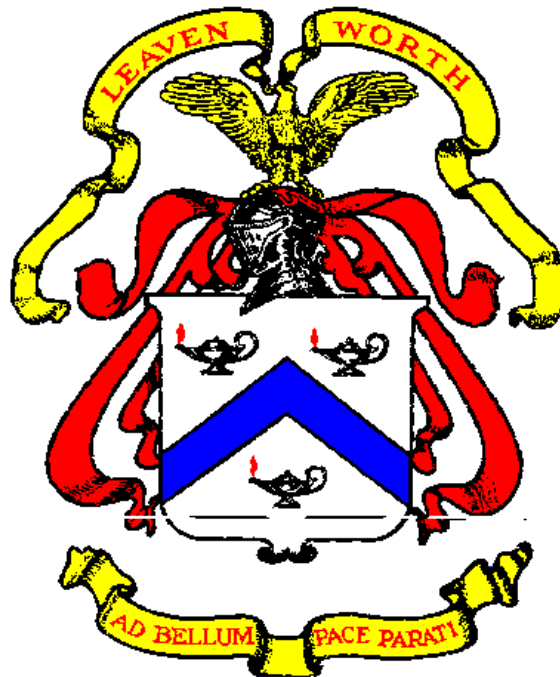


Leader Communication



COMMAND AND GENERAL STAFF SCHOOL
U.S. ARMY COMMAND AND GENERAL STAFF COLLEGE
FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS
31 March 2016

PREFACE

In ADP 6-22, *Army Leadership* the U.S. Army Chief of Staff, identifies his leader expectations as:

- Have a vision and lead change
- Be your formation's moral and ethical compass
- Learn, think, adapt
- Balance risk and opportunity to retain the initiative
- Build agile, effective, high-performing teams
- Empower subordinates and underwrite risk
- Develop bold, adaptive, and broadened leaders
- **Communicate—up, down, and laterally; tell the whole story**

Army Leadership states that “Leader actions and words comprise the competencies of *leads by example* and *communicates*. Actions can speak louder than words and excellent leaders use this to serve as a role model to set the standard. Leaders communicate to convey clear understanding of what needs to be done and why.”

TRADOC Pam 525-8-2, *The U.S. Army Learning Concept 2015*, Appendix C, describes the most important 21st Century Soldier competencies. Two of these important competencies are:

- Communication and engagement (oral, written, and negotiation). Soldiers and leaders express themselves clearly and succinctly in oral, written, and digital communications. They use interpersonal tact, influence, and communication to build effective working relationships and social networks that facilitate knowledge acquisition and provide feedback necessary for continuous improvement.
- Critical thinking and problem solving. Soldiers and leaders analyze and evaluate thinking, with a view to improving it. They solve complex problems by using experiences, training, education, critical questioning, convergent, critical, and creative thinking, and collaboration to develop situations. Throughout their careers, Soldiers and leaders continue to analyze information and hone thinking skills while handling problems of increasing complexity. Select leaders also develop strategic thinking skills necessary for assignments at the national level.

The Command and General Staff Officer Course (CGSOC) requires you to continue refining and strengthening your communication skills while preparing for senior leadership responsibilities.

One important skill is to think critically and creatively as you research and write papers or prepare and present briefings. The purpose of this student text is to:

- Serve as a refresher on the basics of writing and speaking
- Introduce you to the writing standards used in CGSOC
- Present a standard method for documenting sources
- Identify a standard method for formatting documents
- Provide standard references supporting effective writing and speaking

To meet these purposes:

Chapter 1 reviews the Army standard for writing, critical thinking, creative thinking, decision making, and problem solving.

Chapter 2 introduces concepts fundamental to writing including the domains of evaluation (substance, style, organization and correctness), the writing process, the role of evidence in argumentation, and the standard for documenting sources.

Chapter 3 discusses academic ethics and the plagiarism policy of the Command and General Staff School.

Chapter 4 addresses the elements of preparing and delivering military briefings.

Chapter 5 reviews the responsibilities and duties of staff officers and staff coordination techniques.

While providing an overview of the writing and speaking skills required of military leaders, this student text focuses on written and speaking evaluations during the CGSOC.

We encourage everyone who reads this student text to recommend changes to keep the text current and helpful.

Address your comments to:

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Fort Leavenworth, KS 66027-1352

Our telephone number is: DSN 552-7379, or commercial (913) 684-7379.

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CHAPTER 1

COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR LEADERS

"The liberty of speaking and writing guards our other liberties."

Thomas Jefferson

1-1. Mission accomplishment requires skilled leaders able to make the right decisions. Individuals who transmit their intent and ideas so that others understand the message and act on it possess one of the primary qualities of leadership, the ability to communicate effectively. Success as a military leader depends on the ability to think critically and creatively and to communicate your intention and decision to others. How you arrive at your decision and communicate it to others is our focus.

THE ARMY STANDARD FOR COMMUNICATIONS

1-2. The standard for Army writing is writing you can understand in a single rapid reading, and is generally free of errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage. Good Army writing is concise, organized, and right to the point. Style rules include:

- Put the recommendation, conclusion, or reason for writing—the “bottom line”—in the first or second paragraph, not at the end
- Use the active voice
- Use short sentences (an average of 15 or fewer words)
- Use short words (three syllables or fewer)
- Write paragraphs that, with few exceptions, are no more than 1 inch deep
- Use correct spelling, grammar, and punctuation
- Use “I,” “you” and “we” as subjects of sentences instead of “this office,” “this headquarters,” “all individuals,” and so forth, for most kinds of writing

Structure your writing to begin with the main idea first and transmit a focused message.

- Open with a short, clear purpose sentence
- Put the recommendation, conclusion, or most important information (the main point) next
- Clearly separate each major section. Use paragraphs, headings, or section titles
- Use a specific format if one is appropriate

Style—the active voice.

- The active voice is direct, natural, and forceful
- The active voice does more than make sentences clearer—it shortens sentences
- Eliminating the passive voice reduces a piece of writing by about 20 percent
- Active voice writing emphasizes the doer of the action, shows who or what does the action in the sentence, and creates shorter sentences
- Passive voice is easy to recognize. It uses one of the eight forms of to be, plus a verb usually ending in –en or –ed. Example: am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been plus the –en, –ed word (is requested, were eaten)

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD WRITING

1-3. Army Regulation 25-50, *Preparing and Managing Correspondence*,* requires that writers incorporate the following principles into their communications:

- Understood in a single rapid reading
- Concisely organized, and to the point
- Use subject–verb–object sentence order
- Active voice writing

Short, Sensible Sentences and Paragraphs

1-4. Effective writers employ both long and short sentences. However, the average sentence will be somewhere around 15 words.* The same holds true for paragraph length. Some paragraphs may be 2 inches in depth while others less than an inch, *but the average paragraph will be about 1 inch (about 6 lines) deep for a single spaced document.*

Efficient Phrases, Vocabulary, and Images

1-5. Use commonly accepted words and word pictures. Know your audience. Avoid the use of jargon, "official-speak," and acronyms, especially when writing or speaking to an audience that may not be familiar with them.

Active Voice

1-6. The topic of active or passive voice in writing and speaking seems to create a lot of confusion. The problem is that many writers confuse **voice** with tense and conclude that passive voice always refers to the past while active voice refers to the present or future. ***Voice only shows whether the subject is performing the action (active voice) or receiving the action (passive voice).*** Active and passive voice never refers to tense, but to action. Key to determining active voice is to tell who is doing the acting.

1-7. There are cues for the passive voice. There are four telltale signs that indicate whether or not the sentence is in the passive voice. First, in a passive voice sentence the subject of the sentence is the recipient of the action. Second, there will always be some form of a "to be" verb (*am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been*). Third, in a passive voice sentence there will always be a transitive verb, which is a verb that transfers action over to an object. And finally, in a passive voice sentence there will always be a past participle (past participles are verbs that generally end in **–ed, –en or –t**). Consider the following examples. Whenever possible, write in the active voice and let the subject of your sentences do the action.

Passive Voice

The M4 was fired by PFC Meadows.
The HMMWV was wrecked by SGT Fey.

Active Voice

PFC Meadows fired the M4.
SGT Fey wrecked the HMMWV.

1-8. Appropriate use of the passive voice. There are occasions when it is proper and acceptable to use the passive voice. The trick is to know what the passive voice really is and when its use is acceptable. The use of the passive voice, like all other aspects of writing, should be the result of a conscious decision. Its use should not be random, arbitrary, or accidental nor should it happen out of ignorance.

1-9. Use passive voice when you do not know who the actor is. For example, you discover the wrecked HMMWV, but you don't know who was responsible. In this case use the passive voice and say "The HMMWV was wrecked."

1-10. Use the passive voice when the receiver of the action is more important than the actor. For example, say, "The Buffalo Soldier monument was completed in 1997."

Packaging That Supports Effective Communication

1-11. What is your *bottom line* (your position, conclusion, or recommendation)? Put it at the beginning. Arrange your writing, speech, or briefing so that your audience can quickly and easily understand your intent. Make sure you do not mislead your audience.

1-12. The standard also holds true for verbal communications. It means that by the time you finish presenting information or a course of action, your subordinates, peers, and superiors should know your intent and understand your recommendation or decision. Effective writing and communication is based on applying critical thinking, creative thinking, decision making, and problem solving skills to identify answers for complex problems.

Critical Thinking

1-13. Organizational leaders must think critically to solve problems effectively. Critical thinking:

- Follows recognized standards and uses mental models
- Is *thorough* and involves all elements of reasoning
- Is *rigorous* in applying high standards to identify and evaluate evidence to guide decision making
- Requires you to analyze the task, identify your goal(s), and clarify the problem you need to solve
- Considers the many perspectives influencing the task and recognize that the data (information, evidence, facts, observations, or experiences) you work with may be incomplete
- Requires you to examine assumptions (yours and others), along with inferences, conclusions, implications, and consequences of these assumptions

Creative Thinking

1-14. Successful creative thinking never takes place in a vacuum. It builds on critical thinking skills. Creative thinking:

- Specific thought processes which improve our ability to be creative
- Thinking deliberately in ways to improve the likelihood of generating new thoughts
- Maximizes the ability of the brain to think of new ideas and explore multiple avenues of actions or thoughts
- Sometimes called *divergent thinking* because thought patterns and areas of belief are expanded
- Asks you to identify those inhibitors that focus your thinking along predetermined paths
- Inhibitors include perceptions, culture, environment, emotions, intellect, and "idea killers" (usually expressed in such phrases as "We already tried that," "It would take too long," "The commander would never support it," "I have enough information," etc.)

Decision Making

1-15. Decision making is:

- The process of making choices or reaching conclusions
- Cognitive process of reaching a decision
- Applying critical thinking skills and creative thinking processes to solve complex problems
- The critical reasoning and thinking standards help you evaluate your reasoning and thinking for clarity, accuracy, precision, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, significance, and fairness

Problem Solving

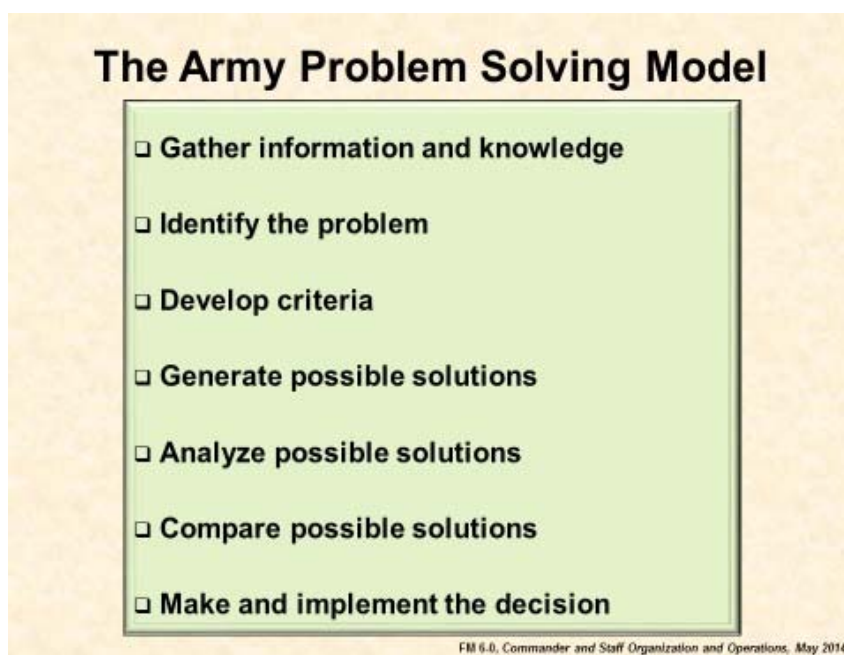
1-16. Chapter 4 of FM 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations*, notes that problem solving is a "daily activity for leaders." Additionally, the manual highlights the importance of using a systemic approach to solving problems and offers a model for leaders to employ in organizations to effectively address the myriad of problems that routinely arise in the normal conduct of operations.

