome"), or common knowledge ("George Washington was the first president of the United States"). But you must indicate the source of any borrowed material that readers might otherwise mistake for your own (Gibaldi and Acltort 155).

Beaumont High students should be aware that plagiarism, like other forms of cheating, is a violation of school policy. A student who presents the work of others--whether they are published writers or other students--as his/her own work risks receiving a grade of zero on his/her research paper as well as other disciplinary action.

WHY WRITE A RESEARCH PAPER?

The purpose of the research paper is to

- a. enable the student to pursue his/her own specific interests within a given area of study.
- b. enable a student to gain experience in researching a subject.
- c. enable the instructor to cover general material in group situations while guiding students in specific areas.
- d. enable a student to utilize and combine all skills he/she has learned.
- e. enable a student to understand the technicalities of a formal paper.

PROCEDURE FOR A RESEARCH PAPER

The following steps are suggested in preparing a research paper:

1. Choose a general subject.
2. Check for sources of information on the subject.
3. Limit or alter the subject if necessary.
4. Record information **about** sources on bibliography or source cards.
5. Record information **from** sources on note cards.
6. Organize information in a logical manner.
7. Write draft(s) of the paper with documentation and list of works cited.
8. Revise, edit, and rewrite the paper, and prepare it for presentation following a standard format.

This guide and your teacher will provide additional information about each of the above steps as you go through the process of completing your research paper.

STEP ONE: CHOOSE A SUBJECT

Because you will be writing your research paper as a class assignment, your teacher may set limits on the types of subjects that may be used in your paper. Within the teacher's limits, you should choose a subject that, above all, is interesting to you. Remember that you will be spending several hours, days, or even weeks gathering information and writing about your subject, so you will want to choose one which will sustain your interest until your paper is completed.

Other factors to consider in choosing a subject might be the audience for whom you are writing, the length of the paper, the amount of information available to you, and your teacher's expectations for the assignment (Gibaldi and Achart 2-3). If you need help in choosing a subject, check with your teacher, talk to your friends and family, or browse in the library or on the internet.

STEP TWO: CHECK FOR SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Although some information may come from your personal experiences or from interviews or other primary sources, most information for your research paper will probably be found in the library. To help you make the most of the resources available in the library, your teacher may arrange to have the librarian work with your class to review your library skills at the beginning of the research paper process. Even if there is not a formal review in your class, your teacher, the librarian, or library assistants may be willing to help you find information on your subject. In the BHS library you may want to check the following as you search for information:

- the card catalog
- CD-ROM databases
- online resources

- the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature* or other specialized indexes
- dictionaries
- encyclopedias
- biographical reference works
- yearbooks and almanacs
- atlases
- specialized dictionaries and encyclopedias for specific subject areas
(Gibaldi 5-20)

Some teachers have specific requirements concerning the number and type of sources that should be used for their research paper assignments. This will also have an effect on your search for information and your decision about the feasibility of your subject. In any case, you will probably want to use a variety of sources. Here are some pros and cons of some of the most common types of information sources used in high school research papers:

Books

- pro: Often very thorough and authoritative. Usually--but not always--someone who has written an entire book on a subject knows a great deal about it.
- con: An entire book takes a great deal of time to read. Usually your time for doing research will be limited.
Many library books are several years old. It is often very important that your information be as current as possible.
If you find an entire book on your subject, you may be tempted to rely too heavily on it; remember that it is important to use a variety of sources of information.

CD-ROM databases

- pro: Lots of available information, sometimes quite current.
Easy to search for relevant information.
- con: May not be as current as online resources or periodicals.

Online resources

- pro: Abundant information, often extremely current.
Easy to search for the information you need.
- con: Online resources are sometimes unreliable.
There is no editing or screening process for publishing on the world wide web, so information may reflect the biases or lack of knowledge of those publishing it; some websites are even intentionally deceptive.

Magazines, newspapers, other periodicals

- pro: Very current information. This can be helpful if you are working with subjects where knowledge is new or changing rapidly, such as science or social issues.
- con: Some articles in magazines and other periodicals reflect the biases of their editors or advertisers. If you are looking for pure facts, you will want to avoid biased information.
Some periodicals depend heavily on photographs and other illustrations to relay information. It may be difficult to convey such information effectively in your research paper.

Encyclopedias, dictionaries, other reference works

- pro: Brief, easy-to-find bits of information. Can be especially helpful during your preliminary search for information.
- con: Reference articles often lack depth.
Reference works can quickly become outdated in some subject areas.
Information on a given subject can be very similar in many reference works.
It is tempting to rely too heavily on encyclopedias.

STEP THREE: LIMIT OR ALTER THE SUBJECT

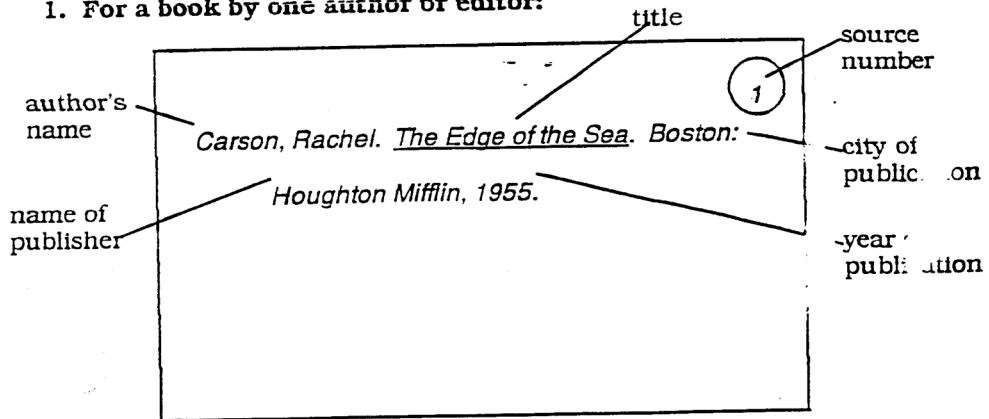
After a preliminary search for information, you may find that it is necessary to limit your subject. Often students find that their subjects are simply too broad to be covered in sufficient depth in a five- to ten-page paper. When you find an overabundance of information--such as an entire book written on the subject you have chosen--you will know that you will need to narrow your topic to some specific aspect of your subject. When the opposite problem occurs--a lack of usable information on your subject--you may need to broaden it or change to another subject.

