COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

Fifth Edition

A PUBLICATION OF THE LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION SKILLS CENTER

Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide

Marine Corps University

Quantico, VA

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Foreword

As students at Marine Corps University (MCU), and as officers and enlisted members of the United States Armed Forces, effective communication has never been more important in one's professional military education. Improving your communication skills in order to brief, instruct, persuade, counsel, and motivate fellow service members is paramount.

I believe the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* will be an asset to both you as a student and to the University; first, because it establishes a uniform style of writing across the University's schools; and second, because it provides students with a one-stop resource for research methodology and written and verbal communications guidelines. The informal guide provides MCU students with a user-friendly reference that contains much of the information needed to write academic and military-style papers, conduct scholarly research, and communicate effectively. In keeping with the Marine Corps initiative to go green, and in an effort to make the guide more interactive, the Academic Year 2012 *MCU Communications Style Guide* is also available online (on both MCU's and the Gray Research Center's homepages). This allows students to better locate information using the online guide's interactive features, including the ability to cross-reference other university writing guides and writing/speaking centers. In addition, the style guide is hotlinked to allow for easy cross-referencing within the guide itself. This condensed, online communications guide allows students and faculty easy access from any computer and alleviates having to carry and/or consult multiple reference guides.

Marine Corps University students are required to write papers and present their ideas verbally. It is my hope that you will use course assignments as an opportunity to hone your logic, thought, and interpersonal skills—capabilities that you will take back to the operational forces and use throughout the rest of your military careers. The completed research papers should be seen as an opportunity for intellectual exploration. In researching and writing about respective topics, or participating in seminar discussions, students will examine subjects from all angles. It is during this process that learning occurs. Being able to articulate an idea accurately, whether in writing or speech, demonstrates a well developed thought and a cognitive understanding of the material. The *MCU Communications Style Guide* is a valuable resource that will help lead students through this process.

The *MCU Communications Style Guide* was developed with our students in mind, and I am pleased to provide you and our faculty with this informative, user-friendly resource. Best wishes for a successful academic year.

T. M. MURRAY
Major General, U.S. Marine Corps
President, Marine Corps University

Preface

In 2005, the Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) identified communication as one of the three pillars of leadership, and, in reaction, created the Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC) in 2007. Since the introduction of the QEP, the University has placed a greater emphasis on communication skills and publication. In addition, a 2008 Officer PME study, which identified the need for Joint Officers to have strong communications skills, further reinforced the need for a guide that Marine Corps University students can use both in the classroom and in the operating forces. As such, the Leadership Communication Skills Center was tasked with developing a user-friendly guide that would provide a communications reference for Marines at the University as well as for Marines in the operating forces.

About the LCSC

The Leadership Communication Skills Center is a resource designed to support MCU students, faculty, and staff. The Center provides one-on-one sessions to help students improve their research, writing, and oral communication skills in a non-threatening environment. In addition, the Center helps students to edit and prepare their work for publication/contests. The LCSC also supports MCU faculty and staff by providing educational programs and editing work for publication. The LCSC's focus and operating procedures are included on page xiv.

About the Style Guide: Purpose, Style, and Format

Purpose

This style guide serves three main purposes: First, the guide introduces a uniform style and procedure of writing that will be implemented university-wide. Second, the guide provides University students with a user-friendly reference for effective communication that they can refer to when they return to the operating forces. Finally, the guide directs students to additional resources for effective communication guidelines.

Style

The *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS) was chosen as the preferred style for all scholarly papers written at Marine Corps University (MCU). The Chicago Style is the style most frequently used by historical and military publications—making it the most appropriate standard writing style for MCU.

Furthermore, adopting the Chicago Style as the University standard will limit the extent to which students will need to edit their papers for publication. In previous academic years, MCU students produced a multitude of insightful scholarly papers; however, since these papers generally did not need to comply with any particular style, preparing the papers for publication was a daunting task. In adopting a writing style that is accepted by most scholarly journals (e.g., peer reviewed military journals), the Leadership Communication Skills Center hopes to encourage student publication by simplifying the editing and publishing submission processes.

Format

Since the goal of the LCSC is to create a style guide that is not only useful in the production of scholarly academic writing, but also in the production of professional military writing, the style guide is a compilation of information from *The Chicago Manual of Style*, Joint Military Intelligence College's *Research and Writing* Style Guides, The United States Air Force's *The Tongue and Quill S*tyle Guide, and guidelines from University faculty members. However, the reader may note that the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is considerably shorter than any of the previously mentioned style guides. This is the case for two reasons:

1. The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is a work in progress. Chapters and sections will be added to the guide as the Leadership Communication Skills Center becomes more aware of students' common problem areas. Development and expansion of the guide relies both on the Center's observations of problem areas in students' work, as well as student and faculty feedback.

2. The style guide is meant to serve as a user-friendly document. The style guide attempts to simplify the information introduced by *The Chicago Manual of Style*, as well as military writing style guides. For this reason, the guide's tone is conversational and relatively informal. In the vein of informal style guides, such as *On Writing Well* (Zinsser) and *Sleeping Dogs Don't Lay* (Lederer and Dowis), the chapters are written in second person, making the text more approachable than the more traditional style guides.

The *MCU Communications Style Guide* has also adopted a bulleted/listing approach to presenting information as opposed to strict text. This format allows readers to quickly locate, read, and digest the information they need.

In addition, the reader will notice that each chapter is followed by a checklist, which summarizes the main points covered in the chapter. The style guide's listing approach helps to condense complex information and steps in the writing process into a comprehensive form for students who are faced with not only academic, but also professional tasks while at MCU.

Be advised, however, that the Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide is not a replacement for *The Chicago Manual of Style*, or the Joint Military Intelligence College's *Research* and *Writing* guides. Instead, ***it may be seen as a condensed, combined version of these previous publications.***

We are honored to work with the country's finest men and women, and we thank you for the service you give in support of freedom and democracy. We are here to serve you and support your goals. Please stop by the Leadership Communication Skills Center. It is located in Room 122 of the Gray Research Center. We are ready to assist you with any questions or concerns you may have.

Respectfully,

Leadership Communication Skills Center Staff

Leadership Communication Skills Center
Operating Procedures

LCSC Focus 1: Assist students to become better self-editors.

The Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC) does not proofread papers; instead, the LCSC's paper reviews focus on "big picture" issues (e.g., Does the paper have a strong thesis, effective organization, and proper structure?). Thus, the reviewer will not mark every comma splice, misspelling, etcetera, as the LCSC's mission is to help students become better self-editors. However, if a paper contains recurring grammatical/ mechanical errors, the reviewer will make a comment, provide the student with the proper grammatical rule, and refer the student to the appropriate page in the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* for further clarification. By encouraging students to review these rules for themselves, the LCSC attempts to encourage students to develop self-editing skills and to view writing as a process. **Therefore, papers must be proofread for spelling and mechanical errors before they are submitted to the LCSC. Any paper that reflects lack of initial proofreading will be returned to the student.**

There are four (4) ways you can contact the LCSC. How you go about contacting the LCSC depends on the service you are requesting.

1. E-mail
    a. Questions about assignments/papers
    b. Thesis development/brainstorming
    c. Full review of short paper or article for publication
    d. Full review of MMS paper (Paper must be sent electronically for full review)

2. Walk-in (8:00-5:00, Room 122 in the Gray Research Center)
    a. Brainstorming
    b. Brief questions
    c. Questions about assignments/all papers
    d. Discussion of electronic comments

3. Scheduled Appointment
    a. Brainstorming/thesis development
    b. Questions about assignments/all papers
    c. Discussion of electronic comments

4. Phone
    a. Brief questions
    b. Brief clarification of reviewer comment

Paper Review Policy:

To ensure the fastest turn around possible, students should send their papers to the LCSC as an electronic attachment and indicate which areas of writing (thesis development, organization, answering the assignment) require attention. Students should send papers to the following account: **LCSC.PAPERS@GMAIL.COM.**
Students can send general questions or comments to one of the following accounts:
1. Scanlonpm@grc.usmcu.edu   (Dr. Patrice Scanlon)
2. Hamlenal@grc.usmcu.edu   (Ms. Andrea Hamlen)
3. Rodebaughsl@grc.usmc.mil   (Ms. Stase Rodebaugh)

After a paper is sent electronically, an LCSC staff member will review the document and send it back with comments using Microsoft Word's track changes. Once the student receives the reviewed paper, he/she can make an appointment to meet with an LCSC staff member, or stop by on a walk-in basis to discuss the reviewer's comments. **The LCSC recommends that students review the LCSC staff member's comments before coming to the office to discuss the paper. This review will allow the student and the reviewer to focus on the main problem areas of the paper, as opposed to going over every suggestion.** If suggestions were made for extensive rewriting/revising, a student may submit his or her paper again for review—with the understanding that it will be placed in the back of the cue. The LCSC recommends submitting papers—especially final research papers (MMS, Future War, IRP)—early, as this will allow the LCSC reviewer to effectively guide students through the writing process.

In general, walk-in sessions are used for brainstorming sessions, questions, and discussions of electronic comments. **Full-length paper reviews are reserved for scheduled appointments.**

LCSC Focus 2: Assist students in publishing their work.

The LCSC highly encourages students to view their time at Marine Corps University as an opportunity to make their ideas heard and to contribute to their respective services—one of the most effective ways to make this contribution is to publish.

Please let the LCSC know if the document you submit for review is also for publication, as well as the name of the publication to which you will submit your work. Letting the LCSC know the publication allows the Center's staff to make sure the document complies with the publication's guidelines. If you are not sure where to submit your document, the LCSC can help you to find the proper publication for your topic.

Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1: Communication—A Leadership Skill

Communication and Leadership

Given the responsibilities of leaders to direct and inspire the people who work for them, it is critical for individuals in leadership positions to develop strong written and oral communication skills. As a leader, it is your responsibility to not only direct your subordinates, but also to effectively communicate your visions and goals. Unfortunately, no matter how innovative your ideas may be, if they're not stated in a logical, coherent manner, they probably won't be put into action.

Since the Marine Corps University's (MCU) mission is to produce innovative leaders, the University's academic programs focus heavily on developing students' communication skills. Many students who attend MCU are accustomed to communicating verbally; however, most of the assignments students will complete at MCU are written. Therefore, this guide focuses primarily on strategies, tools, and techniques that will help students to develop their writing and research skills. As the military and the civilian sectors become more reliant on e-mail and other forms of written communication, the ability to write clearly and effectively becomes increasingly important.

As a student at MCU, you will use your written skills to demonstrate your critical thinking abilities; as a military professional, it is important for you to develop your writing skills to instruct, motivate, and inspire others effectively. This is especially important as you begin to move into joint assignments, in which much of your time will be spent constructing e-mails, information papers, and plans.[1]

Oral Communication versus Written Communication

In general, the writing process is not much different from the process you use to prepare for a briefing or an important meeting. When you write, you must present your main point, and then defend that main point with evidence in the form of studies, observations, statistics, and/or experience. The main difference between writing and speaking is that when you write, you only have one chance to convey your message. If your meaning is not clear and if the audience has questions about the ideas on the page, you will not be present to answer those questions. Therefore, writing requires you to be more precise in how you present, organize, and express your ideas.

Taking Your Writing Beyond the Classroom

While a student at MCU, you will have the opportunity to explore and write about a variety of current issues in strategic studies, military history, and warfighting. The academic papers you produce may be submitted for awards or publication, giving you the chance to voice your opinions on some of the most difficult policy issues that face our nation today. In

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[1] Linda Fenty, "Joint Staff Officer Study Final Report." (Manuscript Prepared for JS 17 Joint Exercise and Training Division, 2008)

particular, each school participates in three writing competitions during the spring semester: The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Strategic Essay and Article Competitions (the winning papers are published in *Joint Forces Quarterly*), the Secretary of Defense Strategic Essay Competition, and the Deputy Secretary of Defense Essay Competition. The number of writing competitions and publications are not limited to this list.

Similarly, MCU students have submitted their work and been published in a variety of publications including the *Small Wars Journal*, *The Marine Corps Gazette*, and the *MCU Press Journal*. Furthermore, the papers you write throughout the year may be nominated for an award from your respective school. Categories include *The Intelligence Writing Award* (best paper on an intelligence-related topic presented by the MCU, CIA Chair), *The Colonel Bevan G. Cass Award* (best papers on topics concerned with the profession of arms bearing directly on the USMC presented by the Marine Corps Association), *The Joint Service Planner Award* (for SAW students), and *The War College Faculty Writing Award* (for MCWAR students). Appendix A provides more information about the guidelines and deadlines for these competitions.

Writing: More than an Academic Exercise

General John W. Vessey, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in 1984, stated: "From my own experience, I can tell you, more has been screwed up on the battlefield and misunderstood in the Pentagon because of a lack of understanding of the English language than any other single factor."[2] Regrettably, this trend in ambiguous language still plagues Joint Staffs today. In fact, in September 2008, the Joint Staff surveyed joint staff officers who ranged from the rank of first lieutenant to lieutenant colonel. The survey identified the primary duties of joint staff officers, core competencies joint officers should possess, and "gaps" that need to be filled in order for joint officers to be more effective in their positions.

The findings of this study indicated that joint staff officers spend the majority of their time performing communication tasks—40% of work time is spent on written tasks, while 33% of work time is spent creating and contributing to briefings.[3] The report also identified 15 core competencies for Joint Staff Officers. Of these 15 core competencies, five related directly or indirectly to the need for strong communication skills. These five core competencies are:

1. Communicate effectively at executive levels and across a diverse workforce

2. Write, read, and conduct research at an advanced level appropriate for work performance at an executive level

3. Build constructive work relationships

4. Effectively manage and lead in a diverse work environment (civilians, contractors, Guard and Reserve, sister Services personnel, interagency and multinational personnel)

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[2] Kate Bateman, "The War on Buzzwords," *Proceedings*: Vol. 134 (August 2008): 20-28.
<http://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings/story.asp?STORY_ID=1553> (7 May 2009).
[3] Linda Fenty, **"**Joint Staff Officer Study Final Report," (Manuscript Prepared for JS J7 Joint Exercise and Training Division, 2008).

5. Use well-developed strategic and higher order critical thinking skills for task assignments and problem solving.[4]

These tasks all require strong communication skills, even if they do not mention communication directly. For instance, effective interpersonal communication skills are needed to build constructive work relationships. Likewise, as discussed above, strong communication skills are needed to be an effective leader—especially when working with interagency and multinational personnel. In fact, over half of the officers surveyed (951/1858) reported having communication problems that resulted from discrepancies in terminology.[5] By developing effective communication strategies and avoiding jargon, these communication problems could be avoided.

Finally, critical thinking and writing are closely interconnected. While it's possible to be a strong critical thinker without being a strong writer—writing is often the medium used to transfer ideas. Therefore, if you're unable to demonstrate your ideas in writing, your critical thinking and analytical skills may not be adequately conveyed.

Unfortunately, many senior leaders across all Combatant Commands complain that their "staff officers' writing skills are below par for the strategic level organization; they need training in writing for a strategically focused executive organization and in fundamental skills such as grammar and spelling."[6] The study also surveyed senior leaders regarding the main gaps that need to be filled in order for joint officers to be more effective in their positions. The senior officers said the biggest problem is that staff officers do not understand the role and responsibilities of the job. Of the seven major responsibilities outlined by these senior officers, four deal with the ability to communicate effectively. These responsibilities are:

1. Functions as the brains of the boss; ability to pick up on the boss' comment and run with it without formal tasking

2. Functions as an information integrator

3. Rarely serves as the technical content subject matter expert, but rather as the harvester of information from subject matter expert

4. Has a "word-processor mentality;" understands that he or she is the conduit for moving masses of staff paperwork to reach a small audience for signature.[7]

So What?

In the long term, then, joint officers' responsibilities are three-fold:

1. Gather information

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[4] Fenty, 2008
[5] Fenty, 2008
[6] Fenty, 2008
[7] Fenty, 2008

2. Synthesize and consolidate the information

3. Communicate information.

This gathering, synthesizing, and communicating of information is essentially what you will be doing as a student at MCU. While the information and purpose of your assignment will be different, the process you will use to produce a finished product will be essentially the same. Therefore, you should not view your time at Marine Corps University as a mere academic endeavor. Taking time to learn the process of scholarly research and writing will make your transition to a Joint Assignment much less painful and may help to ease the "learning curve." The following chapters will detail the research and writing processes and will provide strategies, models, and tools you can take back to the operating forces.

Introduction to the Writing Process

While many people may think of writing as simply putting words on a page, writing is as much of a thinking process as it is a composing process. In fact, "every time you take up a pen or sit down to a computer to write, you engage in a thinking process—and what and how and when you think both affects and is affected by your writing in various ways."[8] Because writing is a thinking process, it is also a cyclical process. As you write, you will constantly revisit, reevaluate, and revise your ideas. As your ideas on a topic change and evolve, so will your writing.

While a student at MCU, you will be writing a variety of papers—from a one-page position paper, to a short essay, to a fully developed research paper. These papers vary in length and style, but the basic steps in writing the paper are generally the same. The time required for each step varies with different writing tasks and contexts. Keep in mind, however, that the steps are interrelated and often overlap. **Effective communication is not a linear process.** The following chapters will provide more information about each step of the writing process. The next chapter will address writing preparation strategies.

> **Why are Effective Communications Skills Important?**
> - Leaders need strong communications skills to motivate others and to effectively convey their ideas.
> - Joint Staff Officers spend a large portion of their time writing (40%) and contributing to briefings (33%).
> - Communication errors often contribute to problems on the battlefield.
> - Most of the time spent in a joint billet requires officers to read, synthesize, and communicate information.

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[8] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Longman-Pearson, 2010), 225.

Chapter 2: Preparing to Write

Writing is merely an extension of thinking—therefore, it's important to think the assignment through and to plan your approach **before** you begin to write. When preparing to write, you need to perform three basic tasks:

1. Determine the purpose and scope of the assignment,

2. Identify your audience, and

3. Critically read all material that relates to the assignment.

Deciding on and Planning Your Purpose

In order to prepare to write, you must decide on your purpose. The easiest way is to ask yourself, "As a result of my writing, I want my audience to _____." At this point, fill in one of the following purpose words—know, believe, and do— then follow the purpose word with the action you want your audience to take. For example, "As a result of my communication, I want my audience to believe _____ in order for them to support the troop surge policy for Iraq."

Your purpose for writing also influences the way you choose to present your information. Are you communicating to entertain, to inform, or to persuade? Is it enough to include only the facts of a given situation, or do you need to include an opinion or suggestion for action as well? For instance, if you are briefing a general on events that unfolded during an attack, you would concentrate primarily on accurately portraying the events that took place. However, if you are trying to persuade a general to take a particular course of action, you may need to take a more evaluative or analytical approach.

While communication serves different purposes, it often falls under one of these categories:

- **Summarizing:** Presenting the main points or essence of another text in a condensed form.

- **Narrating:** Telling a story or giving an account of events.

- **Evaluating:** Examining something in order to determine its value or worth based on a set of criteria.

- **Examining/Investigating:** Systematically questioning a topic to discover or uncover facts that are not widely known/accepted in a way that strives to be as neutral and objective as possible.

- **Analyzing:** Breaking a topic down into its component parts in order to examine the relationships between the parts.

- **Arguing/Persuading:** Expressing a viewpoint on an issue or topic in an effort to convince others that your viewpoint is correct.

Analyzing Your Audience

After you have identified your purpose, you (the sender) must develop an impression of your audience by conducting an audience analysis. It is critical that you know who you are communicating with in order to ensure your intended message is understood. Too often, speakers and writers approach their communication from their personal point of view instead of considering the audience's needs, wants, or requirements.

Conduct an audience analysis by asking yourself a few questions about the group you are writing or speaking for. What is the audience's level of education? What viewpoints and experience does the audience bring to the table? Is the audience interested in the topic at hand? How much does your audience know about your topic? How much background do you need to provide? What type of language should you use? To what degree will your audience agree or disagree with your thesis? What do you hope the audience will gain from your text?

These are all questions that will influence the style, diction, tone, topic, and organization of your communication. For instance, if you are writing a policy memo that is only going to be used within your company or office, you can use more jargon and words that are specific to your line of work than you would if the policy letter was going to be read by people outside of the company. You also would not feel the need to provide as much background on the policy as you would if you were briefing an outsider.

An audience analysis worksheet is provided on the following page. The statements and questions listed are by no means all inclusive. Be aware that the worksheet is a basic template for MCU students to use and adapt as needed.

Audience Analysis Worksheet[9]

1. My objectives in relation to my audience include:

   _____

   _____

2. Values that need to be considered with this particular audience include:

   _____

   _____

3. Constraints that must be recognized when speaking to this particular audience include:

   _____

   _____

4. Special needs of this particular audience include:

   _____

   _____

5. I would rate my audience's knowledge of this topic and technical terminology to be:

   High_____   **Low**_____   **Mixed**_____   **Unknown**_____

6. My assessment of the audience's willingness to accept the ideas I present is:

   High_____   **Low**_____   **Mixed**_____   **Unknown**_____

7. My audience's opinion of me as a speaker prior to the presentation is:

   High_____   **Low**_____   **Mixed**_____   **Unknown**_____

8. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to work well include:

   _____

   _____

9. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to cause a negative reaction include:

   _____

   _____

10. Contacts who can provide insight into my audience's thinking and understanding are:

    _____

    _____

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[9] Audience analysis worksheet adapted from Jean H. Michulka, *Let's Talk Business*, 3rd ed. (Cincinnati, OH: South-Western Publishing Co., 1988).

Approaching Assignments

Sometimes it's necessary to think long and hard about the purpose of your writing. However, many times, in an academic environment, the purpose is already decided for you. That is, your instructor has asked you to write about your course material from a particular angle or with a particular goal in mind. Unfortunately, many students will tackle an assignment without first consulting the assignment sheet or the question that needs to be answered. Many times this failure will cause students to approach the assignment incorrectly—for instance, a student may *summarize* the causes of the Civil War instead of *analyzing* the causes of the Civil War. **To make sure you're fully meeting the intent of every assignment, read each assignment carefully.** Here are **three key steps** you can take to make sure you meet the requirements of your assignments:

1. Identify the key words.

2. Keep the essay requirements in mind (length, outside research, type of paper).

3. Give yourself enough time to complete the assignment correctly.

Identify the Key Words

First, look for the key words in the assignment. **Key words will tell you how to approach the assignment and will indicate the type of paper the instructor wants you to develop.** For instance, is the instructor asking you to analyze, interpret, compare and contrast, summarize, or argue? Below are examples of some common key words:

- **Summarize:** To give the main points briefly.[10]

- **Apply:** To use a learned concept, model, or idea, in a new situation.[11]

- **Argue:** To take a position; to choose a side with justification.

- **Compare/Contrast:** To bring out points of similarity and points of difference.[12]

- **Evaluate**: To weigh the advantages and limitations; to appraise.[13]

- **Synthesize:** To combine existing elements in order to create something original.[14]

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[10] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Longman-Pearson, 2010), 225.

[11] San Diego State University, "Bloom's Taxonomy," *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*, <http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet/Articles/BloomsT/index.htm> (7 May 2009).

[12] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Longman-Pearson, 2010), 225.

[13] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, 225.

[14] San Diego State University, "Bloom's Taxonomy," *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*, <http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet/Articles/BloomsT/index.htm> (7 May 2009).

- **Explain:** "To make clear;" to show the meaning of something.[15]

- **Interpret:** To translate; to explain the significance of.[16]

- **Justify:** To give support for your position.

- **Discuss:** To consider a subject from multiple points of view (cite); to present the pros and cons.

- **Analyze:** To break content into components in order to identify parts, see relationships among them, and recognize organizational principles.[17]

- **Comprehend:** To understand what is being communicated in order to make use of the information.[18]

Many of the terms listed in the "key words" section above are derived from Bloom's Taxonomy, which is "a classification of levels of intellectual behavior important in learning"[19] developed by Benjamin Bloom and other educational psychologists in 1956. There are three domains of Bloom's Taxonomy (i.e., cognitive, affective, and psychomotor), but most of the assignments at MCU will focus on measuring students' cognitive learning, which involves "the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills."[20]

While there are six levels of cognitive learning, the assignments you complete at MCU will employ only the four highest levels of cognition, i.e. application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. By taking a look at the MCU writing rubric, which is provided in Appendix B, you will notice the criteria used to evaluate student papers are largely based on Bloom's Taxonomy. In order to receive a high score on a paper, a student needs to demonstrate not only knowledge, but also the ability to apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information. You may want to refer back to these rubrics each time you complete a writing assignment at MCU.

Usually you will have to perform more than one cognitive task (i.e., evaluating, synthesizing, analyzing) simultaneously when you answer a test question or prompt. In fact, graduate-level work will often require you to answer multiple sub-questions (even if only one question is proposed). Below are examples of the sub-questions you may need to address in order to fully answer a test question or prompt:

> **Example 1:** Compare Bugeaud's counterinsurgency theory with Callwell's counterinsurgency theory. Which approach is more applicable today?
> A. How are the theories similar?

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[15] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen. *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (Longman, 2010), 225.
[16] Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, 225.
[17] San Diego State University, "Bloom's Taxonomy," *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*. <http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet/Articles/BloomsT/index.htm> (7 May 2009).
[18] San Diego State University, "Bloom's Taxonomy," *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*. <http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet/Articles/BloomsT/index.htm> (7 May 2009).
[19] Heather Coffey, "Bloom's Taxonomy," <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4719> (7 May 2009).
[20] Heather Coffey, "Bloom's Taxonomy," <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/4719> (7 May 2009).

B. How are the theories different?
C. What is the current military situation?
    a. Apply the theories to the current situation.
D. Argue which approach would work best.

Example 2: Agree or disagree with this statement: ECO will revolutionize the way the Marine Corps conducts operations.
A. What is ECO? (briefly)
B. How will it change (or not change) the way the Marine Corps conducts operations?
C. Is this a positive or negative change?

Example 3: Assess the concept of "people's war" as it affected the course of the American Revolution. How did this concept affect American military strategy?
A. What is the concept of "people's war?"
B. What made the American Revolution a people's war?
C. How did this affect the way the war was fought? (strategy/tactics)

Determine the Scope of the Assignment

Once you've identified the key words in the assignment, you need to determine the scope of the assignment—that is, what information you will cover and what you will leave out. What type of and how much supporting information will you need to provide? When deciding on what information to include in your assignment, make sure to keep the essay length in mind; try to strive for depth as opposed to breadth. **Make sure you are analyzing, evaluating, and applying the concepts you learned in class as opposed to merely describing or rehashing course material.** For instance, if your instructor assigns a three-page paper evaluating the civilian government's role in the Vietnam War, you may not want to detail every single action the government took throughout the conflict—an entire book could be written on this subject. Instead, you want to focus on two or three main points and fully develop these points. When an instructor assigns a short paper on a broad topic, the instructor is often checking to see if students recognize the **most important** elements in the material. Keep this in mind when deciding what details you can afford to leave out.

The scope of the assignment will determine what type of preparation you need to do before you can begin writing. For instance, the type of preparation necessary for a reaction paper is significantly different from the preparation you will need to do to write a research paper. While some papers will require you to give only an opinion or reaction to class topics, others will require you to locate outside sources to further support material you learned in class. The nature of the assignment will also dictate how long you will need to give yourself to complete the process. While you may be able to get away with writing a one-page reaction paper the night before it is due, the same may not be true for a ten-page research paper.

Critical Reading

According to the Cleveland State University Writing Center, "Critical reading means that a reader applies certain processes, models, questions, and theories that result in enhanced clarity and comprehension. There is more involved, both in effort and understanding, in a critical reading than in a mere 'skimming' of the text."[21] When you read critically, you attempt to find information and perspectives that enrich your research and help you to further your own arguments, whether for or against.

While many of us have heard of critical thinking, fewer people are familiar with the term critical reading. However, in order to demonstrate critical thinking in your writing, you also need to be a critical reader. **Constructing a strong, well-supported paper is as much a thinking process as a composing process; the strength of your claims is closely intertwined with your understanding of course material.** Therefore, critical reading is one of the most important components of the writing process.
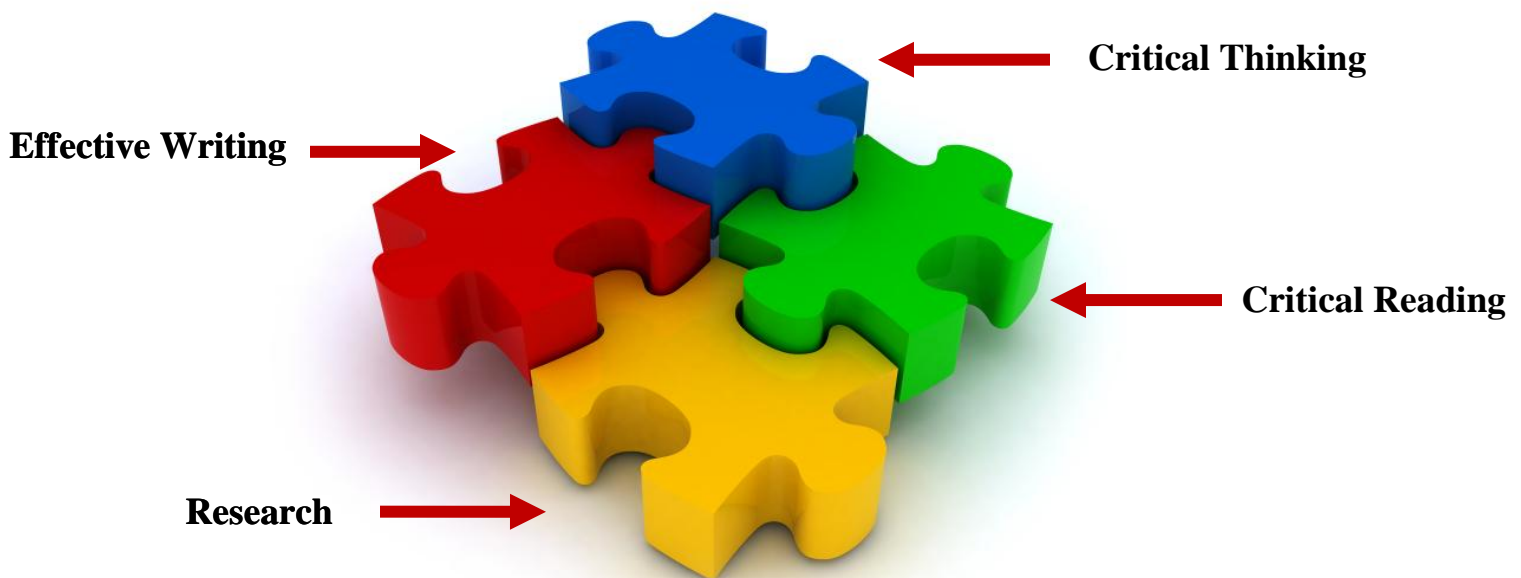
Below are a few strategies for critical reading. While you may not use every strategy each time you read, these approaches may help you to read more effectively, preventing you from having to go back to relearn concepts you read about the week before.

Generally, you want to read a text three times. The first time you read the text, you should be skimming, or "previewing" the material.[22] The second time you read the text, you want to annotate, highlight, and take time to digest some of the key ideas. The third time, go back and

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[21] Cleveland State University, "Critical Reading: What is critical reading and why do I need to do it?" <http://www.csuohio.edu/academic/writingcenter/critread.html> (7 May 2009).
[22] Colorado State University Department of English, "rereading," <http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/reading/critread/pop5e.cfm> (15 June 2009).

look at the areas you've highlighted and annotated. How are the key ideas interrelated? Can you trace main patterns, themes, or ideas throughout the text? Are there any words or concepts you don't understand?

Previewing:

Previewing refers to the process of "skimming" the chapter before you begin to read. The purpose of previewing a text is to get a sense of the text's main idea(s) and the author's intent so you will know what is important. Do not highlight or annotate material when you read the chapter the first time—remember, it's difficult to know what's important until you are able to view the text as a whole. Previewing the chapter allows you to gain this "holistic" view of the main argument or idea an author is presenting.

Take a look at the main headings and subheadings. What are some of the main topics? What are some of the main ideas? If you are reading a chapter in a text book, what are some of the questions that are asked at the end of the chapter? You may want to look for the answers to these questions as you read.

If you are previewing a longer text, such as an entire book, you may not want to "skim" the entire text. However, you will want to take a look at the table of contents and the preface. By looking at this introductory "front matter," you will have some idea of the approach the book will take and the main critical perspectives that will be incorporated or disputed throughout the book. The preface and table of contents will also give you some insight into the author's purpose and possible biases. Strategies for determining author bias are included in "Chapter 4: Choosing a Topic and Developing a Research Question."

Annotating:

The process of marking important ideas, definitions, and concepts in the text is referred to as annotating and may include highlighting key phrases or even asking important questions in the margins. Since students are not permitted to write in MCU books, it's suggested that you use post it notes or flags to indicate key ideas. You can even color code the flags to trace main themes throughout the reading. For instance, if you are trying to determine how the DIME principle was applied in a particular conflict, you could assign a color to each element of the DIME (yellow = diplomacy, green = information, blue = military, red = economic). When you review the text before an important exam or before sitting down to draft a paper, your post-it notes should lead you to the most important points.

When annotating, it may be useful to think of every text as a conversation. If the author were arguing his or her main points with you over a cup of coffee, how would you respond? Would you agree with the author's main points? Would you present a new point of view? Are there parts of the argument you agree with? Are there parts of the argument that are unsupported? Are there any terms, concepts, or models you don't understand? This is the type of information you may want to include in your annotations.

Taking Notes:

Many students prefer to take notes in addition to, or in place of, annotating. When you take notes, make sure you are not merely summarizing the material you read. Instead, **focus on connecting the text to other material.** Below is an example of the Cornell Note Taking method, which may help you think about these connections as you write down important concepts or facts.

Topic: Russo Finnish War

Connect to other research/ course material

"Universal overconfidence also resulted in the blind dissemination of antiquated, terribly inaccurate maps."[i]

Quote or Paraphrase from Source:

The Soviet leadership failed to recognize that "German tactical doctrine had been tailored for very…central European conditions: familiar landscape with a network of modern roads."[1] The Soviets neglected to identify that the 800 km stretch of territory from Lake Ladoga north to the Arctic Ocean "was quite impenetrable except for a handful of unpaved roads." [iii]

Implications/Further Research

"Soviet intelligence preparation of the battlefield (IPB), and, specifically, their terrain analysis, was severely flawed." [ii]

i. Trotter, *A Frozen Hell: the Russo-Finnish Winter War of 1939-1940,* 123.
ii. Trotter, 6-1, 6-7
iii. Trotter, 35

*Analyzing***:**

When you analyze a text, you are "breaking it down into its parts to find out how these parts relate to one another."[23] When you analyze a text you want to look at the author's assumptions, the sources and evidence he or she uses to support those assumptions, and possible author biases. Here are some questions you may want to ask yourself when you analyze a text:

- Do you agree with the assumptions the author makes? Why or why not?

- What type of evidence does the author use to support these assumptions (surveys, interviews, field research)?

- Does the author use secondary sources to support his or her argument? If so, are the secondary sources written by credible researchers?

- How does the author make his or her point? Does the author use emotional appeals? Does the author include unsupported sweeping generalizations?

- Who is the author? Does he or she belong to an organization with known biases? What are the author's credentials?

- What is the author's purpose for writing?

*Responding***:**

Some students will use annotations to respond to a text, while others may prefer to keep a journal to write down responses. When you respond to a text, you want to think about the broader implications of the text. You may want to write down specific facts or passages from the text, and then analyze those facts and passages. Try to draw connections between main ideas.

Other students may respond to texts by talking with their peers. Adult learners tend to learn most effectively when knowledge is presented in a real-life context. By talking about course readings with others, students may realize important aspects of the text that they can better relate to, due to their previous shared experiences. Such discourse may also help students recognize how the new information may be practically applicable to their lives, thus internalizing the concepts and enhancing interest. In this way, the text literally becomes a dialogue.[24]

The remainder of this chapter provides worksheets and models that may help you to read more critically. By focusing on the significance of the text, not merely the facts within the text, these models may help you to connect complicated, recurring themes in a course or to narrow your research focus.

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[23] Cleveland State University, "Critical Reading: What is critical reading and why do I need to do it?" <http://www.csuohio.edu/academic/writingcenter/critread.html> (7 May 2009).
[24] Malcolm Knowles, Elwood Holton, and Richard Swanson, *The Adult Learner* (Butterworth-Heinemann publications: Woburn, MA: 1998), 66-67.

Critical Reading Worksheet:

1. **What does the text say?**

   A. What is the author's bottom line/main idea?

   B. What is the author's stated purpose?

   C. What are the supporting points?

   D. What key questions does the author address?

2. **What does the text do?**

   A. Is the author's argument logical?

   B. How does the author make his or her point (style, tone, organization, language)?

   C. Is the author's actual purpose different from the stated purpose?

   D. What type of evidence does the author use to support his or her point (statistics, experience, examples, theory)? Was the evidence effective?

   E. Is there evidence of bias?

3. **What does the text mean?**

   A. What are the main critical perspectives presented? How do they differ from other critical perspectives in the field?

   B. How does the text relate to other course material you've read? How does it relate to other research you've conducted?

   C. What are the main issues for future consideration that the text raises?

Another strategy you may want to use when reading critically is to keep a journal. The first column, "quote or paraphrase from text," requires you to think about what the text says. The second column, "analysis," requires you to provide a comment or reaction to the text. Finally, the third column asks you to connect the text to other research you've conducted or other texts you've read. Here is an example of how you might use this type of journal to take notes as you read.

Quote or Paraphrase from Text	Analysis	Connection to Other Research

Before you sit down to write, make sure you:

- Fully understand the assignment.
- Clearly identify the purpose of your communication.
- Conduct an audience analysis. Who exactly is (are) the receiver(s) of your message? What does (do) your receiver(s) know about the subject? Does (do) the receiver(s) need background information or definitions? Why should your audience be interested in your topic? To what degree will your audience agree or disagree with your position (thesis)?
- Make sure you have critically read all pertinent material.
- Focus on connecting themes and critical perspectives as opposed to regurgitating facts.

Chapter 3: Preparing to Write a Research Paper

During your time at Marine Corps University, you will be required to write a variety of short papers—from one-page bullet papers to two-page reaction papers to five-page information papers. While many of these papers will require you to apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate material you have already read for class, you will also have to write at least one paper that will require you to conduct scholarly research. The University requires all **SAW** and **MCWAR** students to write a long research paper, which is referred to as a Future War or Individual Research Paper, respectively. Students who attend **Command and Staff College** are required to write two lengthy, scholarly research papers: a campaign paper and an MMS paper.

The purpose of a research paper is to communicate to your instructors not only what you have learned about the topic, but also what you have learned about the process of conducting scholarly research. Research, like writing, is a process, and it is a process that will help you develop a deeper understanding of course material or a specific topic. Much learning occurs during the research process as you explore and examine the scholarly research surrounding your chosen topic.

In evaluating your research, you have the opportunity to examine all aspects of your topic and to see how your opinion fits with the body of scholarly research that has already been conducted. Through comparing and contrasting your ideas with the ideas of other experts, you can develop a more in-depth understanding of your topic. Furthermore, you may contribute new knowledge to your topic's field or discipline.

What is a Research Paper?

A research paper is a formal, written presentation of discovered facts that provide the necessary evidence to defend the writer's thesis statement. Thesis statements will be discussed in depth in Chapter 5, but for the purpose of this chapter, the thesis statement may be defined as a "simple statement of opinion, [sic] which the entire work is designed to support."[25] That is, **the thesis statement presents an argument or claim that is supported by examples in the body**.

As discussed in Chapter 2, graduate-level work requires you to employ higher order thinking skills (i.e., analysis, synthesis, evaluation); therefore, the papers you write while a student at Marine Corps University should not merely summarize or report (i.e., list dates, actions, or details) on a concept or event. Instead, the papers you write will require you to apply critical thinking and critical writing skills to course material.

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[25] Purdue University, *Types of Thesis Statements,* August 2002, http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/general/gl_thesis.html (accessed July 15, 2007).

Report Paper vs. Research Paper

For a **report paper**, the student researcher collects information on a topic from several sources and reports what others have written in his or her own words and without adding his or her comments or point of view. This type of paper is not considered "original work" since the writer is reporting what others have written.