Problem solving is:

- A series of decisions to resolve a situation
- The ability to get answers to questions through a conscious, organized process
- A systematic approach using multiple perspectives to uncover the issues related to a problem, develop a plan to resolve the problem, and implement the plan
- A daily activity for leaders

Problems may be structured in one of three ways:

- **Well-Structured Problems**
 - Problem is easy to identify
 - Required information is available
 - Method to solve is obvious
- **Medium Structured Problems**
 - Problem identification takes more experienced leaders
 - Some but not all information is available
 - Method to solve is based upon MDMP and troop leading procedures
- **Ill-Structured Problems**
 - The problem is not clear and consensus is difficult to reach
 - Information on nature of problem is hard to collect
 - A broad approach is essential and no single action will solve



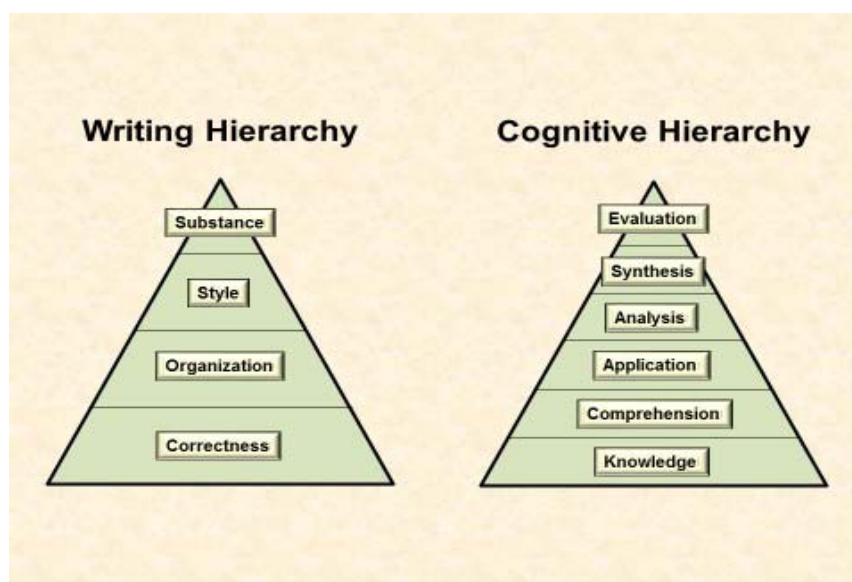
CHAPTER 2

FUNDAMENTALS OF WRITING

2-1. All scholarly writing requires time and effort to produce and begins by answering the fundamental questions of **“who is the audience?”** and **“what is the purpose of the writing?”** Additionally, the writing must adhere to the basic conventions of standard written English (SWE) and address the issue in question to be effective. For CGSOC students, there are numerous writing requirements throughout the academic year and the college places great emphasis on writing and communicating efficiently and effectively across the curriculum. The skills reinforced in the CGSOC writing requirements pay great dividends for field grade leaders returning to units throughout the U.S. military services and U.S. governmental agencies.

2-2. Both writing and thinking have hierarchy. Throughout the academic year at CGSC, students will be challenged to think critically and creatively. Writing assignments will measure the students’ ability to communicate their thoughts relative to specific courses of instruction. Each block of instruction has specific terminal and enabling learning objectives that include an associated level of learning. Unlike undergraduate education, much of the CGSC curriculum orients on the higher levels of cognitive learning such as “synthesis” or “evaluation” as a stated goal of the curriculum.

Likewise, writing assignments at CGSC seeks to challenge students to perform in four critical areas; substance, style, organization, and correctness. While students must perform well in each of the four domains to be successful, it becomes increasingly more challenging as you move up the writing hierarchy (see figure below).



2-3. For students at CGSOC, their writing is evaluated using four domains: Substance, Style, Organization and Correctness. While each assignment and each instructor may amplify the specific instructions for a particular writing requirement, in general the faculty evaluate CGSOC students’ written work in these four areas. Below is a description of each of these domains.

Substance

- ❑ **The intellectual content of the essay**
- ❑ **Usually the most important consideration in scholarly and professional writing**
- ❑ **Oriented on the justification and evidence of the position being addressed**
- ❑ **Speaks to the cognitive abilities of the of the writer and thoroughness of the research**
- ❑ **Involves an understanding of content and analysis/problem-solving/conclusions**

2-4. Substance consists of the intellectual content of the essay. It is usually the most important consideration in scholarly and professional writing. In CGSOC, satisfactory essays display the following in regards to substance:

- A clearly stated thesis in the introductory paragraph of the paper
- All the supporting paragraphs on target in backing up the thesis
- The content is original, critical, and thoughtfully logical
- There is sufficient specific evidence for each supporting point
- The essay's substance directly addresses and answers the question(s) posed in the assignment

2-5. Substance also involves an understanding of content and analysis/problem-solving/conclusions.

- Content means that your thesis is clear and concise. The content is fully compliant with the assigned requirement and the needs of the reader. Everything is accurate and the level of detail is suited to the needs of the assigned requirement and reader. Explanations and descriptions of content are clear and precise. Quantitative information is relevant and accurate, expressed with appropriate examples, and well integrated into the text. Evidence is fully explained and developed throughout the essay
- Analysis/problem-solving/conclusions are an essential element of substance. Satisfactory work attains the highest cognitive level that is appropriate to the assignment. Your essay contains insightful, original analysis, and your conclusions are supported by evidence clearly explained. You consider ethical and legal issues when relevant, alternative points of view, and address potential counter-arguments.

Style

- ❑ **Plays a significant role in the effectiveness of any writing**
- ❑ **Provides the distinctive “voice” of the author**
- ❑ **Addresses important aspects such as:**
 - Sentence types
 - Coordination and subordination
 - Verb tense use and consistency
 - Transitional expressions
- ❑ **Complements the other writing domains of substance, organization and correctness to facilitate effective communication**

FM 8-0, Commander and Staff Organization and Operations, May 2014

2-6. Style, as an area of evaluation, plays a significant role in the effectiveness of any writing. An author's distinctive voice is heard because of the writing style he or she uses. Style in writing addresses important aspects such as sentence types, coordination and subordination, verb tense use and consistency, and transitional expressions. A good writing style compliments the other domains of substance, organization and correctness to facilitate effective communication. The domain of style speaks to the following principles:

- Words are precise
- Language is concise without wordiness
- The writer's tone is appropriate to the audience and purpose
- The essay's tone, diction, and syntax complement the intended effect
- Sentences track clearly even to the rapid reader
- Sentence types are varied and chosen with conscious thought
- Transitions lead smoothly from one idea to the next
- Active voice predominates
- Sources are appropriately cited

Organization

- ❑ **Helps to effectively communicate the substance of the writing**
- ❑ **Provides the skeletal structure of the essay and helps readers see relationships between ideas**
- ❑ **Begins early in writing process and is refined throughout the remaining stages of writing process**
- ❑ **Requires effort to craft a strong thesis/controlling idea and corresponding topic sentences**
- ❑ **Effectively organized essays include an introduction, a main body, and a conclusion**

2-7. Readers expect scholarly and professional writing to be clear and organized. Organization ensures that the points of your paper are clear and logically arranged to develop the content and analysis most productively for the audience. Moreover, a well-organized essay effectively communicates the substance of the writing. It provides the skeletal structure of the essay and helps the readers see the relationships between your ideas. Organization begins early in the writing process and is refined throughout the remaining stages. Given the importance of a well-organized essay, it is obvious that the main idea must be articulated plainly and directly so that readers will see the roadmap of the writing. It requires effort to craft a strong thesis/controlling idea and corresponding topic sentences, but without these essential elements, writing will lack organization and clarity.

2-8. Effective essays have a clear method of organization and are generally arranged to include an introduction, a main body, and a conclusion. Later sections of this handbook illustrate effective organizational approaches for the most common type of essays required in CGSOC, argumentative essays.

Correctness

- ❑ Adherence to the conventions of standard written English (SWE)
- ❑ There must be few, if any, departures from the published standard for grammar, punctuation, and usage
- ❑ When present, correctness errors distract from a smooth reading and inhibit effective communication

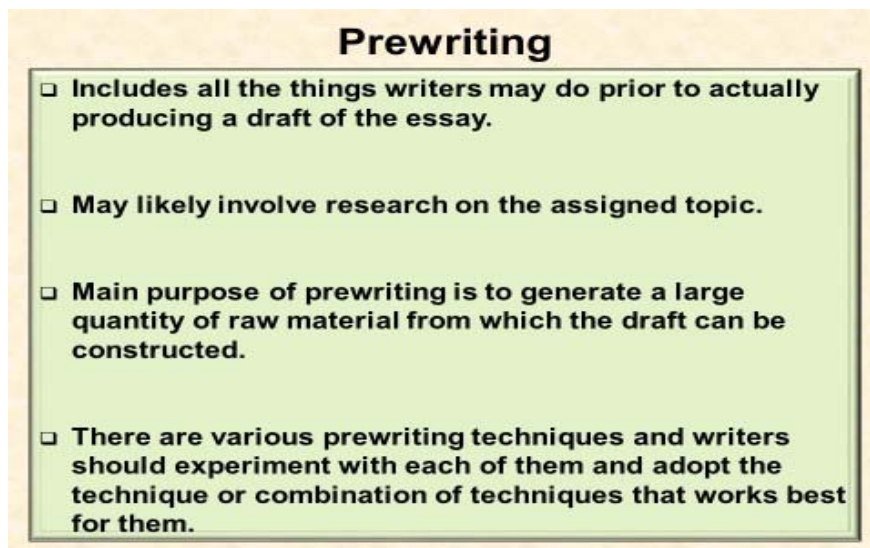
2-9. Correctness is defined as adherence to the conventions of standard written English (SWE). You will have difficulty passing CGSOC or operating effectively in organizations if you do not, among other things, spell correctly, recognize comma splices and sentence fragments, use proper verb tenses, make subjects and verbs agree, and write in the active voice. Hence, there must be few, if any, departures from the published standard for grammar, punctuation, and usage. Correctness errors distract from a smooth reading and inhibit effective communication.

Writing as a Process



2-10. The writing process serves as a method or system of approach to writing involving organization and construction. The writing process must be logical, sequential, predictable, and repetitive. Like any other process, the writing process is capable of being mastered. Ultimately, writing effectively requires discipline and determination. By viewing and approaching writing in a systemic, logical, and orderly manner, most people are able to more effectively communicate their ideas and produce high-quality products that withstand the scrutiny of academic examination.

2-11. For ease of understanding, it is helpful to view the writing process as consisting of the following five steps; (1) pre-writing, (2) drafting, (3) revising, (4) editing, and (5) publishing the final product. While these steps appear linear and sequential, the real strength of the writing process lies in the understanding of the writer to know where he or she is within the process and to negotiate the steps as necessary. At times, it may be necessary to go back or forward in the process. The creative fluidity of the writing process allows for such movements, but the final step reminds writers that the end state is a finished product that meets the standards in all four writing evaluation domains. Below is a brief discussion on each of the five steps of the writing process.



2-12. Step One: Prewriting. This step includes all the things writers may do prior to actually producing a draft of the essay. Prewriting may likely involve research on the assigned topic. Organized and focused research provides a wealth of material that improves the quality of a product. The tasking may come from a job requirement, professional development, or a college class. Most of your CGSC writing will begin with research of a given topic and include; finding information, making notes, expounding on the notes, and documenting the sources.

2-13. During research you should systematically gather information to find the answer to a specific question or to develop the solution to a given problem. The process has several distinct steps:

- Begin with a research question that you cannot answer with a yes or no
- Clearly state the purpose
- Divide the primary problem into sub-problems
- Make educated guesses (hypotheses) to answer the question based on specific assumptions
- Develop a specific plan of action
- Consider your audience and conduct research according to their needs
- Consolidate and categorize your evidence such as examples, statistics and authoritative testimony

2-14. Research consists of asking questions and finding answers. Whenever you attempt to answer a question that requires more than a yes or no answer you have a problem requiring research. Some questions that you may use to identify the problem, establish your purpose, analyze the data, and draw valid conclusions include:

- What is the real problem?
- What is your purpose in answering the problem?
- What are the subordinate questions you must answer to solve the problem?
- What are your educated guesses (hypotheses) that suggest solutions to the problem?
- What are the assumptions behind your educated guesses?
- What is your research plan?
- What type of information do you need?
- What is your plan to analyze the information (data)?
- Why does your information support your hypothesis? Why not?
- What conclusions can you draw from the data analyzed?