STEP FOUR: RECORD INFORMATION ABOUT SOURCES

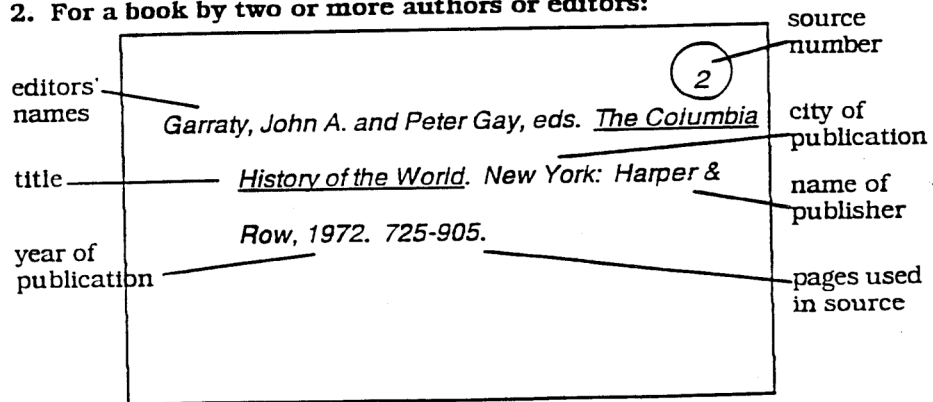
It is vital to keep exact bibliographical data about each of your sources of information. When you begin working with a new source, make out a bibliography or source card for it. Usually, 3" x 5" index cards work well for this purpose. Be sure to record bibliographical data carefully as it appears in the source. It may seem unnecessary to record all this data for every source you use during your research, but you will need precise bibliographical information later for documentation and your list of works cited (Dangle and Haussman 2). Many students find that it is effective to assign a source number to each new source of information: this eliminates the need to write bibliographical data on each note card as you take notes.

The bibliographical data you will need to record varies slightly for different types of sources. Following are some examples from *Preparing the Research Paper*, the *MLA Handbook* (4th ed.), and *A Guide for Writing Research Papers*. These are also correct formats for entries in your list of works cited. (See **STEP SEVEN**.)

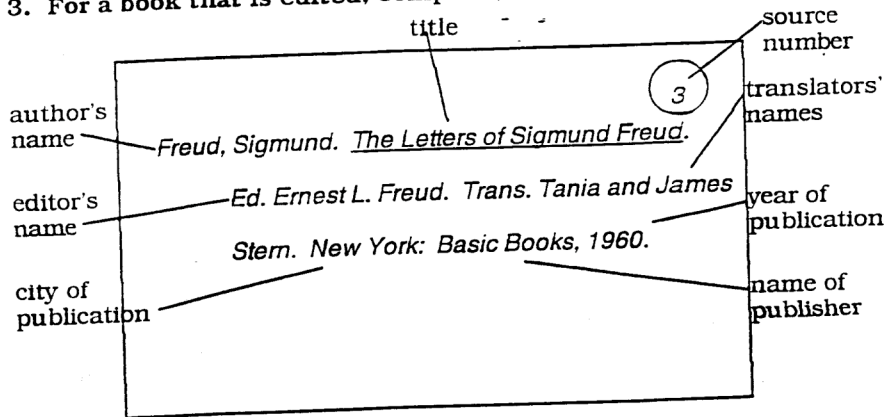
1. For a book by one author or editor:



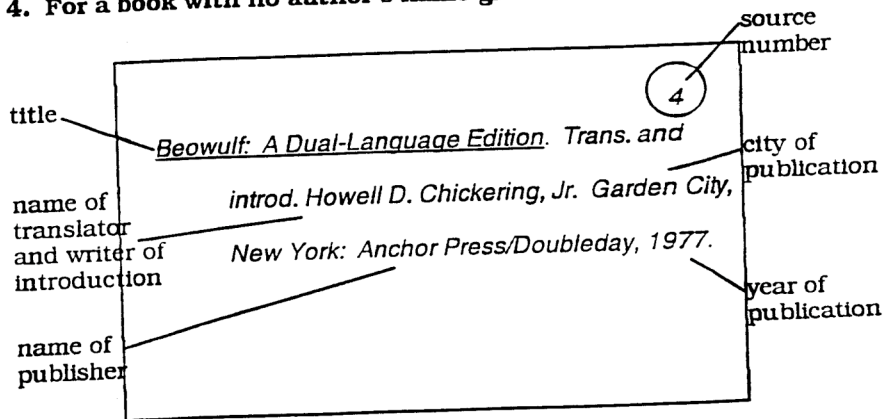
2. For a book by two or more authors or editors:



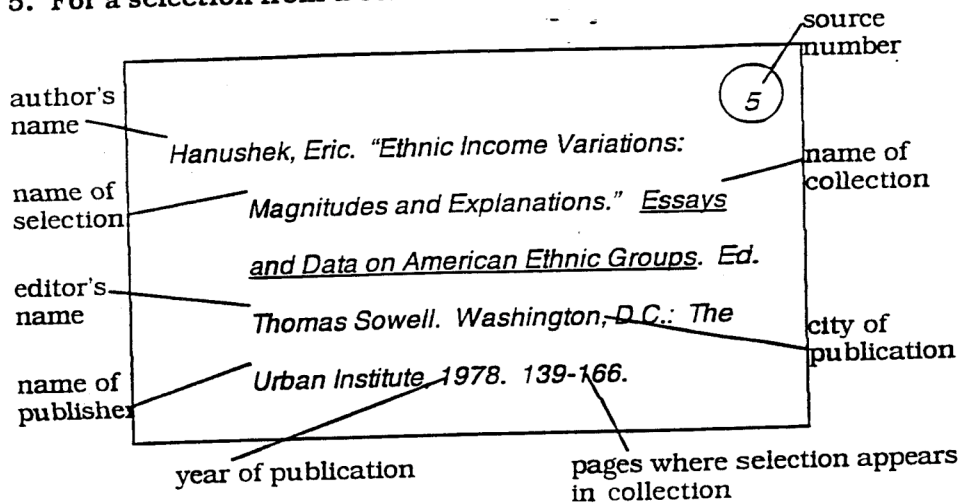
3. For a book that is edited, compiled, or translated:



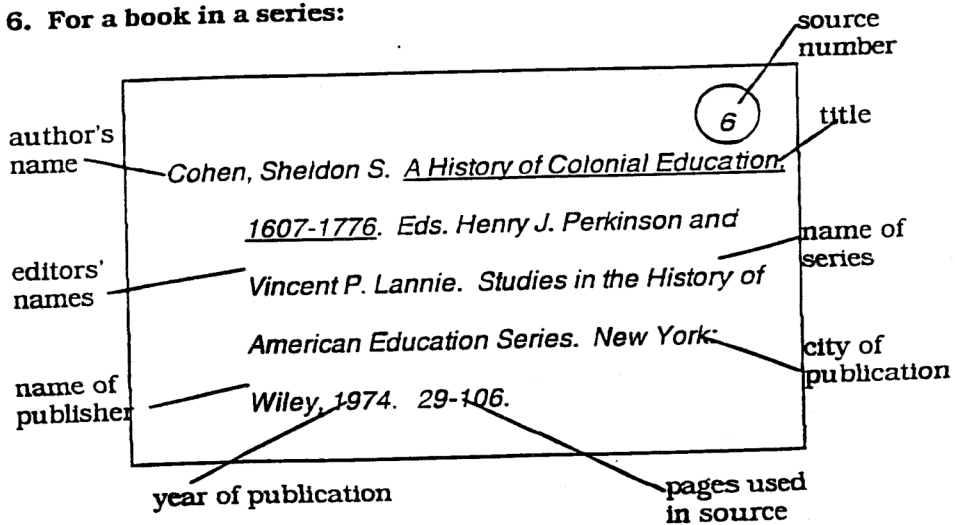
4. For a book with no author's name given:



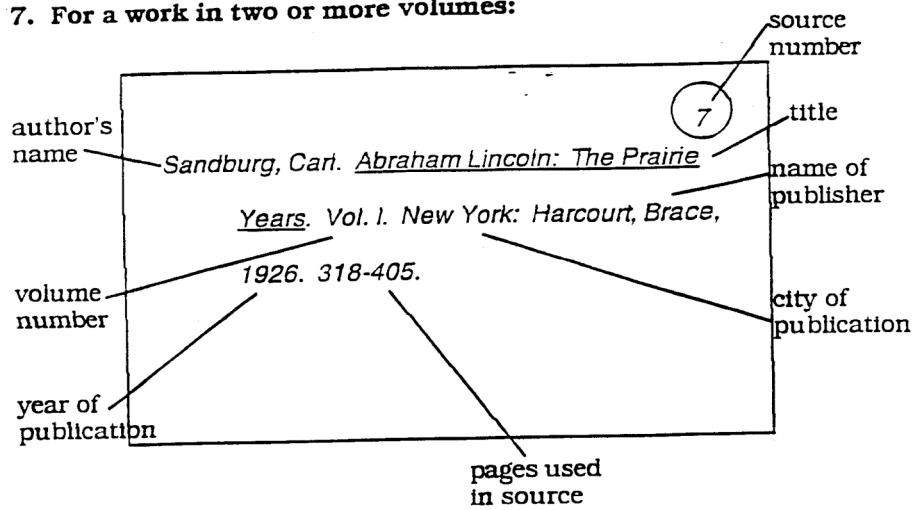
5. For a selection from a collection of works:



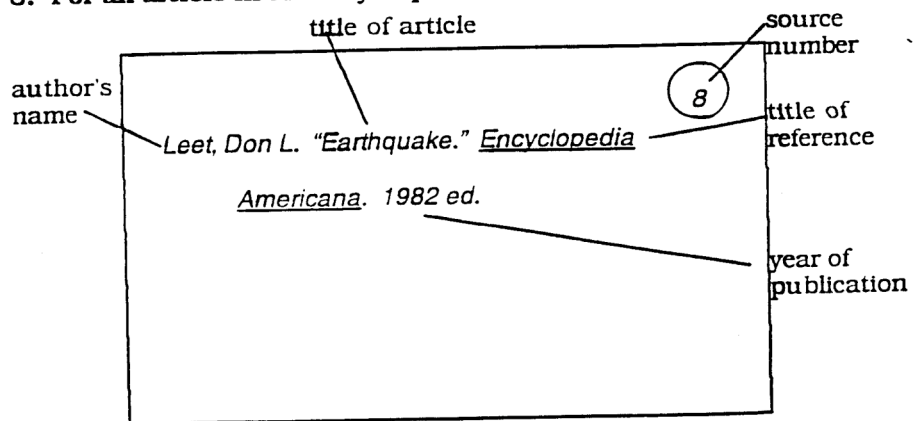
6. For a book in a series:



7. For a work in two or more volumes:

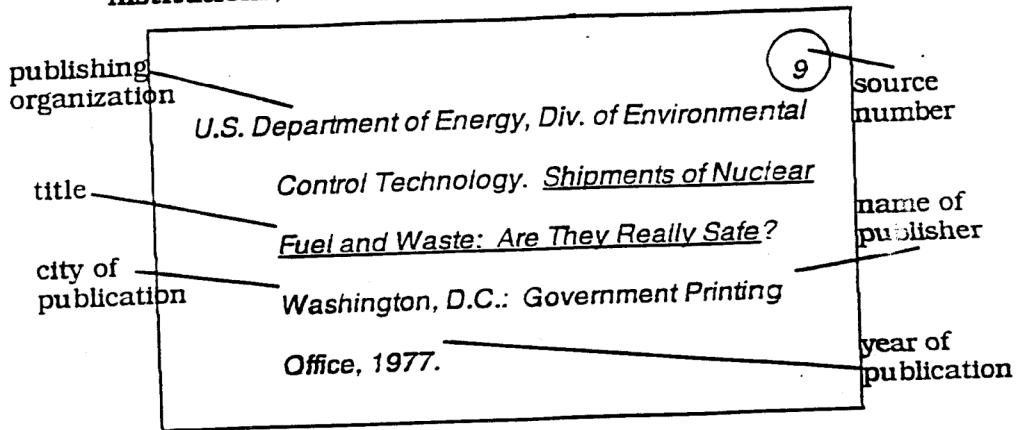


8. For an article in an encyclopedia or similar reference work:

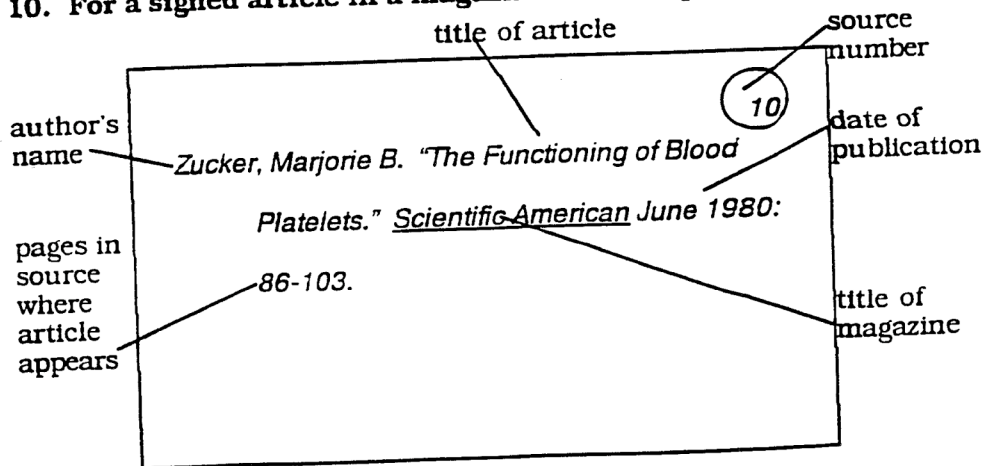


Note: If no author is given, begin with the article title.