For a **research paper**, however, a student researcher collects information from a variety of sources (whether library texts, interviews, or surveys) to answer a question. The researcher then uses this information to develop an argument or theory that is outlined in the thesis statement. Your MMS paper should be a research paper as opposed to a report paper—that is, you will **propose an answer to a question in the form of a thesis statement and support that thesis through a reasoned argument, rather than simply reporting what you learned.** Your work will be original because you will determine your own conclusions and implications based on the data (e.g., historical, empirical, statistical) you collect.

Unfortunately, many individuals experience anxiety when faced with the task of writing short papers, let alone a research paper. However, as stated in Chapter 1, writing is a process, and if you follow the process and use research and writing strategies, you can accomplish the task on time and produce a well-written document.

What is Research?

As a noun, research can be described as the careful and systematic process of investigating a subject in order to discover or prove a truth, or to revise theories, facts, or applications. As a verb, research means "to study something thoroughly so as to present [information] in an accurate and detailed manner."[26] You will experience both definitions as you prepare and develop papers as part of your course curriculum.

Systematic (or scientific) research provides you with a means of exploring relationships among events, facts, and ideas in an **objective** fashion. Emphasis is added to the word "objective" because researcher objectivity is a key criterion for developing a scholarly paper. When writing a research paper, it may be helpful to think of yourself as a lawyer and your audience as the jury. You need to present the facts and convince the audience (jury) that these facts support your claim. If you can objectively demonstrate why and how a topic's events, facts, and ideas are related and why these trends or patterns occur, then you have written a well-supported research paper.

When you review your collected data or literature, remember to keep an open mind. As much as your research should support your point of view, **it's also important to keep opposing points of view in mind.** Considering and refuting opposing viewpoints makes for a more complete and thoughtful argument. Avoid making hasty, unfounded conclusions.

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[26] *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language,* 4th ed., s.v. "reference."

Approaching Research Systematically[27]

In addition to a specific category of paper, you need to apply some structure, or a systematic research methods approach, to your research inquiry, or research process. Following are eight basic principles you can use to ensure a quality argumentative research paper:

1. **Use the scientific method for your Masters paper**: The scientific method is a system of research in which a problem or issue is first identified. Next, a hypothesis or research statement (thesis statement) is developed and relevant data (e.g., interviews, quotes, archival documents) are collected in a meticulous and thorough manner. Then, the data are evaluated and a conclusion is drawn.

2. **Select a topic that reflects a practical problem**: That is, choose a topic that has a realistic application and that is relevant to the defense community, academe, or your specific profession. **Stay away from writing on a topic that has been rehashed many times over:** The Battle of Yorktown, application of the elements of national power (DIME).

3. **Write a clear research question/thesis statement**: Chapter 4 provides detailed information on how to write a research question/thesis statement. See your respective school's guidebook for additional information on how to develop a clear research question/thesis statement.

4. **Conduct a broadly defined literature review**: The literature review and its purposes are outlined below; however, it is important to point out that students must demonstrate in their papers that they are familiar with the relevant literature and significant previous works on the topic.

5. **Determine the criteria** you will use to decide whether or not you have adequately answered your research question/thesis statement.

6. **Collect a wide variety of evidence**: Your sources should include some of the following: books, articles, journals, interviews, government documents, Congressional Hearing documents, Congressional Research Service studies, think-tank reports.

7. **Use a mixture of analytical techniques to evaluate the data you collected**: The techniques you use are determined by the purpose of and the research design you selected for your study. Chapter 6 provides information to help you determine the appropriate analytical technique based on your purpose and research approach.

8. **Examine the results of your analysis** and tie those results back to your literature review to help you draw a conclusion(s) and suggest implications of your research study.

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[27] Joint Defense Intelligence Agency, *The Style Guide: Research and Writing at the Joint Military Intelligence College* (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, 1996).

While the research process involves multiple steps, it's important to remember that the **research process is not linear—it is cyclical**. The research process requires you to constantly evaluate each new piece of evidence and to compare that piece of evidence with the rest of the information you have collected. **With each new piece of information, your thesis or main argument may begin to shift slightly**. The visual below depicts the cyclical relationship between each step of the research process.

Taking a Second Look: Revisiting Your Thesis

6. Research interprets the meaning of the data, which leads to a resolution of the problem, thus confirming or rejecting the hypotheses and/or providing an answer to the question that began the research cycle. At this point, one or more new problems may emerge.

5. Research looks for data directed by the hypotheses and guided by the problem. The data are collected and organized.

Research is a cyclical process.

1. Research begins with a problem: an unanswered question in the mind of the researcher.

2. Research defines the goal in terms of a clear statement of the problem.

4. Research posits tentative solutions to the problem(s) through reasonable hypotheses. These hypotheses direct the researcher to appropriate data.

3. Research subdivides the problem into appropriate sub problems.

Source adapted from Paul D. Leedy and Jeanne E. Ormrod, *Practical Research: Planning and Design*, 8th ed. (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, 2005), 7.

The following chapters in this book will walk you through the research process. Each chapter will detail a new step in the process and will instruct you on how to progress from one step to the next.

When writing a research paper:

- Make sure you are writing a research paper, not a report paper.
- Remember that research, like writing, is a process and involves multiple steps. This process is cyclical and will evolve as you gather more data.
- Approach research systematically to ensure a quality argumentative paper.

Chapter 4: Choosing a Topic and Developing a Research Question

Your time at Marine Corps University should be viewed as an opportunity for professional (not just academic) development. Therefore, as you begin brainstorming a topic, you may want to think about your experience in the field. Is there anything you would do to change your organization's technology, strategy, or training? Were there any specific problems or issues you encountered that you would like to further investigate? **Often, the most fulfilling research projects are those that can be applied when you return to the field.** You may also want to consider the topics from guest speakers, a current event, the Deputy Secretary of Defense Essay Competition (See Appendix A), or refer to the Library of the Marine Corps' Web site for a list of USMC-specific topics.

Strategies for Choosing a Topic

For many students, choosing a topic is one of the most difficult aspects of writing a research paper. If you do not already have a topic in mind, you may want to review some of your course material and look for themes, ideas, or problems that you would like to further investigate. You also may want to consult current military history and strategic planning journals, such as *Parameters*, *Small Wars Journal*, or *Joint Forces Quarterly*. By scanning these journals, you will familiarize yourself with some of the current topics and critical perspectives in military studies. In particular, you may want to pay attention to the last few pages of an article of interest. **Researchers will often propose issues for further consideration or ideas for future research in the conclusion portion of an article.** These issues for further consideration may provide a jumping off point for your research.

Below are a few more issues to consider before you commit to a topic:

- **Choose a topic you are passionate about**. You will spend many hours reading about and writing on your topic; therefore, you must be interested in it.

- **Choose a topic that is appropriate for the assignment**. Too often, students begin to research their topic only to learn that the topic is not suitable for the assignment. To prevent this from happening, read your assignment sheet carefully (See Chapter 2 for more tips on how to read and analyze assignments). Try to submit your topic and thesis statement to the instructor **before** you spend too much time reading and taking notes.

- **Choose a topic on which you will be able to find credible primary and secondary sources.** You may not be able to write your research paper if you can't get the book in Breckinridge Library or through Inter-Library Loan (ILL), or if an individual you want to interview is not available. Forms can also be found in Breckinridge Library, Room 139.

I Have a Topic, Now What?

Developing a Research Question

Most research papers begin with the identification of a specific problem. Many researchers prefer to frame this problem in the form of a question, which is commonly referred to as a **research question**. Developing a research question is the first step in narrowing your topic. The research question helps you to focus on one particular aspect of your topic, but gives you the flexibility to shift your hypothesis as you gather data. The research question also may help you to begin thinking about the **keywords** you will need in order to find information that is relevant to your topic. You would not want to approach a librarian and tell him or her that you are conducting research on "counterinsurgency" or "socialized medicine." These topics are simply too broad and will not yield a fruitful search.

However, by developing a research question, such as "Why was the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya more effective than the French military's counterinsurgency strategy?" or "Is socialized medicine economically sustainable?" your search will be significantly more productive. As you research your topic, **your research question will form the foundation for your working thesis statement** (working thesis statements will be discussed further in "Chapter 5: Narrowing the Focus"). Below are a few examples of research questions that can be used to direct and narrow the focus of your paper.

> **Example 1:** Was the troop surge in Iraq effective?
>
> **Example 2:** How can the Army improve its training to better prepare its company grade officers to fight Full Spectrum conflicts?

Sometimes you may develop sub-questions that will help you to answer your main research question. Here are a few examples:

> **Example 1:** Is Hugo Chavez's growing influence dangerous to the United States' national and regional (Latin American) interests?
> > **Sub-question:** Should the United States address Hugo Chavez's growing influence in Latin America?
>
> **Example 2:** Can lessons from the Huk Rebellion apply to the situation in Iraq?
> > **Sub-question 1:** What were these main lessons learned?
> > **Sub-question 2:** How was the situation in the Philippines similar to the current situation in Iraq?

Reviewing the Literature on Your Topic

After you've developed a research question, you will need to conduct a preliminary literature review. **A literature review is a thorough examination of collected, published research relevant to a research question.** Proper research and writing is steered by a review of

relevant literature, as the literature acts to measure your research question against that which is already known about your topic.

The literature review has three main purposes:

1. You need to make sure that there is enough research to support your topic or to answer your research question.

2. You need to take a closer look at the sources that may answer your research question. You want to make sure each source serves your purpose before you begin taking notes or analyzing the information. Next, you need to make sure your sources are credible and unbiased.

3. The literature review provides you with the opportunity to compare and contrast your thesis with the body of scholarly research that has already been conducted.

By examining the research others have done, you will gain a deeper, more holistic understanding of your topic. Even if a source does not directly support your argument or claim, it may provide information that will help you construct an overview of your topic. Presenting other viewpoints and theories gives your paper more credibility and demonstrates to your audience (or instructor) that you have done your research and understand the full scope of an issue.

Questions to consider when conducting a literature review:

▪   What is known about the topic?

▪   Is there a chronology attached to the topic?

▪   Are there any gaps in knowledge of the subject?

▪   Is there debate or consensus on the subject?

▪   What directions are indicated by various authors on the subject? That is, what implications or suggestions for further research are offered by the authors of the literature you reviewed?

Example: You are beginning a research paper on the topic of counterinsurgency (COIN). An excellent way to begin is to find a seminal work on the topic and study the bibliography of the work to ascertain what that author used in preparing his or her fundamental work. This approach makes it much easier to trace information relevant to your topic.

In this case, we know **David Galula** and **David Kilcullen** have written several seminal works on the topic of counterinsurgency. Therefore, going online to the *Small Wars Journal Reference Library* (http://smallwarsjournal.com/reference), you may look directly under the topic *counterinsurgency* for an annotated list of seminal works on this subject by these authors.

In each document, you will find the bibliography and notes that will guide you further in your search.

Remember: If your initial searches seem to yield few results, you may need to broaden your topic or select a new one. Be focused on your question, take thorough notes, and use a systematic approach. ***When in doubt, consult your reference librarian for assistance. He or she may easily find what you need in a matter of minutes and may have access to databases that you don't. The reference librarian can also instruct you on the use of online databases in your article searches.***

When you review your research, remember to keep an open mind. As much as you may want your research to support your point of view, it's also important to keep opposing points of view in mind. Avoid making hasty, unfounded conclusions. Remember to read critically. When you review an article or book, you are not only reading to make sure it suits your purpose, but you are also evaluating the author's credibility and logic.[28]

When conducting the literature review, you may want to refer back to Chapter 2 for critical reading strategies and methods. Some suggestions for evaluating your sources are also included below.

Evaluating Your Sources

1. **Evaluating a book:** Remember, even if the book does not focus on your research topic, there may be smaller sections within the book that will be of use.

   - Look at the table of contents to see if the listed topics may help to answer your research question.

   - You also may want to look over the book's preface to find out the author's purpose for writing the book.

   - Use the index to look up words that are related to your topic.

   - If a chapter seems to pertain to your topic, read its opening and closing paragraphs and skim any headings.

   - Keep the author's style and approach in mind. Is the book scholarly enough to be credible? Is the book too specialized? Are the ideas presented biased?[29]

2. **Evaluating an article:** The process of evaluating an article is similar to evaluating a book.

   - Consider the publication that printed the article. Is it a peer-reviewed publication? A popular magazine? Is it a newspaper with a national reputation?

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[28] Joint Defense Intelligence Agency, *The Style Guide,* 30.
[29] Diana Hacker, *Research and Documentation in the Electronic Age* (Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2006).

- If the article is from a magazine or journal, look for an abstract or statement of purpose at the beginning. You also may want to read the last few paragraphs; the paragraphs should provide a summary or conclusion of the article's main points.

- For a newspaper article, focus on the headline and the opening.

- Skim headings and look at visuals that may indicate the article's focus.[30]

Guidelines that may help you determine whether or not an article is scholarly:

- The authors are academics or scientists, not journalists.

- Footnotes or a bibliography are used to document the works cited.

- The article is not merely a summary of someone else's work; **it provides conclusions that were drawn from original research**.

- If the article covers a topic in the humanities, it should provide quotations from and an analysis of primary sources.

- The article provides a description of the research methods used and gives an overview of related research.[31]

3. **Evaluating a Web site:** Remember, Web sites can be created by anyone and do not necessarily need to conform to set standards. They may be biased or contain incorrect information. When you preview a Web site, you need to check for reliability and accuracy, as well as relevance.

- Look at the Web site's home page. Is the information there relevant to your research question? What is the purpose of the Web site? Is it trying to sell a particular product or idea? Is the site's purpose similar to yours?

- Check the name of the author or Webmaster. If possible, also check this person's credentials. The name of the site's author usually appears at the bottom of the home page. If you have trouble finding the author's name, or information about sponsors, be wary of the information that is provided.

- Check for a sponsor name and think about the motives/interests of the organization.

- Find out when the Web site was last updated. Is the information current enough for your purpose?[32]

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[30] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 24.
[31] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 26.
[32] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 25.

4. **Checking for bias:** Even if a source is considered reputable, it may still be biased. Always consider the source of your information. You may want to consult *Magazines for Libraries* if you are unsure about the special interests of a particular periodical. To check for biases in books, check *Book Review Digest*.[33]

Questions that may help you to evaluate whether or not an article is biased:[34]

- Does the author or publisher have political or religious views that may affect his or her objectivity?

- Is the author or publisher associated with a special interest group that would be likely to promote one aspect of an issue?

- Are alternative views presented or addressed? Is the author's treatment of opposing views fair?

- Does the author's language show signs of bias?

Assessing the credibility of an argument:[35]

- Can you identify the author's main thesis?

- What evidence does the author provide to support his or her claim?

- Is the writing emotionally charged?

- Are the statistics used consistent with those you have found in other sources?

- Does the author draw logical conclusions from the statistics?

- Does the author provide proper documentation and citations for the statistics that are used?

- Are any of the author's assumptions questionable?

- Does the author exhibit any logical fallacies?

What if my research no longer supports my initial hypothesis?

When you develop your research question you may also begin to form a hypothesis—that is, you will begin to make an educated guess about the conclusions you will draw from your research. Many students will ask: What if my assumptions are wrong? What if my data does not support my assumptions? Will this mean all of my research and hard work has been in vain?

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[33] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 30-31.
[34] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 32.
[35] Hacker, *Research and Documentation,* 32.

The advantage of the research question is that the rigor and success of a study has nothing to do with whether or not the conclusions you draw support your initial hypothesis. Instead, the success of a research project depends on your ability to use your data in an effective, logical manner. For instance, a researcher may set out to prove that socialized medicine is economically sustainable; however, after conducting research, he or she may find data that disproves this hypothesis. As long as the researcher is able to supply adequate information to support the idea that socialized medicine is not sustainable, the study will still be considered valid. This constant evaluation and reevaluation of assumptions is part of the *cyclical nature of research*.

Begin to Formulate Your Working Thesis Statement

Once you've conducted your preliminary literature review, you can further narrow your topic. Keeping in mind the main critical perspectives in the field, the research that has already been conducted, and the data you've collected, you will need to go back and review your research question. Is the question still relevant? Has the question already been answered? Is the question too broad? How will you approach the research question? At this point you should begin to formulate what is commonly called a *working thesis statement*.

The purpose of the working thesis statement is to state (in one or two sentences) what it is you are trying to prove through your research. This working thesis statement can and will shift as you progress through the research process; however, it's very important for you to have a clear vision of what you wish to prove before you begin conducting focused research.

The next chapter will provide you with strategies for developing a working thesis statement and further narrowing your topic.

When choosing a topic, remember:

- You should be passionate about your topic.
- Your topic needs to be appropriate for the assignment (and length of time you have to complete the assignment).
- You need to be able to find credible primary and secondary sources on your topic in order to produce an effective research paper.
- Most research papers begin with the identification of a specific problem. Many researchers prefer to frame this problem in the form of a question, which is commonly referred to as a research question.
- The rigor and success of a study has nothing to do with whether or not the conclusions you draw support your initial hypothesis. Instead, the success of a research project depends on your ability to use your data in an effective, logical manner.

Chapter 5: Narrowing the Focus

Once you've formulated your research question and completed your literature review, it's time to begin narrowing the focus of your paper even further. At this point, you should begin to formulate what is commonly called a **working thesis statement**. The working thesis statement should state (in one or two sentences) what it is you are trying to prove through your research. This working thesis statement can and will shift as you progress through the research process; however, it's very important for you to have a clear vision of what you wish to prove before you begin conducting focused research. Unfortunately, many students fail to develop a solid working thesis, which leads to extra time spent in the library. You do not want to spend hours mining resources in the U.S. Marine Corps Archives and Special Collections only to discover that none of the information you've collected supports your thesis. Therefore, the purpose of the working thesis statement is to keep your research "on track."

What is a Thesis Statement?

The word thesis comes from the Greek word meaning "position." Think of your thesis statement as a road map: It outlines the main idea of the paper (your position) and how the main idea will be proven. In its most basic terms, **a thesis is a sustained and logical argument that clearly demonstrates the ability to successfully perform research and analysis while contributing to the existing body of knowledge[36] in a discipline.** Though the thesis statement is often one sentence for short papers, it is acceptable to have a two-sentence thesis statement for longer papers (e.g., MMS papers, IRP papers, Future Warfare papers). As a rule of thumb, the thesis usually appears near the end of the introduction.

The Importance of Argument

To develop an effective academic paper, it is necessary to understand what a thesis is, how it is used in academic writing, and the components that form an effective thesis. **A strong thesis statement must contain a claim or argument that needs to be proven.** Generally, to be argumentative, a thesis statement must make a claim that is somewhat controversial. For instance, you do not want to write about something that has already been accepted as a fact. Whether or not a thesis is considered argumentative may also depend on social context. For instance, the thesis statement, "Women should be permitted to join the military," should not be considered a valid argument in the United States, since women in the U.S. can already serve in the military. However, the statement, "Women should be given the opportunity to serve in direct offensive combat positions," should be considered a thesis statement, since it is a controversial topic that is still debated within the Armed Forces.

While not all the papers you write at MCU will be described as "argumentative papers" or "thesis papers," most will require you to develop some sort of argumentative thesis statement. **Any time an instructor asks you to take a position on a particular subject or to debate a**

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[36] Russell G. Swenson, ed., *Research Design and Methods* (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, 2000), 61.

particular point of view, he or she is asking you to formulate a "mini-thesis." That is, you are expected to take a position and to use facts and examples to support your position.

Furthermore, even though many of the course papers you will write will take an historical approach, they should not be report papers. **Your instructor does not want to read a "play by play" of a battle or a summary of the events that led to the American Revolutionary War.** There's a good chance he or she is already familiar with these details. Instead, the papers you write while at MCU should focus on analyzing these events—that is, your papers should tell your reader why and how a particular event occurred—they should not merely report on what happened.

Make it Fresh

Chances are your topic has been covered by someone else at some point in time. This doesn't necessarily mean you should choose a new topic. However, **be careful not to recycle old arguments.** Even if you are writing about an event that occurred over 200 years ago, your thesis should still present some new insight or point of view. You may want to ask yourself: "What new insight can I bring to this event? Are there any research gaps—is there a particular aspect of a conflict that has yet to be explored? Does this event provide any lessons learned that can be applied on the modern battlefield?" **If you have nothing new to add to the debate, the paper may not be worth your time.**

Other issues to consider when building an argument:

- **Audience:** Your audience will determine how you go about proving an argument. What sort of evidence will the audience find convincing? What biases and beliefs does the audience already hold? How will you counter these beliefs? For more information on how your audience will affect your communication, see Chapter 2.

- **Critical Reading**: Think of writing as a conversation with other scholars in the field. In order to participate in this conversation, you have to familiarize yourself with the common points of view in the field. You need to learn about the main arguments and perspectives. What are the main disagreements? Who are some of the most credible people in the field? What stance do they take on your topic? For more information about critical reading strategies, see Chapter 2.

- **Evidence:** What type of evidence will you provide to support your ideas? Will you use secondary sources (e.g., journal articles, books)? Will you use archival information, such as correspondences, journals, and original documents? Will you conduct interviews and surveys? The type of evidence you supply will depend on your topic and your approach.

How do I Begin Constructing my Working Thesis Statement?

Keeping in mind the main critical perspectives in the field, the research that has already been conducted, and the data you've collected, you will need to go back and revisit your research question. Is the question still relevant? Has the question already been answered? Is the question too broad? Specifically, what aspect of the question will you examine?

While there are many different strategies for narrowing and developing thesis statements, many students prefer to use the research question as a jumping off point. The section below provides some examples of how research questions can be used to form working thesis statements and how these working thesis statements can be tweaked to form final, polished thesis statements.

Using Research Questions to Formulate Thesis Statements

A research question tells the reader "what" is going to be looked at—the topic of the paper. However, **effective thesis statements include not only a "what," but also a "why" and "how."** The following examples provide you with a step by step look at revising a thesis statement.

Example 1:

Student Research Question: How did the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya differ from the French military's counterinsurgency strategy?

Student Working Thesis Statement: The counterinsurgency method the British used in Malaya was more successful than the counterinsurgency strategy employed by the French.

A critique of the student's working thesis statement:

- This statement provides a starting point, but it still needs to be further refined. Although the author tells how the insurgency was different (i.e., more successful), the author also needs to discuss why this is the case.

Student Working Thesis Statement (slightly revised): The method of counterinsurgency the British applied in Malaya was more successful than the French counterinsurgency strategy because the British used diplomatic means to appeal to the masses, while the French approach to counterinsurgency focused more on military means.

A critique of the student's slightly revised working thesis statement:

- This statement will help to guide the researcher through the research process. It provides the "what" as well as the "why;" however, the statement may continue to evolve and to become even more focused as the researcher collects evidence to support his or her argument. Below is an example of what the researcher's final, revised thesis statement may look like:

Final (Polished) Thesis Statement: The British method of counterinsurgency in Malaya was ultimately more successful than the French strategy because the British focused on reinforcing the perception of legitimacy, whereas the French resorted to unrestrained military action.

A critique of the student's final (polished) thesis statement:

- This statement not only defines the "what," but also the "how" and "why" in specific terms.

Example 2:

Research Question: How should the United States address Hugo Chavez's growing influence in Latin America? Is this growing influence dangerous to the United States' national and regional (Latin American) interests?

Working Thesis Statement: The U.S. must counter Hugo Chavez's influence in Latin America to maintain its regional credibility in the region.

A critique of the student's working thesis statement:

- This thesis is still vague and incomplete because it does not answer the "how."

Developed Thesis Statement: In an effort to maintain its regional credibility in Latin America and to preserve its national interests, the U.S. must become less dependent on Latin American oil and must reach out diplomatically to other nations in the region to counter Hugo Chavez's influence.
A critique of the student's working thesis statement:

- This thesis statement is complete because it contains the "what," "how," and "why."

Example 3:

Research Question: How can the Army improve its training to better prepare its company grade officers to fight Full Spectrum conflicts?

Working Thesis Statement: The Army must improve its training to better prepare its company grade officers to fight Full Spectrum conflicts.

A critique of the student's working thesis statement:

- This sentence gives the researcher a starting point (i.e., *acknowledging that training needs to change*).

- This sentence also gives a reason for this change (i.e., *to better prepare company grade officers to fight Full Spectrum conflicts*). However, the sentence is still a bit vague because the statement begs the question: How should the Army improve its training?

Revised, Final Thesis Statement: The Army must leverage civilian graduate education programs, as opposed to traditional training methods, to better prepare its combat arms company grade officers for stability operations.

A critique of the student's revised thesis statement:

- This revised, final thesis statement is fully developed and polished.

Common Problems in Argumentative Thesis Writing

Problem 1: Thesis is too broad

Attempting to work with an idea that is too broad is the most common problem students have when formulating a thesis. You need to make sure the scope of your thesis is appropriate for the length of the paper you are writing. Since the papers you will write at MCU are 20 pages or less, the thesis statement should be very specific to allow you to fully develop your idea. As stated in Chapter 1, **try to strive for depth as opposed to breadth when writing your research papers.**

Example 1: The U.S. must find a new, greener source of energy.

- This thesis statement is too general. It begs the question, greener than what? It also neglects the "how" and "why" aspect of the thesis. The thesis statement should not only take a stand, but also tell the reader why this stand is important.

Possible Revision: The U.S. should begin using more natural energy sources, such as wind power and solar power, in order to reduce its reliance on oil from the Middle East.

Example 2: Terrorism presents a significant threat to the United States' national security.

- How are you defining terrorism? Whose definition of terrorism are you using? What criteria does an action need to meet in order to be classified as "terrorism?" Are you talking about terrorism in other countries? Are you talking about the possibility of a terrorist attack in the United States? Why does it present a "significant threat?" How

will it threaten national security? These are some questions that may need to be answered in order to effectively narrow the thesis.

Problem 2: Thesis contains ambiguous/undefined terms

Example: China will become a superpower within the next 20 years.

- Superpower is a buzzword and may mean different things to different people, depending on culture and nationality.

- How are you defining superpower? Economic power? Military power? Technology? Diplomatic alliances?

Problem 3: Thesis does not take a stand

Example: The Long War has affected the type of recruits the Marine Corps has attracted in recent years.

- "Affected" is a vague term and begs the question, "affected how?" Negatively? Positively? What is the implication here? Why is it important?

The following examples illustrate effective thesis statements and explain what makes the statements effective.

Example 1: Prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests is dangerous to the future of the armed forces and to the United States in general because it violates an individual's right to free speech and prohibits opposing viewpoints from being heard.

- Takes a side/makes a claim that can be argued

- Explains what is dangerous (prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests)

- Also explains why this is dangerous (violates an individual's right to free speech and prohibits opposing viewpoints from being heard)

Example 2: An effective civil-military relationship is a critical component of the American governmental system and requires uncensored debate and institutional trust to produce a coherent national strategy and to project the will of the American people.

- Takes a stand that can be argued

- Discusses need for an effective civil-military relationship (the "what" aspect of the thesis)

- Discusses how this relationship will be accomplished (uncensored debate and institutional trust)
- Discusses why this is important (to project the will of the American people)

Example 3: The U.S. reconstruction of infrastructure in Iraq, particularly the reconstruction of the electrical system, served as a non-kinetic force multiplier for the coalition forces to set conditions to create a secure and stable country.

- Argument is specific (focuses on one aspect of reconstruction)

- Answers "what" this did for Iraq (set conditions to create a secure and stable country)

Example 4: An examination of the current operating environment dictates that today's artillery community is not structured, trained, or employed to maximize its effectiveness in support of full spectrum operations conducted by expeditionary forces.

- Provides a framework for the claim (the current operating environment)

- Tells the reader why the artillery community is not able to maximize its effectiveness (it is not properly structured, trained, or employed)

- Presents three criteria (structure, training, employment) the author will use in the paper to measure/determine the lack of effectiveness of the artillery community

- Further narrows the thesis by including the qualifier "in support of full spectrum operations conducted by expeditionary forces."

Once you've formulated your working thesis statement, you will begin conducting focused research. In order to do this in the most effective way possible, you will need to use an appropriate research methodology or approach. The next chapter provides more information on selecting a research methodology and how to begin proving your working thesis statement.

When constructing your thesis statement, remember:

- A thesis is a sustained and logical argument that clearly demonstrates the ability to successfully perform research and analysis while contributing to the existing body of knowledge in a discipline.
- A strong thesis statement must contain a claim or argument that needs to be proven.
- A strong thesis statement must be specific and all terms should be carefully defined.
- An interesting thesis should present a fresh argument. If the thesis does not add anything new to the debate, the paper may not be worth your time.

Chapter 6: Research Methodology and Data Collection

During the research process, you must constantly assess and analyze the information you collect to determine whether it supports your thesis statement. One of the most challenging aspects of the research process is deciding whether or not to include a particular piece of information in your paper. This chapter provides strategies that will help you decide on a research approach, evaluate your data, and finally, use your data to support your ideas.

Choosing a Research Design (Methodology) for your Paper

Methodology, by definition is **a set of procedures**, and beyond that, methods that can apply to a specific discipline. Your research design provides a framework for conducting research by establishing a procedure for gathering data, analyzing data, and drawing conclusions. If you are able to show that your paper has a plausible methodology, your conclusions will have more credibility.

There are many different research design models you can use as a framework for proving your thesis. You will need to select the research design that best suits the purpose of your study. Generally, while a student of MCU, you will use qualitative research methods to gather and analyze your data. The research design will provide you with a framework that will help you to decide

- What questions to study

- What data are relevant

- What data to collect

- How to analyze the data[37]

Quantitative versus Qualitative Research

Quantitative research uses mathematical analysis to statistically estimate the viewpoints of the population by providing percentages and averages.[38] While quantitative research relies primarily on numbers and objective, hard data, qualitative research is less concerned with revealing absolute truth and more concerned with revealing multiple perspectives on a particular phenomenon.

Qualitative research focuses on phenomena (i.e., a fact or event that can be observed) that occur in natural settings and focuses on the complexities of these phenomena. While a student at MCU, most of the papers you write will require you to use either a qualitative research

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[37] Colorado State University, Writing Guides-Case Study,
<http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/research/casestudy/com2b3.cfm > (accessed 13 May 2009).
[38] BN Research, http://www.bnresearch.com/about_glossary.html (accessed 27 May 2008).

design or an historical research design. There are five basic types of qualitative research designs: case study, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory study, and content analysis.

You want to choose your research design based on your topic and how you want to go about exploring that topic. Below is a chart that may help you to select the appropriate qualitative research method for your study:

Distinguishing characteristics of different qualitative designs

Design	Purpose	Focus	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
Case Study	To understand one person or situation (or perhaps a very small number) in great depth	One case or a few cases within its/their natural setting	Observations, interviews, appropriate written documents and/or audiovisual material	Categorization and interpretation of data in terms of common themes, synthesis into an overall portrait of the case(s)
Ethnography	To understand how behaviors reflect the culture of a group	A specific field site in which a group of people share a common culture	Participant observation, structured or unstructured interviews with "informants", artifact/document collection	Identification of significant phenomena and underlying structures and beliefs, organization of data into a logical whole (e.g., chronology, typical day)
Phenomenolo-gical Study	To derive an experience from the participants' point of view	A particular phenomenon as it is typically lived and perceived by human beings	In-depth, unstructured interviews, purposeful sampling of 5-25 individuals	Search for "meaning units" that reflect various aspects of the experience, integration of the meaning of units into a "typical" experience
Grounded Theory Study	To derive a theory from data collected in a natural setting	A process, including human actions and interactions and how they result from and influence one another	Interviews, any other relevant data sources	Prescribed and systematic method of coding the data into categories and identifying interrelationships, continual interweaving of data collection and data analysis, construction of a theory from the categories and interrelationships
Content Analysis	To identify the specific characteristics of a body of material	Any verbal, visual, or behavioral form of communication	Identification and possible sampling of the specific material to be analyzed, coding of the material in terms of predetermined and precisely defined characteristics	Tabulation of the frequency of each characteristic, descriptive or inferential statistical analyses as needed to answer the research question

Qualitative Research Designs

1. **Case Study**: The **in-depth study of a particular event, person, small group, or program over a defined period of time** is referred to as a case study. The case study method requires the researcher to collect and present detailed information about the subject(s) of the study (i.e. people, places, things), as well as the context of the case. A case study frequently will include the accounts of the subjects themselves.

    This method is particularly useful when you wish to examine how a particular program or event has changed over time. The main weakness of the case study method is that it is limited in scope. While case studies are often used to make broad generalizations, it is important to remember that the case being studied may be the exception to the general pattern that similar events or programs may follow.[39]

2. **Ethnography**: An ethnography is the **study of an entire group of people in their natural habitat over a long period of time**; this research design is generally used when the researcher wants to understand the complexity of a particular culture or group. While ethnographic studies were once used only in anthropology, they are now used in education, psychology, sociology, and organizational studies.[40]

3. **Phenomenological Study:** A phenomenological study is **used when the researcher wants to understand how people perceive and experience a particular situation.** This type of study examines multiple perspectives on the same situation to make generalizations about what something is like from an insider's perspective.[41]

4. **Grounded Theory Study:** A grounded theory study **begins with data, which is then used to develop a theory**. It uses a prescribed set of procedures for analyzing data **and constructing a theoretical model** from them. This method is generally used when current theories are not adequate or have not yet been developed.

5. **Content Analysis:** A **detailed, systematic examination of the parts of a particular topic**. The purpose of content analysis is to identify patterns, themes, or biases. Content analysis usually requires examining forms of human communication (i.e., books, newspapers, films, television, art, music, videotapes of human interactions, and transcripts of conversations).[42]

It is important to realize **there are specific techniques within each data collection method** in order to obtain data or a data point (one specific piece of information). For example, when a researcher wants to use a Phenomenological design, he or she may observe the subjects in their natural environment (e.g., helicopter pilots in their squadrons) and maintain field notes on the subjects' behavior, interaction, or dialogue. The data are then analyzed using several types of analysis, including content analysis, cluster analysis, and descriptive statistics.

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[39] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 136.
[40] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 137.
[41] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 139.
[42] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 142.

Historical Research

The other type of research you will conduct while at MCU is historical research. Historical research looks for patterns and connections in order to make sense of past events. ***This type of research depends on interpretation of facts as opposed to the accumulation of facts.*** If you are attending Command and Staff College, this is the type of methodology you will use when you write the Campaign Analysis Paper.

An historical research paper:

- Presents an argument
- Interprets facts
- Presents something new
- Acknowledges other arguments in the field[43]

The process for conducting historical research is not much different from the process used in other disciplines. Historical research still requires you to formulate a research question, use that research question to develop a working thesis, and to use multiple, varied sources (both primary and secondary) to support your claims. Historical researchers are less concerned with finding out what happened and more concerned with discovering why it happened.[44] This means ***historical papers should not be a mere regurgitation of historical events***.

Like other research papers, historical papers must make a claim that needs to be proven; simply rehashing scholars' work is not productive.[45] This doesn't mean that you should strive to develop a radical interpretation of all historical events—your claims still need to be logically supported. However, historical research does require you to ask "…questions which demand answers which have not been offered before. Sometimes they ask old questions and find new answers, or they may ask questions which never have been asked."[46]

The **Marine Corps Historical Center** also publishes a Writing Guide that provides more detailed information about how to conduct research in military history.

Looking at an historical event, object, or document in a new way will often require you to perform primary source research. The section below details how you should use primary and secondary sources to support your claims for any type of research you do.

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[43] Patrick Rael, *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* (Brunswick, ME: Bowdoin College, 2004), 12 May 2009, <http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/rhetoric.htm>.

[44] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 161.

[45] Patrick Rael, *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* (Brunswick, ME: Bowdoin College, 2004), 12 May 2009, <http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/rhetoric.htm>.

[46] Patrick Rael, *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* (Brunswick, ME: Bowdoin College, 2004), 12 May 2009, <http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/rhetoric.htm>.

Using Primary and Secondary Sources in Academic Writing

Primary Sources

Primary sources are **original documents** and include letters, diaries, legislative bills, laboratory studies, field research reports, and eyewitness accounts. In order for a paper to be considered original research, it should include primary source material.

Primary sources add depth to your research for many reasons. First, conducting primary source research means going back to the original document, work of art, letter, or battlefield and making your own observations about that particular thing or place. This means you are collecting unfiltered data and first-person observations on your topic. Remember, your interpretation of a particular correspondence, document, or piece of legislation may be drastically different from someone else's interpretation. Many different people can look at the same source and draw completely different conclusions about the location or object that is being studied. This is why historians can continue to disagree about events that happened hundreds of years ago.

Of course, there are always times when consulting a primary source is not feasible. For instance, if you have three weeks to write a paper about the D-Day Invasion, it's unlikely that you will fly to France to study the beaches. However, you may be able to find some valuable correspondences in the Marine Corps Archives.

When viewing primary sources, try to remember to place the object/document you are studying into its context. In order to do this properly, you will need to **study the time period in which a primary source was written/made**. How did the social, political, and economics of the time affect the object's significance? More detailed directions regarding how to read a primary source are provided below.

How to read a primary source:[47]

*This section was adapted from: Patrick Rael, *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* (Brunswick, ME: Bowdoin College, 2004). http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/ (accessed 12 May 2009.)

Reading primary sources requires that you use your historical imagination. This process is all about your willingness and ability to ask questions of the material, imagine possible answers, and *explain your reasoning*.

The acronym PAPER (purpose, argument, prepositions, epistemology, relate) refers to a set of criteria that may help you evaluate primary source texts. Below is a further explanation of these criteria:

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[47] Patrick Rael, *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* (Brunswick, ME: Bowdoin College, 2004), 12 May 2009, http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/.

Purpose
- Who is the author and what is her or his place in society? Based on the text, what "clues" would lead you to think that way and why?
- Why did the author prepare the document? What was the context within which the document was created? What was happening in the author's life/country/world?
- What is at stake for the author in this text? Why do you think she or he wrote it? What evidence in the text tells you this?
- Does the author have a thesis? In one sentence, what is that thesis?

Argument
- What is the text trying to do? How does the text make its case? What is the author's strategy for accomplishing the goal? How does the author carry out this strategy?
- Who/what is the intended audience of the text? How might the audience influence the author's rhetorical strategy? Cite specific examples.
- Do you think the author is credible and reliable? Use at least one specific example to explain why.

Presuppositions
- What presumptions and preconceptions do you—the reader—bring to the text? For instance, what portions of the text might you find objectionable, but which the author's contemporaries might have found acceptable? State the values you hold on that subject and the values expressed in the text. Cite at least one specific example.
- How might the difference between your values and the values of the author influence the way you understand the text?

Epistemology (The foundations, scope, and validity of knowledge)
- How might this text support an argument from any secondary sources you've read?
- What kind of information does the text reveal or imply, but is not specifically stated?

Relate (This step will require you to compare documents you've read)
- What patterns or ideas are repeated throughout the readings?
- What major differences appear between these readings?
- Which readings do you find most reliable and credible? Why?

Evaluating the Veracity (Truthfulness) of Texts

For the rest of this section, consider the example of a soldier who committed atrocities against non-combatants during wartime. Later in his life, he writes a memoir that neglects to mention his role in these atrocities, and may in fact blame them on someone else. Knowing the soldier's possible motive, you would be right to question the veracity of his account.

The credible versus the reliable text:

- *Credibility* refers to your ability to trust the author's account of the truth on the basis of her or his tone and reliability. An author who is inconsistently truthful—such as the soldier in the example above—loses credibility. There are many other ways authors

undermine their credibility. Most frequently, they convey in their tone that they are not neutral (see below). For example, the soldier above may intersperse vehement and racist attacks of his enemy throughout his reliable account of the campaign. Such attacks signal readers that he may have an interest in not portraying the past accurately, and hence may undermine his credibility, regardless of his reliability.

- ▪ ***Reliability*** refers to your ability to trust the consistency of the author's account of the truth. A reliable text displays a pattern of *verifiable* truth-telling that tends to cause the unverifiable parts of the text to be inferred as true. For instance, the soldier above may prove to be utterly reliable in detailing the campaigns he participated in during the war, as evidenced by corroborating records. The only gap in his reliability may be the omission of details about the atrocities he committed.

The objective versus the neutral text:

- ▪ ***Objectivity*** refers to an author's ability to convey the truth free of underlying values, cultural presuppositions, and biases. Many scholars argue that no text is, or ever can be, completely objective because all texts are the products of the culture in which their authors lived. The author who claims to be free of bias and presupposition should be treated with suspicion: no one is free of their values. Instead, the credible author acknowledges and expresses his or her values, so they may be accounted for in the text.