2-15. State the purpose. The mere statement of a research question only gives you direction for research. Compiling information without a purpose is merely collecting facts, opinions, and ideas on a given topic that only has value to the individual. You must identify why you need to answer the research problem. "Why" provides purpose for your efforts. Purpose provides you with direction, while helping you and your audience understand what you want to accomplish.

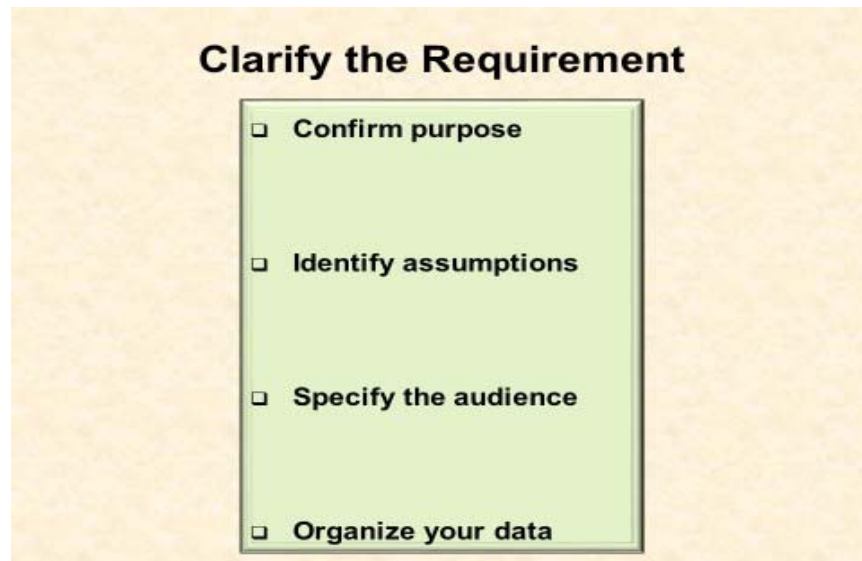
2-16. Divide the primary problem into sub-problems. There are several sub-problems that you need answers to before you can fulfill the purpose behind your tasking. Each sub-problem directly affects your purpose. It is imperative that you take the time to identify the sub-problems that directly affect your purpose.

2-17. Develop a specific plan of action. Military operations begin with a clearly stated purpose, the mission statement. Implementation requires a specific plan of action—the operations order. Research requires the same. You identify your purpose and then develop a plan to discover the information needed to answer the question. It then becomes important to consider where you will find your research data. Just as important is to consider how you are going to analyze the data to ensure you recognize and understand its significance for your research.

2-18. Accept information, evidence, facts, observations, and experiences (data) relevant to the problem. Every problem has many factors. Some are relevant, while others may have nothing to do with the solution. Determine what data is relevant and then collect it. What you collect becomes significant when you extract meaning from it. Data demands interpretation, it cannot stand alone. It must pass from your notes through your mind for processing and interpretation. Data that passes from the raw stage to the final product without interpretation is merely the regurgitation of meaningless ideas.

2-19. Clarify the requirement and confirm your purpose. Identify any existing assumptions and know exactly who you are writing for. Organize your data and get

ready to write. Getting started is one of the greatest challenges that skilled and unskilled writers and researchers face. Knowing the type of writing that will meet the requirement is critical.



2-20. Thesis statement. The problem you are investigating is at the very heart of any report, paper, or research. This is the most important element of your writing. It is here that you clarify the problem. This is the point where many writers fail. They are not able to tell their audience why the topic merits serious consideration. The thesis statement tells the audience why the topic demands attention. You do this by clearly stating your topic and your purpose, assertion, or question. A good thesis statement clearly and succinctly gives the “what” and the “why” of the author’s essay and provides a roadmap for the remainder of the essay.

2-21. Prewriting techniques. Once you understand the requirement and decide which type of writing meets the requirement, it is time to organize the data from your research. There are several helpful prewriting techniques available. Prewriting, as the first and foremost element of the writing process, helps you to generate material from which your essay will develop. It is more important to get *quantity* out of your prewriting than *quality*. At this early stage, you want to simply capture as many thoughts about the topic on paper as you're able. Refining and focusing these disjointed thoughts into a coherent essay will come later in the writing process. Writers should experiment with each of these techniques and adopt the technique or combination of techniques that works best for them. That is, they should determine and employ that technique or combination of techniques that *produce the most raw material in the shortest amount of time*. Here is a short description of the most popular techniques:

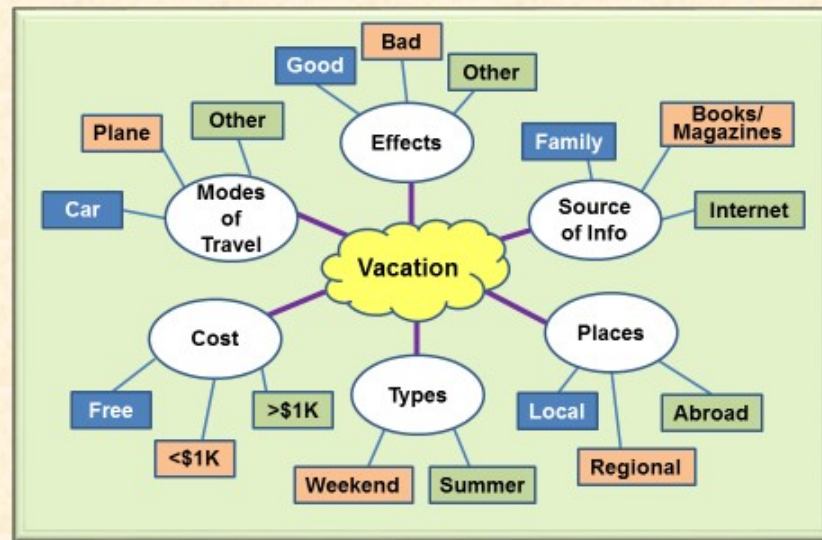
Brainstorming: In brainstorming, you generate ideas and details by asking as many questions as you can think of about your subject. Such questions include: what, when, why, where, who, and how.

Freewriting: In freewriting you write without stopping for a set time. You don't worry about grammar, spelling, and/or punctuation during freewriting. Instead, you

simply jot down, in a stream of consciousness style, all you can during the time period. Many times, merely moving your pen across the page will generate ideas.

Diagramming: Diagramming, also known as mind-mapping or clustering, graphically portrays general thoughts by using arrows, lines, boxes, and circles to show relationships between ideas and details as they come to you. This technique is a good tool for people who like to do their thinking in a more visual way. Also, diagramming lends itself to effective essay organization better than some of the other prewriting techniques.

Example of “Diagramming” or “Mind-Mapping”



Making a list: In this technique you list as many different items as you can think of concerning your topic. Again, don't worry about the punctuation, etc... Try to write down everything you can think of about your subject. Your aim is to generate as much raw material as you can.

Preparing a scratch outline: Similar to making a list, preparing a scratch outline can be used by itself or in combination with other techniques. It can be the single most helpful technique of all prewriting because you think and write about the exact point you are making and how you will support that point. The scratch outline is a blueprint for an organized, unified, and well-supported essay.

2-22. Resources. Field grade leaders, as practitioners in the profession of arms, need to have ready access to a variety of writing resources.

Just like a good mechanic has a toolbox with the instruments of his trade, the best writers also have a library of writing resources to facilitate their efforts. Military professional should purchase, check out from the library, and/or research references on-line. However you acquire these writing resources, make sure that they are available to you as you go through the writing process. Many of these references are also available on the master library within the CGSC Blackboard suite. Some of the critical references are—

- *The Gregg Reference Manual*
- Kate L. Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*
- *The Brief McGraw-Hill Handbook*
- *The Prentice Hall Handbook for Writers*
- *A good dictionary and a good thesaurus*
- *Critical Thinking Reading and Writing*

These resources are invaluable during CGSOC and your professional career.



Drafting

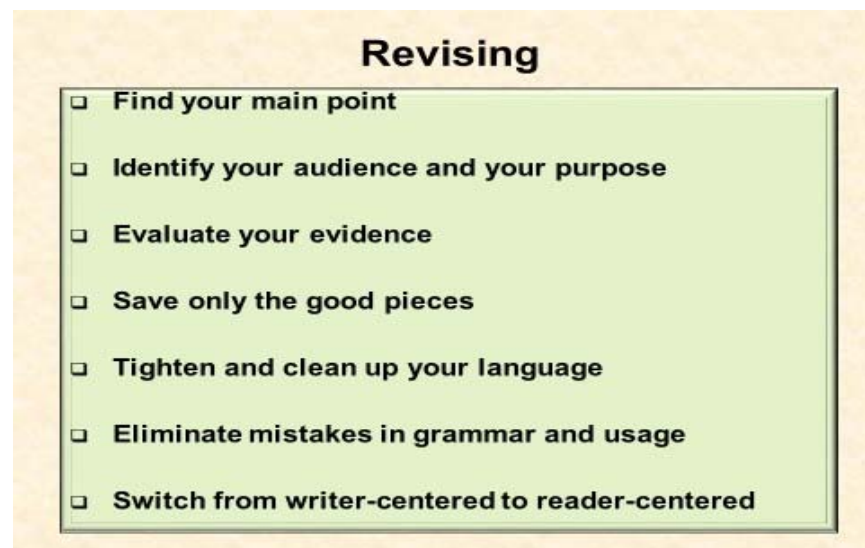
- ❑ **Purpose of drafting is to transform the raw material of your prewriting into a rough draft of your essay**
- ❑ **Focus on the substance and organization of your document, not on what the final product may look like**
- ❑ **Take the strongest elements/ideas of your prewriting and outline the “skeleton” of your essay**
- ❑ **Focus on the relationship between your rough ideas to begin structuring your essay**

2-23. Step Two: Drafting. The purpose of drafting is to transform the raw material of your prewriting into a rough draft of your essay. Focus on the substance and organization of your document, not on what the final product may look like. This is your first draft, not your final product. However, when finished it should contain the substance you need to communicate. Two techniques can help you write the first draft: (1) take the

strongest elements/ideas of your prewriting and outline the “skeleton” of your essay, (2) focus on the relationship between your rough ideas to begin structuring your essay.

2-24. The skeletal outline keeps you focused on both the substance and organization of your paper. Print out your outline or minimize it and place it where you can see it clearly. Place any quotations, references, and supporting documents in the order they occur in the outline. Now begin writing. Follow your outline and insert supporting material (evidence) as needed.

2-25. Focus on the relationship between the ideas you have captured and try to “connect-the-dots” between those ideas. Write quickly as the thoughts come to mind. Don’t worry about the perfect word or the just-right sentence. The purpose is to capture the ideas that race through your mind. It is very easy to lose an important idea whenever you pause to capture the right word or sentence. Write as rapidly as you can and capture those ideas that grab your attention.



2-26. Step Three: Revising. During this step of the writing process you evaluate the substance of the essay and examine the intellectual content for coherence, clarity, unity, and development. Good writers are invariably good revisers. They are able to set aside "pride of authorship" and critically review what they wrote. Writers may not revise well for three reasons: (1) they don't know how; (2) they find it difficult and avoid it, or (3) they don't schedule enough time. Effective writers set aside sufficient time just for revising. At the appointed time, confident writers sit down and begin the revision process, following established criteria to review and revise their writing.

2-27. Steps for revising essays. When you have plenty of time to revise, use the time to work on your paper and to take breaks from writing. If you can forget about your draft for a day or two, you may return to it with a fresh outlook.

During the revising process put your writing aside at least twice—once during the first part of the process, when you are reorganizing your work, and once during the second part, when you are polishing and paying attention to details.

Use the following questions to evaluate your drafts. You can use your responses to revise your papers by reorganizing them to make your best points stand out, by adding

needed information, by eliminating irrelevant information, and by clarifying sections or sentences.

Find your main point. What are you trying to say in the paper? In other words, try to summarize your thesis, or main point, and the evidence you are using to support that point. Try to imagine that this paper belongs to someone else. Does the paper have a clear thesis? Do you know what the paper is going to be about?

Identify your audience and your purpose. What are you trying to do in the paper? In other words, are you trying to argue with the reading, to analyze the reading, to evaluate the reading, to apply the reading to another situation, or to accomplish another goal?

Evaluate your evidence. Does the body of your paper support your thesis? Do you offer enough evidence to support your claim? If you are using quotations from the text as evidence, did you cite them properly?

Save only the good pieces. Do all of the ideas relate back to the thesis? Is there anything that doesn't seem to fit? If so, you either need to change your thesis to reflect the idea or cut the idea.

Tighten and clean up your language. Do all of the ideas in the paper make sense? Are there unclear or confusing ideas or sentences? Read your paper out loud and listen for awkward pauses and unclear ideas. Cut out extra words, vagueness, and misused words.