9. For unsigned publications of government agencies, associations, institutions, etc.:

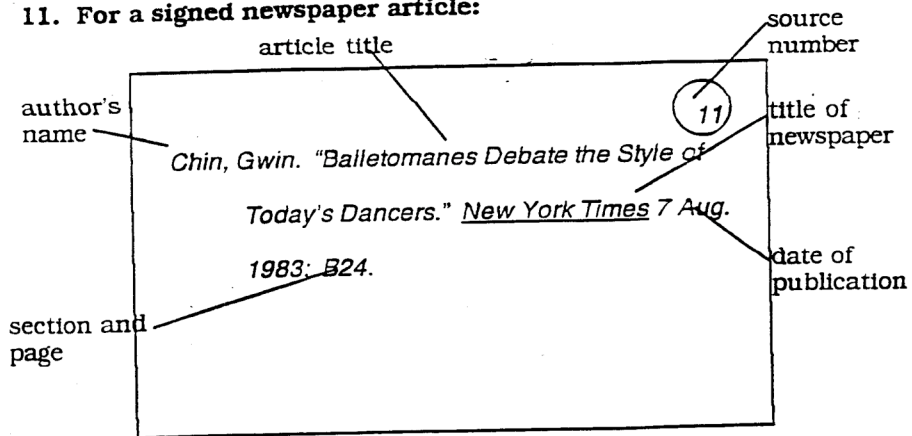


10. For a signed article in a magazine or other periodical publication:



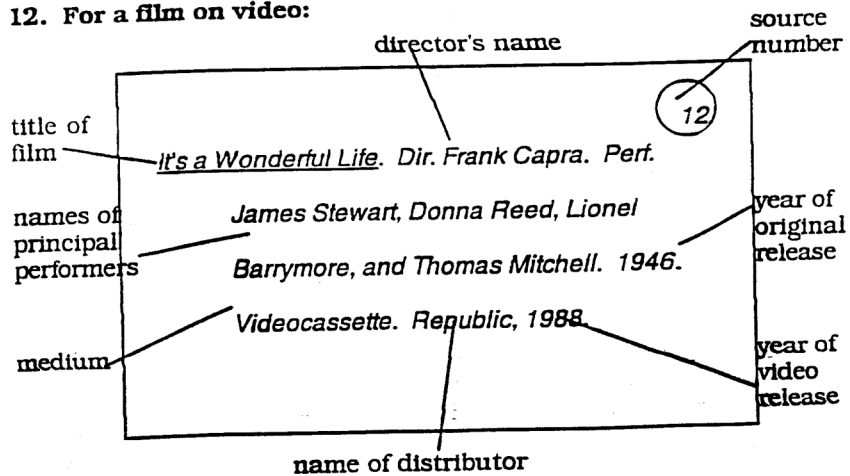
Note: If the article is unsigned, begin with the article title.

11. For a signed newspaper article:

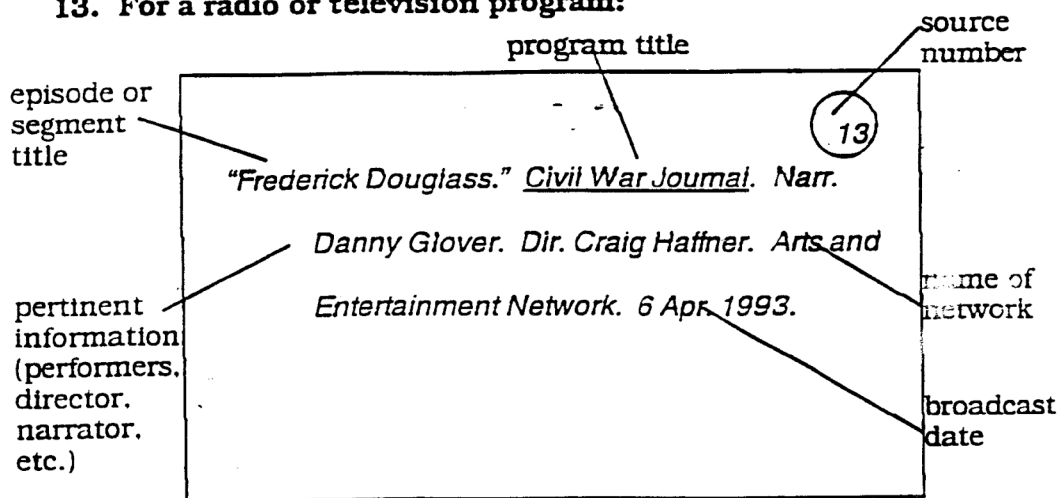


Note: For an unsigned article, begin with the article title. If the title of the newspaper does not contain the name of the city where it is published, insert the name of the city in brackets [] immediately after the paper's title.

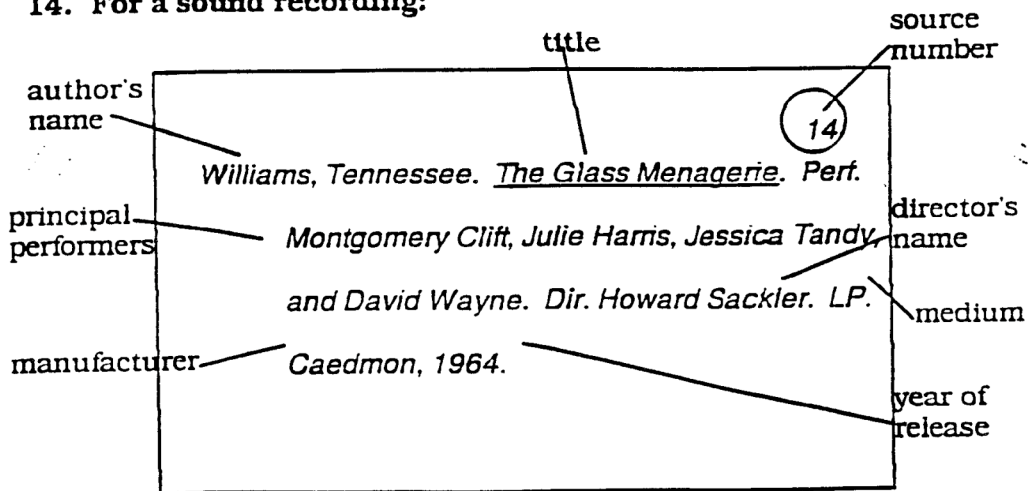
12. For a film on video:



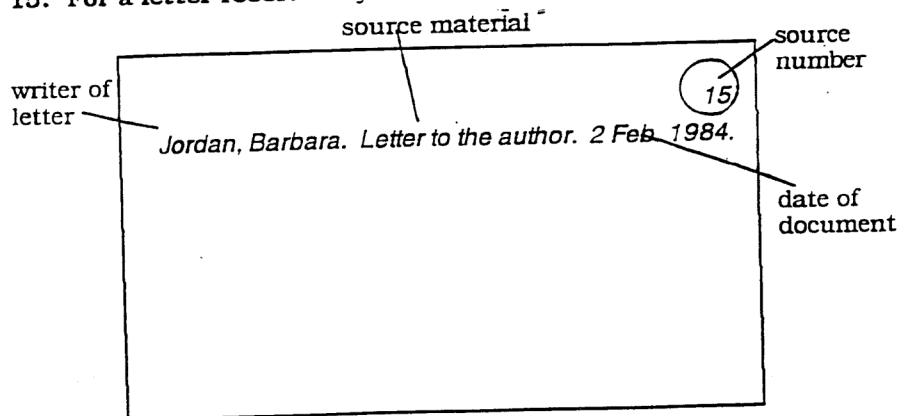
13. For a radio or television program:



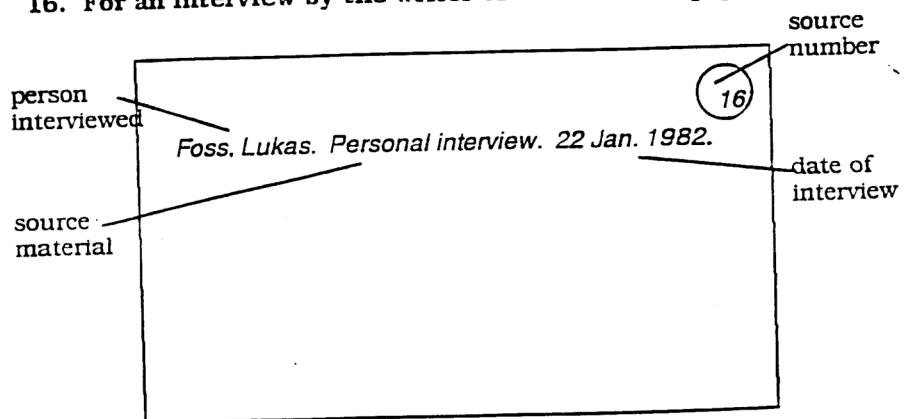
14. For a sound recording:



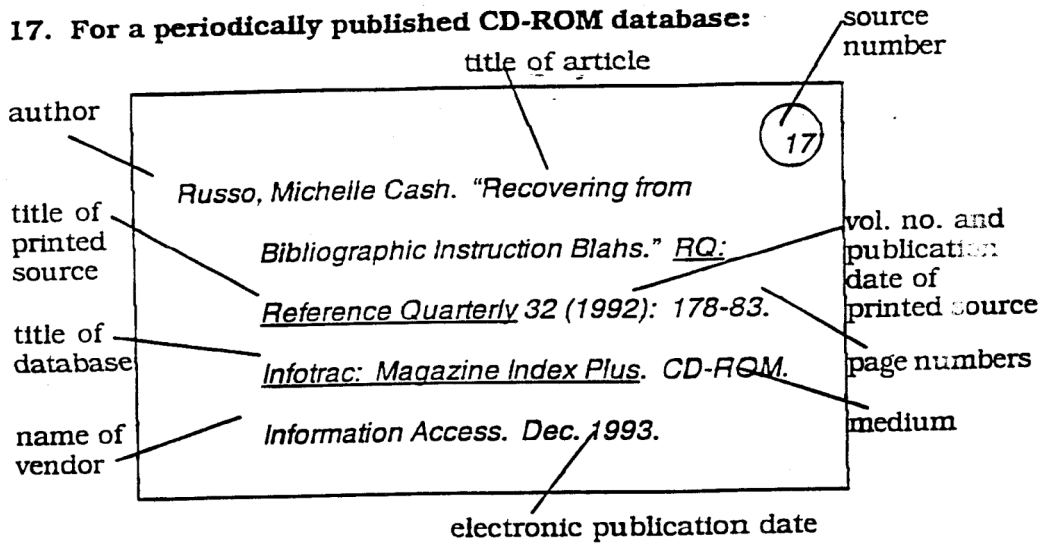
15. For a letter received by the writer of the research paper:



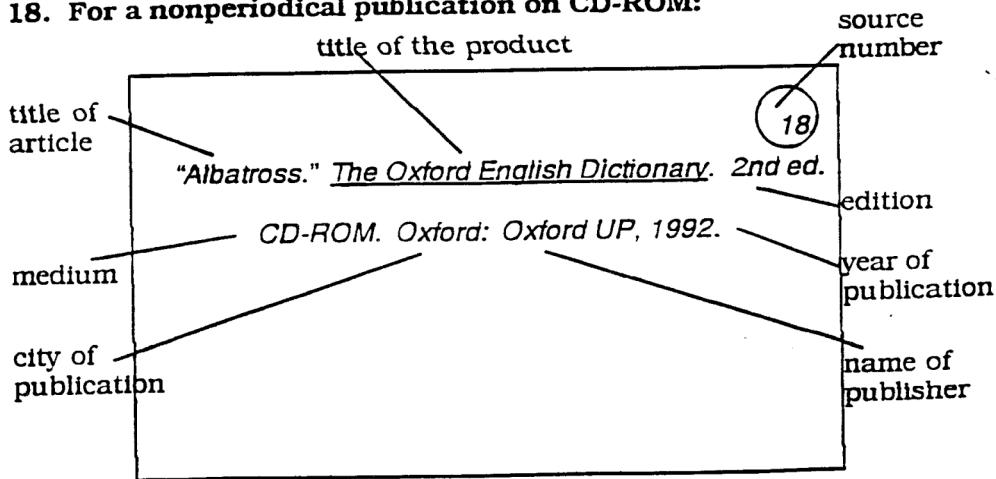
16. For an interview by the writer of the research paper:



17. For a periodically published CD-ROM database:

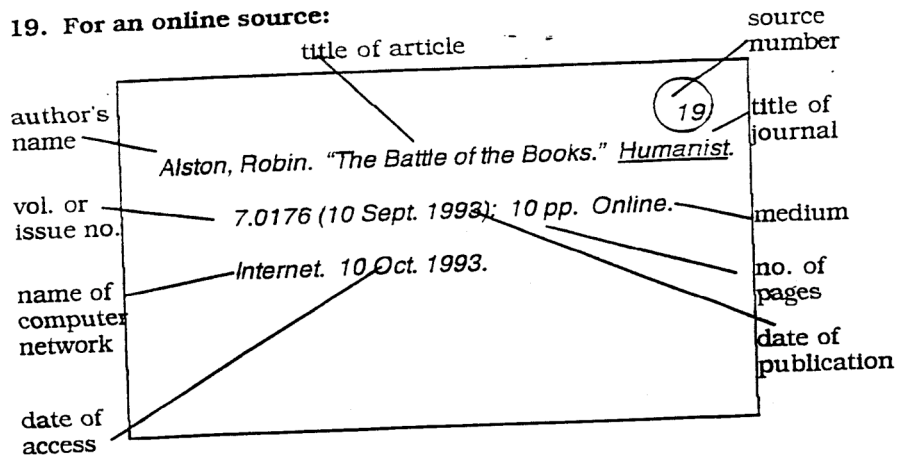


18. For a nonperiodical publication on CD-ROM:



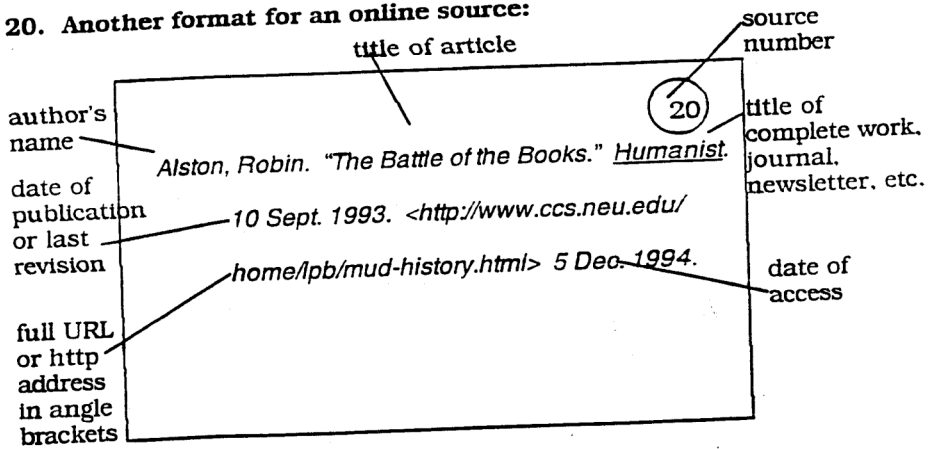
Note: If the name of the author is given, it should appear before the article title.

19. For an online source:



Note: If the author's name is not given, begin with the article title.

20. Another format for an online source:



Note: This is an alternate format for the same source used in bibliography card sample 19 above.

For examples of bibliography cards for other types of sources, see the latest edition of the *MLA Handbook* or *A Guide for Writing Research Papers* online at <<http://155.43.225.30/mla.htm>>.

STEP FIVE: RECORD INFORMATION FROM SOURCES

There are many effective ways to take notes on information gathered from the sources you use during the research paper process, but most students find it most practical to take notes on 4" x 6" index cards. If your note cards are prepared carefully, you can easily organize material later as you write your research paper.

Three types of notes are commonly recorded on note cards--summaries, paraphrases, and quotations. You should use a **summary** if you wish only to record only a main idea inferred from a rather large amount of material. If you need more detailed notes without preserving the source's exact wording, you should **paraphrase**, or restate ideas from the source in your own words. Occasionally you will find that only the original wording found in the source can express an idea effectively; when this happens, use an **exact quotation**. When quoting a source, be sure to record every letter, every punctuation mark, every word *exactly* as it appears in the source. Be sure to use quotation marks carefully as you take notes so that you will be able to recognize quotations later as you organize your note cards and write your paper (Gibaldi and Achtert 21).

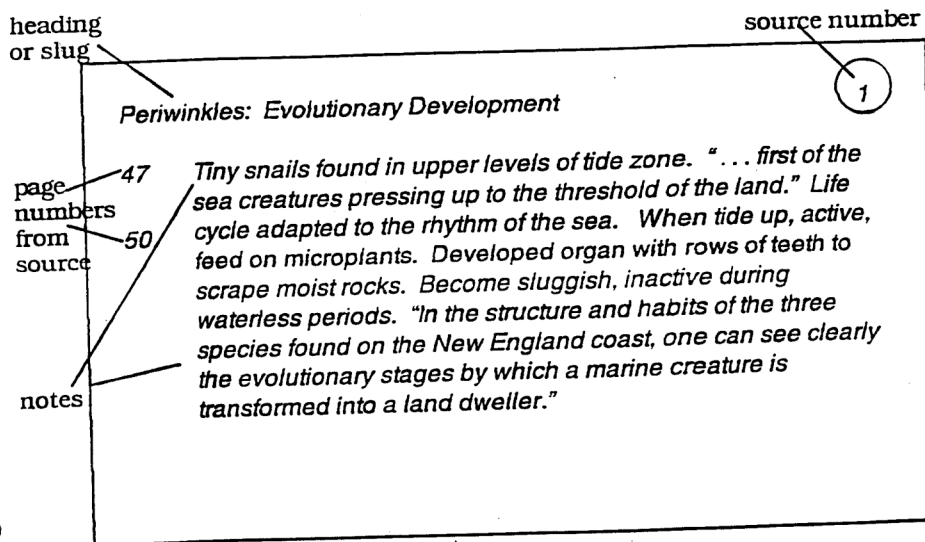
Your teacher may have additional specific requirements for note cards. Although your note cards are primarily for your own use as you write your research paper, some teachers will ask that you turn them in at some point during the research paper process.

Here are some additional tips for note-taking from *Preparing the Research Paper*:

- a. Use 4" x 6" index cards. Smaller cards (3" x 5", for example) will work, but many students find that they are too small to hold the notes they need.
- b. Write on only the front of each card. Writing on both sides will make it difficult to organize notes later.
- c. Record notes on only **one aspect of your subject** from only **one information source** on each note card. Doing otherwise will make organizing your notes difficult.
- d. Include the following on *every* note card:
 - (1) a **source number** to identify the source of the information contained on the note card.
 - (2) a **slug** or **heading** naming the aspect of your research subject treated on the card. Note card slugs will come in handy later as you organize your notes.
 - (3) **notes** on material from information sources.
 - (4) **page numbers** along the left margin to indicate where information was found in the source. You will need **exact** page numbers later for documentation.
- e. Avoid taking notes on obvious, general statements. You will usually need to record only information that is new to you or stated in an exceptional way.