- ▪ ***Neutrality*** refers to the stake an author has in a text. In a neutral document, the author is not aware that she or he has any special stake in the construction and content of the document. Very few texts are ever completely neutral, as people generally do not go to the trouble to record their thoughts unless they have a purpose or design that causes them to be invested in the process of creating the text. Some historical texts, such as birth records, may appear to be more neutral than others, because their creators have less of a stake in creating them. (For instance, the county clerk who signed several thousand birth certificates likely had less of a stake in creating an individual birth certificate than did a celebrity recording her life in a diary for future publication as a memoir.)

For historians who read primary sources, the question becomes: What can I know of the past based on this text; how sure can I be about it; and, how do I know these things? This can be an extremely difficult question to answer. While you cannot be 100% sure that your reading of a text is correct, you can conclude, with reasonable accuracy, that some things are more likely to be true than others (For instance, it is more likely that the sun will rise tomorrow than that a human will learn to fly without wings or other support). Your task as a historian is to make ***and justify*** decisions about the relative veracity of historical texts and portions of them. In order to do this, you need a solid command of the principles of sound reasoning.

Secondary Sources

Secondary sources comment on primary sources and **may be seen more as a review or a compiling of previously completed research.** While secondary sources can provide useful, reliable information, the information the author provides has already been analyzed and filtered

for you. This means the work is subject to the author's personal biases or interpretation. Therefore, when you review an article or book, remember to read critically.   The section, "Reviewing the Literature on Your Topic," in Chapter 4 contains more strategies for evaluating secondary sources.

However, this does not mean you should avoid secondary sources. In fact, it's important to review secondary sources and to include them in your research. By reviewing secondary sources, you will familiarize yourself with some of the main arguments and critical perspectives on your topic.

When building an argument, it's especially important to use these seminal works as a foundation.   For instance, if you are writing a paper that proposes a new operational culture perspective for AFRICOM, you need to briefly discuss some of the main operational culture perspectives that already exist. You may want to synthesize what you view as the strengths of these multiple perspectives in order to create your own model. Then, you will use primary sources (e.g., reports from the field, interviews with African culture experts) to show why your model would be effective.

The chart below gives more examples of primary and secondary source research:

Primary Source Research	Secondary Source Research
Walking the battlefields at Gettysburg	Reading about the terrain of the Gettysburg battlefields
Reading after action reports written by a commander who just returned from Iraq	Reading a book about Iraqi culture
Reading the National Security Strategy	Reading a summary of the National Security Strategy
Interviewing people who experienced hurricane Katrina	Reading about the event in a history book
Reading original correspondences George Washington wrote from Valley Forge	Reading a biography of George Washington, which describes his time at Valley Forge

Varying your Sources

The more sources and different types of analysis you can use to prove your thesis, the more credibility your work will have. This process of collecting multiple sources of data that come together to support a particular point is commonly known as **triangulation**.[48] Triangulation adds to the academic rigor of your work because it demonstrates to the reader that the conclusions you have drawn are not merely a result of biased observation.

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[48] Robert K. Yin, Case *Study Research: Design and Methods,* 2nd ed. (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd., 1994), 92-93.

Here is an example of how you can use triangulation of data to prove your thesis statement:

Thesis Statement: The surge of American troops, coupled with local and militia uprisings (i.e., the Al Anbar Awakening), was the catalyst for the Iraqi Army's (IA) progress in critical areas, such as logistics, personnel recruitment and retention, and pay administration, which contributed to building the confidence and performance of the IA in 2007.

In this study, the researcher used multiple sources in order to highlight patterns and trends on the effect of the troop surge in Iraq. He was able to trace these trends (i.e., recruitment, personnel, pay, and logistics) in all of the sources he consulted. Below is a visual representation of how he triangulated the data to support his central claim.

Personal Interviews with Subject Matter Experts

Recruitment
Pay
Personnel
Logistics

Government Documents

First-Person Experience and Observations

Recruitment
Pay
Personnel
Logistics

Recruitment
Pay
Personnel
Logistics

Confidence grew within the Iraqi Army
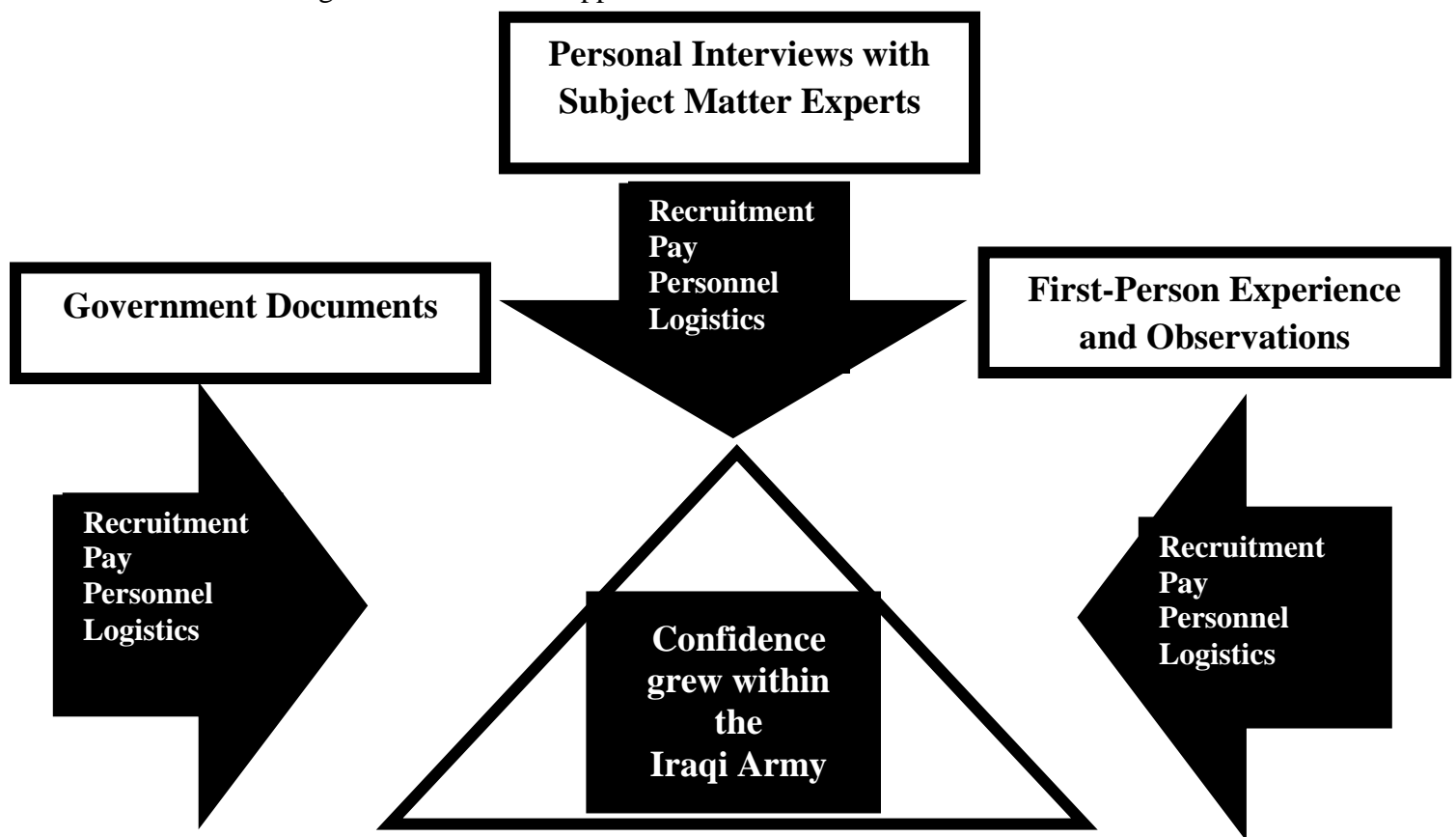
Whether you use an historical approach to collect data or an experimental approach, it is critical that you learn to manage the data. In this instance, manage means to archive, store, and/or arrange the data into a system so the data are easy to retrieve. Some of the data may include articles, book chapters, or interviews.

Constructing Interview and Survey Questions

While constructing interview and survey questions may sound like a simple task, there's **a science to developing effective questions** that will evoke the proper response from your

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participants. Make sure to write down a list of interview questions and to **"pilot test"** these questions before using them on your sample group. To pilot test your interview/survey questions, try having a person who could be part of the sample group answer your questions. The responses you obtain from this person should not be used in your actual study; however, the responses will give you some insight into whether or not the questions you have developed are effective.

Pilot testing questions often provides great insight for the researcher. For example, by asking the questions you might find out terminology you thought was familiar and easily understood may not be familiar to the people within your sample. The questions you ask interviewees could also be interpreted multiple ways, or the questions you ask may not yield the answers you are seeking. Once you have conducted the pilot test, you should know whether or not some of the questions need "tweaking." Below are a few issues you will want to consider before you begin crafting your survey or interview questions:

What do you want to know?

Make sure each question has a purpose. If you pass out a 10-page survey, chances are that you will not get too many complete responses or too many people returning the survey. To keep the survey as short as possible, make sure each question has a purpose.

Who will you survey?

Are you interested in targeting a specific group of people (e.g., intelligence officers, aircraft maintenance officers, Marines)? Chances are, if you want to investigate the effect of a new doctrine or policy on the Marine Corps, you don't want to survey Air Force personnel. On the other hand, if you're interested in finding out whether a DOD-wide policy, procedure, or doctrine is effective, you want to make sure all the services are represented.

In some instances, surveys will begin with a demographics section. This section may require a participant to answer a number of identifying questions (e.g., age, occupation, number of years in the military). Usually, the demographics section is placed at the end of the survey. The purpose of these questions is to help you to highlight trends between a survey participant's background/experience and his or her survey responses. The demographics section can also be used to put respondents at ease by answering questions about themselves.

What type of questions will you ask?

Will you ask open-ended or close-ended questions? Generally, open-ended questions allow for more descriptive responses, but they are more time consuming to answer. Close-ended questions can have a limited number of possible responses (i.e., yes or no questions).

Open-ended versus Close-ended Questions

There are two basic types of questions that you can use to gather data: Open-ended questions and close-ended questions. *Close-ended questions* allow a respondent to select his or her answer from a number of responses and tend to yield more consistent data, making the responses easier to interpret. Sometimes people will also be more likely to respond to close-ended questions because they are less time consuming. However, close-ended questions can be limiting; you may have to create more questions to gather sufficient data. While *open-ended questions* allow for freer, individualized responses, they are sometimes difficult to interpret because they tend to evoke inconsistent responses.

Example of close-ended questions:

- Did the ethics training you received pre-deployment prepare you to make difficult decisions in combat situations? (Y/N)

- Did you have civil affairs (CA) personnel attached to your unit prior to any of your deployments? (Y/N)

Example of open-ended questions:

- How did having a Company-level intelligence cell affect operations?

- How can the Marine Corps improve its ethics training to better prepare Marines for the operational forces?

Mistakes to Avoid When Constructing Interview and Survey Questions

Leading Questions: Leading questions are questions that contain some of the interviewer's own biases/views.

Example: It seems to me that the pushing down of intelligence assets (i.e., company intelligence cell) is a natural evolution paralleling the changing character of warfare. Thoughts?

Suggested rewrite:

- Do you think that it is beneficial to have an intelligence cell at the battalion level?

Double Barreled Questions: Double barreled questions often have a question imbedded within a question. Frequently, the words "and" and "or" may signal a double barreled question.

Example: Do you think military officers should receive culture training and language training?

Suggested rewrite:

- Do you think military officers should receive culture training?
- Do you think military officers should receive language training?

Ambiguous Quantifying Words

Example: How well did your organic intelligence capability support the following:

- Planning?
- Collection?
- Targeting?
- Detainee operations?
- Information operations?

Note: When asking survey participants to evaluate a particular person, process, idea, etcetera, you should provide a scale instead of using vague descriptors such as "well." Example: 1= good, 5=poor.

Suggested rewrite:

- On a scale of 1-5, 1 being good and 5 being poor, how well did your organic intelligence capability support the following?

Conducting Surveys

The first thing you need to do when conducting a survey is to decide on a sample group. *Sample* refers to the people, sources, and materials a researcher chooses to study. The type and size of the sample you will use will depend on the research question you want to answer and the breadth of the conclusions you hope to draw. For instance, if you are trying to make conclusions about an entire population, you must choose a sample that represents the entire population of a particular group or organization. However, if you are attempting to make inferences about a small, specific part of the population, you will need to select what is referred to as a *purposeful sample*. This means that the researcher must select the individuals who will "yield the most information about the topic under investigation."[49] You may also use a combination of sampling strategies.

Conducting Interviews: Basic Guidelines

1. Develop your questions *before* going into the interview. Better yet, conduct a *pilot test* of your questions. That is, ask your interview questions of individuals who are similar to

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[49] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 144-145.

those you will interview, but who **are NOT part of your sample group**. By pilot testing, you will ensure your sample group will understand the questions and will provide answers that relate to what you are researching.

2. Make sure the people you are interviewing represent the group you are studying. If an individual is an "exception to the rule," you need to indicate this in your field notes.

3. Find a comfortable location to conduct the interview—preferably in a temperature controlled and quiet environment (out of the individual's office and without personal or phone interruptions).

4. Make sure you have permission to record the person's answers. Let the person know you will maintain confidentiality and anonymity. Furthermore, tell the person you will send him or her a copy of your study, once it's completed. This arrangement enhances your credibility with the interviewee and helps put him or her at ease.

5. Establish and maintain a rapport with the interviewee.

6. Allow people to express their thoughts in their own words and record their responses verbatim. You can always ask a clarifying or follow-up question.

7. Don't show disapproval/agreement with responses. Monitor your nonverbal gestures (don't nod or shake your head; don't smile or frown).

8. If you are conducting a focus group, take group dynamics into account.[50] Group dynamics are affected by several factors including interviewees' ranks, positions in the organization, experience/background with the topic, personal feelings about the topic, and homogeneity.

Note-taking/Organizing Your Data

As you collect data, you will need to begin taking notes on your sources. Researchers take notes on experiences (e.g., observations, interviews), as well as the literature they review. Your notes should *highlight key points and connections* between all the sources you have consulted. There is no right or wrong way to take notes—just make sure to provide citation information so you know where you found each piece of information—do it from the first source you read. You do not want to spend time looking through all of your sources just to find one quote or idea.

You will also want to begin compiling a *working bibliography*. Each time you consult a new source, enter the source's publication information into a notebook or word document (See "Chapter 7: Using Citations" for more information on proper citations). You may also want to provide a few brief notes describing the source. This way, if you do need to go back and hunt down a quote or idea, the working bibliography should help to make the process less painful.

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[50] Leedy and Ormrod, *Practical Research,* 142.

While all students have their own note taking methods, note cards are often helpful when you are working with multiple sources. You can group note cards according to topic and source. For instance, if you are taking notes on an article that deals with the logistical advancements made by Alexander the Great, you would assign the source a letter or number (Source A, Source 1). Then, you could break down each source by topic. For instance, Source A might discuss two or three aspects (e.g., mobility, military intelligence). Mobility could be topic 1, while military intelligence could be topic 2 (Source A, mobility). Assigning source and topic numbers will help you to organize your information.

You may also use different colored note cards to represent the various topics you intend to discuss in your paper. For instance, all information relating to logistics mobility could be placed on green note cards; all information relating to military intelligence could be placed on blue note cards, and so forth. ***Assigning topics to a particular color note will not only help you to organize your information, but also will help you lay out your thoughts when you begin to write your paper.***

It's important to make sure you include only one topic and one source per note card. This approach will make it easier to organize your ideas when you have to write your paper. Make sure you indicate whether the note card/note is a paraphrase or direct quotation. If the quotation is particularly complex, you may want to include your own comment/paraphrase simplifying the quotation. You may also want to include your own take on the source or to connect the information to another source. These connections are best made when the information is fresh in your mind; ***just remember to distinguish between your own ideas and quoted or paraphrased material to prevent plagiarism.*** Below are a few sample note cards.

1.   Sample Note Card: Summary of Facts

> **<u>Alexander the Great: Background</u>**
> - King of Macedon (326-323 BC)
> - Undefeated in battle
> - Conquered the Persian empire
> - Integrated foreigners into his army
> - Introduced new military logistics to the ancient world

2.   Sample Note Card: Direct
        Quotation and Comment

> **<u>Quotation – Alexander the Great on the importance of provisions</u>**
>
> "For, just as when a child is born, if it lacks the nurse's milk, cannot be fed or led up the courses of growing life, so a city without fields and their produce abounding within its walls cannot grow, not become populous without an abundance of food, not maintain its people without provisions." (Engels 3)
>
> **<u>Comment</u>**: It was this philosophy that allowed Alexander to be successful in battle. Alexander the Great focused not only on protecting his soldiers from an attack, but also on maintaining water sources and food supply. He used military Intelligence to gather information on terrain, harvest cycles, agriculture, waterways, and water sources to help the army maintain these resources.

3.   Sample Note Card: Direct
        Quotation and Paraphrase

> **<u>Alexander the Great's logistical reforms</u>**
>
> "The consequence of Philip's reforms, which were continued as far as possible by Alexander, was a dramatic reduction in the size of the baggage train, and this had a momentous effect. It made the Macedonian army the fastest, lightest, and most mobile force in existence, capable of making lightning strikes "before anyone had time to fear the event."Alexander's speed, which so terrified his opponents, was due in no small part to Philip's reforms. Because many supplies were carried by the troops and a restricted number of servants, the Macedonian army would need far fewer pack animals than would other contemporary animals and feeding them among populations engaged in subsistence agriculture. In short, the logistic organization of Alexander's army was brilliantly adapted for campaigning in Asia, where the acquisition of pack animals and provisions would often be difficult in barren terrain and where speed and mobility were important tactical advantages"(Engels, 119-120).
>
> **<u>Paraphrase</u>**: Supplies were carried by troops and a small number of servants, instead of relying on pack animals. This reduced the amount of provisions the troops needed to carry with them and prepared them for the challenges they would face in Asia, where the acquisition of pack animals and provisions would be difficult. Because the troops could sustain themselves on fewer provisions, Alexander's army was faster, lighter, and more mobile than any of his opponents (Engels, 119-120).

        Some researchers prefer to take notes on regular notebook paper instead of using note cards. If this is the case, you can still use a similar note taking method; just assign each piece of notebook paper (or each Word Document) a source and topic number. You can store these notebook pages in a three-ring binder and use tabs to separate the binder into topics.

You can also use the word processor to take notes. If you choose to use this method, you can draw note cards by using the text box function (see above), or you can use a separate document to take notes on each source. Using a word processor can make the note-taking process faster; however, it's also the culprit for most plagiarism. Therefore, if you are going to take notes electronically, make sure to indicate which material is quoted/paraphrased and which are your own ideas/words. Likewise, if you are going to cut and paste information from an electronic source, make sure you immediately differentiate the quote from the rest of the text. You can do this by highlighting the quoted material, placing the quoted material in a text box, or using the comment function to make a note.

Analyzing Data

Data analysis refers to the process researchers use to "make sense of their data."[51] There are main data analysis methods, such as *holistic data analysis* and *coding*. Holistic analysis, "does not attempt to break the evidence into parts, but rather to draw conclusions based on the text as a whole."[52] For instance, a researcher who used a holistic data analysis method to study how the U.S. troop surge affected the development of the Iraqi Army may choose to look at overall improvement or decline of the army. A researcher who uses coding, however, may choose to measure how the U.S. troop surge affected specific aspects of the Iraqi Army (i.e., pay, logistics, and morale).

The techniques you use to analyze your data points depend on the research approach you used; you can refer to Table 1 above for some analytical techniques. If you are still unsure about how to analyze the data, you should consult the Leadership Communication Skills Center staff; they can help you choose the most effective analytical method for your research project.

Once you've conducted your research and analyzed your data, it's time to begin brainstorming and outlining your ideas. Chapter 8 provides more information on brainstorming and outlining techniques.

Additional Resources

Some resources on historical research techniques include:

- *Marine Corps Historical Center Writing Guide.* By the Marine Corps Historical Center, 2004.

- *Reading, Writing, and Researching for History: A Guide for College Students* by Patrick Rael <http://www.bowdoin.edu/writing-guides/rhetoric.htm>

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[51] Colorado State University, Writing Guides-Case Study, <http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/research/casestudy/com2b3.cfm > (accessed 13 May 2009).
[52] Colorado State University, Writing Guides-Case Study, <http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/research/casestudy/com2b3.cfm > (accessed 13 May 2009).

Some resources on qualitative techniques include:

- *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (2nd ed.) by R. K. Yin, Sage Publications, 1994.

- *Qualitative Data Analysis (2nd ed.)* by M. B. Miles and A. M. Huberman, Sage Publications, 1994.

- *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials* by N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln, Sage Publications, 1998.

- *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.) by M.Q. Patton, Sage Publications, 1990.

Some resources on quantitative techniques include:

- *The Practice of Social Research* (8th ed.) by E. Babbie, Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1998. See Chapter 9.

- *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information* by E. R. Tufte, Graphics Press, 1983.

- *How to Conduct Surveys: A Step-by-Step Guide* by A. Fink and J. Kosecoff, Sage Publications, 1998.

- *Basic Statistics for Behavioral Science Research* by M. B. Harris, Allyn & Bacon, 1995.

When conducting scholarly research, remember to:

- Choose a research methodology that best supports your topic.
- Use primary and secondary sources.
- Vary your sources.
- Select the best approach(es) (surveys, interviews, archival) to collect relevant data.
- Be specific when taking notes and be sure to develop a plan to organize your data.

Chapter 7: Using Citations to Avoid Plagiarism

When Do You Need to Use a Citation?

Citing your sources is important for two main reasons: First, you need to credit other writers for ideas or words you have borrowed in order to avoid plagiarism. Second, you need to format citations properly, so the reader can go to the source of your information to verify your claim, or to use a cited text as a jumping off point for further research. Nevertheless, when adding the ideas of others to your paper, you will need to know how to properly cite the ideas and words you borrow from other sources in order to avoid plagiarism. In scholarly writing, footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical documentation are used to indicate the original source of words or ideas you borrow from other writers. Footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical documentation are unique to the different style manual formats (e.g., APA, MLA, CMS).

The specific citation formats provided in this section follow Chicago Style (CMS), as all papers written at MCU are expected to follow this style. Chicago Style (CMS) is different from other citation styles, such as Modern Language Association (MLA) and American Psychological Association (APA). Specifically, CMS is used in historical and military writings, while MLA is used mainly in writings based in the studies of English and other related humanities; APA, on the other hand, is used in psychology and social science writings. The main differences you will find between the three citation styles reside in the use of **in-text citations**, the **reference page**, **block quotation length**, and **page format**.

The following are a few differences between MLA, APA, and CMS citation styles:

1. In-text Citations:
   - CMS uses endnotes or footnotes instead of a parenthetical reference in-text.
   - APA in-text citations begin with a signal phrase that includes the author's name and date of publication; the parenthetical reference follows and includes the author's last name, date of publication, and page number. Commas separate each piece of information within the parenthetical reference.
   - MLA in-text citations begin with a signal phrase as well, but this phrase does not include the date of publication. This information is followed by a parenthetical reference that includes the author's last name and page number. No commas are used inside the parenthetical reference.

2. Reference Pages:
   - CMS reference pages are titled "Bibliography;" this title is centered at the top of the page.
   - APA reference pages are titled "References;" this title is also centered at the top of the page.
   - MLA reference pages are titled "Works Cited;" this title, too, is centered at the top of the page.

3. Block Quotation Length:
   - According to CMS, long quotes are suggested to be set off in a block indent of five spaces after four to five lines of text, and should definitely be set off after ten lines.
   - According to APA, quotes are set off when a quote is forty words or more in length.
   - According to MLA, a quote that is four lines of text or longer must be set off, poetic verses comprised of three lines or more must also be set off from the text.

4. Page Format:
   - CMS states that page numbers go in the top right with the author's last name preceding the page number; a title page is required with no page number on the title page; page numbers will begin on page two.
   - APA states that page numbers go in the top right with a shortened version of the paper's title preceding the page number; a title page is also required, but the page numbers begin on the title page.
   - MLA states that page numbers to in the top right with the author's last name preceding the page number; no title page is required.

While writing your scholarly research papers, you will need to use the thoughts, or even exact words, of other researchers to support your ideas. An important thing to remember is that although other researchers and authors may be credible additions to your argument, it is your ideas that show how much you have learned at MCU. Your voice and your opinions should be the focus of any argumentative or persuasive piece of writing.

What is Plagiarism?

Plagiarism refers to the practice of using someone else's ideas or words as your own. In the United States, published writing is considered intellectual property; therefore, using someone else's work without giving proper credit to the original author is treated as theft. As part of the course curriculum at Marine Corps University, you will write at least one research paper in which you will be required to use primary and secondary sources to support your ideas. Citing other authors reinforces your credibility as a writer by demonstrating how your ideas fit into the pre-existing body of research surrounding your topic. However, when you use someone else's words, ideas, or data, you need to make sure you give proper credit to the original source by using a properly formatted citation.

Three Main Types of Plagiarism:

1. **Plagiarism of language**: Plagiarism of language refers to the copying of an entire phrase or group of phrases. Make sure you use quotations and a proper citation (endnote, footnote, parenthetical documentation) to indicate that you have borrowed a particular phrase or group of phrases from another author.

2. **Plagiarism of ideas/paraphrasing**: Discussing a particular idea or concept that was developed by someone else without giving due credit is considered plagiarism. You can paraphrase the main idea of a group of sentences or even an entire paper, but you must reference the original source of the idea.

3. **Self-plagiarism**: Self-plagiarism refers to the practice of reusing your own writing—either by submitting an article or paper to two different publications, or by submitting the same paper for two different courses. Sometimes it is acceptable to reuse a piece of writing; for instance, researchers will sometimes use the same data and tweak the focus of a paper in order to submit it to more than one journal. Moreover, submitting an academic paper for two different courses may not be considered self-plagiarism as long as both professors are aware that the paper was submitted for another course.

As you begin to take graduate-level and post graduate-level courses, you may find your courses require you to study one phenomenon, idea, or theme. Therefore, many of the ideas you present in shorter research papers and assignments may resurface when you write your thesis or dissertation. For instance, if your campaign paper and your Master of Military Studies paper are written about a similar topic, you may find yourself repeating some of the same observations and conclusions. You can incorporate the original ideas from the campaign paper into the MMS as long as those ideas are properly cited (using the unpublished paper/working paper citation format).

Avoiding Plagiarism:

Many students have difficulty knowing when they need to cite their sources. It's always better to be on the safe side and cite a source if you are unsure. Nevertheless, as a rule of thumb, you should use a citation any time you borrow someone else's language or ideas. You do not need to cite facts that are accepted as common knowledge. For instance, if you state in your paper that the current population of China is about 1,300,000,000, you probably do not need to cite your source, since this is a generally accepted fact (though estimations may vary slightly from source to source). However, if you are making a more controversial claim that is not accepted as a fact, a citation is generally needed. The following are strategies you can use to avoid plagiarism in your writing.

Strategies for Avoiding Plagiarism:

1. *Take detailed notes* (See Chapter 4 for more information)
   - Make sure that when you make notes on your research you differentiate between your own ideas and the ideas presented in your supporting research.
   - Make sure to set off any direct quotations in quotation marks.
2. *Put your research away*
   - Write your draft in your own words. It's easier to accidentally copy an author's ideas, words, or style when you are trying to digest your research and formulate ideas at the same time.
3. *Always double check your draft*
   - Make sure you have used a properly formatted endnote/footnote to credit any outside sources you have used.
   - Make sure your research paper includes a bibliography in which you will cite all the sources (whether cited or not) that you have compiled to support your ideas.

As mentioned above, it is important to cite outside sources that you include in your paper in order to avoid plagiarism. There are **three common ways to use a source in your paper**: You can (1) quote a source directly (word for word), (2) paraphrase the ideas in the source, or (3) summarize the source. Generally, writers should quote when the specific language used in the original text is needed, paraphrase when presenting main points of short passages, and summarize when explaining basic concepts or when discussing main points in longer texts.   In order to avoid plagiarism when quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing make sure to do the following:

- Use an endnote to cite all paraphrased and summarized information
- Place all borrowed language in quotation marks and use an endnote to indicate the source of the borrowed text
- Paraphrase and summarize using your own words[53]

Using Direct Quotations: **A direct quotation "records the exact language used by someone in speech or in writing."[54]**

Avoiding Plagiarism When Using Direct Quotations:

Original Quote: "Today many parts of the Al Anbar Province resemble feudalist Europe in the 16th century. When one speaks to tribal leaders there is no perception or understanding of a system where tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state. There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments. The real (and only) measuring stick for the tribal leader is simple-what can you do for my family, my tribe, and me now? That measuring stick drives people's decisions, actions, and associations."[1]

[1]Rueda, Edwin O., "Tribalism in the Al Anbar Province," *Marine Corps Gazette 90,* no. 10 (October 2006), http://proquest.umi.com/.

Improperly Cited Student Version: In today's society, many parts of the Al Anbar Province are similar to aspects of feudalist Europe. When a person speaks to a tribal leader, there is no perception or understanding of a system where the tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state.

The student's use of the information is considered plagiarism for TWO reasons:

1. First, the student did not cite the source he used with a footnote/endnote.
2. Second, the writer used the exact ideas of the author. Though the student slightly changed the language, the majority is material that should be quoted and cited.

Improperly Cited Student Version: In today's society, many parts of the Al Anbar Province are similar to aspects of feudalist Europe. When a person speaks to a tribal leader, there is no perception or understanding of a system where the tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state.[1]

[1]Rueda, Edwin O., "Tribalism in the Al Anbar Province," *Marine Corps Gazette 90,* no. 10 (October 2006), http://proquest.umi.com/.

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[53] Diana Hacker, *A Writer's Reference*, 4th ed. (Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 1999), 83-84.

[54] Laurence Behrens and others, *A Sequence for Academic Writing*, (Boston: Pearson Custom Publishing, 2002), 38.

The student's use of the information is still considered plagiarism for ONE reason:
1. While this student cited the source he used, the writer still used some of the writer's exact words without placing those words in quotation marks.

Properly Cited Student Version: According to Edwin O. Rueda, in his discussion of similarities between the Al Anbar Province and feudalism in 16th Century Europe, "There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments."[1]

[1]Rueda, Edwin O., "Tribalism in the Al Anbar Province," *Marine Corps Gazette 90,* no. 10 (October 2006), http://proquest.umi.com/.

Guidelines for Using Direct Quotations:
- Use direct quotes when the specific language used in the original text is necessary.
- Use quotations when the source of the quote will add credibility to your writing.
- Avoid using a direct quote when a paraphrase will be more concise.
- Make sure the quote grammatically agrees with the rest of your sentence. Sometimes this will require omitting parts of the quote or adding clarification to the quote. See "Editing Quotations and Integrating Quotes into your text" for more information about how to edit direct quotations.
- When you use three or more words from another author's work, you need to put quotation marks around the language that has been borrowed, **and** must use a superscript number corresponding to an endnote in order to indicate where you obtained the information.
- The superscript and corresponding endnote should immediately follow the quote.
- Avoid freestanding quotations: quotes should always be introduced and contextualized so the reader understands how the information relates to your argument.

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* Adapted From: Laurence Behrens and others, *A Sequence for Academic Writing*, (Boston: Pearson Custom Publishing, 2002), 38-49.

Paraphrase: Another way to use a source in your paper is to paraphrase. A paraphrase captures the main idea or focus of a particular section or paragraph, but is considerably different in both word choice and syntax (i.e., sentence structure). Paraphrasing is an important skill, as it will allow you to discuss the essence of a researcher's/author's work without needing to quote him/her verbatim. For instance, in the passage below, the author paraphrases, but does not directly quote Galula's theory:

Original Source: Galaula claims, "'The population's attitude ... is dictated not so much by the relative popularity and merits of the opponents as by the more primitive concern for safety.'" Furthermore, he ponders, "'which side gives the best protection, which side threatens the most, which one is likely to win; these are the criteria governing the population's stand.'"[1]

[1] Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review.* 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

Paraphrase: For Galula, control over the population is the key to success, as it allows the counterinsurgent to establish the secure environment in which those who support the counterinsurgent and his cause can come forward to organize for their own governance and eventual self-protection.[2]

[2] Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review.* 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

Tips for Paraphrasing Effectively:
- Read the passage several times.
- Pick out the main points.
- Put the source away and write these main points using your own words.
- Double check what you've written to make sure it is not too similar to the original source.
- Place an endnote at the end of the paraphrase to acknowledge the original source.
  Pages 63-100 provide more information about how to format endnotes.

Summary: A summary is a brief synopsis of a longer text; it should be written in your own words and should present the central idea(s) discussed in the text, but should not provide minor details. While a paraphrase focuses on a specific section of a text (a paragraph or a page), a summary may be a brief explanation of an entire text. Therefore, a summary needs to be even more concise and focused than a paraphrase and must be free of all unnecessary details.

Summaries are particularly important when you are comparing several perspectives or theories on the same subject or when you have limited space and time to provide information. For instance, you may provide your boss with a one-page summary of a 200-page report, or may write a paragraph that presents the main themes discussed in a 20-page research article.

Tips for Summarizing Effectively:
- Read the passage carefully and take notes
- Write a "thesis statement" or one sentence synopsis of the larger piece, and then add the main supporting points.
- When summarizing a longer piece, write a one sentence synopsis of each paragraph. Eliminate any redundancies and add transitions.
- When you finish writing the summary, reread the original text to make sure your condensed version accurate conveys the ideas expressed in the original.
- Even though you are not borrowing an author's words or tone when you summarize, you still need to acknowledge the original source (using an endnote) since you are still using another author's ideas.

Using Your Sources Effectively

The source material you use to support your claims (whether it is paraphrased or quoted) and the way you present the material will influence the way your reader perceives your argument. Readers do not want to read a string of quotes and paraphrases, nor do they want to

read a 20-page opinion piece that does not acknowledge other studies and points of view. Although other researchers and authors may be credible additions to your argument, your voice and your opinions should be the focus of any argumentative or persuasive piece of writing. **Gracefully weaving source material into your paper takes practice, but there are a few general guidelines you can follow** that will help you to use your sources effectively:

- **Make sure your sources and paraphrases play a supporting role:** Your paper should not be a collection of paraphrases and quotes. When you write a research paper, you need to make an original argument based on the research you conduct—your sources merely provide the evidence to support your central argument.

- **Don't use a quote when a paraphrase will suffice:** Exact wording may be important at times, especially when you are discussing doctrine, legislation, or another researcher's exact position. However, be selective about the material you choose to quote directly. Don't use quotes just because you think the author expressed a particular concept or idea better than you can paraphrase it.

- **Don't use a quote without placing the quote into context.** Make sure you fully explain the significance of the quote (who said it, how does it relate to your research, why is it important).

- **Avoid back to back quotations:** Placing one quote directly after another doesn't give you the chance to fully explain the first quote before moving on to the next statement. In addition, using back to back quotes implies you don't have an original thought on the topic or that you haven't done enough reading on the topic to be able to discuss it.

- **When multiple sources make the same claim, you may want to group them together:** For instance, instead of saying, "General X believes it is important to employ the concept of D.O. in current and future conflicts. General Y also thinks D.O. should be used in current and future conflicts." You may want to say, "According to Generals X and Y, the concept of D.O. should be employed in current and future conflicts."

Paraphrasing and Quoting: Frequently Asked Questions

How do I cite a source that is quoted or paraphrased in another source?

Peer reviewed articles will often reference others' works, either in the form of a paraphrase or a quotation. For instance, you may come across the following passage in your research:

"While Kilcullen views insurgency as a global conflict, Galaula views insurgency as political war in which the people are the center of gravity. Galaula claims, 'The population's attitude ... is dictated not so much by the relative popularity and merits of the opponents as by the more primitive concern for safety.' Furthermore, he states, 'which side gives the best protection, which side threatens the most, which one is likely to win; these are the criteria governing the population's stand.'"[1]

¹ Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review*. 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

In other cases, an author may paraphrase the main themes in another researcher's work. For instance, in the passage below, the author paraphrases, but does not directly quote Galula's theory:

> For Galula, control over the population is the key to success. Only by gaining and keeping control of the population can the counterinsurgent establish the secure environment in which those who support the counterinsurgent and his cause can come forward to organize for their own governance and eventual self-protection.²

² Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review*. 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

Editing Quotations and Integrating Quotes into your text:

Although paraphrasing can be an effective way to integrate source material into your paper, quoting is often necessary if you cannot reword an author's phrase or idea. That said, another author's words do not always fully explain what you are trying to say. Sometimes you may need to edit a quotation in order to integrate it with the rest of your text. However, in order to preserve the integrity of the original text, it's important to make sure you acknowledge any changes or omissions you make.

How do I omit words at the beginning of a sentence?

If the quote is still an independent clause (complete sentence), despite the omitted words, capitalize the first letter of the first word of the edited quotation. Place brackets around the capitalized letter to show the reader that that the words preceding the quoted material were omitted.

Original Quote:
"There is no constant set of operational techniques in counterinsurgency; rather, this is a form of 'counter-warfare' that applies all elements of national power against insurrection." [55]

Edited Quote:
According to David Kilcullen, "[T]his is a form of 'counter-warfare' that applies all elements of national power against insurrection."[56]

* Also note that counter-warfare is in single quotes because it is a quote within a quote.

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[55] David Kilcullen. "Counterinsurgency Redux." (2006): 2. http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf <accessed 16 June 2011>

[56] David Kilcullen. "Counterinsurgency Redux." (2006): 2. http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf <accessed 16 June 2011>

If the quote becomes a dependent clause once the additional words are omitted, there are two main ways you can made the quote grammatically correct:

1. Use brackets to insert words or phrases

    Original Quote:
    "In the post-Cold War world, the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern. Instead, politicians tell us that the U.S. is now at risk from biological and chemical weapons, that the international community is subject to the predations of transnational terrorists, and that 'cyberwar' could bring daily life as we know it to an absolute standstill without a shot being fired."[57]

    Bracketed quote:
    According to the authors, "the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war [which helped to characterize attitudes during the Cold War] seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern."

2. Combine the quote with a framing sentence

    Original Quote:
    "A militia system also offers many advantages to the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats. Israel's militia system ensures that any limited incursion—even by a band of a few bomb-throwing terrorists—can be contained by the presence of armed citizen-soldiers."[58]

    Edited Quote:
    Israel's militia system is favorable to "the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats."[59]

How do I omit words from the middle or at the end of a quote?

Use an ellipse when omitting words from the middle or end of a quotation. When you have omitted words at the end of a sentence, end the sentence with a period, then insert the ellipse.

Middle of a sentence example:

Original Quote:
"Whether the founders and subsequent Americans were liberal individualists or republican communitarians, or even driven by racism, I would argue that in the main they

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[57] Center for Defense Information. "Failed States." March 1999. http://www.cdi.org/issues/failedstates/march99.html. <accessed 29 June 2010>.
[58] Center for Defense Information. "Failed States." March 1999. http://www.cdi.org/issues/failedstates/march99.html. <accessed 29 June 2010>.
[59] Eliot A. Cohen. *Citizens and Soldiers*. (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1985), 27

were still suspicious of government, skeptical about the benefits of government authority, and impressed with the virtue of limiting government."[60]

Edited Quote:
According to Kingdon, Americans are "suspicious of government…and impressed with the virtue of limiting government."[61]

End of a sentence example:

Original Quote:
Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state. The insurgent challenges the *status quo*; the counterinsurgent seeks to reinforce the state and so defeat the internal challenge. This applies to some modern insurgencies—Thailand, Sri Lanka and Columbia are examples. But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure, and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an "ungoverned space." [62]

Edited Quote:
"Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state….But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an 'ungoverned space."[63]

Additional Guidelines:

- **References in quotes.** References may be omitted or inserted into a quote.

- **Typographic errors.** *"Obvious typographical errors should be corrected, although archaic spellings in older works should generally be preserved unless it is made clear to the reader that the spelling has been updated."* Use the Latin abbreviation [*sic*], meaning "thus" or "such as" to indicate a misspelling.
    - **Example:** We will construct the Maginot line too [*sic*] prevent the Germans from invading France.

- **Emphasis in original.** If the original text contains bold or italicized words for emphasis, a note should be added to let the reader know the emphasis was added by the text's original author.
    - **Example:** Education and training are *significantly* [emphasis in original] different.