Eliminate mistakes in grammar and usage. Do you see any problems with grammar, punctuation, or spelling? If you think something is wrong, you should make a note of it, even if you don't know how to fix it. You can always talk to a writing lab tutor about how to correct errors.

Switch from writer-centered to reader-centered. Try to detach yourself from what you've written; pretend that you are reviewing someone else's work. What would you say is the most successful part of your paper? Why? How could this part be made even better? What would you say is the least successful part of your paper? Why? How could this part be improved?

Editing

- ☐ **Focus on adherence to standard written English (SWE)**
- ☐ **Examine grammatical correctness, format, and citations**
- ☐ **Proofread by reading the paper backwards to identify sentence-level errors**
- ☐ **Use computer tools to check spelling and grammar if they are available**

2-28. Step Four: Editing. This phase of the writing process addresses the necessary step of editing the draft to ensure adherence to the conventions of standard written English (SWE). Typically, editing examines grammatical correctness, formatting, and citations, with an eye to correcting any surface-level mistake that may distract from a smooth reading.

2-29. Editing or proofreading is effective when you approach it systematically. One helpful technique follows three steps; reread the paper, do a spell check, and check the grammar. First, read your paper backwards beginning at the end and proceeding to the beginning. We call this "proofing from the bottom to the top." Look for correctly spelled words that are not the right words.

For example, you may use "sight" rather than "site" when referring to a location. Second, use the spell check function of your computer to review the document. Finally, perform a grammar check of your paper. Look for incomplete sentences, passive voice, verb tense agreement, and subject agreement with verbs and pronouns. The computer can assist you in this task, but it is not perfect. You must remember, the computer is only a tool that suggests what you can do. You, as the author, must still make the final decision on how to compose each sentence. Once you finish proofreading your paper, you have the final product.

2-30. Essay format. In general, the format standard for essays and other writing requirements (unless otherwise dictated) is:

- Pages with one-inch borders on all sides
- Font is Arial size 12
- Double-space lines and paragraphs
- Cover pages are not numbered
- Page one of a paper is the first page
- Pages are numbered on the bottom and centered
- Short papers (4-5 pages or less) use endnotes or parenthetical citations
- New paragraphs are indented five spaces
- Turabian is the standard for citation formats based on the source of the reference

- Endnote and bibliographic pages are separate

2-31. Step Five: Publishing. The final step in the writing process is “publishing,” which means to submit the essay to the faculty as directed, or in the case of essays or articles not part of the CGSOC curriculum, it means to submit for publication in a selected journal or periodical.

As military leaders, we are familiar with tactical planning, where we start with actions on the objective and work backwards to the beginning of the plan. In a similar sort of way, writers must examine the end state of the process—that is the suspense or deadline to have the product finished—and allocate the necessary time and resources to accomplish the writing task. In doing so, this step is simply the culmination of a long and arduous process that results in the best possible product being completed in the time allowed.

Fundamentals of Argumentation

2-32. Fundamentals of argumentation. One of the major modes of discourse, argumentation can be applied to virtually all assignments involving critical reasoning, no matter the subject or discipline. It involves a higher level of reasoning than associated with descriptive, narrative, or expository writing and it is crucial for CGSC students to understand and master the principles, indeed the concepts that drive the critical thinking skills associated with argumentative writing. The argument consists of an introduction, body, and conclusion and is built around a major premise or position (ideally offered in thesis statement). Additionally, there is a definite pattern of organization used in developing the argument.

In general, the term argument refers to “a reasoned attempt to convince the audience to accept a particular point of view about a debatable topic.” Looking more closely at this definition, we observe that the argument is not irrational and does not depend strictly on passion or emotion. Rather, argumentation represents a “reasoned attempt,” that is, an effort based on careful thinking and planning where the appeal is to the mind, the intellect of the audience at hand. Thus, the writer wants to “convince the audience to accept a particular point of view.”

The key concept here is “to convince the audience.” You must make them believe your position, accept your logic, and be persuaded that the position you advocate is the best possible of several alternatives. Hence, as the argument maker you must offer enough evidence to convince a reasonable, rational, fair-minded person that your position is the one that he/she should adopt. Not unlike a court case when lawyers attempt to persuade a judge and jury based on the evidence they present, you too must convince your readers through the skillful and judicious use of evidence. While other elements of your writing have importance, ultimately in an argumentative essay, the final persuasiveness depends almost exclusively on the quantity and quality of the evidence.

Not only do you want them to accept the evidence, but you want that audience to accept “a particular point of view”—yours. It is your position, your proposition. Understand that all too often the audience may be intrigued by the evidence presented, but that intrigue alone is not enough to convince them of the validity or authority of your position in the matter.

Finally, there must be "a debatable topic" present for a true argument to develop. What is debatable? One cannot, for example, debate that Clausewitz was born in 1780 in Prussia, and entered the Prussian military service at the age of twelve as a Lance-Corporal, eventually attaining the rank of Major-General. Nor can one debate that Clausewitz served in the Rhine Campaigns, including the Siege of Mainz when the Prussian army invaded France during the French Revolution, and served in the Napoleonic Wars from 1806 to 1815. Those are indisputable facts.

At the Battle of Jena-Auerstedt in 1806—when Napoleon invaded Prussia and defeated the massed Prussian-Saxon army—Clausewitz was captured and held prisoner until 1808. That also is fact.

One can debate, however, whether Clausewitz or Jomini played a more influential role in the development of U.S. military doctrine. One can certainly debate whether or not the U.S. Army brigade combat teams have enough resources to function effectively in a particular operational environment. Again, the key principle here is that the topic must be one which has at least two sides, pro (those in favor of the position under discussion) and con (those who are against the position as stated). Often, there will be a variety of possible positions and a good argument offers convincing evidence for the best possible position.

2-33. Types of evidence. A writer's selection of the type and amount of evidence included in an essay will largely determine the persuasiveness of the overall argument. Often, there will be word and/or page constraints that limit the amount of evidence that can be included. You must make conscious decisions about *what evidence to bring in and what evidence to leave out!* Writing is ultimately about making decisions and one of the most important decisions centers on the topic of evidence, specifically which evidence is the most compelling out of all that is available. Normally, a good blend of the types and amount of evidence makes for the most convincing argument. The three types of evidence routinely used are examples, statistics, and authoritative testimony.

Examples: In arguments, three sorts of examples are especially common: real events, invented instances (artificial or hypothetical cases), and analogies. Real events are historically accurate occurrences that can be cited as evidence and are indisputable as factual information.

Invented instances are another type of example and may be cited to help illustrate a particular point in an argument. A purely hypothetical example can also provoke reconsideration of a generalization, but it cannot substitute for actual events as evidence supporting an inductive inference.

The third type of example is an analogy. Strictly speaking, an analogy is an extended comparison in which unlike things are shown to be similar in several ways.

Analogies can be helpful in developing our thoughts and can be convincing, especially because they can make complex issues simple ("Don't change horses in midstream" of course is not a statement about riding horses across a river, but about choosing leaders in critical times). Still, in the end, analogies can prove nothing.

Statistics: Statistical information can be marshaled and presented in many forms, but it tends to fall into two main types, the graphic and the numerical. The inclusion of graphic statistics can be powerful and compelling when effectively explained. Likewise numerical statistics offers readers a strong and logical element of evidence. However, an astute reader will regard statistical evidence (like all other evidence) cautiously and will not necessarily accept it at face value without thinking about these questions:

- Was it compiled by a disinterested source?
- Is it based on an adequate sample?
- Is the statistical evidence recent enough to be relevant?
- How many of the factors likely to be relevant were identified and measured? Are the figures open to a different and equally plausible interpretation?

Authoritative testimony: Another form of evidence is testimony, the citation or quotation of authorities. There are several important things to remember regarding the inclusion of authorities as evidence:

- Be sure that the authority, however notable, is an authority on the topic in question
- Be sure the authority is not biased
- Beware of nameless authorities: "a thousand doctors," "leading educators," "researchers at a major medical school"
- Be careful in using authorities who indeed were great authorities in their day but who now may be out of date (Clausewitz on the art of war, Pasteur on medicine)
- Cite authorities whose opinions your readers will value

2-34. Evaluation of evidence. For arguments to be persuasive, they must have a sufficient amount of evidence that a *reasonable, rational, fair-minded* person would accept as proof. When such a person examines the evidence in an argument it is not unlike a jury member in a court case seeking to determine the truth, basing his/her decision on the guilt or innocence of the accused on the validity and veracity of the evidence offered by the attorneys. To help ascertain the persuasiveness of the argument, we must examine the argument in greater detail. To do that, we can use an analysis checklist that aids us in our examination and ensures that we do not unconsciously forget to evaluate a critical component of the writer's argument. Using such a checklist also takes much of the guesswork out of the analysis and makes our evaluation of the evidence more impartial and objective, rather than arbitrary and subjective. Below is a sample analysis checklist frequently used throughout the college.

An Argumentative Analysis Checklist

Examine the elements of an argument using the criteria below.

-Thesis

- What is the writer's thesis? Is it clear and concise? Does it plainly state a position and the reasons for that position?
- What claims are being asserted? Do those claims support the thesis?
- What assumptions are being made – are they acceptable?
- Are important terms defined? Are terms used that are broad, vague or ambiguous?

-Supporting Evidence

- What support is offered on behalf of the argument?
- Are statistics (if there are any) relevant, accurate, and complete?
- Is there authoritative testimony used as evidence and if authorities are cited, are they indeed expert on this topic, and can they be regarded as impartial?

-Other Considerations

- Is the logic apparent? What type is used-deductive and inductive? Is it valid?
- Are there any obvious fallacies of logic in the argument?
- Is there an emotional appeal in the argument? Is its use excessive?
- Does the writer seem to be fair?
- Are counterarguments adequately considered?
- Is there any obvious dishonesty or unscrupulous attempt to manipulate the reader?

IS THE ARGUMENT PERSUASIVE? WHY OR WHY NOT?

2-35. Logic. In the development of arguments, one must employ logic to ensure that the reasoning is sound and justifiable. In general, logic is the study of inferences, the links that constitute the chains of reasoning in arguments. Readers should be able to follow the flow of an author's argument and understand the connections that the writer has made in advancement of the argument.

Typically, logic falls into one of two approaches, inductive or deductive. Inductive logic begins with a specific idea or premise and over the course of the argument moves toward a general or universal application. Deductive logic begins with a general idea or premise and over the course of the argument moves to a very specific application. It is common when employing deductive logic to use a syllogism to present the case. Under the rules of rhetoric, in a syllogism, if the premise (or premises) is (are) true and valid, the conclusion must be true and valid.

However, if the major premise and/or minor premise(s) is (are) not true and not valid, then the conclusion may be not true and not valid. For example:

Example 1

Major premise: Everyone who joins the Army goes to basic training (true and valid).

Minor premise: Matthew joined the Army (true and valid).

Conclusion: Matthew is headed to basic training (true and valid).

Example 2

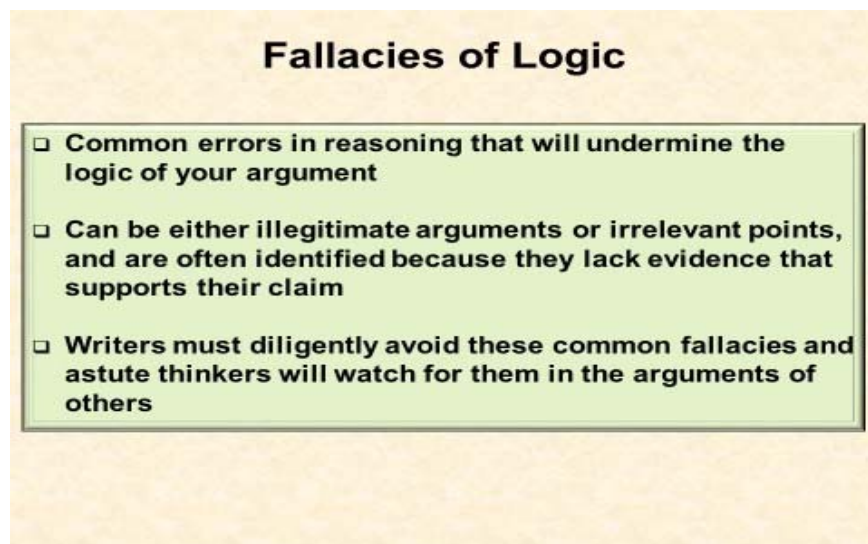
Major premise: Everyone who joins the Army is violent (not true and not valid).

Minor premise: Matthew joined the Army (true and valid).

Conclusion: Matthew is violent (may be true and valid or may be not true and not valid).