- f. You should keep your notes as brief as possible, but if you need to make a note that will not fit on one card, continue it on another card, being careful to include everything listed in item d. above (Dangle and Haussman 9-10).

If you take notes carefully, you should not need to return to your information sources for any reason during the writing of your paper. The following example based on information from *Preparing the Research Paper* should be helpful:



STEP SIX: ORGANIZE INFORMATION

Before you can begin writing an effective research paper, it will be necessary to organize the information you have gathered from your sources in some logical manner. Your scheme of organization will depend on the nature of your teacher's assignment, your audience, the information you have found, and the ideas on your subject that you wish to emphasize in your paper.

The following organizational tips may be helpful:

- Sort your note cards using the slug, or heading, on each card, keeping cards containing related information together.
- Make an informal outline or cluster based on the headings on the note cards and arrange piles of cards according to your outline or cluster.
- Remember that as you plan your organizational scheme, you will want to consider your own ideas and conclusions as well as raw information from your sources.

You may discover as you organize your notes that you need more information on some aspects of your subject. In this case, further research will be necessary.

Your teacher may require that you submit a formal or informal outline at this stage in the research paper process. Be sure to ask about acceptable outline forms or other requirements.

STEP SEVEN: WRITE DRAFT(S) OF THE PAPER

Like any other quality piece of writing, a good research paper may require working through several drafts. As you draft, revise, and reorganize your paper, you will probably find it helpful to seek the advice of your teachers, fellow students, family members, or others knowledgeable about your subject.

A vital feature of a research paper is documentation indicating the sources of information used. As you write the various drafts of your paper, you will want to be especially careful to give credit for borrowed ideas or wording. There are two widely acceptable ways of crediting your sources--in **context** and in **parenthetical documentation**. Crediting in context gives credit to a source right in the text of your paper by mentioning it in a sentence. (Credit is usually given in context if an entire work, rather than just a portion of a work, is being cited.) This saves the reader the trouble of looking in your list of works cited. The following example shows crediting in context:

The problem of American behavior abroad is a factor affecting all Americans. Whether tourists or government workers, each American represents America to the other people of the world. In their book The Ugly American, Lederer and Burdick suggest that Americans live with the nationals rather than apart in splendor. They also suggest speaking the language and eating the food of other countries when abroad.

Parenthetical documentation is practical when you need to identify exactly where in your source you have found the material you have used in your paper. A parenthetical citation immediately follows the location in the text of your paper where material from the source has been used. Usually, a parenthetical citation includes the author's last name and the number(s) of the page(s) in the source where the information was found. (For exceptions, see your teacher or the latest edition of the *MLA Handbook*.) The following is an example of the use of a parenthetical citation:

The problem of American behavior abroad is a factor affecting all Americans. Whether tourists or government workers, each American represents America to the people of the world. A best selling novel once suggested that Americans live among the people, that they speak the language, and that they eat the food of other countries when abroad (Lederer and Burdick 268).

The parenthetical citation, (Lederer and Burdick 268), would direct an interested reader to the list of works cited at the end of the paper, where complete bibliographical information on the source could be found:

Lederer, William, and Eugene Burdick. The Ugly American. New York: Norton, 1958.

The *MLA Handbook* (3rd ed.) also suggests that you consider the readability and clarity of your paper when using parenthetical citations. Placement of citations in the text is also important:

To avoid interrupting the flow of your writing, place the parenthetical reference where a pause would naturally occur (preferably at the end of a sentence), as near as possible to the material it documents. The parenthetical reference precedes the punctuation mark that concludes the sentence, clause, or phrase containing the borrowed material (Gibaldi and Achtert 159).

Your **list of works cited** should appear at the end of your paper, beginning on a new page following the last page of your text. Alphabetize entries in your list of works cited by the author's last name. If the author's name is not provided in the source, alphabetize by the first word (other than *a*, *an*, or *the*) in the title of the source. The first line of each entry in the list of works cited should be flush against the left margin; subsequent lines of the entry should be indented. Data and formats needed for entries in a list of works cited vary slightly among different types of sources. (See **STEP FOUR**.) Carefully note the following examples from the *MLA Handbook*:

Book by a single author:

Fairbanks, Carol. Prairie Women: Images in American and Canadian Fiction. New Haven: Yale UP, 1986.

Book by more than one author:

Hyde, Margaret O., and Elizabeth Held Forsyth. Suicide: The Hidden Epidemic. Rev. ed. New York: Watts, 1986.

Article in a reference book:

Chiappini, Luciano. "Este, House of." Encyclopaedia Britannica: Macropaedia. 1974.

Work in an anthology:

Rubinstein, Arye. "Children with AIDS and the Public Risk." AIDS: Facts and Issues. Ed. Victor Gong and Norman Rudnick. New Brunswick: Rutgers UP, 1986. 99-103.

Article from a magazine:

Prince, Dinah. "Marriage in the '80s." New York 1 June 1987: 30-38.

A WWW site or other online resource:

Burka, Lauren P. "A Hypertext History of Multi-User Dimensions." MUD History. 1993. <<http://www.ccs.neu.edu/home/lpb/mud-history.html>>. 5 Dec. 1994.

There are many more detailed examples showing proper formats for entries in lists of works cited in the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* (4th ed.) and in *A Guide for Writing Research Papers* online at <http://155.43.225.30/mla.htm>.