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[60] John Kingdon. *America the Unusual*. (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Group/Thomas Learning, 1999), 29
[61] John Kingdon. *America the Unusual*. (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Group/Thomas Learning, 1999), 29
[62] David Kilcullen. "Counterinsurgency Redux." (2006): 2. http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf <accessed 16 June 2011>
[63] David Kilcullen. "Counterinsurgency Redux." (2006): 2. http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf <accessed 16 June 2011>

- **Indicating a quote within a quote.** Use single quotes to indicate a quote within a quote. Example: Smith claims, "James' theory that 'nurture, not nature is the ultimate indicator of personality' is based on personal experience and opinion, not scholarly research."

* The additional guidelines section is adapted from: Abel Scribe. CMS Crib Sheet, 2007. http://www.docstyles.com/cmscrib.htm

If you wish to reference an author's ideas in your own work, you should first try to **consult the original source** instead of using a paraphrase from the secondary source quoted above. This is especially true if the information is paraphrased. Remember, your interpretation of the source may not be the same as that of the author who is commenting on the source. (See Chapter 3 for more information about primary and secondary sources for further clarification.) However, there will always be instances when consulting the original source is not feasible. In this case, in order to cite material that is quoted or paraphrased in another source, you can follow the format below:

Citing a Source Quoted in Another Source:

Bibliography:

First, provide publication information for quote (original source).

Galula, David. *Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice*. Westport, CT: Praeger Security International, 1964. Quoted in Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review*. 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

Note:

David Galula. *Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice, (*Westport, CT: Praeger Security International, 1964),8, quoted in Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review*. 86, no. 5 (September-October 2006): 112.

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*Do I need to write out the entire source citation if I am citing a source multiple times***?**

After your first reference to a work in a footnote or endnote, use a secondary citation (also called a short citation or short form) with only the author's last name and a page number. If you use more than one work by the same author, agency, or organization, use a short title in each subsequent reference. While many publications use *ibid* when a source is used multiple times, the *Chicago Manual of Style* 15th Edition recommends a shortened citation form. See the examples on the following page for proper formatting.

The first example assumes you used only one work by Douglass. The next example assumes you used more than one work by the Central Intelligence Agency. Use enough data in the secondary citation to identify the work clearly for your reader. Notice that by employing the "Cited hereafter as . . ." tag, you make it easier for the reader.

First reference:

      [1]Joseph D. Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), 198-99.

Next reference:

      [2]Douglass Jr., 202.

First reference:

      [1] Central Intelligence Agency, "Contemporary Soviet Propaganda and Disinformation: A Conference Report," Airlie, VA, 25-27 June 1985 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1987), 312. Cited hereafter as CIA, "Conference Report."

Next reference:

      [2] CIA, "Conference Report," 313.

The next example is one with no author listed. It is a hypothetical newspaper article drawn from wire service reports and carried on several non-sequential pages in the paper. The example assumes you used no other material with the same title; otherwise, you would have to provide enough data to clarify which entry you are citing.

First reference:

      [1]"New Council Eases Concerns in Baghdad," *Washington Post*, 13 June 2003, final edition, A16+.

Next reference:

      [2]"New Council," A24.

The remainder of the chapter will provide you with the proper Chicago Manual Style citation formats for a variety of formats—from books, to archival information, to web sites and online journals.

Disclaimer:

There are many useful electronic resources that will help you to properly formulate citations; however, be aware that most of these electronic resources have some glitches. While they may give you the correct format most of the time, you still need to go back and double check all citations during the revisions process to make sure they follow the correct format. For instance, if using RefWorks to format your notes and bibliography citations, please note that some sources are incorrectly listed in RefWorks. If you do choose to use RefWorks to formulate citations for these types of sources, make sure you double check all citations using the *MCU Communications Style Guide*, or the *Chicago Manual of Style*. If you have further questions regarding proper citation and documentation, a reference librarian or LCSC staff member will be available to assist you.

Books

Book with One Author

Bibliography:

Author's name is inverted (last name is listed first). A comma follows the last name.

Millett, Allan Reed. *Semper Fidelis: The History of the United States Marine Corps*. New
    York: Free Press, 1991.

Do not invert the author's name.

Book titles and subtitles (the part of the title following a colon) are italicized. The first word in the title, the first word in the subtitle, and any other major words should be capitalized. One space follows the colon.

Note:

[1] Allan Reed Millet, *Semper Fidelis: The History of the United States Marine Corps* (New York: Free Press, 1991), 26.

This is the actual page used.

Book with Two Authors

Bibliography:

> With two or more authors, only the first author's name is inverted. A comma follows the first author's complete name. Use the word "and" before the second author instead of an ampersand (&).

Sideman, Belle Becker, and Lillian Friedman. *Europe Looks at the Civil War: An Anthology*. New York: Orion Press, 1960.

Note:

    [2] Belle Becker Sideman and Lillian Friedman, *Europe Looks at the Civil War: An Anthology* (New York: Orion Press, 1960), 21.

Book with Three Authors

Bibliography:

> Only the first author's name is inverted (last name first).

Erfurth, Waldemar, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy. *Surprise*. Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing Company, 1943.

> If the city of publication is not well-known, add the postal abbreviation for the state or country. Washington, DC traditionally includes the abbreviation DC.

Note:

    [3] Waldemar Erfurth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing, 1943), 18, 21-22.

> These are the pages used.

Book with Four to Ten Authors

Bibliography:

> If a work has four to ten authors or editors, include all names in the bibliography, ***but not the note***. (See below.)

Suisman, Doug, Steven Simon, Glenn Robinson, C. Ross Anthony, and Michael Schoenbaum. *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007.

Note:

> If there are four to ten authors, ***only cite the first author***. Use "and others" for the remaining authors. This is different from the bibliography, which lists all the authors.

    [4] Doug Suisman and others, *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007), 16.

Book with a Corporate Author

Bibliography:

Center of Military History, and Elizabeth A. Shields. *Highlights in the History of the Army Nurse Corps*. Washington, DC: U.S. Center of Military History, 1981.

Note:

⁵ Center of Military History and Elizabeth A. Shields, *Highlights in the History of the Army Nurse Corps* (Washington, DC: U.S. Center of Military History, 1981), 33.

Book with an Editor(s)

Bibliography:

Gokay, Bulent, ed. *The Politics of Oil: A Survey*. London: Routledge, 2006.

Boyce, Robert W. D., and Joseph A. Maiolo, eds. *The Origins of World War Two: The Debate Continues*. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003.

Note:

⁶ Bulent Gokay, ed., *The Politics of Oil: A Survey* (London: Routledge, 2006), 55.

⁷ Robert W. D . Boyce and Joseph A. Maiolo, eds., *The Origins of World War Two: The Debate Continues* (Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003), 48.

Book with an Author and Editor and/or Translator

Bibliography:

Clausewitz, Carl von. *On War*. Edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Translated by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984.

Only use the singular "ed." even if there is more than one editor. If there are four or more editors, cite the first and add "and others."

Separate translator information with a comma.

Note:

⁸ Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), 99

Non- English Language Source

According to the *Chicago Manual of Style*:

> "If an English translation of a title is needed, it follows the original title and is enclosed in brackets, without quotation marks. It is capitalized headline or sentence style according to bibliographic style followed."[1]
>
> [1]University of Chicago Press. *Chicago Manual of Style*. 15th edition. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2003), 660.

The Manual also states:

> "When books in a language other than English are cited in an English-language work, terms used for volume, edition, and so on may be translated—but only if the author or editor has a firm grasp of bibliographic terms in the foreign language. It is often wiser to leave them in the original language."[2]
>
> [2]University of Chicago Press. *Chicago Manual of Style*.15th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago press, 2003), 647.

Book with Edition

Bibliography:

Hacker, Diana, Nancy Sommers, Tom Jehn, Jane Rosenzweig, and March Carbajal van Horn. *A Writer's Reference*. 6th ed. Boston: Beford/St. Martin's, 2007.

Whittaker, David. *Terrorism: Understanding the Global Threat*. Rev. ed. Harlow, UK: Longman Pearson, 2007.

> Descriptions such as revised, expanded, and enlarged should be abbreviated.

> When there are more than three authors, only cite the first author listed and the phrase "and others."

> The edition follows the title and is preceded by a comma.

Note:

[9]Diana Hacker and others, *A Writer's Reference*, 6th ed. (Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007), 43.

> The word *"revised"* in the edition statement should be ***in lower case***.

[10]David Whittaker, *Terrorism: Understanding the Global Threat*, rev. ed. (Harlow, UK: Longman Pearson, 2007), 33.

Article in an Edited Book

Bibliography:

Calder, Kent. "U.S. Foreign Policy in Northeast Asia." In *The International Relations of Northeast Asia,* edited by Samuel S. Kim, 225-248. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 2004.

Note:

[11]Kent Calder, "U.S. Foreign Policy in Northeast Asia," *The International Relations of Northeast Asia*, ed. Samuel S. Kim (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 2004), 225-248.

Book with Multiple Volumes

Bibliography:

Asprey, Robet B. *War in the Shadows: The Guerrilla in History*. 2 vols. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975.

Volume number should be in Arabic numerals even if it is given in Roman numerals in the original.

Note:

[12]Robert B. Asprey, *War in the Shadows*, vol. 2 (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975), 243.

This is the page used.

Reprint

Bibliography:

Cite the information about the original publication first.

Callwell, C. E. *Small Wars: Their Principles and Practice*. 3rd ed. London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1906. Reprinted with introduction by Douglas Porch. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 1996.

Information about the reprint follows.

Note:

[13]C. E. Callwell, *Small Wars: Their Principles and Practice*, 3rd ed. (London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1906; Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 1996), 13. Citations are to the Nebraska edition.

Put the original publication information first. Add the reprint publication information preceded by a semi-colon.

Contribution to a Multi-author Book

Bibliography:

List the author of the contribution first. The title of the contribution and the ending punctuation are enclosed within quotation marks. The title of the contribution is not italicized. The word "In" and the title of the book follow. The word "In" is not italicized. The book title is italicized.

Kanet, Roger E. "Limitations on the Soviet Union's Role in Protracted Warfare in the Third World." In *Guerrilla Warfare and Counterinsurgency: U.S.-Soviet Policy in the Third World*, edited by Richard H. Shultz, Jr., Robert L. Pfaltzgraff, J., Uri Ra'anan, William J. Olson, and Igor Lukes, 81-98. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1989.

List the page numbers of the contribution after the last editor.

Note:

Enclose the contribution (chapter or article) within quotation marks.

[14]Roger E. Kanet, "Limitations on the Soviet Union's Role in Protracted Warfare in the Third World," in *Guerrilla Warfare and Counterinsurgency: U.S.-Soviet Policy in the Third World,* ed. Richard h. Shultz, Jr., Robert L. Pfaltzgraff, J., Uri Ra'anan, William J. Olson, and Igor Lukes, 81-98 (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1989), 96.

Give the page range for the entire contribution (chapter or article).

Place the page used in the citation at the end.

One Volume of a Multi-volume Work with Different Authors

Bibliography:

Western Pacific Operations is the volume used. Garand and Strobridge are the authors.

Garand, George W., and Truman R. Strobridge. *Western Pacific Operations.* Vol. 4, *History of U.S. Marine Operations in World War II*. Washington, DC: Historical Division, Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps, 1971.

History of U. S. Marine Operations in World War II is the title of the entire work.

Note:

[15]George W. Garand and Truman R. Strobridge, *Western Pacific Operations*, vol. 4, *History of U. S. Marine Operations in World War II* (Washington, DC: Historical Division, Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps, 1971), 125.

One Volume of a Multi-volume Work with Multiple Parts

Bibliography:

> *The Technical Services: The Corps of Engineers;*
> *The War against Germany* is the volume used.

Beck, Alfred M., Abe Bortz, Charles W. Lynch, Lida Mayo, and Ralph F. Weld. *The Technical*
    Services: The Corps of Engineers; The War against Germany. Vol. 6, pt. 6, vol. 4, *United*
    States Army in World War II. Washington, DC: Center of Military History, 1988.

> *United States Army in World War II*
> is the title of the entire work.

> If there are two subtitles, the second subtitle
> should be preceded by a semi-colon.

Note:

> If there are four to ten authors, ***only cite the first author***. Use "and others" for the
> remaining authors. This is different from the bibliography, which lists all authors.

   [16]Alfred Beck and others, *The Technical Services: The Corps of Engineers; The War
against Germany, vol. 6, pt. 6, vol. 4, *United States Army in World War II* (Washington, DC:
Center of Military History, 1988), 351.

Books Available Online

Bibliography:

Garand, George W., and Truman R. Strobridge. *Western Pacific Operations.*   Vol. 4, *History of*
    U. S. Marine Operations in World War II. Washington, DC: Historical Division,
    Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps, 1971.
    http://www.ibiblio.org/hyperwar/USMC/IV/index.html/ (accessed June 26, 2007).

> Enclose the access date in parentheses.

Continued on the next page…

Suisman, Doug, Steven Simon, Glenn Robinson, C. Ross Anthony, and Michael Schoenbaum.
    The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State. Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007.
    http://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/MG327-1/ (accessed June 27, 2007).

Note:

   [17]George W. Garand and Truman R. Strobridge, *Western Pacific Operations*, vol. 4,
History of U. S. Marine Operations in World War II (Washington, DC: Historical Division,
Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps, 1971), 125, http://www.ibiblio.org/hyperwar/USMC/
IV/index.html/ (accessed June 26, 2007).

   [18]Doug Suisman and others, *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State* (Santa
Monica, CA: Rand, 2007), http://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/MG327-1/ (accessed June 27,
2007).

Publisher's Imprint

Bibliography:

> An imprint is a subdivision/brand of a publication company.
> **Example:** St. Martin's Press is an imprint of Macmillan.

Behrens, Laurence, and Leonard J. Rosen. *A Sequence for Academic Writing*. New York: Longman-Pearson, 2010.

Imprint   Publisher

> **For both the Bibliography and Note:** *If a book was published by an imprint (a division) of a publishing company, link the name of the imprint and the name of the publisher with a hyphen, putting the imprint first.*

Note:

[19]Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Longman-Pearson, 2010), 225.

Letter in a Published Collection

Bibliography:

> Person who wrote the actual letter.

> Person to whom letter was addressed.

> Name of the collection/book in which the letter was published.

Adams, Abigail . Letter to John Adams, 1801. In *My Dearest Friend: Letters of Abigail and John Adams*, edited by Margaret A Hogan and C. James Taylor, 15. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001.

Note:

> Year letter was written.

[20]Abigail Adams to John Adams, 1801, in *My Dearest Friend: Letters of Abigail and John Adams*, ed. Margaret A Hogan and C. James Taylor. (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001), 15.

> Page number in anthology/collection.

Pamphlets and Reports

Bibliography:

Sustainable Defense Task Force. *Debt, Deficits, and Defense: A Way Forward*. Washington, DC: Center for Defense Information, 2010.

Note:

[21]Sustainable Defense Task Force, *Debt, Deficits, and Defense: A Way Forward* (Washington, DC: Center for Defense Information, 2010).

E-book

Bibliography:

Clausewitz, Carl von. *On War*. Edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Translated by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984. Kindle e-book.

Note:
[22]Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), Kindle e-book.

Congressional Research Service (CRS) Reports

Print

Bibliography:

Italicize the title.

Include CRS report number.

Katzman, Kenneth. *The Iran Sanctions Act (ISA)*. CRS Report for Congress RS20871.
    Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, January 25, 2007.

Note:

Include *full* date for CRS reports.

[23]Kenneth Katzman, *The Iran Sanctions Act (ISA),* CRS Report for Congress RS20871
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> Begin the note with the interviewee.

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[40]Condoleezza Rice, email message to author, July 10, 2007.

> Do not include the interviewee's email address.

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     and Research." Working paper, George Washington University, 1996.

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[71]Anthony Cordesman, "One Year On: Nation Building in Iraq; a Status Report" (working paper, Center for Strategic and International Studies, April 16, 2004), 21.

[72]Marshall Sashkin, "Visionary Leadership Theory: A Current Overview of Theory, Measures, and Research" (working paper, George Washington University, 1996), 96-121.

MCU Handouts

Note:

[73]Patrice Scanlon, "Strategic Writing for the Strategic Thinker," (course card, Leadership Communication Skills Center, Marine Corps University, 2011), 4.

Reference Materials (Dictionaries and Encyclopedias)

Print

Bibliography

NOTE: *It is not necessary to cite well-known reference sources such as the Webster's dictionaries and Encyclopedia Britannica; however, they must be included in the note.*

> If the reference material is not well known, include it in the bibliography.

Langer, Howard J. *The Vietnam War: An Encyclopedia of Quotations*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2005.

Dupuy, Trevor, Curt Johnson, Grace P. Hayes, Priscilla S. Taylor, and John M. Taylor. *Dictionary of Military Terms: A Guide to the Language of Warfare and Military Institutions*. 2nd ed. New York: H.W. Wilson Company, 2003.

Note

[74]Trevor Dupuy and others, *Dictionary of Military Terms: A Guide to the Language of Warfare and Military Institutions,* 2nd ed. (New York: H.W. Wilson Company, 2003), 69.

[75]Howard Langer, The Vietnam War: An Encyclopedia of Quotations (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2005), 33.

> For well-known sources, omit the publication information, but include the edition.

> Do not include the volume number or page number. Include the name of the article after "s.v." (Latin for "under the word").

[76]*Encyclopedia Britannica*, 15th ed., s.v. "Behavior, Animal."

[77]*Dictionary of American Biography*, s.v. "Roosevelt, Theodore."

Dictionaries and Encyclopedias Available Online

Bibliography

NOTE: *Most dictionaries and encyclopedias found online will be electronic versions of well-known sources. As in the print version, well-known online dictionaries and encyclopedias do not have to be cited in the bibliography.*

Note

[78]Encyclopedia Britannica Online, s.v. "battalion." http://www.search.eb.com/eb/article-9013771 (accessed July 14, 2007).

Newspaper Articles

NOTE: As long as you include a newspaper article in the note, it is ***not*** necessary to include the newspaper article in the bibliography. ***If*** the newspaper article is included in the bibliography, follow the examples below.

Newspaper Articles in Print

Bibliography

Omit the word "The" from the newspaper title.

Pingus, Walter, and Ann Scott Tyson. "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged." *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007.

Because an article can be moved to different pages in different editions of a newspaper, it is not necessary to include page numbers. The month, day, and year are the most important elements.

Blatt, R. "Marine Group Moving Half-Marathon to City." *Fredericksburg (VA) Free Lance-Star*, June 13, 2007.

Even if the city name is not part of the newspaper title, add it to the title and italicize it along with the title. Add the abbreviated name of the state in parentheses if necessary. It is not necessary to add the city name to well-known national papers such as the *Wall Street Journal*.

Pingus, Walter, and Ann Scott Tyson. "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged." *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007, Northern Virginia home edition, A1.

You can include edition information for clarification.

Associated Press. "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians." *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007.

The name of a news service such as Reuters or United Press International can be used for the author if not author is listed. The news service should be capitalized but not italicized.

Note

Omit the word "The" from the newspaper title.

[79]Walter Pingus and Ann Scott Tyson, "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged," *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007.

Because an article can be moved to different pages in different editions of a newspaper, it is not necessary to include page numbers. The month, day, and year are the most important elements.

Continued on next page…

[80]R. Blatt, "Marine Group Moving Half-Marathon to City," *Fredericksburg (VA) Free Lance-Star*, June 13, 2007.

Even if the city name is not part of the newspaper title, add it to the title and italicize it along with the title. Add the abbreviated name of the state in parentheses if necessary. It is not necessary to add the city name to well-known national papers such as the *Wall Street Journal*.

[81]Walter Pingus and Ann Scott Tyson, "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged," *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007, Northern Virginia home edition, A1.

You can include edition information for clarification.

The name of a news service such as Reuters or United Press International can be used for the author if not author is listed. The news service should be capitalized but not italicized.

[82]Associated Press, "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians," *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007.

Newspaper Articles from Electronic Databases such as ProQuest, EBSCO, and LexisNexis

Bibliography

Pingus, Walter, and Ann Scott Tyson. "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged." *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007. http://www.proquest.com/.

Add the main URL to get the entrance of the database.

It is *not* necessary to include the date a document was accessed from an *electronic database*.

Associated Press. "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians." *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007. http://library.pressdisplay.com/.

Note

[83]Walter Pingus and Ann Scott Tyson, "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged," *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007, http://www.proquest.com/.

It is *not* necessary to include the date a document was accessed from an *electronic database*.

[84]Associated Press, "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians," *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007, http://library.pressdisplay.com/.

Newspaper Articles from an Online Newspaper *AND* News Sites

Bibliography

Online newspapers and news sites, such as CNN.com and Yahoo!News, are treated as print newspaper sources, with the addition of a URL.

Mears, Bill. "Divided Court Rejects School Diversity Plans." *CNN.com*, June 28, 2007.
    http://www.cnn.com/2007/LAW/06/28/scotus.race/index.html (accessed June 28, 2007).

Babbington, Charles. "Senate Blocks Immigration Bill." *Yahoo!News*, June 28, 2007,
    http://news.yahoo.com/s/ap/congress_immigration;_ylt=Aq8HU.WoLnU7tlwo.X1B6a.s0NU
    E (accessed June 28, 2007).

Place line breaks in the URL after a slash OR before a tilde (~), period, underline, or hyphen, OR before or after an equal sign or an ampersand(&). Do not add a hyphen to indicate a line break in a URL.

Pingus, Walter, and Ann Scott Tyson. "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged." *Washington Post*,
    June 13, 2007. http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2007/06/12/
    AR2007061202179.html (accessed June 13, 2007).

Enclose the access date within parentheses.

Place line breaks in the URL after a slash OR before a tilde (~), period, underline, or hyphen, OR before or after and equal sign or an ampersand(&). Do not add a hyphen to indicate a line break in a URL.

Online newspapers and news sites such as CNN.com and Yahoo!News are treated as print newspaper sources, with the addition of a URL.

Note

    [85]Bill Mears, "Divided Court Rejects School Diversity Plans," *CNN.com*, June 28, 2007,
http://www.cnn.com/2007/LAW/06/28/scotus.race/index.html (accessed June 28, 2007).

    [86]Charles Babbington, "Senate Blocks Immigration Bill," *Yahoo!News*, June 28, 2007,
http://news.yahoo.com/s/ap/congress_immigration;_ylt=Aq8HU.WoLnU7tlwo.X1B6a.s0NUE
(accessed June 28, 2007).

Enclose the access date within parentheses.

Archives and Special Collections

Correspondence

Bibliography Format

Creator (last name, first name, initial), Papers, Archive information, collection number/or name.

Bibliography Example

McCutcheon, Keith B., papers, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corp Quantico. Coll. 3040.

Note Format

Author (last name, first name, initial, to, Recipient (first name, initial, last name), the date, collection, archives information, box/folder number, collection number/or name.

Note Example

[87]McCutcheon, Keith B. to Earl E. Anderson, September 27, 1971, Keith B. McCutcheon Papers, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Box 1, Folder 12. Coll. 3040.

Reports

Bibliography Format

Author/creator (first name, middle initial, last name), record title, archives information, and Collection number/or name.

Bibliography Example

Headquarters, United States Marine Corps, "Composition and Functions of Marine Aviation," Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Collection 3746.

Note Format

"Title of the report or study in quotation marks", the date, Creating body, archive information, Collection Name, box/folder number, Collection number/ or name.

Note Example

[88]"Composition and Functions of Marine Corps Aviation," 1955, Headquarters, United States Marine Corps, Studies and Reports Collection, Archives and Special Collections Branch Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, Coll. 3746.

Photographs

Bibliography Format

Collection, Archive information, Coll. Number/or name.

Bibliography Example

Jonathan F. Abel Collection, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine
    Corps. Coll. 3611.

Note Format

      Photographer's name (last name, first name, initial), photo title, format, publisher city,
publishing company, copyright date, source, collection name. Folder/Box, collection number/or
name.

Note Example

    [89]Straub, Robert, photographer, "Mortar Fire," photograph, San Francisco: Force
Information Office, III Marine Amphibious Force, Military Assistance Command Vietnam 1969,
Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, *Jonathan F. Abel
Papers*, Folder 58, Box 4, Coll. 3611.

Oral Histories

Bibliography Format

Name of interviewee (First name, initial, last name). format. Archive information. Collection
number/name.

Bibliography Example

Victor I. Kulak. Oral History Transcript. Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the
    Marine Corps. Oral Histories Collection.

Note Format

      Name of the interviewee (last name, first name, initial), Interviewed by…name of
interviewer (first name, initial, last name), date, creating institution, archives information, page
number if transcript, collection number/ or name.

Note Example

    [90]Krulak, Victor I., Interviewed by Benis M. Frank, 1970, transcript, History and
Museums Division, Headquarters United States Marine Corps, transcript, page 83, Archives and
Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Oral Histories Collection.

Films

Bibliography Format

Creator's name (first name, initial, last name), Title, Archive information, Collection.

Bibliography Example

Frederick S. Armitage, *Bargain Day, Fourteenth Street, New York*, Library of Congress. Early
    Motion Pictures Collection

Note Format

       Creator's name (last name, first name, initial, role (director, cinematographer, etc), Title,
Format, publisher city: publishing company, copyright date, Archive information, collection
number/or name.

Note Example

      [91]Armitage, Frederick S., photographer, *Bargain Day, Fourteenth Street, New York*,
35mm film, United States: American Mutoscope and Biograph Co., 1905. Library of Congress,
Early Motion Pictures, 1897-1920.

Maps

Bibliography Format

Author's name/creator (last name, first name, initial); Title, Archive Information; Collection
number/name.

Bibliography Example

United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey. *Topographic Map of the Island of
    Saipan, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands*. Archives and Special Collections
    Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Map Collection.

Note Format

      Author's name, title of document, format, publisher city, publishing company, copyright
date, source, collection number/name.

Note Example

      [92]United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey, *Topographic Map of the
Island of Saipan, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands*, map, Reston, Va.: U.S.
Geological Survey, 1983, Archives and Special Collections Branch Library of the Marine Corps,
Map Collection.

Sound Recording

Bibliography Format

Creator (first name, initial, last), Title, Archive information. Collection number/or name.

Bibliography Example

Bourgeois, John R., *Esprit de Corps*, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Sound Recordings Collection.

Note Format

      Author's last name, first name, initial; role; title of song, album, etc., format, publisher city: publishing company, copyright date. Archive information. Collection name.

Note Example

      [93]Bourgeois, John R., director, *Esprit de Corps*, compact disc, Quantico, Va.: Marine Corps Historical Foundation, n.d., Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Sound Recordings Collection.

Web Sites and Postings

Online Posting

Note:

> **Emails and postings are commonly omitted from the bibliography. Emails** that are not part of an online discussion should be treated as personal communications.

Author

[94]Mark Steyn, comment on "A Historic Day in Iraq," The Corner on National Review Online, comment posted June 17, 2009, http://corner.nationalreview.com/archives/2009/000_Iraq (accessed June 20, 2009).

Date Posted

URL

> If an access date is required by your publisher or discipline, include it parenthetically at the end of the citation.

Web Site

> **Include as many of the following elements as possible: author's name, title of the site, sponsor of the site, and the URL. When no author is named, treat the site's sponsor as the author.**

Note:

[95]Purdue University, Online Writing Lab, http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/

> **You do not need to include the date you accessed a web site, but you may provide an access date after the URL if the cited material is time-sensitive. (Per Chicago Manual of Style)**

Electronic Mailing Lists

Electronic Mailing Lists are not generally included in the bibliography.

Note:

[96]Turnitin Academy, e-mail to Turnitin mailing list, June 2, 2011, http://pages.turnitin.com/Index.php/email/emailWebview?mkt_tok=3RkMMJWWfF9wsRonv6%2FBZKXonjHpfsX57%BgoWaKg38431UFwdcjKPmjrlYsJS9QhcOuuEwcWGog8yRxZCOGRdYdN6Q%3D%3D.

Chapter 8: Prewriting

Once you've completed your research, you will want to provide some sort of plan or model for your paper. This stage in the writing process is frequently referred to as **prewriting** and includes *brainstorming*, *mind mapping*, and *outlining*. Prewriting helps you to decide what it is you want to say and how to organize your information effectively. As stated in previous chapters, the most difficult part of the writing process is preparing to write. Once you know what you want to say, the process is half over. Below are a few prewriting strategies that may prepare you for the drafting stage.

Brainstorming/Overcoming Writer's Block

Strategies to get started:

1. Use a tape recorder

    ▪ Record yourself talking to a friend about your subject. Then, play the tape back. Write down/type everything you said.

2. Free write

    ▪ Write down/type any words, sentences, ideas, or phrases that relate to your topic. This effort will help you to see your ideas on paper, so you can begin to make connections. Don't worry about organization.

3. Write a letter to a friend

    ▪ Write/type a letter to your friend that presents your main idea and covers all your supporting points. For many people, this eases anxiety over the formalities associated with academic writing. Sometimes it's easier to convey your ideas in informal language. You can always revise your word choice and tone later.

4. Post-it Notes/Different colored index cards

    ▪ Write ideas, words, phrases, or entire paragraphs on Post-it notes or different colored index cards. Assign each topic idea to a different Post-it or colored index card. Arrange these notes/cards on a desk, table, or the floor, according to topic. This will help you figure out how to best organize your ideas, as you will be able to move the notes/cards when you see a better flow or fit for the information.

5. Mind mapping (see below for an explanation and examples)

Mind Mapping:

Mind mapping is **similar to cluster diagramming and outlining** and uses specific strategies to highlight connections between ideas. Each mind map has its own purpose. Some are used to compare/contrast, while others are used to break down an idea/concept/object into its component parts or to formulate analogies. Below are a few examples of mind maps you can use as brainstorming tools.

Example 1: Bridge Map

Bridge maps are helpful for *highlighting analogies between different subjects*.
> **Example**: It may be hard to explain how a military structure works. To explain the concept in a speech or in writing, it may be helpful to compare the military structure to something with which your audience can identify.

A commander   as   A director

is to his Marines   is to his team of employees
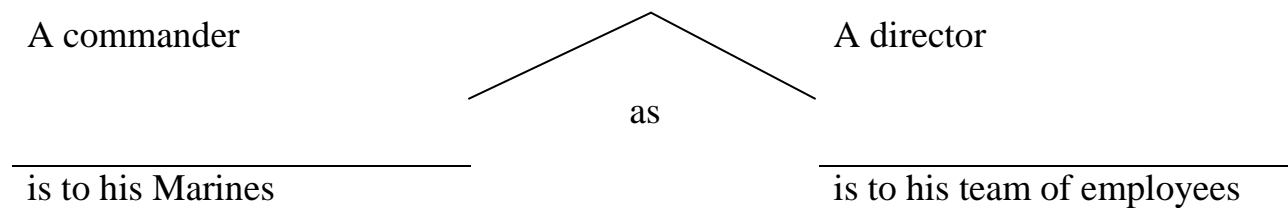
> What is the relationship between the two subjects? How are they similar? How are they different?
> - A commander supervises his Marines on tasks and assignments, while guiding them and working with them to advance their performance in the military combat and operation zones.
> - A director supervises his team as well, while guiding the members and working with them to advance their performance in the workplace and boardroom.

Example 2: Cluster Map

If you are not a sequential thinker, you may want to develop a cluster diagram *to highlight connections between ideas*. A cluster diagram will allow you to group together related ideas and to see how your main points relate back to your central thesis. The black shaded boxes indicate the three main parts of the paper below. The gold boxes that branch off of the maroon boxes provide evidence/specific examples to support these main ideas.

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│  Long Commission    │
│      Report         │──────┐
└─────────────────────┘      │     ┌─────────────────────┐
                             └────▶│  Ambiguous Chain of │
                                   │  Military Command   │
                                   └─────────────────────┘