Essentially, the logic of an argument should be readily apparent and should withstand the scrutiny of the careful reader. Flaws in the rationale or logic significantly distract from the overall persuasiveness of the argument and writers have to diligently strive to ensure they are not guilty of manipulating their readers through skewed or fallacious logic.

2-36. Fallacies of logic. Fallacies of logic are common errors in reasoning that will undermine the logic of your argument. Fallacies can be either illegitimate arguments or irrelevant points and are often identified because they lack evidence that supports their claim. Writers must diligently avoid these fallacies and astute thinkers will watch for them in the arguments of others.



Some of the most common fallacies of logic include:

- **Hasty generalization.** A conclusion formed without, or with weak, evidence, often the product of an emotional reaction.
- **False analogy.** Use of analogies that are so weak that the argument is too weak for the purpose to which it is put.
- **Either/or, false dichotomy.** Arbitrarily reducing a set of many possibilities to only two.
- **Transfer.** What is true of the part must be true of the whole.
- **Argument to the man (argumentum ad hominem).** An ad hominem argument is any that attempts to counter another's claims or conclusions by attacking the person rather than addressing the argument itself.
- **Ad ignorantiam.** The argument from ignorance basically states that a specific belief is true because we don't know that it isn't true.
- **Argument from authority.** The basic structure of such arguments is as follows; professor X believes A, professor X speaks from authority, therefore A is true. Often this argument is implied by emphasizing the many years of experience or formal degrees held by the individual making a specific claim.

- Non sequitur. In Latin this term translates to “doesn't follow.” This refers to an argument in which the conclusion does not necessarily follow from the premises. In other words, a logical connection is implied where none exists.
- Red herring. A *deliberate attempt* to divert a process of inquiry by changing the subject.
- Post-hoc ergo propter hoc. This fallacy follows the basic format of A preceded B, therefore A caused B, and therefore assumes cause and effect for two events just because they are temporally related (Latin “after this, therefore because of this”).
- Inconsistency. Applying criteria or rules to one belief, claim, argument, or position-but not to others.
- Begging the question. An argument which assumes a premise which is not explicitly stated. The writer, instead of applying evidence simply restates the point in other language, or the second half of a writer's argument simply restates the first half. Also called “circular reasoning.”
- Bandwagon (argumentum ad populum). Concludes a proposition to be true because many or all people believe it.
- Strawman. Arguing against a position which you create specifically to be easy to argue against, rather than the position actually held by those who oppose your point of view.
- Slippery slope. A relatively small first step inevitably leads to a chain of related events culminating in some significant, usually catastrophic, impact.

2-37. Documentation. Whenever you use other sources in your document, you may quote the source directly, paraphrase, or summarize. When you reference sources use the CGSC approved standard, which is Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*.

2-38. Turabian allows students to document sources using either endnotes and bibliography, or parenthetical notes and reference list. If you choose endnotes then you must place them in front of the bibliography, not at the end of each chapter. Your bibliographic entries may be either alphabetic or grouped by publication type (e.g., books, journals, oral history, etc.). If you choose the parenthetical notational method, you need to organize your reference list alphabetically.

The parenthetical, or author-date, reference system consists of three basic elements-author, dates of publication, and reference pages-usually in parentheses and placed in the text (Turabian 2013, 139).

2-39. The Command and General Staff School (CGSS) provides *The Concise CGSS Style Guide* (see appendix A). This appendix is based on Turabian and addresses common citation rules, use of quotations, bibliographic entries, and paraphrasing.

2-40. Assessing writing. The standard tool used by the faculty at CGSC to evaluate student writing is the CGSC Form 1009W (see below). While individual assignments and instructors may require an alternative assessment instrument, the 1009W is a common rubric used across departments and offers concrete feedback to the student on the results of his/her performance on a particular writing assignment. It is structured around the domains of substance, style, organization, and correctness, and provides

ample space for additional comments by the instructor to the student. Normally, all writing assignments and accompanying feedback is placed in the student's individual academic portfolio for historical and counseling purposes. This assessment tool for writing is also located in the Blackboard Master Library.

Form 1009W

Assessing Writing

STUDENT NAME: _____		STAFF GROUP: _____	DATE: _____
COURSE TITLE: CWM		ASSIGNMENT: Integrative Essay	
INSTRUCTOR: _____		DEPARTMENT: _____	

Requirement: This form is to be used to assess student writing in a single, self-contained, and generally free of errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage. Assess each area of the essay on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest, 5 being the highest).

Standard: Writing demonstrates proficiency in—

1. Content
2. Style
3. Organization
4. Conventions

<p>Overall Assessment:</p> <p>Instructor Comments:</p>	<p>Faculty Assessment:</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th>Conceptual</th> <th>Technical</th> <th>Facility</th> <th>Assessment</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Content</p> <p>Does a topic and thesis statement emerge in the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p> </td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Style</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p> </td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Organization</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p> </td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>Assessment</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Conceptual	Technical	Facility	Assessment	<p>Content</p> <p>Does a topic and thesis statement emerge in the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p>	<p>Style</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p>	<p>Organization</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p>	<p>Assessment</p> <p>Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment? Does the student demonstrate a clear understanding of the assignment?</p>
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2-41. The three main types of CGSC writing requirements are argumentative, expository, and compare and contrast essays.

CGSOC Types of Essays

Argumentative Essays: Argumentative writing requires the writer to agree or disagree with a statement, take a stand or defend a point of view. The main purpose of the argumentative essay is to persuade an audience to agree with the writer's position. Hence, the primary concern is the quality and quantity of the evidence offered.

Expository Essays: Taking information from several sources and synthesizing it into a single explanation. The main purpose of this type of writing is to explain a concept.

Comparison and Contrast Essays: Comparing requires the writer to look at similarities between the ideas, items, or events. When a writer contrasts ideas, items, or events, they look at their differences. Comparing and contrasting requires the writer to analyze the ideas, items or events by taking things apart and addressing those key components that can be compared or contrasted.

Argumentative Essay

2-42. Argumentative writing requires the writer to agree or disagree with a statement, take a stand, or defend a point of view. The main purpose of the argumentative essay is to persuade an audience to agree with the writer's position. The primary concern is the quality and quantity of the evidence offered.

Another way to understand the argumentative essay is that the writer will propose an idea or proposition and then proceed through the paper to present evidence and analysis that supports the argument.

An argumentative essay seeks to prove and illustrate an idea or theory. Most officers attending the Command and General Staff School (CGSS) have had experience in presenting briefings, but probably not in publishing essays. Obviously, briefings will continue to be important, but key positions require one to relate information to a larger, and in some cases, more sophisticated audience.

Begin with a clearly stated thesis (the point you want to prove) in your introduction and use the body of your paper to construct your argument. Rationally build your case, leading to the conclusion, which should be consistent with your thesis. Avoid using information or comments not directly supporting your thesis.

In general, devote one paragraph to one idea or concept. Arrange your sentences in logical order. Do your best, however, to connect your paragraphs with transition sentences. It is usually best to start each paragraph with a strong topic sentence informing the reader what the paragraph contains so that it contributes to the thesis. For additional information and guidance, consult this text as well as *The Elements of Style* by William Strunk, Jr. and E.B. White.

Stringing together direct quotations is usually ineffective and distracts from the paper's purpose. A more effective technique is summarizing ideas and information within a paragraph and then inserting a footnote/endnote to direct the reader to the source.

2-43. CGSS recommends these tips when writing your essay:

A good historical essay argues a point. The author asserts a position (thesis), offers evidence in support, accounts for opposing facts and opinions, and ends with a conclusion that restates the thesis. Use the writing "tips" below to start. For more in-depth reference, refer to *The Elements of Style* by William Strunk Jr. and E.B. White.

Use verbs in simple past tense in active mode (he went, she thought, etc.). Passive voice fulfills a need sometimes. Yet, as a rule, writers should use active verbs for greater clarity and precision. To write, "Napoleon was surprised at the Battle of Waterloo" is factually correct. However, an active verb expresses a more complete thought: "The arrival of the Prussian Army surprised Napoleon."

Avoid jargon and slang. Do not use unofficial abbreviations, such as "WWI" for World War I.

Use quotations judiciously, particularly in short papers. It is possible to write your paper without any quotations.

Quotations three lines and longer should be single-spaced and indented, without quotation marks. Refer to Kate L. Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* for examples and formats.

Introduce a person into the text by name and title or position the first time you mention him or her.

Extensive stringing together of loosely paraphrased sentences is unacceptable. Citing references protects you from a charge of plagiarism but not from an assessment of failing to analyze the material. Demonstrate *your* writing and analytical skills, not those of another author. Use direct quotations or your own words to articulate someone else's position.

Keep papers within length guidelines. Succinct writing is effective.

Arial, 12-pitch font is standard for formal paper submissions. Double-space all papers unless told otherwise.

Italicize, and if necessary, define foreign words, ship names, book titles, journal titles, etc. Enclose chapters within a book or articles within a journal with quotation marks. Refer to *Elements of Style* for further explanation.

Rewriting creates clarity. Proofread carefully. Spell check and grammar check programs do not identify correctly spelled words used incorrectly. Let time pass before re-reading your work. Read your essay aloud. If a word, phrase, or sentence appears awkward, revise. If you are pressed for time, ask someone else to read it aloud to you. Reduce wordiness.

You can write an "A" paper based on mandatory course readings. Outside research is permitted; sources must be reliable and given credit. Be careful about Internet sources. If in doubt, ask the instructor.

On the title page include your name, staff group, date, and course title. Word count does not include the title page, footnotes (endnotes), or the mandatory bibliography.

Use either chronological or topical organization. Usually a chronological discussion works better. Outlines help to enhance logical presentation.

Clear transitions between topics signal change. Avoid the overuse of subheadings.

Topic sentences are important. If a sentence does not relate to the first sentence of a particular paragraph, change the topic sentence or move the statement to another paragraph.

Avoid overuse of a word or phrase. Consult a dictionary or thesaurus for appropriate synonyms. There are two exceptions; when the exact word is necessary for clarity or no other word conveys the same idea, and when an author repeats the same word or phrase for dramatic emphasis.

A paragraph consists of at least three sentences. Vary sentence structure and length.

Follow subject-verb agreement. A singular subject takes a singular verb. A plural subject takes a plural verb.

Use connections such as “however,” “yet,” “unfortunately,” “rather,” “on the contrary,” etc., to signal a change in the direction of your argument and/or contrasting ideas.

Identify speakers, authors, actors, and new terms in the narrative. When introducing a new actor, the first reference should include first and last name, as well as job position. Any subsequent reference should give last name only. When introducing a specific term or abbreviation, define clearly or spell out fully. Subsequent references consist of the term itself or the abbreviated form.

Examples:

First reference:

Historian John Keegan
Operation ENDURING FREEDOM (OEF)

Second reference:

Keegan
OEF

Avoid first person and qualified statements.

Commonly noted problems in essays:

- No thesis or introduction
- Failure to follow essay format
- Disregard for rules of style and grammar
- Lack of authority (use of first person or unnecessarily qualified statements)
- Flaw in organization (logical development)
- No bottom line up front (BLUF) or weak topic sentences
- Weak conclusions (no restatement of thesis, summary of evidence, and/or lack of significance)”

Expository Essay

2-44. Taking information from several sources and synthesizing it into a single explanation creates expository writing. The main purpose of this type of writing is to explain something. An example of expository writing is a news article covering a campaign appearance of a political candidate.

The article will include factual information about what the candidate said and did, give observations on the crowd’s reactions, and discuss what the political pundits or commentators said about the event, all drawn and blended together into an expository article.

Writers must carefully consider what key elements of information they include in an expository essay since a good explanation requires clear and insightful prose. In the expository essay, how the writer “exposes” the audience to the pertinent information becomes an overarching concern that will factor largely into the effectiveness of the essay.

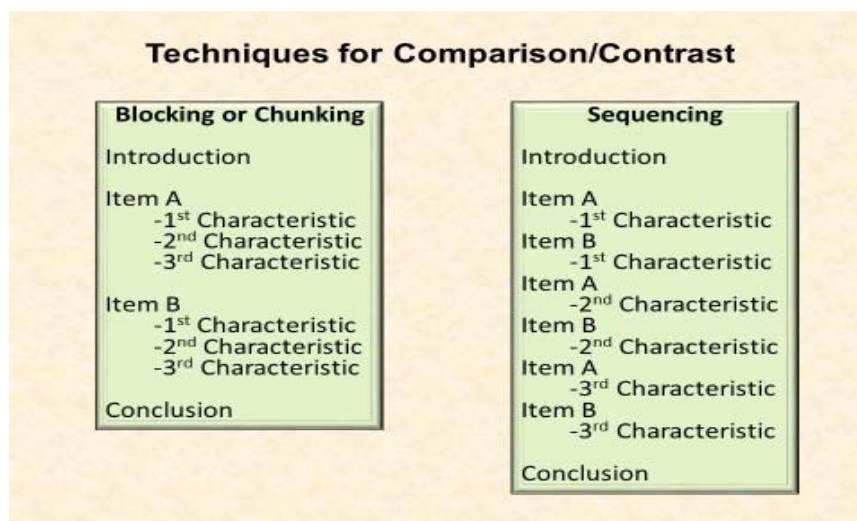
Compare and Contrast Essay

2-45. When you are tasked to discuss similarities and differences of an idea, item, or event, you are writing a compare and contrast type of essay or product. Comparing requires the writer to look at similarities between the ideas, items, or events the writer is writing about. When a writer contrasts ideas, items, or events, they look at their differences. Comparing and contrasting requires the writer to analyze the ideas, items, or events by taking things apart and addressing those key components that can be compared or contrasted.