STEP EIGHT: PREPARE YOUR PAPER FOR PRESENTATION

An important part of the research paper process is making sure that the final draft of your paper follows a standard format. A research paper format such as the MLA format which provides the basis for this guide is not designed to make a student's job more difficult; rather, it is designed to ensure a measure of uniformity among papers that will enable the reader of a paper to devote the bulk of his/her attention to the writer's ideas rather than to figuring out the system for presenting the ideas. Remember that your goal is to communicate; following an accepted format enhances communication. Here are some other guidelines from the *MLA Handbook* (3rd ed.):

1. Whenever possible, a research paper should be keyed on a word processor or typewritten. The entire paper, including the list of works cited, should be double spaced with one-inch margins at the top and bottom and both sides of each page. Use standard 8 1/2" x 11" paper. Always use only one side of each sheet. If for some reason you cannot type or key your paper, you will still need to follow the above guidelines and make your handwriting as neat as possible, using only dark blue or black ink.
2. All pages, including the list of works cited, should be numbered consecutively. Each page number should appear one half inch below the top of the page flush against the right margin. Your last name should appear before the page number to ensure that none of your pages will be misplaced.
3. One inch from the top of the first page and flush against the left margin, type your name, your teacher's name, the name of the course and the period, and the date on separate lines, double-spacing between lines. Centered a double space below this heading should be your title, which should **not** be underlined, enclosed in quotation marks, or typed in all capitals. Another double space below your title should be the first line of your text.
4. Keep things simple. A separate title page for a research paper is not necessary. An outline or table of contents is also unneeded; in a well written paper, your scheme of organization should be readily apparent without the need for an outline. Do not put your finished paper in a binder; it will be an unnecessary expense for you and a nuisance for your teacher. It is sufficient to fasten your paper with a paper clip or a single staple in the upper left corner.

Remember that you will expend a great deal of time and effort on a good research paper. You will want your finished product to reflect this. The following sample research paper pages from the *Heath Handbook of Composition* illustrating the above guidelines should be helpful.

Jeanne M. Petrillo

Mr. Smith

Psychology 11, Period 5

13 April 1992

Autism: A Certain Uncertainty

How can we begin to discuss autism when we hardly know what it is? Autistic children have only recently attracted popular attention in the United States. Lorna Wing, M.D., states:

It seems likely that there have always been autistic children, although it is only in the last twenty-five years that they have been named as a group and thought of separately from other severely mentally handicapped children. Perhaps they were the reason for the legends of the fairy changeling children, in which the fairies were believed to steal away a human baby and leave a fairy child in its place (6).

The word autism stems from the Greek word autos, meaning "self"; psychiatrists use the term to describe self-absorbed and withdrawn behavior (Wing 4). The cause of autism is unknown and diagnosis is difficult because the symptoms of autism are as different as the personalities of its victims. Because the origin of autism remains a mystery, we cannot agree upon a fairly certain cure for this frightening disorder.

Autism usually appears in children within the first two and a

half years of life. It occurs in four or five children in every ten thousand. The autistic child is usually the first born into a family, and the occurrence of autism in males outnumbered that in females by almost three to one. The autistic child is withdrawn from his environment. He fails to establish normal parent-child relationships. In some cases, the autistic child is apathetic. Some have been described as being "as nearly dead as it is possible to be and still go on functioning" (Gay 160). In other cases, the child is hyperactive and may throw frequent temper tantrums for seemingly senseless reasons. Autistic children are reported as having excellent memories. Leo Kanner, an American child psychologist who first identified autism in 1943, described one hyperactive victim of autism with an exquisite memory "who screamed in implacable fury when one block was experimentally turned in a jumble of blocks and toys left on the floor during the child's absence. Each block had to be returned to its exact place before the child was satisfied" (Rimland 11).

One terrifying habit exhibited by autistic children is their self-destructiveness. Some mutilate their hands and shoulders by biting them to the bone. Others will bang their hands against the wall until bloody. They also behave in other peculiar ways. Some engage in repetitive motions that would make a robot look human. They wave their hands in front of their faces or walk back and forth in a straight line for hours. Another strange symptom of

autism, according to Dr. Bernard Rimland, author of several works on the subject, is the child's failure to speak or the loss of already acquired speech and the use of a "non-communicative, parrot-like monotone" (11).

Surprisingly, some autistic children show advanced spatial ability and coordination, while others, according to Anne Alvarez, are "limp, like a puppet whose strings have been dropped" (72). It must be remembered, though, that these children are not stupid or retarded by any means. As Dr. Rimland states: "It has been noted by a number of writers that autistic children can sometimes assemble jig-saw puzzles as readily when the picture is facing down as when it is visible" (11).

The cause of autism has eluded scientists and psychologists since its identification in 1943. Many experts believe that it is the result of a genetic defect, but this has been disproven by the discovery reported by Nikolass Tingergen that in two sets of twins, only one in each set became autistic (20). Others, he states, believe it is caused by "irreparable abnormalities" that occur at birth (20). Dr. Rimland believes that autistic children may suffer from some organic defect in the left hemisphere of the brain. These children are deficient in skills associated with that side of the brain, such as speech, but not in spatial and musical tasks, which the right side of the brain appears to perform (Offeir 78).

Some specialists contend that autism is caused, or greatly influenced by, the emotional attitudes of the parents. Antonio Ferreira, M.D., in his article, "The Pregnant Woman's Emotional Attitude and Its Reflection on the Unborn," set up tests to determine whether a prenatal emotional environment exists and whether the mother's attitude could cause deviant behavior similar to the behavior displayed by autistic children. He questioned the mothers in two areas of interest, "Fear of Harming the Baby" and "Rejection of Pregnancy." The results of his test showed a high correlation between those mothers who were indeed fearful of harming their babies or who rejected their pregnancy and those babies who exhibited behavior deviant from that of normal babies. Thus, he concluded that the prenatal emotional attitude of the mother can affect the behavior of her child. He did not bother to ask whether the mothers continued to fear harming their children or felt guilt about their rejection of their pregnancies after the children were born.

The postnatal emotional attitudes of both parents of autistic children have, however, been considered causes of the disorder. The parents have been described by Dr. Rimland as being highly intelligent, "cold, bookish, formal, introverted, disdainful of frivolity, humorless, detached, and highly, even extensively, rational and objective," and as giving "mechanical attention" to their children (25). Nikolass Tingergen believes that these

Works Cited

- Alvarez, Anne. "Children in the Shadows." Parents Magazine March 1972: 54-55+.
- Andrews, Lewis M., and Marvin Karlins. Psychology: What's in It for Us? New York: Random House, 1975.
- Bettelheim, Bruno. The Empty Fortress. London: Collier-Macmillan, 1967.
- Ferreira, A. J. "The Pregnant Woman's Emotional Attitude and Its Reflection on the Newborn." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 30 (1960): 553-61.
- Gay, Peter. "The Empty Fortress." The New Yorker 18 May 1968: 160-70.
- Offeir, Carole Wade. "Visual Speech: Their Fingers Do the Talking." Psychology Today June 1976: 72-78.
- Rimland, Bernard. Infantile Autism. New York: Meredith, 1964.
- Steele, Richard. "World Without I." Newsweek 27 March 1967: 70-71.
- Tingergen, Nikolass. "Ethology and Stress Diseases." Science 5 July 1974: 20-27.
- Wing, Lorna. Autistic Children: A Guide for Parents and Professionals. New York: Bruner/Mazel, 1972.