        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │ Historical Precedence│
        └─────────────────────┘
       ↙          │          ↘
┌──────────┐      │      ┌──────────────┐
│9/11 Report│     │      │Operation Eagle│
└──────────┘      │      │    Claw      │
                  ▼      └──────────────┘
```

Working Thesis:
In order to meet the national security demands of the 21st Century, the organization of the interagency, both structure and process, requires legislative reform equivalent to an interagency Goldwater-Nichols Act.

Current problems in interagency operations → **Turf Wars**

What changes need to be made?

Departments that previously were to play only a domestic role, now find themselves involved in foreign and national security policies

Provide Congressional oversight to the National Security

Initiate a Quadrennial National Security Review

Outdated perspectives

Initiate interagency education that encourages participation in the interagency process

Reorganize the NSC to have two functional areas, one for Operational and future planning and the second for presidential advice

Example 3: Cause and Effect Map

      Thesis Statement: Finland's tactical success ultimately factored into its strategic demise; this occurred once the Soviets demonstrated vast campaign plan improvements to include improved intelligence processes, effective combined arms application, and enhanced logistics and combat service support efforts.

Soviet Campaign Improvements	Improved intelligence processes	How did these improvements lead to Soviet success?
	Effective combined arms application	
	Enhanced logistics/combat service	
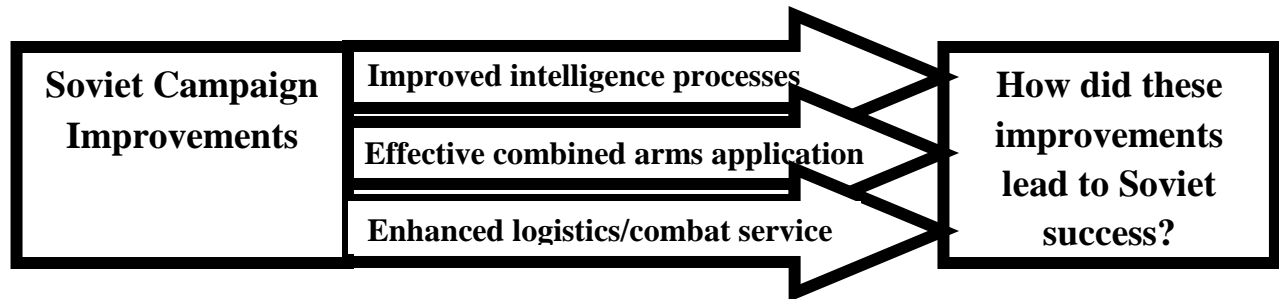
      Sometimes mind maps may be used to break down an idea within another, more complex mind map. For instance, the thesis above states that the Soviets were able to win the Russo/Finish War for three reasons: 1) improved intelligence processes, 2) effective combined arms application, and 3) enhanced logistics and combat service support efforts. Before you begin to write, you may want to further analyze these main efforts. That is, **what sub-points (evidence) will you use to support these three main points?** While some people who are sequential thinkers may prefer to break these parts down by using an outline, others may prefer to use a cluster map.

Example 4: Use a Cluster Map to Break Down Supporting Points

Emplacement of 2,800 cannons in an effort to exploit properly coordinated fire support[1]		Reorganized the Northwest front, integrating the bulk of their combat power along the trafficable Karelian Isthmus and the north of Lake Ladoga[1]
	Effective combined arms application	
Moved offensively to occupy favorable, engineer-prepared ground from which to "fight defensively"[1]		Abandoned the Nazi Blitzkrieg template

      You may also want to use mind maps to **visually depict the concepts in your readings/ research**. The mind map below takes the key components of two counterinsurgency theories and connects the theory to its application in the field.

Example 5: Theory and Application

Kilcullen's Insurgency Theory	Contextualize the Theory/Application
Views insurgency as a global conflict	**Need to control overall environment as opposed to specific area (war on terrorism approach as opposed to war in Iraq approach).**
Views counterinsurgency as a system	**Strategy of disaggregation (de-linking or dismantling elements so insurgency can no longer function).**
Classic Insurgency Theory (Galaula)	**Contextualize the Theory/Application**
Views insurgency as political/revolutionary war. Therefore, military leaders must consider the political reaction of every military action.	**Insurgency will be defeated by controlling the target population. This means eliminating opposition, winning hearts and minds of the people, and building infrastructure.**
People tend to favor the side that can offer the most protection.	**Presents unity of command; divides lower ranks from the leaders.**

Using some of the same data depicted above, you can also construct a double bubble map to compare and contrast the two insurgency theories.

Example 6: Double Bubble Map

Galula Insurgency Theory   **Kilcullen Insurgency Theory**
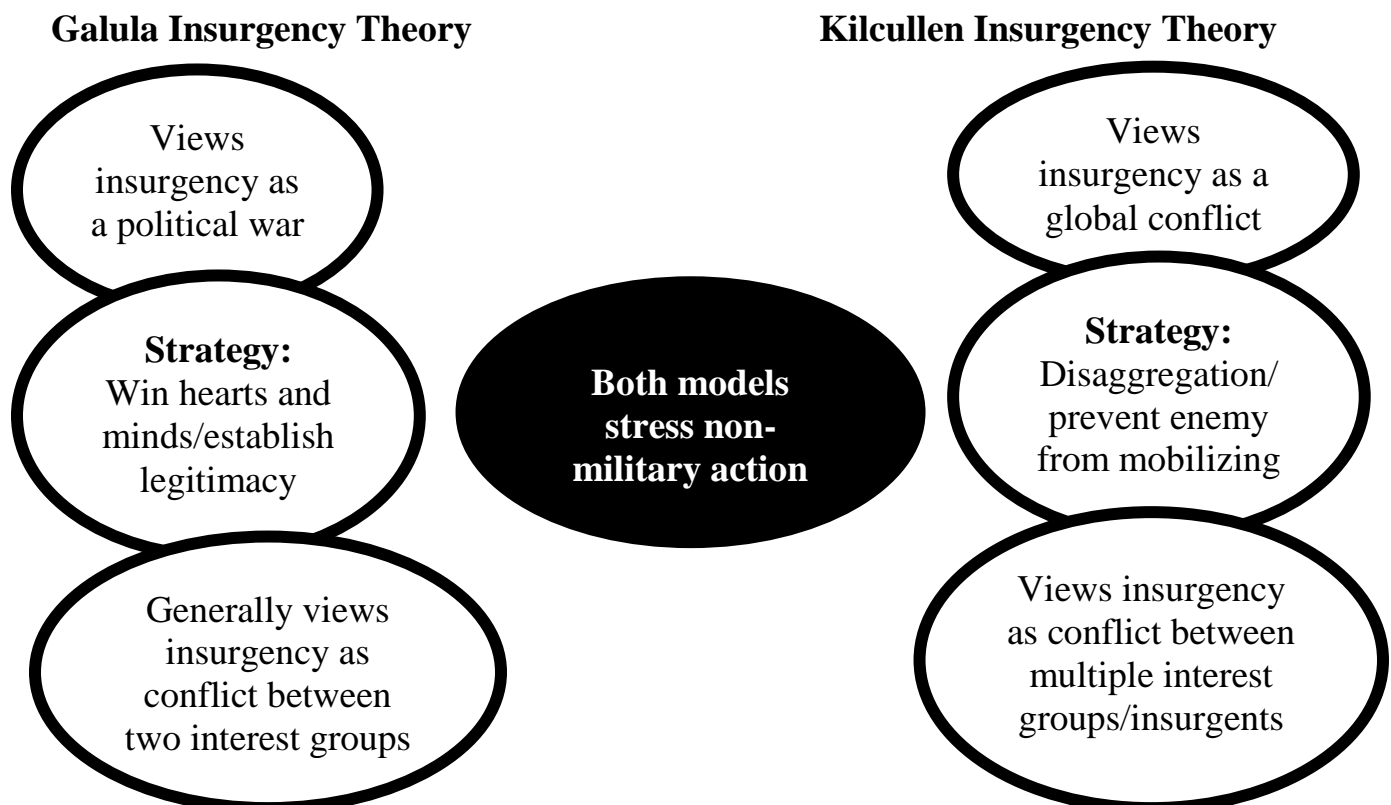
Matrix:

Another tool you may use to organize important course concepts is a matrix. A matrix allows you to compare multiple elements or to see the progression of a particular idea or concept. For this reason, matrices may be particularly useful when you are attempting to show trends or patterns in the data you collect. For instance, the matrix below is used to show the change the U.S. National Security Strategy underwent between 2002 and 2006. While you may not necessarily want to display this information in the text of your paper, it can help you to organize your thoughts and data before you begin to write. However, if you want to use the information in your paper, it can be placed in an Appendix after the text, but before the End Notes.

	2002 Summary	2006 Future Direction
I. Overview of America's International Strategy	The goal of the 2002 NSS was to assist in creating a world of democratic, well-governed states that could meet the needs of their citizens and conduct themselves responsibly in the international system.	This is best achieved by remaining focused on the course started by the 2002 NSS and is the best way to provide enduring security for the American people.
II. Champion Aspirations for Human Dignity	The US will defend principles of liberty and justice. These rights are essential to human dignity and necessary for secure democracy. We will advance this effort by speaking out and taking appropriate action, upholding human rights and allocating necessary resources to attain these goals.	The US will continue to achieve this goal by leading an international effort against tyrannical rule and promote effective democracy by being vocal in our support and disagreement. Additionally, we will promote effective democracy and encourage others to do the same. We will clearly state our disapproval for tyranny by our words and actions.
III. Strengthen Alliances to Defeat Global Terrorism and Work to Prevent Attacks Against Us and Our Friends	This goal requires a long-term strategy and a break from traditional solutions. The enemy possesses a global reach and the US can no longer simply rely on deterrence to keep the terrorists at bay or defensive measures to thwart them at the last moment. We must take the fight to the enemy and keep them off balance. To achieve this goal we need to attain the support of our friends and allies. We must maintain contact with others to ensure those who intend to do us harm do not have sanctuary to commit their acts of terror.	We have achieved enormous progress in this area and clearly made the world a more dangerous place for terrorist and non-state actors to operate unmolested. We must continue to forge these relationships through political, security, economic and educational means at all levels of engagement. This interaction is not only limited to Iraq and Afghanistan but extends globally and includes stable, failed and failing states. Through world-wide engagement our message will be consistent and results will continue to be positive.

Concept Mapping

What is Concept Mapping?

Concept mapping and mind mapping are similar; however, while a mind map is often used for brainstorming and developing a paper, you may use concept mapping to **visually represent your concept (conceptual framework)** within your paper. This conceptual framework, or "orienting framework," will explain visually how the ideas or theories in your thesis statement relate and will help the reader to understand those connections.

Why Should You Include a Concept Map?

Think of the conceptual framework as a tool: It will help you to convey information visually to other readers and will keep you on track as you collect and analyze your data. By looking at a visual representation of your framework, you can begin to see how each part of your thesis is connected. This may help you to develop transitions and to identify any gaps or contradictions in your research.

How Should You Construct Your Concept Map?

There are many different visual structures you may use to depict your concept. The type of visual framework you choose to use will depend on the structure of your paper. Think about the main points of your paper. How do they relate? What is the relationship between your thesis/research question and the seminal works that have been written on your topic?

Example of a Concept Map

The model in Figure 4 below was used in a Command and Staff Masters paper. It was developed in order to visually depict cultural friction points between the hypothetical country (A) and other countries who have adopted a Western-thinking value system. The model illustrates the author's concept (stated in his thesis) that understanding and communicating cultural values in a region prior to military operations is critical for the success of those operations.

> **Thesis**: A Cultural Values Model can be leveraged as part of the human terrain preparation for any given region prior to commencement of military operations. In addition, the model provides a vehicle to communicate a perspective of these cultural influences to other units or individuals that will be operating in the same area.
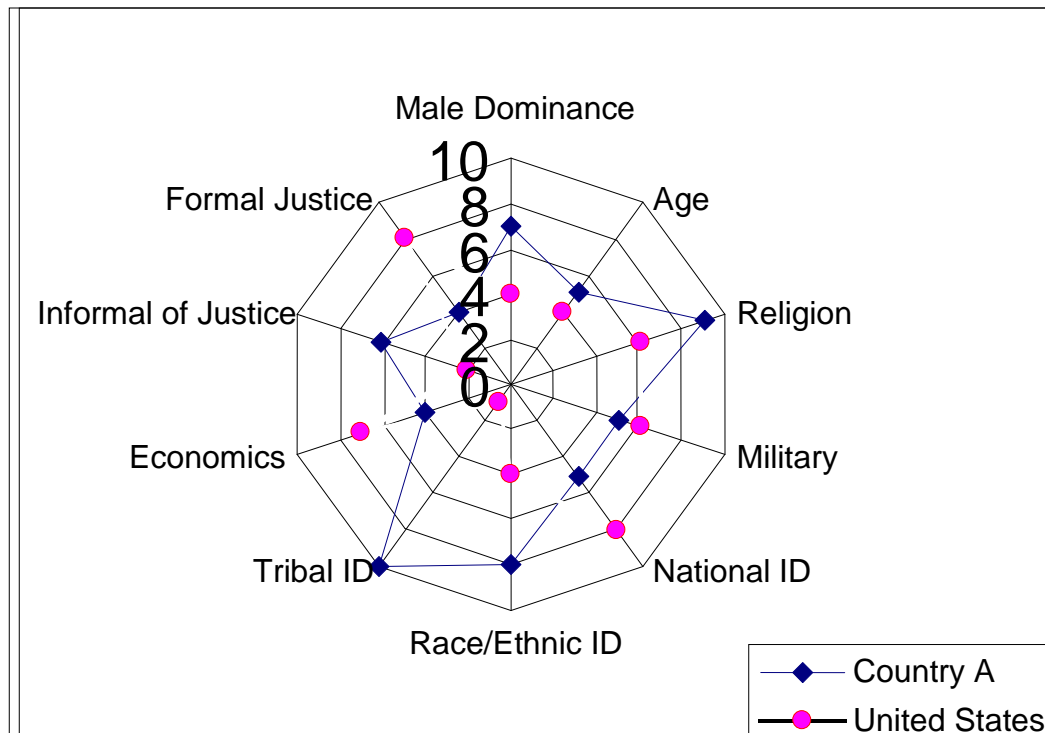
Figure 4: Hypothetical Cultural Values Model
Source: Briceño, Alejandro P. "The Use of Cultural Studies in Military Operations." Manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007-2008.

Formulating an Outline

An outline is merely another tool for organizing data and ideas. An outline allows you to see all your main points on paper and to organize them strategically before you begin to write. Outlines are particularly useful when you are dealing with multiple sources. By outlining your research and grouping similar sources together, it will be easier for you to see where additional research or evidence is needed to support your thesis. Outlining also gives you the chance to reread and evaluate the ideas you have already generated. If you think an idea is pertinent to your topic, write it down. You can always cut it later.

Your thesis and topic sentences (i.e., sentence containing the main idea in each paragraph) provide the frame for your outline. Organize these points in a logical order so that they build upon each other. When you evaluate your outline, make sure each point directly relates back to your thesis. Each main point should be followed by two or three components that are linked to the main category. **Order your points according to importance;** give more weight to major points and less to minor ones.

The thesis statement will provide the framework, or "roadmap," for your outline. You may also want to use questions to develop your outline. For instance, while you may use your primary research question to construct your thesis statement, you may want to use the secondary

research questions to develop your supporting ideas. Your outline may be as structured or as abstract as you would like.

Sequential thinkers may find it more useful to develop a standard, structured outline that orders points/ideas according to importance. If you are a less sequential thinker, you may find it more useful to use a cluster diagram, or to develop your own visual. You may even want to write down a few of your main points on note cards and move them around until you find the appropriate order for your ideas. Below you will find a few different approaches to outlining.

Types of Organization Methods

Following are several strategies for ordering the major points of your outline:

b. Chronological order

- Paragraphs separate the process or series of events into major stages.

c. Classification

- Paragraphs divide the material into major categories and distinguish between them.

d. Increasing importance

- Paragraphs are arranged so that the most important point comes last, thus building the paper's strength.

e. Cause and effect

- Indicates causal relationships between things and events.
- Don't mistake coincidence with causality, nor disregard other possible causes.

f. Compare and contrast

- Line up related ideas for a detailed account of similarities and differences.
- It's important to decide whether to concentrate on similarities or differences.

Strategy: The more similar things are, the more you concentrate on the differences.

Example: If you compare theories, the differences between them will most interest you and/or the reader.

Example 1: Standard, Structured Outline

      In this example, each section of the outline contains examples to support the section's main idea. The main conclusion to be drawn from each section is written in the box next to the examples.

1. Introduction: Provide an introduction that emphasizes that Irregular Warfare is here to stay. Explain the nature of Irregular Warfare and implications on tactical intelligence operations. We adapt our conventional forces for this type of fight, but need to formalize lessons learned by way of institutional change to reap the most benefits. Illuminate the trends and best practices that worked and argue for transformation of Company intelligence cells from interim solution to permanent.

    a. Irregular Warfare is nothing new, but is enduring and effective
    b. Learn to adapt
    c. Transformation
    d. Thesis

2. History (Purpose): Review of history to **determine trends in adaptations** of conventional forces in regards to tactical level intelligence operations/etc.

    a. Archival research on USMC operations (Banana Wars/etc)
    b. Vietnam interview
    c. Algeria
    d. Brits in Malay
    e. Philippines
    f. Portuguese in Africa
    g. Rhodesia

> Preliminary research shows the primary capability sets required are Human Intelligence and Information Operations.

3. Allies: Review of Allies and other service current practices in an attempt to identify "best practices" being used in an adaptive manner or as part of institutional change.

    a. Australians
    b. Brits
    c. Israelis
    d. Army
    e. ODA
    f. Conventional

> All use the concept of an intelligence cell.

4. Doctrinal Review: What does doctrine tell us about the many trends identified?

    a. MCDP-2
    b. Front Line intelligence
    c. 3-24 Counterinsurgency
    d. Small Wars manual
    e. Information operations/etc.

> Preliminary doctrinal review demonstrates the requirement of Company intelligence capability.

5. What does our current adaptation look like?

   a. SASO history
   b. Journey interview
   c. Alford interview
   d. MCCLL pull
   e. HUMINT enterprise
   f. MCWL initiative
   g. Mojave Viper
   h. Marine JF command MTT

   > Overwhelming trend to use Company Intel Cell. However, all of them vary in composition, training, and capabilities. MCCDC efforts are working to find best practices/etc.

- Formalization: What should the final product look like in terms of capability set?

   a. HUMINT
   b. Information Operations
   c. Technical

   > Common thread throughout are Humint and Information Ops. Recommend Humint + New approach to IO + Technology…..symbiotic relationship. Tactical action with operational and strategic results. Ramadi?

- Antithesis: Why make the formal change?

   a. Concept works across the spectrum of conflict (Peacekeeping to Conventional Ops)
   b. Better prepares for the modern battlefield
   c. DO
   d. Technology boom

   > Proposed capability set stands the test of time/etc.

8. Conclusion: Formalize our "best practices" with institutional change in order to maximize their needed capability.

Example 2: Using Questions to Develop an Outline

This format uses a question and answer approach. That is, you ask questions to help you determine what specific elements you want to research about your topic; then, you look at resources to find the evidence that answers your question and write the information under each question. Following is the process behind this question and answer method for developing an outline.

- Pick a topic, but do not rush to develop a thesis; that step will come with research.

- Develop several questions you want answered. By answering these questions you should be able to eventually prove or disprove your thesis. Also, these questions will/may form the different sections or parts of your paper.

- Once the questions are answered in detail, you need to draft an Introduction and Conclusion. These steps should be easier due to the research that has been done on these

questions. Also, note that while doing research more questions may be developed and some original questions may not be as relevant … this is the evolution of your paper.

- Once all of the above steps are completed, you will/may need to develop transitional sentences or paragraphs.

An example of this question outline format is provided below.

(Title of Paper) WORKING OUTLINE

Student: Major

Mentor: Dr.

Title: Winning the Peace in Order to Win the War: Post Conflict Reconstruction in Future Warfare

Topic: Post Conflict Reconstruction (PCR)

I.   Will the U.S. Military participate in Post Conflict Reconstruction in future conflicts?
   a. (answer to question - evidence from research)
   b. (answer to question - evidence from research)
   c. (answer to question - evidence from research)

II.   What role should the U.S. Military have in Post Conflict Reconstruction?
   a.
   b.
   c.

III.   What role should other U.S. Governmental agencies have in Post Conflict Reconstruction?
   a.
   b.
   c.

IV.   What are the recommended structure and employment changes for the U.S. Military in order to facilitate Post Conflict Reconstruction?
   a.
   b.
   c.

V.   What are the recommended structure and employment changes for the United States Marine Corps in order to facilitate Post Conflict Reconstruction?

Example 3: Make a storyboard

- A storyboard is series of visual representations of the ideas you will present in your paper. You may design a storyboard by creating visual representations of concepts, ideas, or main points on note cards or entire pieces of paper. Once you have mapped out the main points you will present, you can arrange these points in a logical order, allowing you to visually represent the progression of your ideas. This technique is similar to the post-it notes/multi-colored index card strategy introduced at the beginning of the chapter (except it uses pictures and diagrams as opposed to words and facts). Below you will find an example of a student's storyboard.

■ Intro ■ Thesis 1	■ Current System ■ Current Limit 2	■ Current TTP's 3	■ Historical Example ■ Future 4	■ State Require ■ No New Stuff 5
■ Solution ■ Capability 6	■ Product 7	■ Product 8	■ Concept 9	■ Concept 10
■ Concept 11	■ Counter-argue 12	■ Counter-argue 13	■ Conclusion 14	■ Conclusion ■ Restate Thesis 15

Writing Your Thesis Proposal[64]

Your initial thesis proposal does not need to be set in stone, but it should provide your reader/mentor with information on your specific topic and how you will go about studying your topic. It should also provide the "so what"—i.e., why is the study important? How does it tie into other critical works?

The thesis proposal also acts as a check. By submitting a thorough thesis proposal, your mentor will be able to assess whether or not you are on the right track before you begin the writing process. Don't be afraid to spend time brainstorming and formulating a research design. An effective research design and clearly defined thesis will save you the time and energy of having to go back and completely refocus the paper halfway through the writing process. The form below provides some of the basic questions that should be considered when constructing a proposal.

---

[64]Evelyn H. Ogden, *Completing Your Doctoral Dissertation or Master's Thesis* (Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Company, 1991), 87.

Thesis Statement Proposal Form

1. Statement of the Problem:

_____
_____
_____
_____

You will want to provide some sort of "statement of the problem" in your thesis paper. **This statement of the problem should answer the question: What is your paper striving to solve?**

2. Preliminary Research:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

What is known about the topic at hand? What are the prevailing viewpoints about the topic? What do the critical works say? Make sure you are familiar with research that has already been conducted. Remember, you do not want to reinvent the wheel. **Your paper should introduce a new perspective, even if you are researching a frequently discussed topic; or, you may want to concentrate on filling a particular gap in the research.** These approaches are referred to as conducting *original research*.

3. Research Gaps:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

The research gap is the missing element in the existing research literature. When you conduct a study, often you will be looking to fill this "gap" by introducing a new approach or new perspective on a topic.

4. Research Questions/Sub-questions:

_____
_____
_____
_____

Your research question is the central question that the paper strives to answer. From this research question, you can develop sub-questions. Usually, your research questions will be used to help you develop a working thesis and the **sub-questions will be used to help you develop supporting points.**

5. Working Thesis:

_____
_____
_____
_____

The working thesis should capture the basic argument you wish to present in the paper; however, it is usually a little more general than your final, revised thesis will be.

6. Limitations:

_____
_____
_____
_____

Limitations refer to what you are going to ask or not ask. Limiting factors means you are only going to talk about x and y, but it is beyond the scope of the paper to talk about z. For instance, you may decide you want to study the effects of the Long War on Marine Corps personnel recruitment; however, this is a rather broad topic and will need to be further refined. Therefore, you must decide what aspect of personnel recruitment you will study. Will you focus on one segment of the population? Will you focus on recruitment methods? For example, you may study the effects of the Long War on female and/or minority recruitment. Thus, you may want to limit the study even further by focusing only on female enlisted and minority personnel. If you chose to take this approach, the Marine Corps recruitment of male personnel would be considered "beyond the scope of the paper."

7. Key Terms:

_____
_____
_____
_____

The research proposal should also introduce some of the key terms that will be discussed in the research. **Be aware that when you are sorting through critical works, you will often encounter several opposing theories and definitions.** For instance, if you are interested in comparing the leadership styles of the northern and southern generals during the American Civil War, you first need to decide which leadership theory will serve as your theoretical backing. Likewise, if you wish to focus on the possibility of China achieving superpower status within the next 20 years, you need to outline how you will choose to define superpower.

8. Research Design/Methodology:

_____
_____
_____
_____

What research methodology will you use to conduct your research? What type of sources will you use? Will you draw mainly from primary (e.g., archival data, surveys, interviews, field research, observation) or secondary (e.g., journals, books, other critical works) sources? More information about choosing the appropriate research methodology is provided in Chapter 4.

9.   Data Collection:

_____
_____
_____
_____

How will you collect your data? Why?

10.   Population Sample (if you choose to conduct interviews/surveys):

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Who are you interested in interviewing? What characteristics should these people (survey sample) have? How will you choose your survey sample? Why?

11.   Data Analysis:

_____
_____
_____
_____

How will you analyze/make sense of your data? How will you visually report the data to the reader?

NOTE: Be aware that even if the outcome of the study does not match your initial conclusions, it can still be defended. The conclusions you formulate after completing your research will usually be different—sometimes significantly different—from your original hypothesis. The success or failure of a research paper has very little to do with whether or not you are able to prove your original hypothesis. As long as your claims are supported by your research, the paper can be defended.

Learning Styles:

      Preparing to draft can be challenging; sometimes it is difficult to know how to begin. Understanding that individuals learn and approach tasks differently can help. There are three, defined types of learners recognized in adult learning theory: Auditory, visual, and kinesthetic (tactile) learners.

      Visual learners respond well to maps and charts, to things they can see. Such learners may find preparing to write is easier if they mind map their ideas, or use color coded note cards to stay organized. Auditory learners, on the other hand, learn best through their sense of hearing. These individuals may not feel comfortable mind mapping their ideas, but could instead benefit from talking out loud about their topic. Interviewing primary sources in person may also help to give auditory learners an understanding of their respective topics. The third type, kinesthetic learners, learns through hands-on methods. They imitate and do themselves, rather than look or

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listen. These individuals may need to write out an outline of exactly what they want to say, or they may want to use objects to represent the battles and situations they are writing about.

Learning styles can also influence how you choose a setting in which to write. Visual learners may be distracted by the colors and objects in a coffee shop, so they may need to sit in a room by themselves with a white board, ready to draw out their concepts and ideas. Auditory learners may work better in groups; by feeding off of others' ideas and listening to outside viewpoints, they may be able to begin writing their own ideas. Kinesthetic learners may not write easily sitting upright in a desk or chair without objects to grab or sensory experiences to immerse themselves in. Allowing them enough space to act out concepts and use their sense of touch will help kinesthetic learners focus on the task at hand. Keep in mind that understanding your learning style can help you succeed in the prewriting and drafting stages.

Just Write It!

Once you have formulated an outline, it's time to start writing. **Do not feel constrained by format issues when constructing a first draft.** Spelling, grammar, and structural problems can be fixed later. The first draft is just about getting your ideas on paper in complete sentences. The next chapter will provide more detail on the drafting process.

Prewriting: Strategies for organizing your ideas before you begin drafting

- Write down everything you know about your topic.
    - How do your ideas connect?
- Strategies for Overcoming Writer's Block
    - Draw a picture
    - Free writing/Free Association
    - Write a letter to a friend
    - Use a tape recorder
- Design a mind map and/or concept map to direct your writing and visually represent your data. This will help you to better understand how the different parts of your paper connect to your thesis.
    - The type of concept/mind map you will use will depend on your purpose.
    - Use your mind map to develop an outline.
- Develop an outline
    - How will you organize your points?
    - What type of outline will you use?
    - What evidence/ideas will you use to support your main idea?
- Just Write It!

Chapter 9: The First Draft – Writing Your Ideas

Once you've brainstormed how you will cover your topic, it is time to begin drafting. **Drafting is nothing more than putting your ideas on paper.** For many writers, however, drafting is the most daunting step of the writing process. Nevertheless, if planned properly, the drafting process does not need to be overwhelming. This chapter provides strategies that will help guide you through the drafting process.

- Accept that the first draft will not be your final draft.

  Remember to be flexible in your writing. If you begin to formulate new ideas as you are drafting, do not be afraid to refine your original ideas. **Do not become fixated on your first draft; <u>expect to make changes</u>.**

- Give yourself enough time.

  Some people claim they write best under pressure. While a rapidly approaching deadline does provide some motivation, it does very little to improve the quality of writing produced. **Writing is a process; it takes time and involves multiple steps.** Giving yourself the time to put your draft aside for a day or two before revising will help you to spot mechanical or logical problems in your writing.

Parts of the Paper

Most academic papers contain **three main parts**: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The length and scope of each part will depend on the type and length of the paper you are writing.

The Introduction

The introduction will vary in length and complexity depending on the type and length of the paper you are writing. For instance, if you are writing a five-page paper, your introduction may only be a short paragraph (4-6 sentences); however, if you're writing a longer paper, your introduction may be several paragraphs long. Generally, the introduction **contains just enough background information to lead up to your thesis statement.** The thesis statement is usually the last sentence (or group of sentences) in the introduction; however, the thesis should be placed where it will be most effective for the purpose of your paper and for the reader's needs.

The introduction should:

- Present relevant background—just enough for the reader to understand your thesis statement

- Capture the reader's interest

- Present an argument that will be proved in the body of the paper (thesis)

- Define terms or concepts when necessary

- Explain the focus of the paper and your specific purpose

Common pitfalls to avoid when drafting your introduction:

- **Vague terms:** Vague terms include acronyms, abstract ideas (concepts, subjective terms)

- **Broad, sweeping statements:** (i.e., from the beginning of time man has…., underdeveloped nations are a threat to national security)

- **Giving too much information:** If you want to investigate how George Washington shaped the Continental Army, you do **<u>not</u>** need to begin providing specific examples of his leadership style in the introduction. Save it for the body.

- **Creating suspense:** The reader should not have to "dig" or read beyond the introduction to get a sense of what the paper is about.

*Strategies for Developing an Introduction***:**

While many writers will draft an introduction before writing the body or "meat" of the paper, be aware that your ideas will frequently begin to shift and develop as you complete your research. Just as your thesis statement will probably need to be tweaked throughout the research and writing process, you will also need to adjust the introduction. For this reason, it's often **helpful to develop a strong thesis statement and to begin drafting the body first**.

When you are finished writing the body of the paper, come back and write the introduction. It's important for the introduction to tell the reader exactly what the paper will do and how it will treat your topic—however, it's usually difficult to know exactly what approach the paper will take until you've finished your research and fully developed the body of the paper. Therefore, even if you've crafted what you think is a strong introduction before crafting the body paragraphs, this introduction may no longer suit the paper upon completion. The following pages provide examples and critiques of introductions written by MCU students during the 2007-2008 and the 2008-2009 academic years.

Marine Aviation Logistics Squadrons (MALS) should be restructured in order to more efficiently and effectively support high operational tempos. **The primary responsibility of Marine Aviation Logistic Squadrons is a commitment to aircraft readiness.** A MALS must be postured to support the readiness of aircraft with a high level of supply, maintenance, and ordnance support in numerous venues and in a simultaneous manner. The nature of the war and conflicts today dictates a high operational tempo. In order to effectively and efficiently deal with **this mantra of the world**, MALS must come to realize that an **optimization of resources across Air Stations** must come to fruition. Current doctrine is characterized by having MALS **draw-up or draw down** its resources depending upon which deployment cycle the MALS is in. The issue at large is the fact that while a MALS deploys to some remote location, operational commitments still exist at the primary duty station. Support must still be provided to the flight line at the home base. This support requirement falls onto the back of the sister MALS located at the same duty station. **This deployment concept is not the most optimal methodology of conducting business.**

Left annotations:

What mantra of the world? What words in particular indicate a "mantra?" Will the paper focus on a particular geographic area? If so, this is unclear.

These terms are jargon. In an academic paper, it is advisable to **use scholarly terms as opposed to military terms** in order to reach a broader audience.

Bottom annotation:

Why is this not the most optimal methodology of conducting business? Make sure you don't leave the reader hanging.

Right annotations:

What is a Marine Aviation Logistics Squadron? **These terms, while familiar to Marine Corps personnel, may not be familiar to other readers who do not have prior knowledge of the subject.**

This is an **abstract term and does not adequately convey the author's intent.** What does the author mean by "optimization of resources across Air Stations?"

While the introduction above does present an argument (i.e., *Marine Aviation Logistics Squadrons should be restructured in order to more efficiently and effectively support high operational tempos.*), **the concept of the MALS is explained in vague, abstract terms**.

What type of effect? **The words you use in the introduction should be as specific as possible in order to properly frame the problem** you will address in the body of the paper.

While these are questions you may want to ask yourself before you begin conducting focused research, **the research paper needs to take a stand or make a claim.**

Conventional wisdom suggests that the quality of the all-volunteer force (AVF) has declined since the invasion of Afghanistan in 2001 and Iraq in 2003. The Marine Corps has not had to fight and sustain an All-Volunteer force during an extended war since 1973, when the U.S. military became an All-Volunteer force. As the Global War on Terror is broadcast to every living room across the country, the question of whether or not the U.S. will be able to sustain an all-volunteer force has become the focus of many political debates. **The on-going war in Iraq and Afghanistan has undoubtedly had an effect on the Marine Corps' new enlisted accessions.**

Have minority accessions increased, decreased, or remained constant? Has the Marine Corps witnessed a definitive drop in female new enlistees during this period? Given a much greater challenge to the recruiting effort during a war, has the Marine Corps settled for a less intelligent applicant to satisfy recruiting goals? Is this war being fought by the Nation's poor and underprivileged? The answers to these questions lead to a broader thesis: What are the implications of the All-Volunteer Marine Corps fighting the "Long War?"

This statement is overly general. Why has the author come to this conclusion?

It's unclear what this author intends to prove. The question, "What are the implications to the All-Volunteer Marine Corps fighting the Long War" is too broad. The paper should focus on one specific aspect of the all-volunteer force.

Overall, this introduction is ineffective because the author's argument is not clear. Some of the questions posed seem more like tangents than "sub-questions" that will be used to answer a larger research question. The author needs to reevaluate some of the vague terminology and reframe the problem.

The wording here is a bit vague. What is meant by a "new level" in this context? Have these IEDs increased the likelihood of U.S. casualties? Have they raised the need to develop new ways of combating terrorism?

Improvised Explosive Devices (IEDs) have brought terrorism in Iraq to a **new level.** Examination of U.S. Government response to IED warfare will enable the U.S. Military to identify seams in the insurgent tactics and faults within U.S. policy toward IEDs to build a framework to combat IED warfare. The war is ours to win or lose **based on the direction our government decides to take us.** *Bard O'Neill* uses the human environment to describe the factors that enable an insurgency and views popular support as the means through which an insurgency can gain support and momentum; however, the government response to IEDs is the most important factor that will enable victory or seal our fate.[1]

This is a very general statement. It is not clear what the government is "deciding on" in this context.

The introduction of Bard O'Neil's theory is a bit abrupt here. It is not clear whether the author intends to debunk this theory, or if the author will use this theory as a framework to organize the essay.

There are two main problems with this introduction: First, it contains some ambiguous language and general terms that need to be clarified (i.e. what does the author mean by "new level"?). Next, the paragraph needs some transitions to connect ideas. As of right now, the introduction of Bard O'Neill's theory is a bit abrupt and does not seem to connect to the other ideas the author presents. The author needs to indicate whether he/she is agreeing with or debunking this theory.

In the military, loyalty is one of the most misunderstood leadership qualities. Who is that loyalty directed to? Is it to superiors or is it to the troops? Is it both? Leaders of men must deal with this quandary on a daily basis. **Random House defines loyalty as, "faithful to one's allegiance, as to a government or friends."** There is a second, and more important, definition listed that is much more relevant to military leaders, which is "faithful to one's oath." The oath of office that every military officer must take compels him to swear to "...support and defend the Constitution of the United States, against all enemies, foreign and domestic..." He is to do so of his own free will and with loyalty to the very oath he is taking. This oath is what defines military leadership. **The intent of this essay is to prove that speaking out for what is right can greatly benefit our military and our country.** It has been shown that **by not speaking out, the United States has created a chasm between its civilian and military leaders as well as** the military establishment and the public. Men of arms must never allow false and careerist loyalty to preclude them from making the right decisions, at the right time, and for the right reasons.

Terms and definitions should come from an appropriate source. While Random House may be appropriate if you are writing about etymology of words, it may not provide an appropriate definition if you are writing about a current issue in the military. While the author acknowledges that the second definition ("faithful to one's oath") is more appropriate, its use makes the first definition seem superfluous.

Is the author defining loyalty as willingness to speak out? **Keep terminology/key concepts consistent.**

The author needs to **highlight the connection between not speaking out and the "chasm" this has created** between civilian and military leaders.

In the example above, the author is talking about two separate ideas: 1) speaking out for what is right and 2) loyalty. This makes it difficult to tell what the author will prove in the body of the essay.

There is a strong and persistent rumor in the American Foreign Service that Marine Security Guards are prohibited from being assigned to rooftops during **exigent circumstances**. Over the years, the rumor has been passed down from American Foreign Service officers departing posts at the end of their tours of duty to their successors at embassies and consulates. This has lead to a widespread belief in the American Foreign Service community that the prohibition is official policy. However, there is **no authoritative written directive, policy, statement, or regulation that expressly prohibits Marine Security Guards from rooftop over watch defensive positions.** Unfortunately, the widespread belief that Marine Security guards are not permitted on rooftops ties the hands of Diplomatic Security officers looking for solutions to embassy and consulate security challenges. **Certainly, a highly trained Marine Security Guard posted to a significant over watch rooftop position has the potential to thwart an attack on a diplomatic facility.**

What constitutes an exigent circumstance?

Generally, **argumentative research papers should not argue a position that has already been established as fact.** In this case, if a document/directive outlining this prohibition exists, the author will have very little to write about (since the claim would already be proved).

Will this statement be the main focus of the paper? Is this position worth arguing if there is no directive/document in place that prevents Marine security guards from being assigned to rooftop positions?

       This introductory paragraph presents an opinion, but does not (as written) seem to provide a valid argument. Remember, in order for a thesis statement's argument to be considered relevant, it must present an idea that has not yet been proven. "Chapter 4: Choosing a Topic and Developing a Research Question," discusses the importance of having a "fresh" thesis statement. For instance, the argument, "women should be permitted to join the military" is not valid since women are already serving in the military. Therefore, if the argument the paper presents is already established as a fact, it may not be worth the author's time to write a 20-page paper defending this argument.

> **For the purpose of this paper, Combat Ethics are defined as the system of moral principles that govern the conduct of Marines in armed conflict.** Marine Corps instruction on combat ethics is accomplished through a variety of methods, including instruction on core values, leadership, martial arts, rules of engagement (ROE), escalation of force (EOF) and the law of war (LoW). The instruction and application of these subjects, formally included in Marine Corps recruit and officer basic training, home station training (HST), pre-deployment training program (PTP), and informally occurring daily, provide Marines with foundational martial moral values. **Nevertheless, making ethical decisions in combat can take Marines into a realm that is foggy, ambiguous, and vexing, potentially beyond what their training and experience may have prepared them for.**

Author should **provide a citation to establish credibility and to tell the reader whose definition he/she is using**. The Marine Corps' definition? DOD's definition? Definition developed by a philosophy professor?

While this statement may be true, **the introduction does not take a stand.** That is, it does not provide the "so what." Is the author trying to say the Marine Corps needs to change its pre-deployment training? Is the author trying to say it is not possible to prepare for combat?

The main problem with this introductory paragraph is that it does not take a stand. While it does introduce a problem, it needs one more conclusive statement to provide the "so what." That is, what does this foggy, ambiguous environment mean for the future of the Marine Corps? Taking this environment into account, should the Marine Corps change its training and education requirements?

Marine artillerymen, deployed globally in support of the Long War, are not performing their primary artillery mission; instead, they are fulfilling countless "in lieu of" (ILO) capacities. These provisional missions include service as infantrymen, convoy security elements, military policemen, detention facility operators, civil military operations centers (CMOCs) and civil affairs units, and information operations cells. The counterinsurgency efforts in Iraq have required large degrees of flexibility and ingenuity by *all* Marines, but current circumstances do highlight a significant question – what is the mission, focus, or perhaps even the relevancy of the Marine artillery? More pointedly, one must ask – what is the future mission(s) of the Marine artillery community? An examination of the current operating environment dictates that today's artillery community is not structured, trained, or employed to maximize its effectiveness in support of full spectrum operations conducted by expeditionary forces. **This study serves as an examination** of the need for continued force structure transformation within Marine artillery. **This transformation will allow the artillery community to effectively conduct lethal as well as non-lethal fires in support of 2015 expeditionary operations**.

In the introduction above, the author states the problem the paper will address up front (in specific, concrete terms). The author then provides a thesis statement that includes a specific, well-defined argument.

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Following World War II, war torn colonial European powers began to recede from the world stage and focused instead on internal domestic issues. At the same time, the flames of communist ideology began to spread across the globe, fanned in large part by the Chinese and Soviet regimes. These two conditions, combined with a rise in nationalism in many parts of the world, sparked several insurgencies worldwide. One such insurgency, dubbed The Malayan Emergency, was successfully countered by British forces, despite the fact that Malaya was on the opposite side of the globe. In contrast, the Algerian War, which was fought by French forces only a few hundred miles from their homeland, resulted in a staggering defeat for the French nation. **By comparing the two approaches to counter-insurgency, it is apparent that the British method in Malaya was ultimately more successful than the French strategy because the British focused on reinforcing the perception of legitimacy, whereas the French resorted to unrestrained military action.**

> **Provides just enough background so reader can understand thesis statement/argument.**

> **Thesis statement is specific and presents an argument. It tells the reader which insurgency was more successful and why.**

This introduction is effective because it contextualizes the paper's argument without providing excess background information. The thesis statement is specific and provides the "what" as well as the "why."

Constructing Supporting Paragraphs

The body is considered the "meat and potatoes" of the paper and provides specific evidence and examples to support the thesis statement. In the body of the paper, you will synthesize the data you've gathered from your literature review, field research, and interviews. For this reason, it's often helpful to construct an outline before you begin drafting (See Chapter 8 for more information about drafting outlines). The outline will allow you to see how each source supports each element of your thesis. Below you will find more guidelines for constructing effective body paragraphs.

Unity:

In order to achieve unity in the body of your paper, **each paragraph should contain only one main idea**. For instance, if you are writing about economic, social, and political reconstruction in post-World War II Japan, you would not want to address economic and political reconstruction in the same paragraph. In fact, since all the supporting elements in this paper (economic, political, and social reconstruction) are broad, each element may need to be discussed in two or three paragraphs. For example, there may have been three different actions the U.S. took to aid in Japan's reconstruction. In this case, you could construct a separate paragraph for each action.

Using topic sentences to create unity:

The main idea of a paragraph is often expressed in a topic sentence. While paragraphs do not need to have a topic sentence, less experienced writers may find that topic sentences help them to focus the ideas in a paragraph. You may even want to think of a topic sentence as a "mini thesis statement." Just as the paper should only cover the scope of the thesis statement, a paragraph should only address the main idea covered in its topic sentence.

Coherence:

Coherence refers to the practice of **highlighting connections between ideas**. When a paper is coherent, it provides transitions—that is, **the author shows the reader how each sentence (idea) in a paragraph is related to the next idea**. A coherent paper also highlights relationships between paragraphs, showing the reader how each element of the thesis is related to the next. While you may think these connections are obvious, a reader may not immediately see how one idea is related to the next. Below are a few strategies you can use to create coherence in your writing.

- **Use transitional words and phrases:** Transitional words (i.e., however, therefore, conversely, moreover) highlight relationships between ideas. Are you trying to compare/contrast? Are you trying to show cause and effect? Transitions will help to make these relationships clear to the reader. Refer to "Chapter 11: Revisions" for more information about how to use transitions in your writing.

- **Avoid ambiguous pronouns:** While you do not want to constantly repeat the same words, be careful with your pronoun usage. When you use pronouns, make sure it is immediately clear what the pronoun is replacing. Refer to "Chapter 10: Grammar and Mechanics" for more information about correct pronoun usage.

- **Keep your terminology consistent**: Make sure you are using the same terminology throughout the paper. If you begin changing these key words or replacing them with synonyms, you run the risk of confusing your reader.

Click here for more information about redundancy in writing.

Development:

Adequate development is one of the most difficult principles of paragraph construction. In general, **each paragraph should contain enough examples and evidence to support the paragraph's central claim**. If the paragraph leaves the reader asking, "so what?" you may need to go back and add more examples, or you may have more than one main idea in the paragraph (i.e., lack of unity). A thoroughly developed research paper also requires you to balance your own ideas with supporting information from outside sources.