Blocking or Chunking. In this technique, the writer elaborates on the characteristics of the first item before then examining the same characteristics of the second item.

Sequencing. In this technique, the writer details the characteristics of both items together before moving on to the second characteristic (see illustration below).

In both techniques, the writer must determine the unique points of comparison/contrast for the approach to be effective.



Summary

2-46. Writing is hard work. It requires significant effort and skill and is often frustrating, tedious, and time-consuming. However, in order to be successful as a field-grade leader you must be able to communicate effectively, especially in the written form. During the academic school year at CGSC, the writing requirements are challenging and continuous. In order to meet these requirements and to succeed in the curriculum, you have to approach your writing in a systemic and methodical manner. The advice and techniques mentioned in this chapter will greatly facilitate your ability to achieve the standards required in the writing assignments. Discipline yourself to become a better writer and use the available tools in your professional development. While it is not an easy task, you can, and will, succeed if you work at it.

CHAPTER 3

ACADEMIC ETHICS

3-1. Professional and academic ethics are of paramount importance to the CGSC. Work presented by students, staff, and faculty as their own will be their own. To do otherwise results in unfair advantage and is inconsistent with professional ethics and integrity. Academic ethics, as it relates to staff, faculty, and students and their duties at the CGSC, is defined as the application of ethical principles in an academic environment to include giving and receiving authorized assistance, the conduct of legitimate research, and properly attributing credit to sources of information used in written submissions.

This statement and the following amplifications of it are intended to assist the vast majority who want to do the right thing and thereby have a more productive learning experience. This policy is not intended to be a vehicle to incriminate those who might be inclined to violate professional standards. Officers may be technically guilty of plagiarism, and subject to the full penalties for it if they don't document the sources of their information properly. Ignorance is not a defense. **PLAGIARISM, IN ANY FORM, IS STRICTLY PROHIBITED!**

KEY DEFINITIONS

3-2. Key Definitions concerning Academic violations of college policy are found in CGSC Bulletin No. 920, *Command and General Staff College Academic Ethics Policy*.

3-3. Cheating. To act dishonestly, to violate rules, to practice fraud. The acts of stealing, lying, and plagiarizing are also considered cheating for purposes of this bulletin. Examples of cheating include, but are not limited to; copying answers from another student during tests, copying examination answers from another mode of the course, removing test booklets from the examination room after completion of the test unless approved by the examination proctor, failing to turn in test booklets at the end of the test, or using notes or unauthorized materials when taking examinations.

3-4. Unauthorized collaboration. Working jointly with others on a project or written assignment if that project or paper has been assigned as an individual project, for the sole purpose of acting dishonestly or practicing fraud. This may include, but is not limited to; cooperating or allowing another student to copy one's answers during an examination, openly passing notes or discussing examination answers/solutions during the examination, discussing the examination with a student who hasn't yet taken the examination, or receiving unauthorized assistance in preparing out-of-class assignments.

3-5. Plagiarism. To present someone else's ideas, words, data, or work as one's own. This includes both published and unpublished work.

Plagiarism, in any form, is strictly prohibited. Plagiarism includes, but is not limited to:

- Presenting as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source
- Presenting another's writing as one's own

- Copying words from a source without identifying those words with quotation marks and/or endnotes
- Copying the words of another student
- Borrowing another student's paper, handing in a paper purchased from an individual or agency, or submitting papers from study groups or organizational files
- Providing or asking for unauthorized assistance on exams, individual projects, or group projects
- The direct lifting or transfer in whole or in part of computer based text from websites, computer disks, and databases without placing that text in quotes and properly footnoting the source

3-6. Unauthorized assistance. Unauthorized assistance is defined as any type of assistance with assigned work product by any source not specifically allowed by instructors or indicated in the course syllabus. Unauthorized assistance does not include receiving proof-reading assistance or format assistance from spouses, fellow students, or faculty. Such formatting or proof reading assistance will be indicated in the assignment when it is turned in by the student. Examples of unauthorized assistance include the following:

- Possession or use of copies of solutions to practical exercises, examinations, lessons, or any other controlled issue material used in any CGSC resident or nonresident courses that have not been issued by the faculty conducting the course or courses in question, including materials used in prior years and in previous versions of the courses taught within CGSC
- The transfer of any of the material listed in the above paragraph to anyone unless specifically authorized to do so
- Assisting or receiving assistance from any person in completing practical exercises, examinations, or the graded course requirements unless such assistance is expressly authorized by the instructor
- Using information from previous examinations, to include information contained in students' notes or information obtained from students in section/staff groups who have already completed the core curriculum lesson or elective course in question

3-7. Writing requirements. Students will write in accordance with ST 22-2 unless specifically instructed otherwise by the course or lesson instructor. Instructors must state specifically what type of help a student may receive from faculty, spouse, or other students for that course or lesson.

3-8. Group work. When an instructor assigns group work, the concept of team work will apply. This means that brainstorming, sharing of ideas, joint authorship, and critiquing of each other's work is important and critical to a successful project. Each member of the group will do his or her fair share of the effort. Groups will not delegate all or most of the work on a project to one or two individuals. All group members will participate equally in the completion of the project.

When an instructor assigns similar projects to several groups, each group will produce its own solution or work product. Collaboration between groups to produce a common solution is prohibited unless specifically permitted by the instructor. If an instructor approves collaboration with other groups, the instructor will specify, in writing, the nature and limits of the collaboration allowed. A group solution or project based in whole or in part on help or collaboration with another group must indicate all such assistance received by another group or individual. For example: "Our solution is based, in part, on a decision matrix developed by Major Smith's Group."

3-9. Proofreading. Part of the learning process is talking with fellow students and working on improving known weaknesses. As part of this learning process, CGSOC students may ask their spouse or another individual to proofread papers for simple punctuation, spelling errors, and clarity of expression. However, this assistance must be noted on the paper. This type of assistance may not include any comment or correction on the paper or project content or help with research.

3-10. Copyright laws. Copyright laws are specific and demanding. All papers submitted by students and faculty will abide by all copyright laws. Students will not photocopy, duplicate tapes, or use other technologies in violation of these copyright laws. A violation of copyright laws may subject an individual to civilian and/or criminal penalties. For specific information on the use of copyrighted materials, contact the Combined Arms Research Library (CARL) at 758-3018.

3-11. Professional standards. All members of the resident and nonresident college community, to include staff, faculty, and students, must maintain the highest professional standards and uphold the Army values. Authors are expected to do honest research and, when they publish for personal recognition, to attribute credit to those from whose work they borrow.

3-12. Evaluation process. To preclude compromising the evaluation process, students will refrain from discussing or otherwise exchanging information on examinations or quizzes within the hearing of those students who have not yet taken the examination or quiz. The student evaluation process is designed to determine the assimilation and comprehension of each student for each course and to provide information for curriculum design and improvement. Deliberate or unintentional disclosure of examination or quiz content not only invalidates the evaluation process but could result in punitive action being taken against the person who disclosed the information.

3-13. Use of computer language-analysis software. Departments and instructors allow and encourage the use of spelling, grammar, and style checkers by students while working on their written assignments. Language analysis software is a powerful tool for learning and a quality control for writing. This software, unlike the dictionary or composition text, "proofreads" writings and recommends changes based on "rules" set up for that program. It flags potential problems and offers recommendations; the writer makes the decisions. A writer may passively accept these recommendations, but a good writer recognizes the program's limitations as an analytic tool and bases decisions on personal knowledge.

Because the final decision for accepting or rejecting the suggested change rests with the writer, CGSC does not require students to acknowledge the use of these programs in their written assignments.

Students are authorized to use college computers located in the classrooms, Hoge Barracks, and CARL for written work. They may also bring a computer from home; however, personal computers may not be connected to the college LAN.

Students are not authorized to use a personal computer belonging to another student under any conditions. This will prevent students from placing themselves accidentally in harm's way by unwittingly accessing another student's work.

3-14. CGSC Circular 350-1, *United States Army Command and General Staff College Catalog* states: Any student who is suspected of violating U.S. Army CGSC Academic Ethics policy is subject to an Army regulation (AR) 15-6 investigation that may result in appropriate disciplinary action. See CGSC Bulletins No. 912, *Command and General Staff College (CGSC) Academic Misconduct Investigations and Student Dismissal/Release Procedures*, and No. 920, *Command and General Staff College Academic Ethics Policy*.

REPORTING PROCEDURES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

3-15. All faculty and students are expected to comply with the above academic ethical standards regarding individual and group work done at the college. The following reporting procedures will be used when a violation is suspected:

Resident course. Students and faculty will report suspected violations to the class SGA, section leader, or course instructor. During the initial investigation process, all parties involved will ensure the rights of the suspected violator are protected. Prior to speaking to or requesting a written statement from an individual suspected of violating the provisions of CGSC academic ethics, the individual doing the questioning will inform the suspect of his or her rights under either Article 31, Uniform Code of Military Justice or the civilian equivalent.

The SGA or course instructor will then investigate the allegation to the point he or she believes, based on the information gathered, that a violation has occurred. They will then notify their department director, committee chief, or team leader who will inform the college chain of command. Legal advice will be obtained from the CGSC legal advisor as necessary. If a school or department director reasonably believes that an ethics violation has occurred, he or she will forward a memorandum to the Dean of Academics recommending that an AR 15-6 investigation be initiated in accordance with CGSC Bulletin #912, Command and General Staff College (CGSC) Academic Misconduct Investigations and Student Dismissal/Release Procedures.

After receiving the information of the alleged violation, the Dean of Academics will determine if an investigation will be initiated. School and department directors will notify the senior representative of the AFELM, NAVELM, or MCELM of any suspected violation by an officer of their respective service.

Non-resident courses

Distance learning (DL). Adjunct faculty and CGSC students enrolled in DL will report suspected violations of academic ethics to the Director, DDE. During the investigation process, all parties involved in the investigation will ensure compliance with CGSC policy, applicable regulations, and the recognition of the rights of the suspected violators. The Chief, Student Services, DDE will conduct a preliminary investigation into the allegation in accordance with local procedures and CGSC Bulletin #912 and will forward findings and recommendations to the Director, DDE. The director, in conjunction with the directorates whose coursework has been the subject of the alleged violation will do the following:

- Determine if an Academic Review Board is warranted in accordance with CGSC policy
- If warranted, forward a memorandum to the Dean of Academics recommending that an Academic Review Board be initiated
- Conduct investigations concerning adjunct faculty members and forward findings to the appropriate division director
- As with the resident course, all parties involved in the investigation will ensure the rights of the suspected violator are protected

Professional Development Education (PDE) Brigades. TASS CGSOC Battalion and PDE Brigade students who suspect an academic ethics violation will report it to instructors or section leaders, who will then report all suspected violations to battalion commanders. The battalion commander will then establish procedures for conducting a preliminary inquiry to determine whether there is sufficient evidence to warrant an investigation. This preliminary inquiry can be as simple as comparing the student's paper and the document that he or she is alleged to have plagiarized. If not, the preliminary inquiry commander will follow the procedures outlined in CGSC Bulletin #912.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

3-16. CGSC is an institution accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCACS), and subscribes to the American Association of University Professors 1940 Statement on Academic Freedom. CGSC depends on the free flow of ideas for its intellectual vitality. Indeed, the principles of adult education practiced by the college are based on the importance of free thought in an academic environment. But, this freedom also imposes certain obligations.

In the classroom, the college encourages aggressive examination of all academic subjects. However, the debate naturally arising among professionals in such an environment should be kept free from controversial matter having no relation to the scheduled instruction.

Students, staff, and faculty are entitled to full freedom in research and publication of results, consistent with the academic responsibilities of the CGSC. Nonetheless, these efforts are subject to regulatory and statutory limitations, current public affairs policies, copyright laws, security considerations, and the CGSC non-attribution policy.

When CGSC students, staff, and faculty speak or write on matters outside the purview of the college, they are free from academic censorship or discipline. However, they must remember that the public may judge their profession and the CGSC by what they say. They should be accurate, exercise appropriate restraint, show respect for the opinions of others, and make every effort to indicate that the views they express are theirs and not necessarily those of the CGSC or Department of the Army (DA).