* As stated earlier, the primary goal of the drafting process is to put your ideas on paper. You **can always go back and edit for unity, coherence, and development** later. For this reason, many of the concepts addressed in the "Constructing Body Paragraphs" section will be discussed in-depth in "Chapter 11: Revisions."

Writing the Conclusion

Now that the reader understands your argument, what do you want the reader to do with this information? The conclusion gives you the chance to make connections between the main points you've presented throughout the paper and to draw broader implications. The conclusion may include a call to action or may present an issue that is worthy of further study.

The conclusion should:

- Provide the "so what"

- Give the reader a sense of closure

- Synthesize material you've presented in the body of the paper

When writing the conclusion, try to avoid:

- **Rewriting the introduction in different words:** The introduction and conclusion should not contain the same information. While the introduction presents the information you will discuss in the body, the conclusion is your "last word" on the topic. Once your reader reaches the conclusion, he or she is already familiar with your argument. Therefore, by simply restating the information you present in the introduction, you may insult the reader's intelligence, or leave the reader asking "so what?"

- **Restating the thesis statement verbatim:** While you will want to revisit the paper's central argument (thesis), you may want to put this argument in different words.

- **Introducing new information:** The conclusion should not present more evidence or ideas to support your thesis. While you may want to introduce some issues for consideration or topics/questions for further study, you do not want to present new or unfamiliar information in the conclusion.

As stated in previous chapters, **writing is a process and involves multiple steps.** Therefore, it's important to remember that **your first draft will not be your last**. Once you've finished your draft, try to **put it aside for a few days before taking another look**. You may be surprised at how easily you will spot trouble areas after distancing yourself from your writing. The next few chapters will focus on the steps you will need to take to turn your draft into a final product—otherwise known as the revisions process.

When drafting, remember:

- Drafting is nothing more than putting your ideas on paper.
- Do not become fixated on your first draft; expect to make changes.
- Writing is a process; it takes time and involves multiple steps.
- The introduction will vary in length and complexity depending on the type and length of the paper you are writing. Generally, the introduction contains just enough background information to lead up to your thesis statement**.**
- The body is considered the "meat and potatoes" of the paper and provides specific evidence and examples to support the thesis statement.
- The conclusion should provide the "so what," give the reader a sense of closure, and synthesize material you've presented in the body of the paper.
- When you write a research paper, you need to make an original argument based on the research you conduct—your sources merely provide the evidence to support your central argument.

Chapter 10: Mechanics and Grammar of Writing

For most of us, the grammar we learned in our eighth grade English class is a fleeting memory. While it is no longer necessary to know how to diagram a sentence, general knowledge of punctuation and grammar rules is essential to clear communication.

Punctuation

You may want to think of each mark of punctuation as a traffic signal: It lets a reader know when to speed up, slow down, or change direction. Punctuation is primarily used to clarify the meaning of a sentence. Sometimes a sentence may yield two completely different interpretations, depending on how it is punctuated. At Marine Corps University, as well as in the Marine Corps as a whole, clear communication is essential. Correct or incorrect punctuation in your writing may change the meaning of a specific command, request, or response.

The Comma

A comma indicates a pause in the text and highlights relationships between words and phrases within a sentence. Generally, the comma is used to emphasize a particular part of a sentence or to clarify a meaning. It is important to use commas correctly to avoid a misinterpretation of your writing.

> **Example 1:** In the Netherlands, a motion calling for "the naturalization of Natalie Bouwmeester, widow of Peter Bouwmeester and eighteen men," was brought to the Chamber of Deputies.[65]
> - The writer actually meant to request "the naturalization of Natalie Bouwmeester, widow of Peter Boumeester, and eighteen men."
>
> - In the absence of a comma, Natalie Bouwmeester is the widow of nineteen men. With the comma, the motion calls for the naturalization of the widow of Peter Bouwmeester, as well as the eighteen men.

> **Example 2:** The colonel said the general is crazy. Vs. The colonel, said the general, is crazy.
> - In the first sentence, it is the colonel who calls the general crazy. After the commas are added, it is the general who calls the colonel crazy.
> -

Common Errors

> **Error 1:** The comma splice
> - Linking two main clauses with only a comma is referred to as a comma splice.

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[65] R. Lederer & R. Dowis, *Sleeping Dogs Don't Lay* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999).

- A comma splice can often be corrected by replacing the comma with a semicolon, using a conjunction, or restructuring the sentence.

Example: The professor was disappointed, the student turned in his thesis late.
- The comma in this sentence is used **incorrectly** because it is placed between two main (independent) clauses.

Possible solutions:
1. The professor was disappointed; the student turned in his thesis late.

2. The professor was disappointed. The student turned in his thesis late.

3. The professor was disappointed because the student turned in his thesis late.

Error 2: The fused sentence
- A fused sentence, more commonly known as a run on sentence, occurs when a writer neglects to add a comma to clarify meaning or separate unrelated phrases.

Example: The pain was excruciating the soldier needed morphine.

Possible solutions:
1. The pain was excruciating. The soldier needed morphine.

2. The pain was excruciating; the soldier needed morphine.

3. The pain was excruciating, and the soldier needed morphine.

4. The pain was so excruciating that the soldier needed morphine.

When to Use a Comma

1. **Adjectives following nouns:** Adjectives following nouns are preceded by a comma.

   Example 1: The chief of staff, articulate and meticulously dressed, never lost his temper.

   Example 2: The general's dog, obedient and loyal, was the perfect companion.

2. **Adverbial modifiers:** Adverbial modifiers are usually followed by a comma if they appear at the beginning of a sentence.

   Example 1: During the Cold War, the United States adopted a containment policy.

   Example 2: If insurgents attack, we will be prepared.

- Common words that introduce adverbial phrases: *after*, *if*, *when*, *soon*, *often*, and other words that indicate time and degree
- An adverbial modifier at the end of a sentence generally does not require a comma unless it introduces a lengthy phrase, is preceded by although, or is meant to add emphasis.

Example 1: I can walk to the store, although, I'm not sure how to get there.

Example 2: The United States will launch a preemptive strike if the inspectors find nuclear weapons.
- The comma is not needed in Example 2 because the adverbial clause is short and is not preceded by *although*.

3. **Coordinating conjunctions:** Commas are used in compound sentences before coordinating conjunctions. Independent clauses may be connected to other independent clauses by a coordinating conjunction and a comma. Coordinating conjunctions include: *and*, *but*, *for*, *so*, *yet*, *or*, and *nor*.

Example: I run every day, but I am still not ready for the Marine Corps Marathon.

Incorrect: I run every day, and also lift weights.
- The second example is incorrect because the phrase, *and also lift weights,* is a subordinate clause. Therefore, no comma is needed.

4. **Contrasting statements:** Commas are used to emphasize contrasting statements within a sentence.

Example: Romano Prodi, not Silvio Berlusconi, is the Prime Minister of Italy.

5. **Parallel adjectives**: If the order of adjectives can be reversed or if *and* can stand between them, the adjectives are considered parallel and should be separated by a comma.

Example 1: It was a long, hot, humid summer.

Example 2: I drive an old, red car.
- This sentence, however, **does not** need a comma: He wore a light summer jacket.
- The order of the adjectives (light and summer) cannot be reversed and cannot be separated by the word *and*.

6. **Parenthetical (nonrestrictive) elements**: Parenthetical (nonrestrictive) elements are words, clauses, and phrases that are not essential to the sentence's structure and meaning. A nonrestrictive element refers to information that could be omitted from a sentence without interfering with the sentence's main idea. A comma is necessary

when a sentence contains a nonrestrictive clause. A clause is classified as "restrictive" if it is needed in order for the sentence to have a clear meaning. However, when a sentence contains a restrictive clause, a comma is unnecessary.

    Restrictive: A car without gas is useless.

    Nonrestrictive: The car, though brand new, is useless.

7. **Commas are used to separate a series of phrases, letters, or numbers.**

    Example 1: Today I will meet with the students of conference groups 3, 4, and 7.

    Example 2: Please complete part A, B, and C of the application.

    Example 3: Before I can leave for the weekend I must finish a report, make a phone call, and feed the cat.

8. **Transitional words:** Transitional words (*therefore*, *however*, *moreover*, *accordingly*, *yet*, *likewise*, *also*, *otherwise*, *hence*) are usually set off by commas.

    Example 1: The President's words were polite, yet firm.

    Example 2: The United Nations disagreed, however, on how to define terrorism.
- The transitional word *however* frequently creates problems for writers. Note the difference in the way *however* is punctuated in the following two sentences:

    Example 1: The professors could not agree on where the comma should be placed; however, they eventually decided that a semicolon would be more appropriate.

    Example 2: The professors disagreed, however, on how to define terrorism.

9. **Commas are used after city and state names.**

    Example: Marine Corps University is located in Quantico, Virginia.

● **The Semicolon**

,   The semicolon is a mark of separation. While a comma indicates a pause, a semicolon designates an almost complete stop.

Common Errors

    Error 1: The semicolon and the comma are frequently confused.

- A semicolon may connect two related independent clauses in the absence of a coordinating conjunction, but a comma cannot.

  Incorrect: There was an accident on the interstate this morning, I was late for work.

  Solution: There was an accident on the interstate this morning; I was late for work.

Error 2: A comma requires a coordinating conjunction to connect two related independent clauses. Coordinating conjunctions include: *and*, *but*, *for*, *so*, *yet*, *or*, *nor*, *etcetera*.

  Example: I ran the Marine Corps marathon today, and my legs feel like rubber.

When to Use a Semicolon

1. A semicolon is used before conjunctive adverbs (*therefore*, *however*, *thus*, *hence*, *nevertheless*) when they connect two related, complete thoughts.

   Example: I tore my Achilles tendon yesterday; therefore, I cannot complete my physical training.

2. A semicolon may be used to connect two complete sentences.

   Incorrect: I ran the Marine Corps marathon today, my legs feel like rubber.

   Solution: I ran the Marine Corps marathon today; my legs feel like rubber.

3. A semicolon is used to separate a series of clauses or phrases. If one or more elements contain internal punctuation, the elements are separated by semicolons as opposed to commas.

   Example 1: The awards ceremony was attended by Dr. Jones, the project's benefactor; Mr. Davis, the project engineer; and Mrs. Beck, the president of the university.

   Example 2: Shelly, the General's wife; Mr. Moore, and Miss Fields went out for dinner.

● **The Colon**

●　　　The colon is generally used to call attention to the words that follow it.

When to Use a Colon

1. A colon is used after an independent clause to call attention to a list, an appositive, or a quotation.

    Example: There are three main types of research papers: argumentative, analytical, and expository.

    Example: The desired candidate for the position should possess the following: advanced computer skills, the ability to communicate clearly, and a strong work ethic.

    Example: Elizabeth Bowen said this about communication: "Mechanical difficulties with language are the outcome of internal difficulties with thought."

    Note: According to the Chicago Manual of Style, "when a colon is used within a sentence [such as in the first example below]...the first word following the colon is lowercased unless it is a proper name. When a colon introduces two or more complete sentences, or when it introduces a speech in dialogue or an extract, the first word following the colon is capitalized."[i] [66]

2. A colon is used between independent clauses if the second clause summarizes or explains the first.

    Example: "A lifetime of happiness! No man alive could bear it: it would be hell on earth."[67]

3. A colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.

    Example: Dear Sir or Madam:

Common Errors

Error 1: Never use a colon between a verb and its object.

    Incorrect: Last year I visited: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

    Solution 1: Last year I visited Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

    Solution 2: Last year I visited the following places: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

Error 2: Never use a colon between a preposition and its object.

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[66] University of Chicago Press. *The Chicago Manual of Style*. 15th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2003), 257.

[67] Richard Nordquist, "Colon," *About.com: Grammar and Composition* (2008), http://grammar.about.com/od/c/g/colon.htm (accessed May 28, 2008).

Incorrect: I was stationed in: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.
Solution 1: I was stationed in Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

Solution 2: I was stationed in the following places: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

The Dash

The dash should not be used in scholarly writing if another punctuation mark can be used in its place. The dash may be used for emphasis, or to represent a sudden break in thought. Frequently, the dash is used when a writer wishes to represent linguistic patterns in dialogue.

When to Use Dashes

1. Dashes can point out a sudden break in thought, or set off a parenthetical element.

    Example 1: You will receive payment of $10 an hour—unless you work overtime.

    Example 2: *On War*—which was written by Clausewitz—is still considered an important military and political text today.

2. The dash can be used to emphasize the second independent clause of a compound sentence, or to emphasize a single word.

    Example: Honesty—that is the most important virtue.

3. A dash can be used for repetition, or to give the appearance of an afterthought:

    Example: The soldiers completely lost morale after losing over 1,000 men in the battle— they were ready to surrender.

4. A dash may also be used before summarizing words that set off a group of ideas or details.

    Example: Two students—John and Katie—received an "A" on the quiz.

The Hyphen

Two and three word modifiers that express a single thought are hyphenated when they precede a noun. A modifier should not be hyphenated if it follows the noun it modifies. Hyphens are generally used to create the impression of unity, or to clarify ambiguity, particularly when distinguishing a similar sounding compound word from a word with a different meaning.

Rules for Using Hyphens

1. These modifiers are hyphenated because they precede the noun they modify:

   - The speech was delivered by a well-spoken young man.
   - What was the outcome of the Six-Day War?
   - We are having a meeting to review our long-term goals in Iraq.

2. A hyphen is always used when the modifier is a letter or number.

   - 72-inch color television
   - M-16
   - AK-47

3. Hyphens are used when a letter would be doubled or tripled in order to create a compound word.

   - anti-immigration laws

4. A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.

   - pro-American
   - pre-World War I

Do Not Use Hyphens When…

1. A modifier follows the noun it modifies.

   - The young man who delivered the speech was well spoken.
   - The ship was not well designed.

2. Hyphens are not used after adverbs ending in *-ly*.

   - Freshly baked bread

(Parentheses

Parentheses enclose explanatory words, phrases, or sentences. The text within the parentheses is usually used to clarify the meaning of a particular passage without changing its message. The information in the parenthesis is not necessary to complete the sentence's meaning and does not interfere with the grammatical structure of the sentence. However, parentheses may provide a reader with a note of interest, or provide valuable information.

Guidelines for Using Parentheses

1. If parentheses occur at the end of a sentence, the closing punctuation point should appear **after** the second parenthesis.

   Example: There was a small dent in the plane (though it is unknown how it got there).

2. Parentheses may also stand alone. An entire sentence is sometimes enclosed in parentheses. In this case, the ending punctuation mark should go inside the second parenthesis.

   Example: The president vetoed the bill. (But the veto can be overturned by Congress.)

3. Parentheses may also be used to enclose numerals or letters that indicate sequence.

   Example 1: Please see Section (A) of your style manual.

   Example 2: The soldier's narrative (see Section A) described the Battle of Fallujah.

4. Use brackets to enclose parenthetical material that is already in parentheses.

   Example: (The president [George W. Bush] introduced the legislation five years ago, but it didn't pass.)

Mechanics

Italics

Italics are used to indicate book titles, foreign expressions, or to add emphasis. Most printers and word processors allow for the use of italics. If yours does not, underlining may be used instead. However, do not switch back and forth between underlining and italics. Pick one method and stick to it throughout an entire piece of writing.

When to Use Italics

1. **For emphasis**: Italics may be used to emphasize a particular word or phrase.

   Example: I would *never* leave my post unattended.
   - Sometimes it is necessary to italicize a word for emphasis; however, use this practice sparingly in scholarly writing.

2. **Titles of periodicals, books, newspapers, movies, paintings, and television program**

    Example: *The New York Times, The Sopranos, Joint Force Quarterly, The Last Supper*

3. **Foreign Phrases**

    Example: Foreign words and phrases should appear in italics. Familiar foreign words (persona non grata, siesta, cliché, and other phrases that are commonplace enough to appear in an English dictionary) need not be italicized.

4. **Italics are also used when referring to words, letters, or figures.**

    Example 1: The word *strategic* is often misinterpreted.

Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase. Abbreviations should only be used if the context is clear to the reader. The abbreviated term must be spelled out completely the first time it is used in a piece of writing. Try to avoid abbreviations in scholarly writing as must as possible.

1. **Acronyms**: words formed by combining the first letter of a series of words in a phrase

    Example 1: scuba

    Example 2: NASA
    - Many acronyms are written in capital letters without punctuation (NASA). However, other acronyms (such as scuba) have become so familiar that they are used as words themselves and appear in lowercase.

If you must abbreviate, follow these guidelines:

1. Spell out the abbreviated word or phrase word the first time you use it in the document, so that readers will be aware of its full context.

2. Do not begin a sentence with an abbreviation, with the exception of address terms (Ms., Mrs., Mr.)

3. Make sure you use abbreviations consistently.

4. After a person is identified by his or her full military rank, use only the surname and short grade title.

Example: Brigadier General John Martinez (Use this construction to identify a person the first time, and then switch to Brig. Gen. Martinez.)

5. *Reverend* and *Honorable* can be abbreviated to *Rev.* and *Hon.* only when *the* does not precede the term.

   Example 1: Hon. Mitman →The Honorable Mitman

   Example 2: Rev. Sharpon → The Reverend Al Sharpton

6. States and territories should be spelled out.

   Example: Pennsylvania instead of PA

Capitalization

Guidelines for Capitalization

1. Capitalize the first word of every sentence.

2. Capitalize the first word of every expression used as a sentence.

   Example: That's too bad! How come?
   - Capitalize direct quotations with in a sentence, even if quotation marks are not used.

3. Capitalize when writing the salutation and the closing of a letter.

   Example 1: Dear John,

   Example 2: Sincerely,

4. Capitalize the first word after a colon when:

   - The word is a proper noun
     Example: Major Civil War battles occurred in the following cities: Atlanta, Fredericksburg, and Gettysburg.

   - The word is the first word of a quoted sentence

     Example: Winston Churchill was quoted as saying the following: "He is a modest little man who has a good deal to be modest about."

   - The colon introduces two or more sentences; the first word following the colon is capitalized.

Example: The Schlieffen plan may have worked to solve Germany's military dilemma, but it had one fatal flaw: it was based on the assumption that Germany could mobilize before France or Russia.

Note: The first word appears in lowercase because the colon introduces only one sentence.

Example: Marine Corps University is dedicated to fostering both academic and professional achievement: Its schools offer students the opportunity to think, write, and speak critically. Additionally, the University publishes award-winning papers at the end of the year, allowing students to take their ideas beyond the classroom.

- The material following the colon starts on a new line

    Example: According to the QEP, there are three pillars of leadership: Communication, understanding, and solving.

- The colon follows an introductory word

    Example: Global conflicts may be arising as a result of the following: Competition for natural resources, an increase in population density, and poorly patrolled borders.

5. Capitalize all proper nouns (nouns referring to a specific person, place, or thing)

    Example 1: U.S. Army

    Example 2: George Bush

    Example 3: Atlantic Ocean

6. Capitalize a common noun or adjective that forms an essential part of a proper noun. However, if a common noun is used to stand for a proper noun, do not capitalize the word.

    Example 1: War of the Roses, the war

    Example 2: Potomac River, the river

    Example 3: Bay Bridge, the bridge

    Example 4: Andes Mountains, the mountains

7. Capitalize all names of national or international government and military organizations, documents, and regions. However, do not capitalize common nouns that are used to replace these organizations, documents, or regions.

> **Example 1:** The Italian Government, the government

> **Example 2:** The Bill of Rights, the bill

> **Example 3:** Senator Joseph Biden, the senator

8. Capitalize names of departments within organizations.

> **Example 1:** Department of Agriculture

> **Example 2:** Claims Department

9. Capitalize military rank when used with proper name (but not when it stands alone).

> **Example:** Lieutenant Smith vs. lieutenant

10. Capitalize proper names of colleges, organizations, committees, and agencies.

> **Example 1:** Marine Corps University

> **Example 2:** National Science Foundation

> **Example 3:** Committee of Academic Affairs

11. Capitalize official degree names only when they are spelled out; do not capitalize the degree name when it is referred to in general.

> **Example 1:** Master of Fine Arts vs. master's degree

> **Example 2:** Bachelor of Science vs. bachelor's degree

> **Note:** when referring to a degree in general terms, it requires an ('s).

12. Capitalize the titles of official documents, regulations, directives, acts, laws, bills, and treaties, but not the common nouns that refer to them.

> **Example 1:** Treaty of Versailles, the treaty

> **Example 2:** Megan's Law, the law

> **Example 3:** The Declaration of Independence, the declaration

13. Capitalize names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as proper nouns.

    Example 1: Women's Suffrage Movement

    Example 2: the Libertarian Party

    Example 3: the Quadruple Alliance

14. Capitalize nouns followed by numbers or letters with the exception of the following: note, page, paragraph, line, size, and verse.

    Example 1: Figure A

    Example 2: Section 1

15. Capitalize compass directions when referring to a specific region, or if the direction is part of a proper name. Do not capitalize directions when used to indicate a general location.

    Example 1: southwest

    Example 2: Southern California

    Example 3: north

    Example 4: Northern Italy

16. Capitalize days of the week, months, events, races, languages, seasons, holidays, religions and events.

    Example 1: Monday

    Example 2: May

    Example 3: French

    Example 4: Arabic

    Example 5: Spring

    Example 6: Labor Day

17. Capitalize brand names, but not the common nouns that refer to them.

    Example 1: Ivory Soap, soap

Example 2: Campbell's Soup, soup

18. Capitalize specific course names, but not courses of study.

Example 1: Biology 101, biology

Example 2: Advanced Accounting 345, accounting

Numerals

Use numerals when referring to:

1. Money

Example: $10

2. Measurements/dimensions/temperature

Example 1: 25 km

Example 2: 2x4

Example 3: 75 degrees Fahrenheit

3. Percentages, ratios, proportions, scores

Example 1: 75%

Example 2: 2/3

4. Numbers referred to as numbers

Example: Prime numbers include: 5, 3, and 2.

5. Mathematical expressions

Example: 4x6=24

6. Abbreviations, symbols, serial numbers

7. Unit modifiers and hyphenations

Example: M-16

8. Dates

Example: May 6, 2007

9. Military time

   Example: 1400

10. State, federal, and interstate highways

    Example: I95

Print numbers when:

1. A number is less than ten

   Exception: If numbers appear in a series and one of those numbers is greater than nine, all the numbers in the series should appear as numerals.

   Example: You can reach the city center via bus number 4, 7, or 12.

* Be aware that while *The Chicago Manual of Style* states that numbers should be spelled out when they are less than 100 in value, MCU recommends that numbers greater than nine should be written in numeral form to improve readability. This guidance is also in keeping with the *Marine Corps Historical Center Writing Guide*.

2. Centuries are spelled out and lowercased

   Example 1: twenty-first century

   Example 2: nineteenth-century

3. Decades are spelled out and lowercased, as long as the century you are referring to is clear.

   Example 1: the eighties

   Example 2: the seventies

4. Times of day should be spelled out in a text if not followed by a.m./p.m., even if you are referring to a half or quarter hour.

   Example 1: five thirty

   Example 2: quarter of seven

5. Numbers designating military units should be spelled out if they are 100 or less.

   Example 1: Second Battalion

Example 2: 102nd Battalion

Example 2: 102nd Battalion

6. Names of numbered streets are spelled out if 100 or less

    Example 1: Forty-Second Street

    Example 2: 101st Street

7. Do not begin a sentence with a numeral

8. Numbers are spelled out when used with formal subjects

    Example: the thirteen colonies)

9. Numbers are spelled out when preceding a compound modifier with a figure

    Example: three 12-inch subs

Grammar

Possessive Nouns

A possessive is used to indicate ownership. Possessive nouns are formed by adding an apostrophe (') or an apostrophe "s" ('s) to the end of a word.

1. **Acronyms/Numbers:** Possessive forms of acronyms and numbers are formed by adding an apostrophe "s" ('s).
   - USMC's
   - CEO's
   - NATO's
   - B-52's

How do you make an acronym plural?

Make acronyms plural by adding "s".

    Correct: IEDs

    Incorrect: IED's

When do you use articles before acronyms?

Acronyms, according to *The Chicago Manual of Style* are generally read out loud as words. If using an indefinite article before an acronym, read the acronym aloud and

choose to determine whether a or an would be a more appropriate predecessor (e.g., an MCU wide publication vs. a SEPME tutorial).

2. **Compound Words:** The possessive of a compound word always forms on the last word of a compound word. The creation of these possessives is not always pleasing to the ear, however. Instead of using a compound possessive, a writer may opt to restructure a sentence.

> **Example 1:** District Attorney's (singular possessive)
> Districts Attorney's (plural possessive)

> **Example 2:** Committee Chair's (singular possessive)
> Committees Chair's (plural possessive)

3. **Possessive of Countries and Organized Bodies:** Apostrophes are not used after countries or organizations ending in *s*. Words ending in *s*, *x*, or *z*, if the word is one syllable, require an apostrophe "s" ('s). Add only an apostrophe and omit the (s) for words of more than one syllable.

> **Example 1**: possessive form of multiple syllable nouns ending in *s, x,* or *z*

> - Valdez' army
> - Reporters' notes

> **Example 2**: possessive form of single syllable nouns ending in *s, x,* or *z*

> - Mars's atmosphere
> - Marx's philosophy

4. **Geographic Names, Company Names, and Institutions**: Geographic names, company names, and institutions follow the general rule of adding an apostrophe "s" ('s) or an apostrophe (') to create a plural form.

> **Example 1:** I found the book in the Library of Congress' archives.

> **Example 2**: St. Mark's Square was invaded by pigeons.

5. **Possessive Forms of Inanimate Objects:** While it is grammatically correct to use an apostrophe "s" ('s) to form a plural, it may sound awkward. The prepositional phrase "of" is often preferred.

> **Awkward Construction 1**: The company's CEO is on vacation.

> **Preferred Construction 1**: The CEO of the company is on vacation.

> **Awkward Construction 2**: The magazine's layout is visually appealing.

Preferred Construction 2: The layout of the magazine is visually appealing.

6. **Double Possessives:** Avoid having more than one possessive in a sentence.

Awkward Construction: The company's CEO's office is around the corner.

Preferred Construction: The office of the company's CEO is around the corner.

*** Common Error:** Do not add an apostrophe "s" ('s) to pronouns that are already possessive (*hers*, *his*, *theirs*, *ours*, *yours*, *its*).

Pronouns

Pronouns are nouns that take the place of a person, place, or thing. Pronouns are frequently used in writing to avoid repetition. For example, instead of saying, "I watched Sally run; Sally tripped on the curb," you might say, "I watched Sally run; she tripped on the curb." While you do want to use pronouns to avoid repetition, overusing pronouns can lead to confusion over whom or what is doing a particular action.

Pronoun Case

1. **Subjective Case:** pronouns used as subjects
   - Subjective pronouns include: *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who*

2. **Objective Case:** pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions
   - Objective case pronouns include: *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom*

3. **Possessive Case:** pronouns that express ownership
   - Possessive case pronouns include: *my/mine, your/yours, her/hers, it/its, our/ours, their/theirs, whose*

Guidelines for Pronoun Usage

1. If a compound sentence contains two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, drop the other noun. This action will help you decide which case pronoun you need to use in the sentence.

   Example 1: Andy and me went to the store.

   Sentence after second noun is removed: Me went to the store
   - Since you would say, "I went to the store," as opposed to "me went to the store," *I* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

   Example 2: He had a meeting with Ann and I.
   - You wouldn't say, "He had a meeting with I," so *me* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

Example 3: Us chefs like to cook.
- You wouldn't say, "Us like to cook," so the appropriate pronoun here is *we*.

2. Comparisons

Example 1: She is older than I (am old).

Example 2: This helps you as much as (it helps) me.

Example 3: She is as athletic as I (am).

Note: Comparisons shorten sentences by cutting out unnecessary words. Filling in those words in your mind as you write can help you to choose the appropriate case pronoun.[68]

Frequent problems with pronoun usage

1. **Unclear antecedents:** When using pronouns, make sure that the pronoun's antecedent is clear. The antecedent is the noun that comes before the pronoun. For example, in the sentence, "The professor gave the student a signed copy of his book," the antecedent of the pronoun *his* is *professor*. To ensure clarity in your writing, make sure that the pronoun's antecedent is always clear.

   Examples of unclear antecedents:

   Example 1: A dissenter in the decision to call off the attack was Admiral Keyes (De Roebuck's second in command) who wanted to continue the attack. The Turkish general staff's estimate of the attack on 18 March revealed **that** by 2:00 P.M. Considerable damage had been done to the defenses and the situation on the straits had become "critical." Admiral Keyes put **them** in a position to capitulate, but failed to exploit **their** supply critical vulnerability.
   - In this sentence the antecedents of "them" and "their" are unclear.

   Example 2: We must use caution as **we** study historical cases for lessons learned.
   - Try to avoid using the term "we" in formal writing, as this term often leads to ambiguity. For instance, if you are writing as a U.S. Marine Corps officer, the term "we" may refer to Marines, military personnel, or Americans in general.

   Example 3: The violence mostly subsided with the capture of Emilio Aguinaldo, the leader of the movement and self proclaimed President of the Philippines, but

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[68] Purdue University Online Writing Lab, "Pronoun Case," *Online Writing Lab* (2004), http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar/g_proncase.html (accessed May 28, 2008).

their political desires for autonomy and independence were still granted by the United States.

- The use of "their" in this sentence is awkward, because it lacks an antecedent.

2. **Unclear demonstrative pronouns:** Demonstrative pronouns substitute nouns when the nouns they replace can be understood from the context. Demonstrative pronouns include *this, that, these, those, none,* and *neither*. They also indicate whether they are replacing singular or plural words and give the location of the object.

Guidelines for using demonstrative pronouns:

This: singular and near the speaker

That: singular and at a distance from the speaker

These: plural and near the speaker

Those: plural and at a distance from the speaker

Example 1: I bought this cake, but Sam baked those. ("Those" refers to cakes that are at a distance from the speaker.)

Example 2: I wrote this last year. ("This" refers to something that is singular, near the speaker, and readily understood in the context of the conversation.)[69]

- Just like other pronouns, a demonstrative pronoun stands in for a noun, which is why context is important.[70] When you use a demonstrative pronoun, make sure it has a clear antecedent to avoid ambiguity.

Note: The same words that act as demonstrative pronouns may act as adjectives when they are used to modify a noun rather than stand in for it. For example:

1. *This:*
   Demonstrative Pronoun: This plan won't work
   Adjective: This will help you understand

2. *That:*
   Demonstrative Pronoun: That Marine is a strong writer.
   Adjective: That might be the best time for us to meet.

3. *Those:*
   Demonstrative pronoun: Those will be sufficient.

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[69] UsingEnglish.com, *Term: Demonstrative Pronouns* (2008), http://www.usingenglish.com/glossary/demonstrative-pronoun.html (accessed May 28, 2008).
[70] Weinhold, *The Tongue Untied* (2000), http://grammar.uoregon.edu/pronouns/demonstrative.html (accessed May 28, 2008).

Adjective: Those books were helpful.

4. *These:*
    Demonstrative Pronoun: These should not be used in cooking.
    Adjective: These berries are edible.

Coordinating Conjunctions[71]

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses that are of equal importance or have the same grammatical structure within a sentence. Coordinating conjunctions include: *for, and, nor, or, yet, while, so*.

Functions of Coordinating Conjunctions

1. A coordinating conjunction may connect compound subjects.

   Example 1: The State Department and other government organizations must coordinate their efforts with the military to win the Long War.

   Example 2: The company president or his secretary can help you with that task.

2. A coordinating conjunction may connect compound objects.

   Example: I plan to invest in Google and Yahoo stock.

3. A coordinating conjunction may connect compound phrases.

   Example: Students should be expected to complete all the reading and to participate in class.

4. A coordinating conjunction, when paired with a comma, can be used to connect two independent clauses.

   Example: I ran the Marine Corps Marathon yesterday, so I went to bed early last night.

Parallelism

Single words should be balanced by single words, phrases should be balanced by phrases, and clauses should be balanced by clauses. A sentence is more easily understood and more pleasing to the ear when parallel construction is used.

   Example: The general enjoys golfing, sailing, and reading.

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[71] Adapted from Kellee Weinhold, *The Tongue Untied: A Guide to Grammar, Punctuation, and Style* (2000), http://grammar.uoregon.edu/conjunctions/coordinating.html (accessed May 28, 2008).

Many famous authors have made use of parallel construction:

> **Example 1:** "I choose my friends for their good looks, my acquaintances for their good characters, and my enemies for their intellects." -- Oscar Wilde

> **Example 2:** "As our enemies have found we can reason like men, so now let us show them we can fight like men also." -- Thomas Jefferson

> **Example 3:** "The inherent vice of capitalism is the unequal sharing of blessings; the inherent virtue of socialism is the equal sharing of miseries." -- Winston Churchill

> Purdue's Online Writing Lab provides more detailed information about parallelism.

Style

Active Voice vs. Passive Voice

Avoid using passive voice in your writing. The passive voice is formed by combining any form of the verb, *be,* with a verb in the past tense. (Be verbs include: *am, is, are, were, been*.) When you use the passive voice, the subject of the sentence is acted upon. When you use the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs an action.

> **Passive voice:** The command was issued by the general.

> **Active voice:** The general issued the command.

> **Passive voice:** The winning home run was hit by Babe Ruth.

> **Active voice:** Babe Ruth hit the winning home run.

> **Passive voice**: In the history of the United States, there has never been a credible attempt by the U.S. military to overthrow or subvert civil authority.[72]

> **Active voice:** In the history of the United States, the U.S. military has never made a credible attempt to overthrow or subvert civil authority.

> **Passive Voice:** As a result of cooperative lessons learned at Joint Helicopter Forces Iraq (JHF-I), the request was made from MND-SE to shift the HH-60s to an armed escort role for convoy protection.[73]

> **Active Voice:** As a result of cooperative lessons learned at Joint Helicopter Forces Iraq (JHF-I), MND-SE requested to shift the HH-60s to an armed escort role for convoy protection.

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[72] Anonymous, Command and Staff student paper, Marine Corps University, 2008-2009.
[73] Anonymous, Command and Staff student paper, Marine Corps University, 2008-2009.

Point of View/Voice: First Person, Second Person, or Third Person?

One of the most frequent errors students make in writing formal papers is to switch between different points of view, or to use an inappropriate point of view/voice.

> **Example:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize the D.O. concept. You need to apply this concept at the unit level.
> - The first sentence is written in third person, while the second sentence is written in second person. Switching between voices within a paper can be confusing to your reader and can make your paragraph structure seem disjointed.

First person point of view:

First person point of view is formed when an individual writes an essay or narrative from his/her perspective. The first person point of view is usually used in personal narratives and should generally be avoided in formal papers.   In some social sciences, however, it has become more acceptable to use the first person point of view, depending on the type of paper you are writing.

> **Example of first person point of view:**   I observed the participants in their natural habitat.

Second person point of view:

The second person point of view is formed when "you" is the subject of the sentence. Commands (in which the implied subject is *you*) are always written in the second person. Sometimes the second person point of view is used when an author wishes to address the reader directly—most of this guide is written from a second person point of view—this was done to give the guide a more informal tone.

> **Example of second person point of view:** You generally want to avoid the second person point of view in formal writing.

> **Example 2:** Change the structure of the government to allow for a better civil military relationship (the implied subject in this sentence is "you" because it is a command).

Third person point of view:

Third person is used to allow for distance between the author and the subject. You will generally use third person point of view in your formal writing.

> **Example of third person point of view:** They observed the participants in their natural habitat.

> **Example 2:** The researcher took a case study approach to collect and organize the data.

Chapter 11: Revising, Editing, and Proofreading

The purpose of the revisions process is to catch errors **before** they become part of the final product. Don't expect your first draft to be perfect. In fact, you should **spend as much time revising as drafting**.

After you complete your first draft, try to distance yourself from the paper for a few days—if time permits. You will be more likely to spot logistical and grammatical errors if you allow for some time between the drafting and revising phases.

What Should I Check for When I Revise my Paper?

First, print out the document so that you can mark it up; it's easier to spot errors when you have a hard copy in front of you. Read the document from start to finish each time you revise so you get a sense of how the document flows. It often helps to **read the document out loud**; this will prevent you from filling in words or glossing over areas that need transitions. The amount of time you spend revising will largely depend on the length of the document and your time constraints. For instance, a writer might revise his paper once for structure, overall organization, and logical flow; he might revise again for word choice, conciseness, sentence structure, and usage; and, he might go through his paper once more for style, tone, and reader adaptation.[74]

> **Ideally, you should review and evaluate the document <u>three times</u>, each time checking for a different set of criteria.**

The First Revision: Logic, Content, Organization, Headings, and Documentation

When you revise your paper the first time, you should look for the content, or "big picture," errors. **When you revise the content of the paper, you are primarily examining the logic and general organization.** You should be asking the questions: Does the paper have a strong central argument (i.e., thesis statement)? Does the paper "flow" logically? Is it supported by a sufficient body of scholarly research? Are the connections between the main points of the paper clear? Are there any sections that should be moved around? **Sentence-level errors should be addressed after all content revisions are made.** Below is a list of elements to address when revising the document for content:

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[74] Jeanette W. Gilsdorf, *Business Correspondence for Today: Letters, Memos, and Short Reports* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1989), 90.

Reevaluating your thesis statement/central argument:

Evaluating Logic

- Do you provide enough supporting evidence? Make sure your claims are supported by primary/secondary sources, not just your opinions and personal experience.

- Do you cover the full scope of the issue/topic?

- Are the conclusions you have drawn from your sources logical?

Evaluating Content and Structure

- Does the paper contain an introduction that provides enough information to contextualize the argument or ideas that you are presenting?

- Does the paper have an identifiable thesis statement?

- Do supporting paragraphs follow logically from the thesis statement?

- Does each paragraph contain a topic sentence that directly relates back to your thesis statement?

- Are paragraphs arranged in a logical order? Do they build on each other? Are there adequate transitions used between supporting paragraphs?

- Does the paper contain a conclusion? Does the conclusion demonstrate how all the ideas connect, or does it merely summarize/restate the claims you made in the introduction? Make sure the conclusion does not present a completely new thought.

Evaluating the Organization of your ideas:

Organization refers to the progression of ideas within a paper. Organized papers have a logical flow. An organized paper (and speech) **should**:

- Have a clear thesis statement in the introduction

- Have a clear purpose

- Tell the reader where the paper is going

- Have transitions to carry the reader from one idea to the next

- Progress logically/place body paragraphs in an order that flows

- Fully develop each idea

An organized paper should not:

- Reiterate ideas that have already been discussed

- Mix two or more distinct ideas into one paragraph

- Include excess information

Using Transitions

The use of transitions is paramount to good organization. Think of transitional words and phrases as road signs; they let the reader know where the paper is going by connecting sentences, ideas, and entire paragraphs to one another. Transitional words and phrases may be used to prevent abrupt jumps between words, sentences, or ideas within a single paragraph. When you are writing a longer paper (e.g., a research paper) you may use transitional sentences, or even transitional paragraphs, to indicate relationships between supporting ideas/arguments.

Transitions allow you to connect each new idea or topic back to your original thesis and highlight relationships between supporting ideas. If you find it difficult to transition between paragraphs or ideas, you may want to rethink your structure or reevaluate how a particular section relates to your main idea.

Using the Proper Transition:

Make sure the transition you select serves your purpose. That is, make sure it accurately highlights the connections between the ideas you are presenting. The following sections list transitional words and phrases.

To compare use

- Whereas, but, yet, on the other hand
- However, nevertheless, on the contrary
- By comparison, where, compared to
- Up against, balanced against, vis a vis
- But, although, conversely, meanwhile
- After all, in contrast, although this may be true

To contrast (show exception) use

- Yet, still, however, nevertheless
- In spite of, despite, of course
- Once in a while, sometimes

To prove (argue/influence) use

- Because, for, since
- For the same reason, obviously
  Evidently, furthermore, moreover
- Besides, indeed, in fact, in addition
- In any case, that is

To show sequence use

- First, second, third, and so forth
- Next, then, following this, at this time
- Now, at this point, after, afterward
- Subsequently, finally, consequently
- Previously, before this, simultaneously
- Concurrently, thus, therefore, hence, soon

To emphasize use

- Definitely, extremely, obviously, in fact
- Indeed, in any case, absolutely, positively
- Perennially, eternally, never
- Emphatically, unquestionably
- Without a doubt, certainly, undeniably, without reservation

Without transitions, your ideas may seem disjointed. **Remember, you cannot support your central argument by merely listing facts.** The text below highlights common transitional problems.

Passage 1:
Until recently, the U.S. Government has primarily focused on mitigating the effects of IED attacks through defensive, or "right of boom" measures—i.e., acquiring better equipment and technology to minimize damage caused by IED attacks. Preemptive measures, known as "left of boom" measures, disrupt insurgent cells before they can build and plant bombs. The United States should take a more preemptive approach to addressing IED attacks.

- While this passage has all of the facts needed to make a solid claim, the lack of transitional words makes the statement difficult to follow. Passage 2 is a rewrite of Passage 1, but it includes transitional words and phrases.

Passage 2:
Until recently, the U.S. Government has primarily focused on mitigating the effects of IED attacks through defensive, or "right of boom" measures—i.e., acquiring better equipment and technology to minimize the damage caused by IED attacks. ***However, the United States should begin taking a more preemptive approach to IED***

attacks by adopting offensive "left of boom" measures designed to disrupt insurgent cells before they can build and plant bombs.

- Notice how the **addition of a transitional phrase connected these ideas by highlighting the relationship between "right of boom" and "left of boom" measures**. While Passages 1 and 2 contain the same basic ideas, the logic in Passage 2 is much more easily understood.

Below is a strategy you can use to recognize when a transition is needed and to help you develop the appropriate transition:

- Try highlighting ideas in different colors; for example, use a yellow highlighter for the first idea and a blue highlighter for the second idea. Wherever the different colored sentences touch, there should be a third color tying the two ideas together.

  Example: ==Culture is an important aspect to take into account during a military operation.== ==It is difficult to learn a new language.==

- As written, these ideas are seemingly unrelated. The reader may be confused as to why these two sentences appear back to back. What is the connection here? What is the author trying to prove? In this case, you need to create some type of bridge (in the form of a transition) to indicate the connection between these two ideas.

  Suggestion: ==Culture is an important aspect to take into account during a military operation.== ==Marines entering a foreign country often encounter difficulties understanding the norms of society within the culture.== ==For example, it is difficult to learn a new language.==

- **The text highlighted in green provides a transition and explains how these two ideas are connected.**

Headings

Headings, like transitions, **help to orient the reader**. While **headings do not replace transitions**, they do signal to the reader that you are starting a new topic/section. There are a few basic guidelines for using headings.

> These are the recommended Chicago guidelines for headings. Not all documents will follow this exact format. For instance, since the MCU Communications Style Guide is such a long document, it uses many different types of headings and subheadings. You can develop your own heading format as long as you are consistent. For instance, if you've bolded the first two main headings in a document, you would not want to write the third main heading in italics.

1. ***The first rule of using headings is to be consistent***: For instance, don't use all capital letters for one main heading and use all lowercase letters for the next heading.

2. ***Main headings***: Main headings should be centered and should use all capital letters.

3. ***Sub-headings***: Subheadings should be left-aligned, bolded, and the first letter of each word should be capitalized. Only use subheadings if you have more than one.
   ▪ If there are components that need to be further broken down under a subheading, the section title should be indented (5 spaces using the Tab key) and should appear in bold italics. The first letter of the first word should be capitalized.

Reevaluating Research/Supporting Evidence

When revising your paper, it is important to evaluate your use of sources. Do you provide enough primary and secondary sources to support your topic? Do you provide too much information from other sources and not enough original thought (e.g., a large number of direct quotes)? Are the conclusions you draw from your research logical?

If you are using Microsoft Word 2007, you will find a resource on the toolbar that will help you to format citations and bibliography entries in APA, MLA, and Chicago Style. Chapter 7 provides in-depth instruction on formulating proper citations using **Chicago Style, which is the style used at MCU.**

Evaluating Use of Sources/Documentation:

1. Do you provide adequate documentation for your sources?

2. Are all direct quotations and paraphrases **endnoted**?

3. Is the paper written in your own words? Sometimes it's easy to accidentally copy an author's phrasing, tone, or style without noticing. Remember to reread your document to make sure that if you have borrowed words or ideas from an author they are properly documented.

4. Does your paper include a bibliography?

The Second Revision: Word Choice, Clarity, and Verbosity

Once you have corrected the structural and logical errors in the paper, it's time to begin revising the document for sentence-level problems. Below are some strategies that you can use to revise your paper for these elements.

Evaluating Your Word Choice: Tricks of the Wordsmith's Trade[75]

A wordsmith is a fluent and prolific writer, and is often someone who writes professionally. Wordsmiths are experts in the use of words and phrasing of ideas. The following are strategies wordsmiths use for effective writing:

▪ Use strong, active verbs, such as *illustrates* instead of *shows*

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[75] Bovee & Thill, *Business Communication Today* (Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall, 2000), 122-161.

- Use specific nouns, such as *Clausewitz* instead of *the strategist*.

- Avoid using intensifiers, such as *extremely, really, importantly.*

- Avoid indefinite pronoun starters, such as *it* and *their.*

- Keep verbs in active voice (subject before verb), but use passive voice to soften criticism.

- Avoid changing verbs into nouns and adjectives with endings such as: - ion, - ment, and - ency.

- Express parallel ideas in sentences in parallel form. Chapter 10 provides an explanation of parallel structure.

- Use a mix of sentence lengths and structures for variety, but select the type that best fits the thought.

- Keep sentences short – 20 words on average – but vary the length to make your writing (or speaking) interesting and to keep the audience's attention.

- Rely on short words, but make sure they are appropriate for the assignment and academic level.

- Use words that are familiar to the audience.

- Avoid clichés.

- Avoid obsolete or pompous language including cumbersome words, trite phrases, and elaborate sentences.

Clarity

Although a concept or idea may seem clear to you as the author, it is not always clear to the audience. Try to evaluate your writing from your audience's point of view. Use language your audience will understand. Describe, illustrate, and repeat key ideas that may be less familiar to your audience. You may explain difficult concepts by connecting any new information to existing ideas or experiences the reader may have with a topic.

1. Make sure you select words that convey your exact intent. For example:
    It was a <u>good</u> meeting.   vs.   The meeting <u>resolved three questions</u> . . .

2. Avoid abstract language.
Abstract language refers to words that cannot be represented by anything in the physical world.   Concepts and ideas (i.e., Communism, diplomacy, love, freedom, success) are usually represented in abstract terms. While you will need to use abstract

terms in your writing, you will need to break these terms down so the reader can understand what they mean within the context of your paper. For instance, many theorists and flag officers may have different visions of what "success in the long war" should mean. Avoid using too many abstract terms without providing concrete examples. Abstract words are relative and depend on your schema (the way you see the world)

> **Example 1:** moral
> Even in a Western society, individuals will have different ideas regarding what is moral. If you say you are going to evaluate whether a commander's actions were "moral," you will need to provide some sort of framework or criteria to measure "morality."
>
> **Example 2:** Freedom needed to be establish.
> Revised sentence: Political freedoms, such as freedom of speech and assembly, needed to be established.
>
> **Example 3:** George Washington had an indelible influence on the nature and character of the early Continental Army.
> *Nature and character are abstract terms. When the author refers to character is he/she referring to the army's structure, morale, morals? "Nature" usually refers to an inherent characteristic or manner—however "nature" in this case takes on a different meaning. The author may need to be clearer about what the term "nature" means in this context.

3. Avoid clichés, euphemisms, idioms, and careless phrasing that may produce two interpretations.

> *Cliché***:** It was <u>raining cats and dogs</u>.
>
> *Euphemism***:** She <u>passed away</u> last year.
>
> *Idioms***:** apple of my eye, catch 22

4. Jargon

> Jargon is technical language used by a specific group of individuals as a form of "shorthand." While jargon is understood by the people within that specific group, it is meaningless and confusing to outsiders.
>
> Avoid using jargon when writing for or speaking to people outside of your group. Use jargon sparingly when writing for or speaking to people within your group.
>
> *Examples***:** cammies vs. uniform; head vs. restroom

5. Acronyms and Abbreviations

Avoid using ambiguous acronyms and abbreviations.

> Spell out the full names of agencies, departments, and programs <u>the first time you use them in a paper</u>.

Example of an Acronym: PME—Professional Military Education

Examples of an Abbreviation: etc. (etcetera); Prof. (professor)

Avoid Verbosity/Eliminate Fluff

Verbosity refers to writing that is too wordy or long. If you can eliminate any words within a sentence without changing the meaning or grammatical structure, cut them out. <u>Less is more in writing</u>.

1. Eliminate filler words:
   If your writing is cluttered with filler words and phrases, you seem less credible, even if the ideas you are presenting are valid and original.

   Example 1: In light of the fact that = *because*

   Example 2: Afford me the opportunity = *allow me*

2. Eliminate unnecessary prepositional phrases:

   Example: This character and nature of the Continental army was a direct result of the profound significance of George Washington's motives for joining the cause and his actions during the war.

   Possible revision: George Washington's motives for joining the continental army and the actions he performed during the war directly shaped the character and nature of the continental army.
   * The second sentence still contains prepositional phrases, but many of the unnecessary phrases were eliminated.

3. Look for sentences that begin with "there are" or "it is." Forms of the verb "to be" (am, is, are, was, were) can tend to make your sentences wordy and less active.   If possible, try to replace these verbs with active verbs (argues, establishes, proves, debunks).

Vary Sentence Length and Structure:

There is a good chance you will lose your audience's attention if each sentence has the same basic structure. Try to vary your sentence length and construction in order to keep your writing interesting.

Example of a paragraph with repetitive sentence structures: The IRGC conducts special operations beyond the Iranian borders. The IRGC also conducts domestic security operations. The IRGC is a religiously zealous organization that perceives the United States as the most significant threat to the Iranian regime. The IRGC controls the Iran's nuclear weapons program, which endangers both regional order and U.S. interests.

Revised paragraph: The IRGC is a religiously zealous organization that conducts both domestic security operations and special operations beyond the Iranian borders. This organization is in charge of Iran's nuclear weapons program and has identified the United States as the most significant threat to the Iranian regime, making it a potential danger to regional order and U.S. national interests.

The Third Revision: Diction and Tone

Diction

While many people use the word diction to refer to pronunciation, it actually **refers to the type of vocabulary choices that are made in a document**. When evaluating your diction, you need to question whether the vocabulary used in your paper suits your intended purpose and audience. For example, the vocabulary used when writing to a friend is much different from the type of vocabulary used in a formal research paper.

> **Example 1:** correspondence vs. letter
>
> **Example 2:** oversight vs. accident
>
> **Example 3:** better vs. improvement

The word pairs above are similar in meaning; however, they have varying levels of formality. For instance, while you may use the word *oversight* in formal writing, you would probably choose to use the word *accident* instead if you were conversing with a friend.

Tone

Tone **refers to the attitude the author adopts towards the audience and the subject** of the paper or presentation. Tone may be formal or informal, depending on the audience and the purpose of the communication. Tone refers not only to the degree of formality used, but also to the specific attitude of the writer. For instance, tone may be grave, serious, sarcastic, impassioned, experimental, or plain-spoken.

The Final Step in the Writing Process: Proofreading

The final step in writing a scholarly research paper is proofreading. In this step, you will **examine sentence-level errors**. A good proofreader possesses skills in spelling, punctuation,

grammar, and usage, as well as a good eye for typographical errors and the willingness to look things up if they don't seem quite right.

All of these qualities can be learned, but it takes awareness to know your weak skills and a commitment of time to find the appropriate English guideline in order to make something correct. It is important to remember that **appropriate English mechanics and grammar affect your overall credibility**.

Proofreading Strategies:

When you proofread, you are looking for punctuation and grammatical errors within your document. **So, why is it so difficult to proofread your own work?** When you read the document forwards, there is more of a tendency to fill in missing words and punctuation marks. In addition, your perceptual processes have been trained to ignore transposed letters, improper capitalization, misplaced punctuation, and other writing errors because of experience with normal reading.[76] In addition, **do not rely on spell check!** It will not catch all the errors. Below are several strategies you can use to review your work:

- Read your document backwards. That is, read each page from the bottom right corner to the top, starting at the last word in each line.

- Place your finger under each word and read the word silently.

- Make a slit in a sheet of paper that reveals only one line of type at a time. Proof the words from the bottom right corner to the top of the page, one line at a time.

- Read the document out loud and pronounce each word carefully. You can also use a tape recorder to record your words as you read. Then play the tape back to yourself and listen for discrepancies.

Paper Order:

During this final step in the revision process, it is important to proofread not only for surface level errors (punctuation and grammatical errors, for example) but for errors in formatting as well. Research papers must be formatted correctly and must include all components in order to be accepted for grading and for publication. When formally turned in, an academic paper should have the following front matter components:

- Some papers (MMS papers, e.g.) may require a report documentation page. This is placed before the title page.

- The title page includes the name and address of the university in the top right hand corner. If you are turning in the paper for the Master of Military Studies degree program, the degree name should be centered below the address in bold, and in all capital letters. A line breaks up the degree name from the title of the paper. The title of the paper goes

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[76] Bovee & Thill, *Business Communication Today* (Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall, 2000), 117.

below this line, and is in bold. MMS papers must include the following blurb, in all caps, below the title, "SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF MILITARY STUDIES." Your name goes below this information, and the academic year goes below your name.

- The table of contents is centered in bold, and italicized at the top of the page. Make sure that the page numbers listed in the table of contents correspond exactly to their respective pages in the body of the paper.

- The disclaimer is centered in bold, and it goes on the lower half of the page. This is necessary to show that the thoughts and ideas presented in your paper are yours, and not those of your respective university. The disclaimer also includes a permission to use outside sources, with acknowledgement given. Note that you must give credit to authors whose ideas you have quoted or paraphrased in your paper. For more information on citations and plagiarism, see Chapter 7.

- The executive summary is centered, in bold, and italicized two double spaces below the top of the page. Executive summaries briefly indicate those things that you will discuss more in-depth in your paper. They allow readers to get a sense of the topic and the research you have done without reading the paper in its entirety. Bear in mind that some readers may not be familiar with military terms and concepts; thus, it is important to avoid jargon and clearly portray the main ideas.

- The preface is centered, in bold, and italicized at the top of the page. It contains several key pieces of information, including "reasons for undertaking the work, method of research (if this has some bearing on readers' understanding of the text), [and] acknowledgements." See the preface at the beginning of this style guide for an example of information to include.

- The appendix includes material that supplements the information in the main text, but it is not essential information the reader needs in order to understand that text. This information may include complex tables, maps, graphs, or technical/field notes. Each appendix should address a different topic and should be labeled with letters or numbers (e.g. Appendix A, Appendix B).

- The endnotes should go after the appendices, but before the bibliography. Use endnotes to provide attribution each time you quote or paraphrase a source. See Chapter 7 for more information about how to format endnotes in Chicago Style.

- The bibliography should appear after the endnotes and should begin on a new page. The bibliography includes only sources that you have cited in your paper. It should be alphabetized. See Chapter 7 for more information about how to format the bibliography in Chicago Style.

Resources for Additional Help:

- Alred, Gerald J., Charles T. Brusaw, and Walter E. Oliu. *The Business Writer's Companion.* New York: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2002.
- Chicago - www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/
- Hacker, Diana. *A Writer's Reference.* Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007.
- Ferrara, Cosmo F. "The Seven Deadly Sins of Business Writing." *Government Executive* (December, 1991): 22-25.

Proofreading Checklist

Spelling:
- Is the document free of spelling errors/typos?
- Is the document free of omissions and repetition of words?
- Have you used the correct word? (e.g. to vs. too)
- Are the dates correct?

Grammar:
- Is your document free of fragments and run-on sentences?
- Does the paper have correct subject/verb agreement?
    - Make sure the subject and verb of each sentence agree in tense and number. (singular/plural)
        - Incorrect: The General has three Purple Heart.
- Does the paper have correct tense agreement?
- Academic papers should always be written in a uniform verb tense.
    - Because most of the papers you will be writing will be historically based, you will usually write in the past tense. In the following example, the writer switches between the past and present tense, which can be confusing to the reader.
        - Incorrect: General Smith is a great leader. He spoke at the university last spring. His talk is mostly focused on irregular warfare.

Punctuation:
- Are the commas in the right place?
- Have you capitalized all the proper nouns?
- Do you have a punctuation mark (period, exclamation mark, question mark) after each sentence? See Chapter 10 for more punctuation and grammar guidelines.

Formatting:
- Is your title page complete and correct? Are all of the names spelled correctly?
- Do the pages in your table of contents correspond to the respective pages in the paper?
- Do you have a disclaimer?
- Is your executive summary short and concise, and free of jargon?
- Are each of your headings correctly bolded and/or italicized?

Chapter 12: Using Visuals

Although concept mapping and mind mapping visuals were discussed in "Chapter 8: Prewriting," this chapter will address other types of visuals (e.g., tables, graphs, and charts) you may use in your papers. While concept maps may demonstrate relationships between ideas as you develop your paper, this chapter's visuals will help you to visually depict the data you collect and interpret for your reader/audience in the form of tables, graphs, and charts.

When to Use Visuals

Visuals are an important component of oral presentations and academic papers. They help to emphasize a specific point, demonstrate relationships, and simplify complex information. The number and type of visuals you need for a presentation depends on your audience and purpose. Visuals also make you appear more prepared and help to gain the audience's attention. By introducing a visual element to your presentation, you are **tailoring your presentation to both auditory and visual learners.**

When should you convey your message though speech? When and how should you provide the audience with visual information (via handout, PowerPoint)? The following guidelines provide an answer to these questions.

Information that should be conveyed orally:
- First and last thing said
- Pictures and stories
- Sensory rich information

Information that should be written:
- Names
- Numbers
- Details
- Dates
- Sequence of events

How to Create an Effective Visual

Don't outline every point of your presentation on your visuals. Visuals should explain or emphasize a particular point. Try to arrive early for the presentation so that you can make sure your equipment is in working order. Always have a backup plan/visual in case the technology is not functioning properly.   Follow these guidelines to maximize the effect of your visual:

Important components of effective visuals:

- Have a clear title that identifies the purpose of the visual

- Clearly indicate what data is being measured

- Use clearly labeled units

- Use clearly labeled legends

- Identify the source of your data

- If the visual is a reproduction, give credit to the original author of the visual

- Use at least 18-point font for your visuals. If you are using PowerPoint, or other presentation software, use at least 24-point font.

Types of Visuals: When to Use Them

Use different types of visuals for presenting different information. For example:

- **Tables** should be used when the reader needs to identify exact values.

- **Pie charts** are helpful when you are comparing a part to a whole.

- **Graphs** are useful when the reader needs to focus on relationships.

    o **Chart/line graphs** should be used to compare one item to another, or to show a shift in trends over time.

The following guidelines provide information on when and how to use the various types of visuals and the type of information your visuals can illustrate.

Guidelines for using tables:

- Use tables when you want the audience to focus on exact numbers

- Make sure you round to simplify data

- Provide column and row totals or averages when they are relevant

- Put items you want readers to compare in columns instead of rows

- When you have multiple rows, double space after every five entries

- Label each table with an Arabic numeral (Table 1, Table 2, etc.)

- Provide a title that identifies the subject

- The label and title should be flush left and should appear on separate lines

- Below the table, identify the source of the information in a note (see example below)

Note: See Table 1 below for the proper use and format of a table.

Table 1

Personnel Authorization for Selected Reserve and Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserves

Service	Selected Reserve Force Authorization	Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserve Authorization
Army National Guard	350,000	
Army Reserve	205,000	14,970
Naval Reserve	83,400	14,152
Air National Guard/Air Force Reserve	182,900	14,153
Marine Corps Reserve	39,600	2,261

Source: U.S.C. 10, Subtitle E, Part II, Chapter 1201, § 12001 Authorized Strengths: Reserve Components

Guidelines for using pie charts:

- Start at 12 o'clock with the largest or most relevant percentage

- Make sure your chart is a perfect circle

- Limit the number of segments to seven. If there are more than seven parts to your data, you may want to combine some of the smaller percentages into a miscellaneous or other section.

- Label the segments outside the circle. Labels can be hard to read if placed inside the circle.

Note: See the chart below for the proper use and format of a chart.

28 Feb 2006

2,261

7,000

31,000

60,000

■ Active Reserve □ IMA ■ SMCR Units ■ IRR
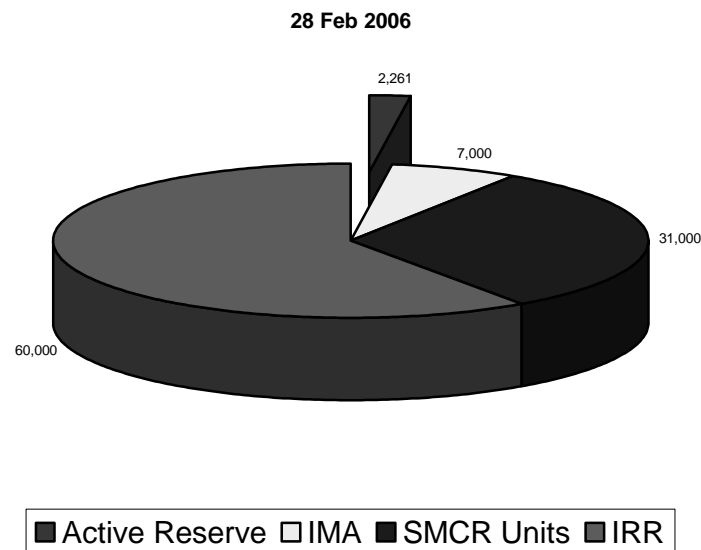
Figure 1: Marine Corps Reserve Personnel
Source: Garcia, Joseph J. "Total Force Integration: Transforming the United States from Good-to-Great." (Manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007).

Guidelines for using graphs:

- Put bars in a logical or chronological order

- Label the horizontal and vertical axes

- Be consistent with your labeling. Put all labels inside or outside the bars, otherwise labels may be difficult to read.

- Use different colors for different bars only if they have different values

- Avoid using perspective

Note: See the graph below for the proper use and format of a graph.

% of Selected Reserve Authorization

Legend: ■ Army National Guard　■ Army Reserve　□ Naval Reserve　■ Air National Guard/Air Force Reserve　■ Marine Corps Reserve
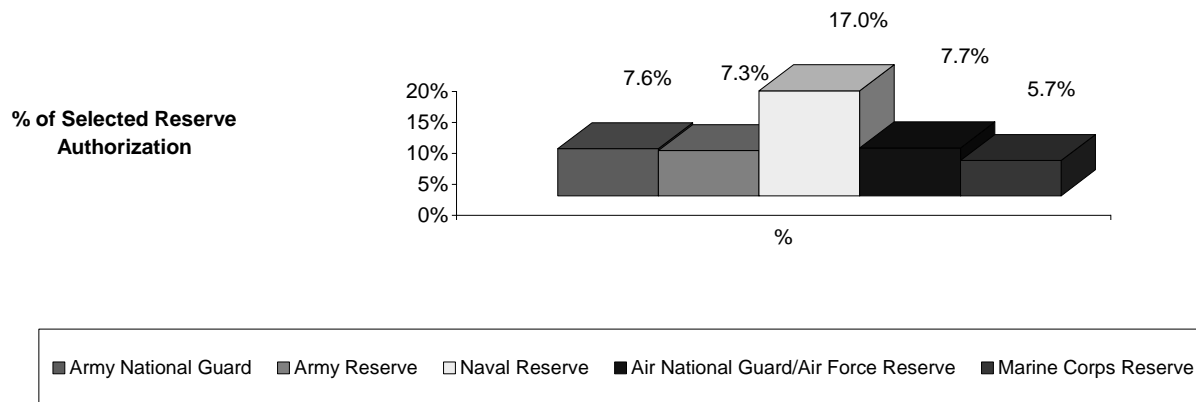
Figure 2: Percentage of Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserves
Source: Garcia, Joseph J. "Total Force Integration: Transforming the United States from Good-to-Great." Manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007.

Guidelines for using line graphs:

- Label horizontal and vertical axes

- When time is a variable, put it on the horizontal axis

- Avoid using more than three different lines on one graph. These may be difficult to interpret if the lines cross over each other

- Avoid using perspective

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Exercise and Pulse Rate

Pulse Rate in Beats Per Minute

Time in Minutes

◇ Mabel – 36 year old office worker
□ Albert – 26 year old former college athlete
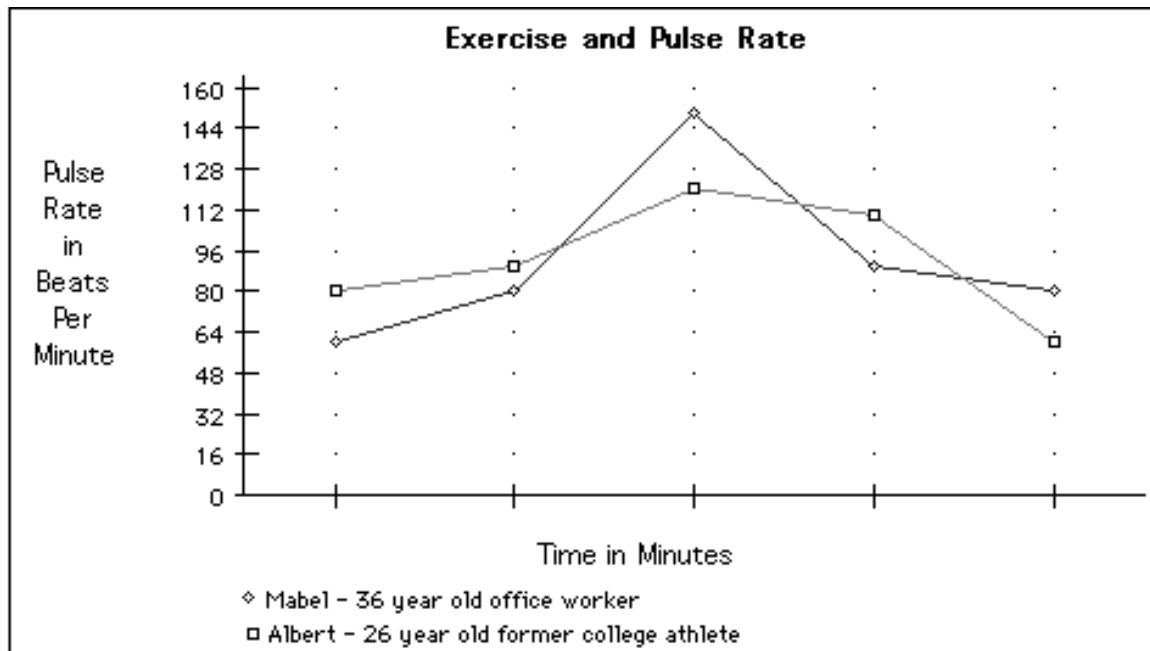
Figure 3: Pulse Rate Comparison
Source: Lamb, A., and L. Johnson. *Charts and Graphs* (October 2003)
http://www.twingroves.district96.k12.il.us/ScienceInternet/ChartsGraphs.html (accessed August 15, 2007).

Visuals Checklist:

- Determine whether the information you wish to present would be conveyed best through speech or visual representation.
- Determine what type of visual will be most effective for the type of information you wish to present:
  - Tables: Use when the reader needs to identify an exact value
  - Pie charts: Use when the reader needs to compare a part to a whole
  - Graphs: Use when the reader needs to focus on relationships
  - Line charts: Use when comparing relationships or shift over time
- Make sure the visual is easy to read. Follow guidelines introduced in the *Important Components of Effective Visuals* section.

Chapter 13, Part 1: Listening

Listening in Organizations

Effective listening is an essential component of the communication process. In order to succeed as a leader, it's necessary to know your subordinates and to understand them. It's important to know each individual's needs, problems, and goals; the only way to discover these is through questioning and listening.

Most people are poor listeners by nature. According to a study conducted by **Dr. Ralph G. Nichols** at the University of Minnesota, people only remember about half of what they hear. Within eight hours, most listeners will then forget 1/3 to 1/2 of the already partially-retained information. Fortunately, effective listening is a skill, and like any other skill, you can improve with practice. Just as you can train yourself to become a better writer, you can also train yourself to listen effectively.

Hearing vs. Listening

Hearing is part of the listening process. It is the word we use to describe the physiological process in which sound waves strike the eardrum and cause vibrations that are transmitted to the brain. Listening refers to a more complex psychological process and involves interpreting and understanding the significance of the sensory experience.

Listening in the Classroom vs. in the Workplace

While classroom lectures tend to follow a particular format that highlights key areas and main points, most of the information you will work with in your professional career is conveyed through conversation. Unlike formal lectures, conversations can tend to be roundabout, disorganized, and full of tangents. So, how do you focus on the main point of a conversation? In order to be an effective listener in the workplace, you need to listen not only for information, but also for feelings.

Types of Listening[77]

- *Content listening*
  Listener's objective: When you listen for content, your objective is to identify and associate key points of the message, so that you concentrate and listen for clues to the message's structure. You should create a mental outline of the speaker's remarks. Afterward, review what you've learned. Take notes, but do so sparingly so you can concentrate on the key points. This is the type of listening you do when your boss gives you guidelines for a specific project. You also tend to listen for content in a classroom setting.

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[77] Kitty O. Locker and Stephen Kyo Kaczmarek, *Business Communication: Building Critical Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. 2004).

- *Critical listening*

  Listener's objective: When you listen critically, you want to evaluate a message at several levels (logic of the argument, strength of the evidence, validity of the conclusions, implications of the message, speaker's intentions and motives, omission of relevant points). This involves interaction between you and the speaker as you try to uncover the speaker's point of view. Absorbing information and evaluating it at the same time is difficult, so reserve judgment until the speaker is finished.

- *Active listening*

  Many psychologists consider active listening to be the most valuable skill you can learn for relating well to others. It is the "missing link" in most people's ability to communicate. Active listening is putting your understanding of what the other person said into words.

  Listener's objective: The objective of an active listener is to understand the speaker's feelings, needs, and wants. Don't give advice or judge, just listen and let the other person know that you are listening.

  Nathan Miller stated: "Conversation in the United States is a competitive exercise during which the first person to draw a breath is declared the listener." For some reason, our society believes that the speaker has power and the listener is weak. In reality, the opposite is true, as Voltaire so eloquently stated.

  Active listening is an extremely valuable skill. It cements personal relationships with clients, colleagues, family, and friends. Through active listening, you can build trust with others around you. If you demonstrate attentive listening skills, your subordinates are less likely to go around you in order to speak with someone who will listen to his or her concerns. This situation prevents you from being cut off without the feedback you need to manage. Most importantly, however, by being an active listener you keep the channels of communication open, allowing you to bridge gaps in your understanding before they become crises.

  How to be an active listener:

  - Make eye contact with the speaker, but don't stare.

  - Ask questions/ask for more information.

  - Don't interrupt or change the subject.

  - Make sure you listen for due dates, resources, restrictions, unique details.

  - Focus on what the speaker is saying (substance), not his or her appearance; don't prejudge the speaker or the message.

- Spend time actually listening to what the speaker says, not just planning a rebuttal to the speaker's message.

- Avoid making assumptions; don't ignore instructions, even if they seem unnecessary at first.

- Listen for the speaker's feelings.

- Pay attention to the speaker's tone of voice, facial expression, and body language.

- Paraphrase what the speaker says. Paraphrasing is a good way to make sure you actually understand what the speaker is saying. Also, it will let the speaker know that you are listening.

- Mirror the speaker's feelings.

- Tell the speaker how you feel.

- Offer to help solve the problem at hand.

- Remember to always focus on what the speaker is saying, even if you disagree with him or her. This will show that you respect what he or she is saying. When someone feels that you have listened, it is more likely that he or she will afford you the same courtesy.

Effective Listening Communication Checklist:
- Effective listening is an important (though often overlooked) component in the communication process.
- In the business world, you need to listen not only to content, but also for feelings and to let coworkers and supervisors know that they have been heard.
- Active listening is important because it keeps the channels of communication open, allowing you to bridge gaps in your understanding before they become crises.

Chapter 13, Part 2: Developing Oral Presentations

How do Spoken and Written Communications Differ?

When you deliver an oral presentation, you only have one chance to convey your message. The audience cannot go back over the given information as they would a document. For this reason, it is important to catch the audience's attention right away and to zero in on important points. You also want to make sure your presentation follows a comprehensive format that is appropriate for your audience and your purpose. While complex language and sentence structure may be appropriate in a formal paper, you want to simplify your language when delivering an oral presentation. Visuals should also be simple and easy for the audience to digest.

Use the checklist on the next page to evaluate yourself as a public speaker in these 15-skill areas or practices. Then, add up your points and compare yourself with the scale below. Evaluate yourself using the five point scale below.

Self-Evaluation of Current Presentation Skills

	Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Usually 4	Always 5
I deal with my anxiety by breathing deeply, releasing tension, visualizing my success, etc.					
I deal with my audience by making eye contact, encouraging feedback, and answering questions clearly.					
I deal with myself as a visual aid by gesturing and moving naturally, maintaining good posture, and dressing appropriately.					
As I begin to prepare for a presentation, I carefully consider what my goals are.					
As I begin to prepare for a presentation, I carefully consider who my audience will be.					
When writing a script, I make sure that I cover my major ideas clearly and accurately.					
My script includes both a preview statement and a review statement to enhance my clarity.					
When writing my script, I carefully work on the introduction so that it will catch my audience's attention.					

	Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Usually 4	Always 5
When writing my script, I plan for my conclusion to echo my introduction, look to the future benefits, or both.					
When planning and designing my visuals, I carefully select visuals so that I don't use too many.					

Sub-Total:

	Never 1	Sometimes 2	Often 3	Usually 4	Always 5
I rehearse my presentation before an audience.					
I write rehearsal notes that include only the key points.					
I rehearse standing up, gesturing, and moving about.					
When making my presentation, I maintain a high level of enthusiasm.					

Sub-Total: _____

Total: _____

60-75:　　　　I am an able presenter.

40-59:　　　　I am above average, but could improve in some areas.

Below 40:　　　 Visit the Leadership Communication Skills Center for oral communication improvement techniques.

Process of Creating an Oral Presentation: Three Steps

The format for oral and written presentations is similar. Your presentation should follow a logical order and include an attention-grabbing introduction, as well as a conclusion that leaves the audience with a sense of finality.

You also need to think about the format of your presentation. For instance, how long should the presentation be? How much money do you have to spend on the presentation? What would be the most effective way to present your information? What type of presentation will you use?

Step 1: Plan Your Presentation

*Audience Analysis***:**

When creating an oral presentation, the first thing you want to do is analyze your audience. Conduct an audience analysis, just as you would if you were writing a paper.

How familiar is the audience with your topic? If you are speaking with co-workers, try to find out the types of questions and objections they may have about your topic. If you know you are presenting information on a controversial topic, focus on a piece of information that the audience will be most likely to accept. Often, one presentation is not enough to change the minds of an organization or person. You may need to do one or multiple follow-up presentations.

*Purpose***:**

What is the main goal of the presentation? To inform? To persuade? To propose a particular course of action? Make sure you adapt your presentation to fit your audience and purpose. If you provide too many superfluous details in your presentation, the audience will begin to lose interest.   Generally, oral presentations function to inform, persuade, or create goodwill.

- **Informative Presentations:** Informative presentations are meant to teach or inform the audience.   Training sessions and briefings are two types of informative presentations.

- **Persuasive Presentations:** Persuasive presentations are generally used to encourage the audience to adopt a particular philosophy or course of action. The use of visuals and personal anecdotes are particularly useful when performing a persuasive presentation because they work to simplify complex information and build interpersonal bonds with the audience. Persuasive presentations may be used if you are trying to encourage your superior to adopt a particular strategy or course of action to accomplish a mission.

- **Goodwill Presentations:** Goodwill presentations are used to entertain or to reinforce group membership.   Goodwill presentations usually deal with a subject that is meant to better the audience. They can also be used to validate commitment to an organization or to reinforce an organization's values.[78]

Addressing Constraints: Once you have addressed these main questions, you need to identify the guidelines for the presentation. For instance, what is your budget? How much time will you have to deliver the presentation? Who will attend the presentation? Who will provide the audio-visual support you need? Will you need to provide handouts to the audience?

Research: After you have clearly identified the audience, purpose, and guidelines for the presentation, it is time to begin researching your topic. The audience will view you as a more credible source if you are able to support your claims with scholarly research.

Step 2: Write Your Presentation

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[78] Kitty L. Locker & S. K. Kaczmarek, *Business Communication: Building Critical Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. 2004).

When it comes to writing your presentation, you want to follow nearly the same format you would for creating a written document. First, define your main idea. Then, begin to construct an outline. Figure out an effective body, opening, closing, and question and answer session for your presentation. Oral presentations, like written papers, must demonstrate a logical progression of ideas and organization, or you risk losing your audience. You need to start thinking about format and organization in this stage.

Writing Your Presentation: Format

- **Monologue presentation:** Monologue presentations are focused only on one speaker. This type of presentation takes on more of a lecture format. The audience is generally uninvolved until the end of the presentation, when the floor is opened for a question and answer session. This type of presentation can be boring to the audience if the speaker does not organize the presentation in a creative, logical manner.

- **Guided discussions:** In a guided discussion, the speaker presents a particular problem or issue that is facing a company or organization. The speaker presents information about the topic, and then opens the floor to the audience. The audience is free to work towards a collective solution. Guided discussions generally take more time than monologue presentations; however, they may result in more effective solutions because the audience has a chance to work together and reach an agreement on how a problem should be handled.

- **Sales presentation:** A sales presentation (whether to pitch a product, solution, or new idea) is often structured as a conversation rather than a monologue. When delivering a sales presentation, you need to determine the audience's needs and anticipate objections. This type of presentation is very interactive. The audience should usually talk at least 30% of the time.[79]

Writing Your Presentation: The Introduction

Remember, your opening should grab the audience's attention and should also provide an overview of your main points. Just as the introductory paragraph of your written communication introduces your thesis and shows the reader the points you intend to cover, the introduction of your speech should also show the audience how you will prove your point. Some methods to grab the audience's attention include:

- Begin with a surprising fact

- Tell a story (anecdote)

- Ask a question

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[79] Kitty L. Locker & S. K. Kaczmarek, *Business Communication: Building Critical Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. 2004), 392.

- Begin with a quotation

Writing Your Presentation: The Body

Once you have thought about or written your introduction, you need to decide how you will organize your presentation. The organizational strategy you use depends on your audience and your presentation's purpose. It also depends on your topic. A list of **organizational strategies** from which you may choose follows:

- **Descending order of importance:** Start with your strongest point first, in case you run out of time.

- **Chronological order:** Start with the past, then move to the present. End the presentation by proposing a solution or vision for the future.

- **Problem-causes-solution:** Explain the problem, its causes, and propose a solution.

- **Excluding alternatives:** Explain the problem and introduce proposed solutions. In general, you want to begin with solutions that would be relatively easy to implement. Explain why the alternative solutions don't work, then propose your own solution.

- **Pro-con:** Give all the reasons in favor of something, and then argue against those reasons. This allows the audience to see the weaknesses of both sides.

- **1-2-3:** Discuss three aspects of a topic. The discussion may resemble a paper with a thesis statement. Your three points may act as the three supporting elements (paragraphs).

Writing Your Presentation: The Conclusion

Your conclusion is the part of the presentation your audience is most likely to remember. Therefore, you need to make your word choices count. Some ideas for concluding your presentation include:

- **Restate your main point**. However, polished speakers don't use the exact same words they use in the introduction.

- **Refer back to your opening statement**. This reference allows your presentation to come full circle and creates the feeling of "summing up" all of your points.

- **End with a new vision** of /for the future. Be positive.

- **Propose a solution for or implications of** your topic.

Step 3: Polish Your Presentation

First, review the content of your presentation. Is it to the point? Are there any visuals or ideas you can eliminate? In this stage of developing the presentation, you should be focused on making the information as concise as possible. Cut out any excess information.

Next, check the presentation for mechanical errors. A presentation that is full of mechanical errors (grammar, usage) can completely discredit even the most eloquent speaker.

Then, practice the presentation. Is your presentation the appropriate length? Does it have a logical flow of ideas? Often, a presentation will sound different than it looks on paper.

Finally, practice your presentation with your visuals. Keep talking while changing or handling slides. Speak loudly to compensate for the audience's divided attention between yourself and the visual. Only display the visual when you are ready to talk about it.

Strategies for Dealing with Nervousness

Most people, even experienced public speakers, encounter some anxiety when tasked with delivering an oral presentation. However, adequate planning and practice often help to ease this stress. Here are a few guidelines to help you deal with the stress and convert your jitters into positive energy.

- ***Be prepared***: Chances are that if you prepare and know your subject well, you will feel more confident during your presentation. Make sure to run through the entire presentation at least once so that you are not presenting the information for the first time when you speak to your audience. Use relaxation and deep-breathing techniques when you rehearse.
- ***Use visuals***: Visuals will help to keep you on track and direct some of the audience's focus away from you, the speaker. This may help you feel more at ease. However, if you use visuals, practice using them when you practice your presentation.

- ***Avoid excess caffeine or alcohol***: Alcohol and caffeine can affect your nervous system and may make it difficult for you to calm down or to convert anxiety into positive energy.

- ***Be positive***: If you think positively about the presentation, you will be more likely to give a convincing delivery.

- ***Take several deep breaths and relax before giving a presentation***: Make sure you have some down time before you begin to present. Relax and mentally review the information you will speak about.
  Note: During a presentation, it is natural for filler words (e.g., um, like, you know) to permeate your speech if you are nervous while presenting information. This often sounds informal, and you could lose credibility as a speaker if you do not avoid using such fillers. Taking slow, even breaths will allow you to stay focused, and when you feel

yourself about to utter that fateful "um" in the middle of a thought, simply pause for a moment while you think of what you are trying to say.

- *Use strong gestures and movements to channel excess energy*: Strong gestures also make you appear more confident as a speaker.

Appropriate Body Language

Shakespeare wrote that all orators give two speeches at the same time: the one that is heard and the one that is seen. Human beings tend to believe the nonverbal over the verbal. You can't NOT communicate.

Use Effective Non-Verbal Communication during the Presentation:

- **Maintain eye contact with the audience:** Speakers who look directly at the audience are usually thought to be more informed and more trustworthy than those who do not.

- **Movement/Gestures:** Unless the presentation is very formal, feel free to move around; use large, confident gestures. Body movement and gestures make a verbal message complete.

- **Posture**: The way you position your body tells others how confident or nervous you are; how open you are for questions or feedback; and, how interested you are in what they have to say.

- **Use your visuals effectively**: Be sure not to block your visuals; make sure you understand your visuals well enough that you can look at the audience while you explain them. Try not to look at the screen.

Using Notes during Your Presentation

Nearly all speakers bring notes, even if they do not refer to them during a presentation. Your notes should provide you with all the information you need in order to carry on your presentation, even if your mind goes blank. Most speakers like to write their notes on large note cards because they hold more information. Do not look at your notes the entire time. Maintain eye contact with the audience as much as possible; hold your notes high enough so that you can look at them discretely.

Question and Answer Session

Most oral presentations are followed by a question and answer session. Often, this session requires addressing any points the audience did not understand in the presentation. It may also require you to fill in any gaps in the information you have presented. You want to make sure you prepare for the difficult questions before you present.

Here are a few guidelines to help you prepare for the question and answer session:[80]

- Ask yourself, what do I know as a person, company, or industry?
- Play devil's advocate. Make a list of objections the audience may have. Look for weaknesses in your argument.
- Are there any specific gaps in your knowledge? Identify these gaps. Don't be afraid to admit that you don't know everything about a given subject.
- What does the audience need to know? Often, you want to be selective about the information you give out. You don't want to reveal sensitive information or take up too much time addressing the technical aspects of any one issue.

The question and answer session is easier to tackle when you are familiar with the types of questions you will face. While the content of the audience's questions may vary, there are three standard question formats.

The message question

The message question is less of a request for more information and more about the speaker's wish to express his or her viewpoint or to share information. In this case, the speaker is often looking for affirmation of his or her opinion. Some key phrases that set off message questions are: *Don't you think, have you ever considered, what would happen if* ...

> **How to handle the message questions:** Listen carefully to the question/ statement the speaker presents. Agree with the speaker if you can. If you cannot agree, rephrase the question and answer it in a way that strengthens your position and complies with your purpose.