STATEMENT ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND RESPONSIBILITY

3-17. The U.S. Army CGSC believes academic freedom for its faculty and students is fundamental and essential to the health of the academic institution. Without academic freedom, the uninhibited search for insight and knowledge is impossible. At the same time, certain individual responsibilities are inherent in the time-honored tradition of free speech. Academic integrity requires that each of us pursues factual accuracy and safeguard classified information. The combination of individual responsibility and academic freedom contributes to the institutional integrity of the CGSC and includes the following principal elements:

- Freedom to discuss, in a non-attribution manner within a classroom, any material or ideas relevant to the subject matter supporting course objectives
- Freedoms to teach, conduct research, and publish research findings
- Freedom to seek changes in academic and institutional policies
- Responsibility to ensure specified institutional learning objectives are achieved
- Responsibility to pursue excellence, intellectual honesty, and objectivity in teaching
- Responsibility to encourage faculty, students, and colleagues to engage in free discussion and inquiry
- Responsibility to encourage and nurture innovative, critical reasoning and creative thinking, discussion, and writing in all areas supportive of the curriculum
- Responsibility that information is presented objectively; a particular point of view may be advanced, as long as the right to further inquiry and consideration remains unabridged
- Responsibility to assess the claims of others with respect and objectively
- Responsibility to uphold scholarly standards for research and publication

NON-ATTRIBUTION POLICY

3-18. Full freedom of expression is encouraged during all academic endeavors at the college. CGSC wants students, faculty, and guest speakers to speak freely and openly about the many important subjects and studies presented at the college. Guest speakers are encouraged to speak openly to CGSC staff, faculty, and students without invoking the college's non-attribution policy so that their comments may be used by the students and instructors throughout the course. However, when a guest speaker does invoke the college's non-attribution policy during their presentation, nothing the speaker says during the presentation may be attributed to them by name, position, or title to any outside source to include news media, public forums, or published writings.

Because many guest speaker presentations are videotaped for later use throughout the college, when a guest speaker requests application of the non-attribution policy, they will also indicate how long they want the policy to apply to their comments. If journalists or media representatives are present during the guest speaker's presentation, the non-attribution policy does not apply.

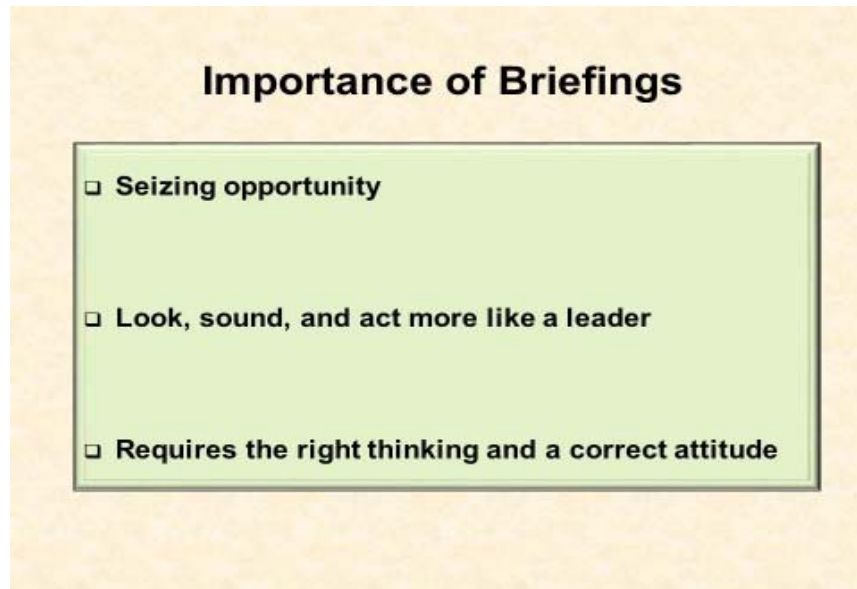
Chapter 4

MILITARY BRIEFINGS

"There are two types of speakers, those that are nervous and those that are liars."

Mark Twain

4-1. Importance of briefings. What you say and how you say it is leadership. Effective communication and the ability to present logical, meaningful, and relevant information in a briefing is a critical staff skill. The commanders we work for have many decisions to make and very little time to analyze the issues impacting these decisions. They depend greatly on their staffs to conduct this analysis and make sound and logical recommendations. In order to instill the confidence necessary to go with your recommendation, each staff officer must be able to effectively communicate or brief the recommendation and supporting logic. Your ability to seize the opportunity, command the audience, and control the briefing will directly influence the outcome of your briefing. Hours of analysis could be wasted if the briefer cannot accomplish this task.



4-2. Characteristics of good briefings.



4-3. Types of military briefings. Your primary source for the types and formats of military briefings is FM 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations*, 5 May 2014, chapter 7. Each type of briefing has a specific purpose and format that will impact how you approach planning and preparing for the briefing.

4-4. Steps of military briefings. Staffs normally follow four steps when preparing an effective briefing: step (1) plan, (2) prepare, (3) execute, and (4) assess. During the planning steps, staff officers analyze the situation and prepare a briefing outline. Who is the audience? What is the purpose (to inform; to get a decision)? What is the subject? Why is it important? What are the critical points? What resources are needed? How much time is available? With this analysis complete, the staff officer prepares a briefing outline and timeline to ensure the briefing meets the needs of the audience and is in the proper format.

Regardless of the type of briefing, the information presented must be effectively communicated to the audience. Use of standard formats is critical. Decision makers have little time and they rely on formats so they know where to look for the critical information. Once the briefing is constructed and REHEARSED, the staff officer delivers the briefing. During the preparation step, staff officers refine their briefing, visual aids, and complete rehearsals. During the execution phase, the staff officer must exude confidence and clearly communicate the material. While delivering the briefing, the staff officer or an assistant must take notes to capture the communication occurring between the briefer and the audience. During the assessment step, after completing the briefing, the staff officer must address all issues that arose during the briefing and follow-up on each. These may be addressed through further coordination, fact sheets, or decision papers.

Briefing Steps

- ☐ **Plan: Analyze the situation; prepare outline**
- ☐ **Prepare: Collect information; construct briefing**
- ☐ **Execute: Deliver briefing**
- ☐ **Assess: Follow-up as required**

4-5. Standards of effective communication. The standard for effective communication (written, verbal, and briefing) during CGSOC includes the elements of substance, organization, style, and correctness. Substance and organization are broken into three areas; introduction, body, and closing.

4-6. Introduction. The introduction includes the greeting, type and classification of the briefing, purpose, references, and outline. The briefer should greet or address the key person(s) in the audience with the appropriate greeting of the day. The briefer should announce the purpose of the briefing and answer the question, “Why are we briefing this?” This is the bottom line up front (BLUF). Last, the briefer should provide a “roadmap” or outline to orient the audience as to the direction of the briefing.

Introduction

- ☐ **Greeting: Render the appropriate greeting to your audience. Introduce yourself and establish your credibility on the topic.**
- ☐ **Purpose: BLUF—Why are you here briefing the audience. Establish importance of the topic.**
- ☐ **Reference: Highlight key references used while researching the topic.**
- ☐ **Outline: Provides the “road map” for the brief.**

4-7. Body. The body is subdivided into four areas. First, accuracy and completeness address the analysis, research, and accuracy of the information being presented. The

briefers must establish credibility as the subject matter expert on the topic. Next is support and significance. Is the information relevant to the topic? Is it relevant to the audience? Is the information supported by appropriate evidence?

(Note: The type of briefing will dictate the type and sequence of information provided in the body.) Next is sequence. Does the briefing follow a logical flow? Is the briefing easy to follow? The last area is transitions. These are the linkages from slide to slide/idea to idea. These help the brief flow smoothly and aid in maintaining the audience's attention. **(Note: Staff officers must always prepare for formal presentation settings based on the audience.)**

4-8. Themes. One theme—one message. Within the body of the briefing it is critical to have one theme or message. This theme may have several subtopics to further define or explain the topic. As part of the “analyze the situation” step, the briefer must analyze the time available to brief the audience. Time will be the main factor in determining the number of subtopics used in the briefing. The briefer should provide examples to demonstrate the significance of each topic (evidence). It is also important to nest outlines or summaries to keep the audience on track when using multiple subtopics.

4-9. Transitions. Transitions assist the audience in following the logic of the information in the briefing. **(Note: Transitions are especially important if you have more than one person presenting information during the briefing.)**

Transitions “Explanation”	Transitions “Importance”
<input type="checkbox"/> For example	<input type="checkbox"/> Most importantly
<input type="checkbox"/> To illustrate	<input type="checkbox"/> Above all
<input type="checkbox"/> For instance	<input type="checkbox"/> Keep this in mind
<input type="checkbox"/> In other words	<input type="checkbox"/> Remember
<input type="checkbox"/> To simplify	<input type="checkbox"/> Listen carefully
<input type="checkbox"/> To clarify	<input type="checkbox"/> Take note of
<input type="checkbox"/> Case in point	<input type="checkbox"/> Indeed

Transitions “Numerical Order”	Transitions “Comparisons”
<input type="checkbox"/> First <input type="checkbox"/> Second <input type="checkbox"/> In the first place <input type="checkbox"/> To begin with <input type="checkbox"/> Initially <input type="checkbox"/> Subsequently <input type="checkbox"/> Eventually <input type="checkbox"/> Finally	<input type="checkbox"/> Compare with <input type="checkbox"/> Both are <input type="checkbox"/> Likewise <input type="checkbox"/> In comparison <input type="checkbox"/> Similarly <input type="checkbox"/> Of equal importance <input type="checkbox"/> Another type of <input type="checkbox"/> Just as

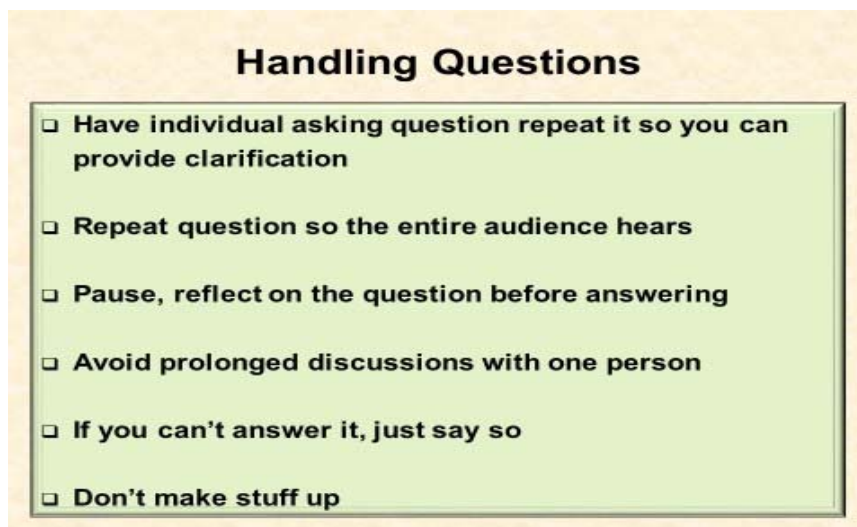
4-10. Common mistakes. Some of the common mistakes that briefers make with transitions are listed here. Transitions generally do not come naturally, they must be rehearsed. It is often helpful to place sticky notes or other reminders on your notes to help you develop the use of transitions.

Transitions: Common Mistakes
<input type="checkbox"/> Doesn't use transitions at all <input type="checkbox"/> Using transitions that are too short to bridge to the next idea <input type="checkbox"/> Using the same transition throughout the briefing

4-11. Closing. The closing includes the questions, summary, and conclusion. These are generally self-explanatory. The briefer should entertain as many questions as time will allow, then provide a summary and conclusion.

4-12. Handling questions. Giving the audience an opportunity to ask questions is a viable part of the briefing.

It provides the briefing officer the opportunity to clarify information, demonstrate knowledge of the material, and to reiterate the importance of the information relative to a problem or issue.



4-13. Summary and conclusion. Refer to FM 6-0 when preparing your briefing to ensure you include all of the required elements for the particular type of briefing you are preparing. Don't confuse the summary for the conclusion. Information briefings have both but they serve different purposes. The summary is a recap of the main points of your briefing, it should look very close to your outline. This is your opportunity to drive home any important ideas you have covered in your briefing. Be sure not to introduce any new material during the summary. The conclusion is your chance to give the "so what" of your briefing and make any lasting impressions on your audience. Explain, succinctly, why the material is important, how it relates to the audience or organization and sets the stage for future work etc.

4-14. Style and correctness. Style and correctness focus primarily on the skills of the briefer and correctness or relevance of the briefing aids.