The getcha question

The getcha question is used to uncover an error in logic or inaccurate information in the speaker's material. These questions are generally used to make the speaker feel uncomfortable or appear uninformed. Some key words that signal a getcha question are "why?" or "how come?"

> **How to handle the getcha question:** Never argue with a questioner. Try to rephrase the question to make it appear less hostile. If the questioner persists, you can present information that backs up both sides of the argument. Remember to maintain your sense of humor.

The answer –seeking question:

According to Paul R. Edwards in an article published in the *Public Relations Journal*, only 10% of all questioners are actually looking for an answer. These questions generally begin with "how".

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[80] Jean H. Michulka, *Let's Talk Business* (Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1988), 267-268.

How to handle the answer-seeking question: Make sure your answer reinforces your purpose. If you don't know the answer to a question, admit it. Be sincere.

During The Question and Answer Session:[81]

- Let the audience know how you will handle questions. Try to anticipate questions and concerns that may be stated, and integrate these issues into the body of your presentations.

- Don't nod your head to indicate that you understand the question the speaker is asking. This will signal to the speaker that you agree with the question. If the question is contrary to your argument or a counter-solution to your solution, you may lose your credibility and the audience's support.

- Repeat the question before you answer. This technique indicates that you understand the question at hand and will give the speaker a chance to clarify any misunderstandings. Restating the question will also give you the chance to rephrase hostile questions.

- If someone asks a question about a concept or point that you have already explained, answer his or her question without embarrassing the speaker.

- If the audience does not have any questions, take a minute or two to summarize your main idea again.

Group Presentations

At some point in your professional or academic career, you will probably have to perform a group presentation. While most of the same guidelines for solo oral presentations also apply to group oral presentations, group presentations tend to take more planning. While you may be able to cover your topic in your own order and style in a solo presentation, you need to let group members know exactly what you will speak about and how you will present your information. If your presentation is disorganized or repetitive, the audience will quickly lose interest. Organizational problems can usually be prevented by having the group practice the presentation in its entirety at least once before presenting to the audience.

How to Organize a Group Presentation[82]

- Outline your topic, then divide each topic into sections.
  - Assign each group member his or her own section of a topic.
  - Constantly switching speakers makes the presentation more interesting to the audience.

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[81] Kitty L. Locker & S. K. Kaczmarek, *Business Communication: Building Critical Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. 2004).

[82] Kitty L. Locker & S. K. Kaczmarek, *Business Communication: Building Critical Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. 2004), 403.

- Coordinate your visuals so that the presentation flows well.

- Plan transitions, such as introducing the next member and his or her topic, between speakers and enforce strict time limits on each group member's speech.

- Make sure you practice your presentation as a group. It will allow the group to see where transitions are needed and ensure that everyone is meeting his or her time constraints. **During the Presentation:** Make sure to introduce each speaker and the general topic he or she will present. Also, be sure to look engaged while other members of your group are speaking, as it will help to establish credibility with the audience.

> **While at Marine Corps University, you will be required to give a variety of oral defenses and presentations. See Appendix C for MCU's Oral Presentation Rubric.**

> **When preparing an oral presentation, remember:**
> - Part of becoming a polished public speaker is being aware of your weaknesses.
> - When it comes to writing your presentation, you want to follow nearly the same format you would for creating a written document. First, define your main idea. Then, begin to construct an outline.
> - Most people, even experienced public speakers, encounter some anxiety when tasked with delivering an oral presentation. However, adequate planning and practice often help to ease this stress.
> - Use effective non-verbal communication during the presentation. Maintain eye contact and good posture; use effective visuals.
> - The question and answer session is easier to tackle when you are familiar with the types of questions you will face. Make sure you prepare for the difficult questions before you present.
> - While most of the same guidelines for solo oral presentations also apply to group oral presentations, group presentations tend to take more planning. Organizational problems can usually be prevented by having the group practice the presentation in its entirety at least once before presenting to the audience.

Chapter 13, Part 3: Participating in Seminar Discussions

Remember, just talking does not make you an effective seminar participant. Instructors are not impressed with students who talk merely to hear themselves talk. Part of being a good participant is how you listen to others and work to move class discussion forward.

Characteristics of Effective Seminar Participants

- Provide solid analysis, synthesis, and evaluation

- Move conversation forward without instructor's prompting

- Do not dominate conversation or discussion in order to move conversation forward

- Demonstrate deep knowledge of the readings through information/fact giving, rather than relying on personal experience

- Clarify/elaborate/follow-up/ask questions to extend the conversation

- Reference supporting materials by citing specific parts of the text and/or previous readings/films/discussions

- Actively listen to other participants through comments/questions/follow up

- Avoid drifting to trivial points

- Provide opinions, suggestions, and clarifications

- Initiate topics

- Make eye contact with the class, not just one or two people

How to Prepare for Active Classroom Participation: Before Class

- **Be an active reader**
  - Take extensive notes on the assignment.

  - Write down the main ideas and logic behind the assigned material, and then connect the ideas.

  - Without looking at your text or notes, summarize the chapter/assignment in your own words.

- **Be a critical reader**
  - Are there any weaknesses in the author's argument?

  - Do you agree/disagree with the author? Why?

- **Reflect**
  - Write down any concepts or ideas that need further clarification.

  - Make a list of questions to ask during seminar.

  - How does the assignment relate to other material you have covered in class?

How to be an effective seminar participant:

- Part of being a good participant is how you listen to others and work to move class discussion forward.
- Provide solid analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.
- Ask follow-up questions.
- Be an active, critical reader. Reflect on course material before class.

Appendix A

Article Submission Guidelines for Selected Military Periodicals

Name of Periodical	Periodical Information
Air & Space Power Journal http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/airchronicles/howto1.html	Published in six languages, focuses on "air, space, and cyberspace power topics relevant to the USAF at the operational and strategic levels of war"
Armed Forces Journal http://www.afji.com/	Focuses on, "military technology, procurement, logistics, strategy, doctrine and tactics," and "provides special coverage of special operations, U.S. Coast Guard and U.S. National Guard developments."
Joint Force Quarterly http://www.ndu.edu/press/jointForceQuarterly.html	*JFQ* is the Chairman's joint military and security studies journal designed to inform and educate national security professionals on joint and integrated operations; whole of government contributions to national security policy and strategy; homeland security; and developments in training and joint military education.
Military History Magazine http://www.historynet.com/military-history	*Military History Magazine* focuses on "the history of warfare" and "covers land, naval & air warfare from ancient times to the late 20th century."
Journal of Military History http://www.smh-hq.org/jmh/jmh.html	The Journal of Military History is peer-reviewed and publishes "scholarly articles on the military history of all eras and geographical areas."
Small Wars Journal *http://smallwarsjournal.com/site/about/*	The Small Wars Journal "facilitates the exchange of information among practitioners, thought leaders, and students of Small Wars, in order to advance knowledge and capabilities in the field."
Military Review Journal http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/MilitaryReview/AuthorGuide.pdf	Military Review, "seeks articles of a practical nature about issues associated with regional engagements or division- or corps- level campaign planning and execution." Articles based on original research or practical experience are preferred.
Naval War College Review http://www.usnwc.edu/Publications/Naval-War-College-Review.aspx	The Naval War College Review focuses on "public policy matters of interest to the maritime services. Articles published are related to the academic and professional activities of the Naval War College."
Parameters http://www.carlisle.army.mil/usawc/Parameters/default.cfm	*Parameters* is a peer reviewed journal and focuses on "the art and science of land warfare, joint and combined matters, national and international security affairs, military strategy, military leadership and management, military history, ethics, and other topics of significant and current interest to the US Army and the Department of Defense."

Royal United Services Institute Journal *http://www.rusi.org/publications/journal/info/ref:I453DDB42AC510/*	The *Royal United Services Institute Journal* publishes "articles, whether original, compiled, or translated, which seem likely to be of interest to the Service at large, and are of sufficient importance to be worthy of insertion in its limited pages." Book reviews "related to international and national defence and security issues, as well as military history" are also accepted.
SeaPower Magazine http://www.navyleague.org/sea_power/about_seapower.php	*SeaPower* "publishes a diverse range of authoritative and informative articles to educate the American people, their elected representatives, and industry on the need for robust naval and maritime forces."
Naval History http://www.usni.org/membership/NavalHistoryAuthorGuidelines.asp#sub	*Naval History* "Provides an Independent Forum to advance the professional, literary, and scientific understanding of sea power and other issues critical to national defense."
Proceedings http://www.usni.org/magazines/AuthorGuidelines.asp	*Proceedings* is an independent publication that "Aims to stimulate, illuminate, provoke, and, when appropriate, entertain. " The publication provides readers with i with "information of value to their pursuit of the profession of arms."
Cornell's Institute for Public Affairs Journal http://www.cipa.cornell.edu/cip_thecurrentsubmission.html	The *Journal* presents "timely and relevant research and analysis on contemporary public policy discourse." In addition to full-length articles, the journal "accepts shorter pieces with more of a policy paper format"…and "book reviews."

Military Essay Contests

Military Essay Contest	Contest Information	Deadline
John A. Adams Center for Military History and Strategic Analysis Cold War Essay Contest http://www.wilsoncenter.org/index.cfm?topic_id=1409&fuseaction=topics.item&news_id=608860	**Guidelines:** topics must relate to US military during the Cold War years (Korean and Southeast Asia conflict topics are also considered if they bear relevance to the Cold War) **Eligible:** papers no longer than 25 double spaced pages **Why Submit:** winners considered for publication in *The Journal of Military History*, $2000 and plaque for first place	**15 July 2010**
The Military Officers Association of America Military Professional Essay Contest http://www.moaa.org/serv_prof/serv_prof_resources/serv_prof_resources_essaycontest.htm	**Guidelines**: topics must be pertinent to maintaining strong US defense **Eligible**: active duty military, former and retired military, dependents, and students and faculty at any Professional Military Education Institution, 18 and up, multiple entries allowed **Why Submit**: Top three essays published in *Military Officer*, $1000 for first place	**31 July 2010**
US Naval Institute General Prize Essay Contest http://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings/General-Prize-Essay-Contest-Rules.asp	**Guidelines**: substantial, accurate ideas for improvement, no specific topics required **Eligible**: open to all eligible for membership in US Naval Institute **Why Submit**: winning essay published in *Proceedings*, $10,000 and Lifetime membership with framed certificate for first place	Must be submitted **prior to September 2010**, all essays obtained by Institute in the year prior to the due date are eligible
Major General Harold Chase Prize Essay Contest http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/majgen-harold-w-chase-prize-essay-contest	**Guidelines**: essays must propose new thoughts or ideas that bear a positive impact on the betterment of the US Marine Corps **Eligible**: Active duty Marines and members of Selected Marine Corps Reserve **Why Submit**: $3000 and plaque for first place	**Judging in February**
General Robert E. Hogaboom Leadership Writing Contest http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/gen-robert-e-hogaboom-leadership-writing-contest	**Guidelines:** essays must take an original approach to leadership in the Marine Corps **Eligible:** Active duty Marines and members of Selected Marine Corps Reserve **Why Submit:** $3000 and plaque for first place	**May 2011**

Military Essay Contest	Contest Information	Deadline
Colonel Francis F. "Fox" Parry Writing Award http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/col-francis-f-fox-parry-writing-award	**Guidelines:** essays must relate to past wars or current wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, best "combat initiative" paper published in *Marine Corps Gazette* over the last two years will be chosen **Eligible:** must have been a participant or observer of Marines initiating efforts in combat zones **Why Submit:** $1000 and plaque for first place	
Northrup Grumman Annual Robotics Essay Contest http://www.usni.org/magazines/EssayContests.asp	**Guidelines:** essays must focus on new and improved robot applications **Eligible:** members of the Naval Institute **Why Submit:** $10,000 and Lifetime membership for first place, also published in *Proceedings*	**July 2010**
US Army War College Strategic Landpower Essay Contest	**Guidelines:** topics must relate to the chosen topic for the specific year; TBD	**January 2011**
Secretary of Defense National Security Essay Competition	**Guidelines:** topics must relate to US National Security Strategy, especially in terms of joint/integrated operations, maximum of 5,000 words	
US Strategic Command Excellence in Strategic Deterrence Writing Award	**Guidelines:** topics must relate to deterrence, but should not be limited to nuclear deterrence, recommended length is 10-30 pages **Why Submit:** author of top paper at each military war college and staff college will get a tangible reward, and will be submitted to USSTRATCOM for placement in competition for an invitation to attend Deterrence Symposium	
Center for Homeland Defense and Security's Annual Essay Competition	**Guidelines:** topics must relate to homeland security **Eligible:** anyone with an interest in homeland security issues **Why Submit:** winners get $1500 and are invited to attend CHDS forum in Monterey, CA	**January 31, 2011**

Appendix B
Writing Assignment Grading Rubric for MCWAR, CSC, SAW

Maximum Point	Thesis and Evidentiary Support of Thesis		
	55-60 Points (A Level)	48-54 Points (B level)	43-47 Points (C Level) Unacceptable
10	Substantial (interesting, creative), clearly stated thesis. Thesis directly links to assignment.	Interesting thesis, but was not as clearly stated. Thesis adequately links to the writing assignment.	Weak (obvious), poorly stated thesis. Thesis does not link directly to assignment.
50	Thesis strongly supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is accurate and thorough. Supporting argument reflects appropriate depth of analysis and interpretation of data. Argument reflects appropriate depth of research. Effective conclusion.	Thesis is adequately supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is less thorough. Supporting argument reflects adequate depth of analysis and interpretation of data. Argument reflects adequate depth of research. Conclusion is stated.	Thesis is not adequately supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is inaccurate or weak. Supporting argument reflects inadequate depth of analysis/interpretation of data. Argument reflects inadequate research. Conclusion is inconclusive or not stated.
	Organization		
	13-15 Points	12-13 Points	10-22 Points
15	Proper ordering of argument and evidence. Plan outlined and clear to reader. Plan is sustained throughout the paper. Each element of assignment is addressed.	Minor flaw in ordering of argument and evidence. Plan is apparent, but not faithfully sustained throughout the paper.	Random ordering of argument and evidence. No apparent plan.
	Style		
	13-15 Points	12-13 Points	10-12 Points
15	Clear, easy to follow logic. Good transitions between sentences/between sentences and paragraphs. Paragraphs focused on one idea. Precise and appropriate word choice.	Logic is evident but more difficult to follow. Some inconsistency in the flow between sentences and paragraphs. Minor problems with word choice.	Not clear, hard to follow. Poor flow or awkward transitions between sentences and paragraphs. Many incorrect/inappropriate word choices.
	Mechanics and Grammar		
	9-10 Points	8-9 Points	7-8 Points
10	Consistently correct sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.	Occasional errors in sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.	Frequent errors in sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.
Total Numeric Score =			
Final Letter Grade =			**Legend** 90-100 = A 80-89 = B 70-79 = C
Instructor Comments			

Oral Presentation Grading Rubric for MCWAR, CSC, SAW

Maximum Point Value	Presentation of Thesis and Supporting Argument		
	40-45 Points (A Level)	35-39 Points (B Level)	32-35 Points (C Level) Unacceptable
10	Clearly stated purpose statement that directly links to the assignment. Skilled use of catchphrase to get audience attention.	Purpose statement less clearly stated, yet adequately links to the next assignment. Standard ideas and concepts that engage audience.	Weak purpose statement that doesn't link to the assignment. No use of catchphrase to get audience attention.
35	Argument is strongly supported with evidence. Supporting evidence is accurate and thorough, with effective and relevant examples. Appropriate use of military doctrine/terminology. Effective conclusion; links to purpose statement.	Argument is adequately supported by evidence. Supporting evidence is somewhat misleading or less thorough, with weak examples. Adequate use of military doctrine/ terminology. Conclusion stated; inadequate link to purpose.	Argument is poorly supported by evidence. Supporting evidence is inaccurate, not thorough, with poor examples. Inadequate use of military doctrine/ terminology. Poor conclusion; doesn't link to purpose.
	Speech Organization		
	18-20 Points	16-18 Points	14-16 Points
20	Plan is clear to audience and sustained throughout. Effective transitions. Clear, easy to follow logic and flow of ideas. Proper ordering of argument and evidence. Clear summary of presentation before conclusion.	Plan is less clear to audience and/ or not sustained. Acceptable transitions. Logic is less clear, but ideas are still comprehensible. Minor flaws in ordering of argument and evidence. Weaker summary of presentation before conclusion.	Plan is not clear to audience and not sustained. Poor transitions; rambling occurs. Logic and ideas are difficult to follow. Random ordering of argument and evidence. Poor summary before conclusion.
	Presentation Style		
	18-20 Points	16-18 Points	14-16 Points
20	Language is appropriate to audience/occasion. Consistently uses correct grammar. Convincing, memorable presentation of ideas.	Language is acceptable for audience/occasion. Occasional errors in grammar. Adequate presentation of ideas.	Language not appropriate for audience/occasion. Frequent errors in grammar. Monotonous, boring.
	Physical Delivery		
	14-15 Points	13-14 Points	10-12 Points
15	Ease and control in delivery. Smooth recovery from mistakes or interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact enhance/ bolster the verbal message. Vocal variety intensifies audience interest. Effective choice and use of interesting visual aids.	Acceptable ease and control in delivery. Acceptable recovery from mistakes/ interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact support the verbal message. Vocal variety holds audience interest. Visual aids acceptable, but not memorable.	Awkward or embarrassed presentation. Awkward recovery from mistakes/ interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact distract from the verbal message. Vocal tone distracts from audience interest. Visual aids are distracting and/ or confusing.
Total Numeric Score =			
Final Letter Grade =			Legend 90-100 = A 80-89 = B 70-79 = C
Instructor Comments			

Student Participation in Seminar Discussion Rubric

Criteria	Student #1	Student #2	Student #3
PROVIDES SOLID ANALYSIS, SYNTHESIS, AND EVALUATION, without prompting, in order to move the conversation forward			
INITIATES AND ORIENTS OTHER PARTICIPANTS TO NEW IDEAS rather than gatekeeping or dominating discussion in order to move the conversation forward			
DEMONSTRATES DEEP KNOWLEDGE OF THE TEXT AND THE QUESTION through his/her information/fact giving/seeking rather than relying on his/her opinion			
COMES TO SEMINAR PREPARED with notes, references, and/or citations			
CLARIFIES/ELABORATES/FOLLOWS-UP/ASKS QUESTIONS to extend the conversation			
REFERENCES SUPPORTING MATERIALS by citing specific parts of the text and/or previous/readings/films/discussions			
ACTIVELY LISTENS TO OTHER PARTICIPANTS through his/her comments/questions/clarification/follow-up			
Total Score			
Instructor Comments			

Legend
3 = Strong ("A" work)
2 = Acceptable ("B" work)
1 = Unacceptable ("C" work)

Final Grade
A = 19-21
B = 14-18
C = 7-13

Appendix C

Guidelines for Chicago Manual of Style

This handout provides simple guidelines for using Chicago Style. See the *Chicago Manual of Style* in the Leadership Communications Skills Center, Library, or on the Internet for further instructions.

> **Disclaimer:** Be aware that the Marine Corps University Style Guide **does not** simply rely on Chicago Style; rather, the authors of the MCU style guide have also included information from Diana Hacker's *A Writers Reference* and JMIC's research and writing guides in addition to the Chicago Manual of Style. For this reason, you will notice that some of the Chicago Style Guidelines do not agree with a few of the examples used in the MCU Style Guide; however, both styles are correct.

1. **Title Page**
   - The title page presents the full title of the paper; the subtitle, if any; your name; the course title; the instructor's name; and the date.
   - The title and subtitle should appear centered and double-spaced 1/3 down from the top of the page. If you are using a subtitle, end your main title with a colon.
   - Your name should appear in the middle of the page.
   - Near the bottom of the page and centered should appear the course title. Double-spaced and centered below the course title is the instructor's name, and double spaced and centered below the instructor's name is the date.
   - An example of a properly formatted title page can be found on the following page.

2. **Margins**
   - Use one-inch or 2.54 centimeter margins on all sides of all pages. All information should be within these margins.

3. **Spacing**
   - All text should be double-spaced, including all notes and bibliography. (However, see "Block quotations" below.)
   - Indent the first line of a new paragraph, and the first line of each item in a vertical list, by using the tab key (not the space bar).
   - Block quotations (quotes of at least one hundred words *or* eight lines *or* more than one paragraph, even if the paragraphs are very short) always start a new line and may be indented or set in smaller type or a different font from the text; they may have less space between lines. Quotation marks are not used in block quotations.

> **While this is the accepted Chicago Style way of formatting long quotes, the MCU Style Guide follows Hacker's guidelines for quotations, which state that quotes exceeding four lines of text should be treated as long quotes.**

4. **Notes**
   - Use the endnote function of the word processor to create notes.
   - Use superscript for reference numbers *in* the text.
   - The reference numbers (followed by a period) in the notes themselves are normal size.
   - Number notes consecutively throughout the paper, unless the paper has internal divisions (chapters, for example).
   - A reference number in the text appears at the end of a sentence or clause. It will precede a dash, but follow any other punctuation, including a parenthesis. Two spaces follow the superscript number.
   - A note number usually follows a quotation.

4a. **Endnotes**
   - Endnotes appear at the end of the document after the appendices, but before the bibliography.
   - Endnotes are used to cite quoted or paraphrased information or to clarify an idea, study, or reference that is mentioned in the text.
   - **MCU prefers the use of Endnotes, not Footnotes.**

4b. **Footnotes**
   - Footnotes appear at the bottom of the page.
   - Footnotes work well if immediate knowledge of the source is essential to readers.

5. **Bibliography**
   - Entries in the bibliography are alphabetized by the last name of the author(s) or, if no author or editor is given, by the title or a keyword readers are most likely to seek.
   - Single space within each entry in the bibliography with the first line of each entry flush left and the subsequent lines indented ½" from the left margin (hanging indent). Double space between each entry.

6. **Miscellaneous**
   - In bibliographies, authors' names are inverted to put the last name first. In footnotes, however, names are given in the normal order.
   - In bibliographies, the main elements are separated by periods. In footnotes, they are separated by commas.
   - Pages are numbered consecutively (either on the top or bottom, both flush left on the back or left-hand page and flush right on the front or right-hand page), and pages without numbers on them, such as the title page, count in the pagination.
   - When mentioning a source author in the text, use the first and last name the first time. Thereafter, the last name alone is sufficient.
   - Section headings are short, meaningful, and parallel in structure and tone. If a section is divided into subheadings, at least two such subheadings must be used, each subheading on its own line separate from the following text, with one or two lines of space above the subheading. See "Chapter 11: Revising, Editing, and Proofreading" for more information about headings.

Title

This is an example of a Chicago Style title page.

Your Name

Title of Course

Name of Course Instructor

Date

←— 2.54cm or 1" —→ Title ←— 2.54cm or 1" —→

(double space)

Your Name

This is an example of the Chicago Style title page format.

Title of Course

(double space)

Name of Course Instructor

(double space)

Date

Glossary of Grammatical Terms:

Abbreviation: An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase. Abbreviations should only be used if the text is clear to the reader. The abbreviated term must be spelled out completely the first time it is used in a piece of writing.   Try to avoid abbreviations in formal writing as much as possible.

Acronyms: An acronym is a type of abbreviation formed by combining the first letter of a series of words in a phrase. Spell out an acronym the first time it is used in a paper and identify what it means.

> **Example:** The United States Marine Corps (USMC) was formed

Active Voice vs. Passive voice: Avoid using a passive voice in your writing. Your writing will be stronger and more convincing if you use an active voice. The passive voice is formed by combining any form of the verb *be* with a verb in the past tense. (Be verbs include: am, is, are, were, been.)   When you use the passive voice, the subject of the sentence is acted upon. When you use the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs an action.

> **Active voice:** The soldier threw the grenade.

> **Passive voice:** The grenade was thrown by the soldier.

Adjective: An adjective is a word that modifies a noun. An adjective may answer the questions: How many? To what extent? Which? What kind of?

> **Examples:** long, twelve, purple, interesting

Adverb: An adverb is a word that modifies a noun, verb, adjective, or another adverb and indicates place, manner, or degree. Adverbs frequently are formed by adding (ly) to a verb; however, many words can act as adverbs in absence of the (ly) suffix.

> **Examples:** he ate *quickly*, she spelled *precisely*, they called *late*, a *very* inaccurate map.

Adverbial phrase: Adverbial phrases are phrases that indicate time, place, manner, or degree. The main word in an adverbial phrase is an adverb. The adverb may be introduced by an intensifier (often another adverb) or followed by a modifier (usually a prepositional clause or phrase).

> **Example:** Before I went to bed, I made sure all the doors were locked.

Clause: A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. Clauses are found in complex and compound sentences.

> **Examples:** *Because she was wrong, since we left base, around the same time*

Colon: A colon is used between two main clauses when the second clarifies or explains the first. The colon may also introduce a list.

> **Example:** My grocery list includes the following: paper towels, apples, and milk.

Comma: A comma indicates a pause in the text and helps to indicate relationships between words and phrases within a sentence. Generally, the comma is used to emphasize a particular part of a sentence or to clarify meaning.

> **Example:** The colonel, said the general, is crazy.

Comma splice: Linking two main clauses with only a comma is referred to as a comma splice. A comma splice can often be corrected by replacing the comma with a semicolon, using a conjunction, or restructuring the sentence.

> **Example:** The professor was disappointed, the student turned in his thesis late.

> **Corrected Example**: The professor was disappointed; the student turned in his thesis late.

Conjunction: Conjunctions are joining words. They may connect sentences, clauses, phrases, or words.   Conjunctions include: and, but, for, so, yet, or, and nor, etc.

Contractions: Contractions are shortened forms of words or phrases in which an apostrophe indicates the deletion of letters or words.

> **Examples:** won't, can't, don't

Coordinating Conjunctions: Coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, so) link together two clauses that are equally important.

Dash: The dash may be used for emphasis or to represent a sudden break in thought. Frequently, the dash is used when a writer wishes to represent linguistic patterns in dialogue.

Dependant Clause: A dependant clause contains a subject and a verb; however, it cannot stand alone as a sentence.   Dependant clauses standing alone constitute sentence fragments.

> **Example:** Unlike independent clauses, dependant clauses cannot stand alone as a sentence.
> **Note:** *Unlike independent clauses* is a dependant clause because it is not a complete idea and cannot stand on its own.

Fused Sentence: A fused sentence, commonly known as a run-on sentence, occurs when a writer neglects to add a comma or period to clarify meaning.

> **Example:** I wanted to go to the store I didn't have time.

Hyphens: Two and three word modifiers that express a single thought are hyphenated when they precede a noun. A modifier should not be hyphenated if it follows the noun it modifies. Hyphens are generally used to create the impression of unity or to clarify ambiguity, particularly to distinguish a compound word from a word with a different meaning.

> **Example 1:** The speech was delivered by a well-spoken young man.

> **Example 2:** The president vetoed the anti-immigration legislation.

Independent clause: An independent clause contains a subject and a verb and is able to stand alone as a sentence.

> **Example:** We went to the store.

Italics: Italics are used to indicate book titles, foreign expressions, or to add emphasis. Most printers and word processors allow for the use of italics. If yours does not, underlining may be used instead. However, do not switch back and forth between underlining and italics. Pick one method and stick to it throughout an entire piece of writing.

Noun: A noun is a word that names a person, place, animal, quality, object, or idea.

> **Examples:** plane, ground, soldier, mission, government

Parallel Adjectives: If the order of adjectives can be reversed or if *and* can stand between them, the adjectives are considered parallel and should be separated by a comma.

> **Example 1:** *big, red* car

> **Example 2:** *long hot* day

Parallel Construction: Single words should be balanced with single words, phrases should be balanced by phrases, and clauses should be balanced by clauses.   A sentence is more easily understood and more pleasing to the ear when parallel construction is used.

> **Example:** "I choose my friends for their good looks, my acquaintances for their good characters, and my enemies for their intellects."Oscar Wilde

Parenthesis: Parentheses enclose explanatory words, phrases, or sentences. The text within the parentheses is usually used to clarify the meaning of a particular passage without affecting its meaning. However, the parenthesis may provide a reader with a note of interest or additional information.

> **Example:** There was a small dent in the plane (though it is unknown how it got there).

Prefix: a type of affix that occurs before a root word and holds a particular meaning (un, in, non, anti).

      Examples: *un*able, *in*adequate, *non*smoker

Preposition: A preposition is a word that combines with a noun, pronoun, or noun equivalent to form a phrase. Common prepositions include: from, of, for, to, with, upon, over.

Prepositional Phrase: A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and combines with a noun, pronoun, or noun equivalent to form a phrase.

      Examples: in the evening, around the bend, under the desk

Pronoun: A word used to stand for a noun or noun equivalent. A pronoun refers to a person, place, or thing using a general term.

      Examples: him, her, it, he, she, they, them, our, we, us, you

Proper Noun: A word referring to a specific person, place, or thing is a proper noun.

      Examples: George Bush, Long Beach Island, Potomac River

Semicolon: The semicolon is referred to as a mark of separation. While a comma is a pause, a semicolon indicates almost a complete stop. The semicolon and the comma are frequently confused. A semicolon may connect two related independent clauses in the absence of a coordinating conjunction, but a comma cannot.

      Example: I ran the Marine Corps marathon today; my legs feel like rubber.

Sentence: A sentence is a group of related words that expresses a complete thought. A sentence may express a question, command, statement, or desire.

Subject: The subject is the part of the sentence that acts upon a verb. The subject is always a noun or pronoun, but can also be an entire noun clause.

      Examples: The *cat* chased the mouse. *I* broke the television.

Suffix: A type of affix that occurs after a root word and attaches a particular meaning to the word (ly, ed, s, ing).

      Examples: slowly, beginning, stopped

Transitional Words: Transitional words are usually set off by commas. Some common transitional words are: therefore, however, moreover, accordingly, yet, likewise, also, otherwise, hence.

Verb: A verb is a word that indicates an action or state of being.

    Be Verbs: am, is, are, was, were.

    Action Verbs: throw, run, shout.

Glossary of Commonly confused words and word pairs:

accept/except:

    accept: To agree to take or receive. I accepted the proposal.

    except: With the exclusion of. They all received A's, except for Lieutenant Smith.

adverse/averse:

    adverse: Unfavorable, undesirable. The medication had no adverse effects.

    averse: Having strong opposition towards. He is not averse to launching a preemptive war.

affect/effect:

    affect: causing or expressing emotion. Example: The general delivered an affective speech.

    effective: Producing a desired outcome. He constructed an effective war strategy.

bear/bare:

    bear: the animal. I shot the bear.

    bare: Uncovered, minimal. The hot asphalt burned my bare feet.

there/their/they're:

    there: refers to a place. I don't want to go there.

    their: plural possessive pronoun. It was their error.

    they're: contraction meaning they are. They're going to employ guerilla war tactics.

elicit/illicit:

    elicit: To evoke or draw out. To elicit a response.

illicit: illegal, prohibited for moral or ethical reasons. An illicit drug trade.

emigrate/immigrate:

emigrate: To leave one's country or region to live in another. Emigrate refers to the act of leaving a place or region. Miguel emigrated from Spain to America.

immigrate: refers to the arrival and settling in a new country or region. Miguel emigrated from Spain, but he immigrated to America.

eminent/imminent

eminent: Issuing from a source. Example: eminent domain.

imminent: Likely to occur at any moment. The attack is imminent.

fewer/less:

fewer: Use fewer for things you count individually. There were fewer soldiers in Iraq last year.

less: Use less when referring to something that is measured. Next time you make the coffee, use less water.

If/whether:

If is used when one occurrence depends on another. I will attend the Family Day activities *if* my spouse can come.

Whether is used when there are two potential outcomes. I don't know *whether* my spouse will attend the Family Day activities or have to work.

Its/ it's:

its: *Its* is a possessive term. The dog chased *its* tail.

it's: *It's* is a contraction meaning it is. *It's* time to wake up.

lay/lie:

lay: to place something. Objects lay, people do not. The verb *lay* must have an object. I laid my keys on the counter. He always lays his paperwork on my desk.

lie: to recline. People *lie* in bed. After a long day's work, all I want to do is *lie* down.

sit/set:

sit: to be seated. Sit is an action meaning to be seated. Don't sit on your gun.

set: to place something. Set and lay are used similarly. Both require an object. Set the money on the counter.

than/then:

Than is a comparative word. My plan is better than yours.

Then represents sequence. We will eat dinner, then go to the movies.

whose/who's:

Who's is a contraction meaning who is. *Who's* the president of MCU?

Whose indicates possession. *Whose* idea was this?

your/you're:

Your is a possessive pronoun. *Your* uniform is on backwards.

You're is a contraction meaning you are. *You're* wearing your uniform backwards.

who/whom:

Who is always the subject of a sentence and performs an action. *Who* is in battalion ten?

Whom is always the object of a sentence and has something done to it. The person *whom* you spoke with about the plan is not here.

that/which:

If you can eliminate a clause without altering the main idea of a sentence, use *which.*

A *which* clause requires commas, a *that* clause does not. The car, *which* was a Ford, was totaled. That car *that* ran the red light was totaled.

Appendix E

Paper Formats: According to the SECNAV Correspondence Manual, point papers, talking papers, position papers, and information papers should be formatted specific to DON guidelines. The following is a brief description of each type of paper and a sample of each paper's format.

1. **Point Paper**: According to the SECNAV Correspondence Manual, "The point paper is a concise document designed to present key points, facts, positions, or questions in a brief and orderly fashion. It has often been referred to as a discussion. It is normally used as a reminder and assumes complete knowledge of the subject by the intended user."[83] Point papers are typically only one page in length, and should be written "in a brief, 'telegraphic' style which can stand alone; however, graphs, schedules, and background data may be attached. The heading contains the classification of the paper, the office code of the originator, the date, and the caption 'POINT PAPER.' The subject is indicated in concise terms. Next, the salient points which relate to the subject are listed in short, concise statements which are logically arranged. These points are followed by an even more concise summary."[84]

2. **Talking Paper:** SECNAV Correspondence Manual guidelines state that the talking paper "is a narrative form which can be used to advance a point of view or summarize an action or proposal."[85] The document "provides concise comments for use during a meeting or oral presentation. The talking paper should stand by itself without reference to back-up material. It should be written by an action officer for use by his superior as a 'memory tickler' or quick reference outline. Hence, the author should think of what the user will say and include key facts that the user will require."[86] In regards to the format, "The heading contains the classification of the paper, the office code of the originator, the date, the caption 'TALKING PAPER,' and for whom the paper is prepared. The subject is indicated in concise terms. The background sets forth what has gone before. The discussion is a concise narrative of all the salient points relating to the topic under discussion. References that are used as a source are cited in the discussion. Recommendations are reduced to clear, succinct statements providing the approving

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[83] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 67-68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

[84] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 67-68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

[85] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

[86] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

authority with a means for simple authentication of the paper. The name of the action officer who prepared the paper should be included in the last paragraph."[87]

3. **Position Paper**: According to the SECNAV Correspondence Manual, the position paper is a "staff action document prepared by an action officer. It is a study-type document which develops and recommends an official position on a particular proposition. It includes a clear statement of why an official position is required, essential background on the problem or subject, and a rationale for the recommended position. A position paper usually requires rapid research to identify key sources of information pertaining to the topic. The author must make a sound analysis of the information and write the paper in a clear and accurate format. Figure 11-12 provides the doctrinal format for the position paper. The heading contains the classification of the paper, the office code of the originator, the date, and the caption 'POSITION PAPER.' The subject is indicated in simple terms. If references are used, they should be standard and self-explanatory. The problem statement tells what the problem is for which the position is being developed. This problem statement is usually stated, 'To develop a . . . position.' The author also states why a position is required. The background states what has gone before. The positions of other agencies are addressed when appropriate; otherwise, this part of the position paper has the caption 'Not Applicable' inserted. The recommended position is stated in clear, concise terms. The rationale includes statements which support the position taken. The recommendation is what you recommend to be done, e.g., 'approve attached statement' or 'study...,' as well as a decision block for the decision to be recorded."[88]

4. **Information Paper:** This correspondence manual states that an information paper "is normally used to provide factual information in concise terms to prepare the recipient for discussions and/or meetings. Only essential facts concerning the subject should be included and developed in an orderly and logical manner. Information papers are self-explanatory and will not refer to enclosures except for additional tabular data, charts, etc. Information papers are normally attached to other documents, hand-carried, or transmitted by informal note. An address and signature block are not required. See figure 11-16 for recommended information paper format. Place the appropriate office symbol/code and date in the upper right hand corner of the page. (The date is the day of dispatch from the originating agency.) The format may be altered to meet specific needs."[89]

The following pages in Appendix E include the formats for the above mentioned paper types.

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[87] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

[88] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 67, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

[89] Commandant of the Marine Corps, *HQMC Supplement to the Department of the Navy (DON) Correspondence Manual,* MCO 5216.20, April 7, 1992, 68, http://www.marines.mil/news/publications/Documents/MCO%205216.20.pdf (accessed June 22, 2011).

CLASSIFICATION

Code/Office
Date

POSITION PAPER

Subj: The subject matter is indicated briefly but in
           sufficient detail to facilitate filing and future
           reference.

Ref: (a) References are listed as appropriate.
     (b) If none are appropriate, enter the notation "None."

1.   PROBLEM

The problem statement tells what the problem is for which the
position paper is being developed. Usually stated "To
develop a . . . position . . . ."

2.   WHY REQUIRED

     a.   A position paper also states why the paper is
          required.

     b.   Is it directed by higher headquarters?

     c.   . . . .

3.   BACKGROUND

     a.   The background sets forth in concise terms what has
          gone before.

     b.   It provides answers to such potential questions as: Is
          this an ongoing thing? Did something occur requiring
          reexamination?

     c.   . . . .

4.   POSITION OF OTHER AGENCIES

The position of other agencies are addressed when appropriate,
otherwise this part of the position paper has the caption "Not
Applicable" inserted.

Figure 11-12.- - Format for Position Paper.

ENCLOSURE (1)

5.   RECOMMENDED MARINE CORPS POSITION:

The recommended position is stated in clear, concise terms. When it is to be promulgated, it is usually attached on a separate sheet.

6.   RATIONALE

a.   The rationale includes concise statements which support the position taken.

b.   . . . .

7.   RECOMMENDATION

The recommendation is what you recommend be done: e.g., "Approve the Marine Corps position contained in paragraph 5," or "reconsider. . . ." A decision block is also included for the decision to be recorded by the approving authority.

/s/ _____

(Staff Agency Head)

For Decision by the Commandant.

(NOTE: Refer to figure 11-20 when preparing a decision ladder for approval by the CMC, ACMC, or C/S.)

C/S Recommends: Approval _____
                      Disapproval _____
ACMC Recommends: Approval _____
                      Disapproval _____
CMC Decision: Approved _____
                      Disapproved _____

CLASSIFICATION

Figure 11-12. - - Format for Position Paper Continued.

ENCLOSURE (1)

CLASSIFICATION

Code/Office
Date

POINT PAPER

Subj: The subject matter is indicated briefly but in
         sufficient detail to facilitate filing and future
         reference.

1.   (The salient points which relate to the subject are
      listed.)

2.   (These points written as short, concise statements.)

3.   (The points are arranged in logical sequence (time
      permitting).)

4.   . . . .

5.   . . . .

SUMMARY:

The salient points are followed by an even more concise summary.
This summary includes an conclusion or position which is
appropriate.

Classified by _____
Declassify on _____

CLASSIFICATION

Figure 11-13. - - Format for Point Paper.

ENCLOSURE (1)

CLASSIFICATION

Code/Office
Date

TALKING PAPER

For use by (name or title of person for whose use the paper is prepared)

Subj: The subject matter is indicated briefly but in sufficient detail to facilitate filing and future reference.

BACKGROUND: The background sets forth in concise terms what has gone before. It provides answers to such potential questions as: Is this an ongoing thing? Did something suddenly create this requirement?

DISCUSSION: Recommendations are reduced to clear, concise statements permitting simple approval or disapproval by the approving authority.

APPROVAL: An approval block is provided for authentication by the approving authority.

ACTION OFFICER: (The name of the action officer who prepared the paper should be included.)

Classified by _____
Declassify on _____

CLASSIFICATION

Figure 11-14. - - Format for Talking Paper.

ENCLOSURE (1)

CLASSIFICATION

                                        Office Symbol/Code
                                         Date

                    INFORMATION PAPER

    SUBJECT: Subject is addressed concisely.

    ISSUE: State the issue in question

    FACTS:

    1.   Facts and salient points are listed in logical order.

    2.   . . . .

    3.   . . . .

                                        Signature
                                        Title

    Classified by _____
    Declassify on _____

                    CLASSIFICATION

    Figure 11-16. - - Format for Information Paper.

                                        ENCLOSURE (1)

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