4-15. Style. The first area, style, is divided into four areas; physical behavior, speaking voice, vocabulary, and enthusiasm/confidence. The physical dimension addresses how you handle yourself under the pressure of briefing. Do you present yourself as the confident subject matter expert or do you cower behind the lectern and just suffer through the process?

You may be the subject matter expert, but if you can't convince the audience that you know what you are talking about, you have just wasted everyone's time.

4-16. Eye contact. One of the most critical elements of the physical dimension is eye contact. Eye contact communicates confidence and trust. It also helps you read your audience's body language. In order to maintain effective eye contact you have to know your material inside and out. Rehearse, rehearse, and rehearse! While briefing, you have to establish a bond with the crowd. Pick a person and talk directly to them for 5 to 10 seconds, then shift to someone else.

This will keep the audience alert and involved and help calm your nervousness. Watch the body language of the audience to see if they are bored, interested, confused, etc.

Style “Eye Contact”

- ❑ **Know your material well**
 - Rehearse enough so you do not have to depend heavily on notes
 - When referring to notes drop your eyes not your head
- ❑ **Establish a personal bond with listeners**
 - Select one person (5 to 10 seconds)
 - Then shift
 - Show sincerity and interest
- ❑ **Monitor visual feedback**
 - Actively seek out valuable feedback
 - Volume, bored, puzzled, interested

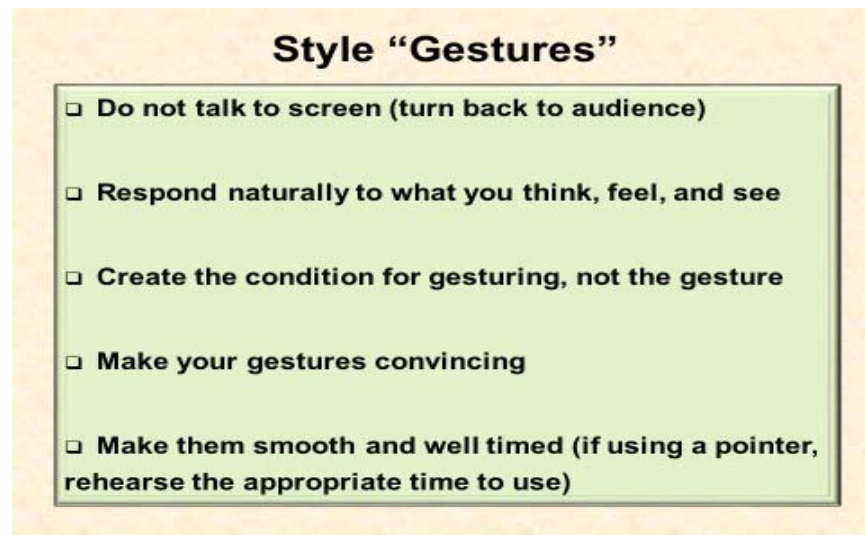
4-17. Movement. Depending on your audience and how formal the briefing is you may have the option to move around during the presentation. Movement serves both you and your audience. It allows you to get rid of some nervous energy and emphasize the points you want to make. For your audience, it gives them a moving target to focus on. This helps maintain their attention throughout the briefing. Like most aspects of oral presentations, it's important to maintain a comfortable demeanor. This will vary from person to person. Keep in mind that you want to engage the audience, keep them interested in what you have to say and avoid distracting them with annoying or obnoxious movements.

Style “Movement”

- ❑ **Why move?**
 - Forces people to focus
 - Should be natural
 - Relieve stress and relax
- ❑ **Use three positions**
 - Home position (Anchoring)
 - Two steps relatively near the home position
 - Three steps, moving at a shallow angle

4-18. Gestures. Gestures help to emphasize key points and reinforce the importance of critical portions of your brief. Gestures also help to keep the audience's attention and stimulate their ability to remember the key points made by the briefer. Don't over-do gestures, rehearse them and ensure they are natural and convincing.

Some common annoying and distracting gestures and movements that should be avoided include: putting your hands in your pockets or on your hips, turning your back to the audience, rocking back and forth, pacing, moving around, marching, and jittery pointer (sword or wand).



4-19. Speaking. Speaking voice addresses the volume and pace of the briefer. The briefer must speak loud enough for all in the room to hear clearly, and slow enough to be understood (without putting the audience to sleep). Many people tend to speak faster during a briefing than in normal conversation. Several techniques can help you develop an appropriate rate of speech: time yourself when you rehearse; have someone listen to you when you rehearse; consciously slow your delivery pace and learn to pause and take a breath.

Another consideration is your tone, you should strive to speak in a conversational manner. This means varying the pitch of your voice and injecting interest in your subject. The audience should sense a degree of ownership as you brief.

Finally, work on reducing filler words. For some people filler words have become a normal habit of speech and can be hard to recognize without help. This again is where it is very helpful to have someone listen to your rehearsal and ask them for feedback.

Style “What Comes Out of Your Mouth”

- ☐ Vary the pitch of your voice
- ☐ Speak loudly and clearly
- ☐ Slow down, pause
- ☐ Use conversational tone
- ☐ Listen, do you hear “ahs” and “ums” (Filler words)
- ☐ Focus on the bottom (deepest pitch) of your voice range

4-20. Vocabulary. Vocabulary addresses the use of words in the briefing. The briefer must use words that clearly communicate the theme of the brief. These words must be pronounced correctly and enunciated clearly. If the briefer uses acronyms, he/she must define the acronym the first time to ensure the audience has a common understanding. Enthusiasm/confidence addresses the briefer’s ability to take ownership of the briefing. The briefer should be energetic and demonstrate confidence in the delivery of the briefing.

4-21. Speaker anxiety. For some people speaker anxiety and nervousness is a significant problem and can really hurt their presentation skills. Most people are always at least a little nervous when speaking in public, this is only natural and can be a positive thing. However, if you dread speaking publically and it renders your presentations ineffective then you need to take some positive steps to overcome this problem.

Preparation is one of the most important techniques in preparing for a briefing, it helps you learn the material, figure out where your vulnerabilities are and can help you overcome your nerves. Some of the other techniques in this chapter will also help you with anxiety. If you are overly nervous about public speaking don’t try to present your entire briefing from memory. Learn the material as well as possible and focus on presenting the content in a conversational manner with some well-prepared notes to help cue your memory as needed.

Practice is always the best technique to improve your briefing skills. For nervous briefers the natural tendency is to avoid public speaking all together. This is the wrong approach and will ultimately expose your weakness and potentially hurt your reputation. As a professional, public speaking will increasingly become a prominent requirement in future assignments. Learn what works for you and seek opportunities to get the practice and feedback you need to hone your speaking skills.

Style “Overcoming Speaking Anxiety”

- ☐ Know the room
- ☐ Know the audience
- ☐ Know the material
- ☐ Learn how to relax
- ☐ Visualize yourself speaking
- ☐ Realize people want you to succeed
- ☐ Don't apologize for being nervous
- ☐ Concentrate on your message
- ☐ Turn nervousness into positive energy
- ☐ Gain experience

Style “Controlling Nervousness”

- ☐ Know your subject cold – be over-prepared
- ☐ Talk to one person at a time
- ☐ Stand up straight and breathe properly
- ☐ Know exactly what your opening line is going to be
- ☐ Say to yourself, “I know what I am going to say and I'm glad for this chance to say it”

Style “How To Remember the Material”

- ☐ Risk Low to High
 - Rehearse, rehearse, rehearse!
 - Use visual aids as notes
 - Use notes
 - Read from complete text
 - Memorize

4-22. Enthusiasm. Enthusiasm is contagious. If you are excited about your topic, you will generally present a better briefing. Remember, your commander and audience is thinking, "If you don't think it is important, then why are you telling me?"

Enthusiasm

- ❑ Enthusiasm is contagious
- ❑ We judge others by their behavior
- ❑ If it is important enough to talk about...
- ❑ Feedback – what do you see?
 - Appreciation
 - Surprise
 - Genuine delight
- ❑ Remember this is person to person

4-23. Rehearsals. Practice and rehearsals matter. Rehearse initially in your office. At some point you have to rehearse in the actual location. How do you operate the devices (this is part of your technical rehearsal)? Where is the pointer? Do I have handouts? Are they in the right order? Do I want to plant questions in the audience? As you see, it covers much more than just reading your slides and notes. The rule of thumb is 10 practice runs. You may need more, or you may get by with less, depending on your level of experience. Bottom line, if you fail to prepare, you are preparing for failure.

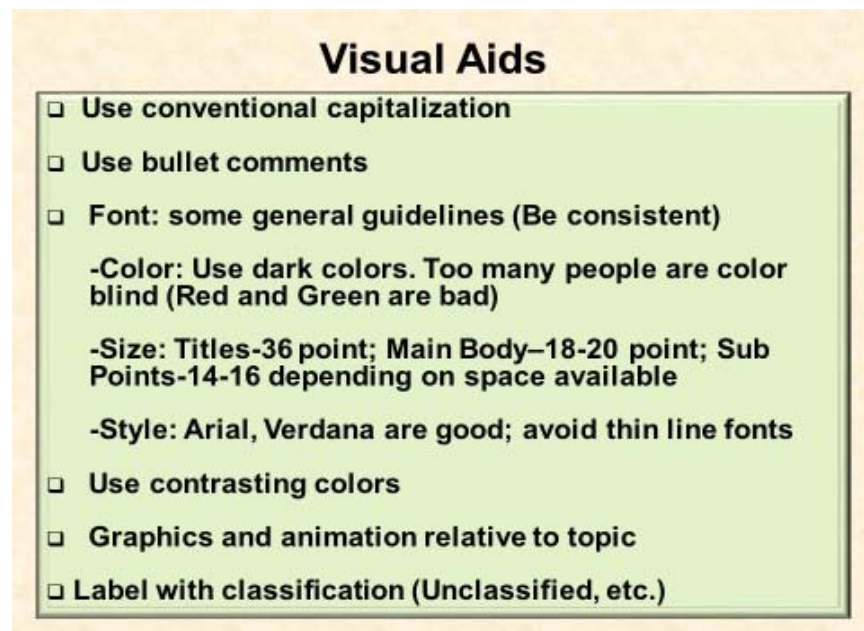
Rehearsals

- ❑ The single most important factor for success
- ❑ Reflects upon you and your attitude towards the material and your audience (Professionalism)
- ❑ Practice all parts equally (Mental, Slide, Live Rehearsals)
- ❑ Rule of thumb: 10 practice runs for each presentation

4-24. Correctness. For briefings, correctness focuses on the use and format of your visual aids, slides, and graphics. Your visual aids should complement your briefing.

(Note: What you are briefing and how you communicate with the audience is the most important aspect of effective communication.) Your visual aids should be neat, simple, legible, and illustrate key points.

4-25. Visual aids. Ensure you use conventional capitalization and correct spelling on all your visual aids. Use bullet comments and don't crowd the slide. Often the message is lost because the slide is too busy. Be consistent and use the same font sizes throughout as much as possible. Arial font and font sizes of 18 point and above should be used. When you use a slide like a mission statement, it is helpful to use contrasting font colors to highlight the key points from the slide. Ensure your graphics and animation are relative to the topic and not just "bells and whistles." Bottom line is that all your visual aids should focus the audience on the message.



4-26. Assessment. Assessing speaking. The assessment tool for speaking is CGSS Form 1009S and is located in the Blackboard Master Library in the Communication Skills Resources Folder.

CHAPTER 5

THE STAFF OFFICER

5-1. Most officers will spend more than 80% of their career in staff positions, serving on different staffs and levels of command. The primary responsibility of the staff is threefold:

- Support the commander.
- Assist subordinate commanders, staffs, and units.
- Inform units and organizations outside the headquarters.

A staff officer will accomplish the mission for each commander differently, but the characteristics are the same among successful staff officers. Staffs support and advise the commander within their area of expertise. Staffs help subordinate headquarters understand the larger context of operations. Staffs keep units well informed. Effective knowledge management helps staffs identify the information the commander and each staff element need, and its relative importance.

5-2. Staff officer characteristics.



5-3. Competence. Staff officers are expected to be experts in their particular field and position. They must be well versed in doctrine and able to coordinate their actions both horizontally and vertically.

5-4. Initiative. As a staff officer, you must have the initiative to anticipate requirements. Don't wait for the commander to give specific guidance on when and where to act. Anticipate what the commander needs and the questions he will ask in order to make an informed decision.

5-5. Critical and creative thinking. Staffs create and preserve options for commanders to make decisions.

Staff officers must strive to determine the truth in any matter in order to facilitate the needs of the operations process. Be creative in researching solutions to difficult, unique, and complex situations. Creative thinking and critical reasoning are skills that aid you in developing and analyzing courses of action. Seek ways to support subordinate units and don't say no to a subordinate unit commander unless you have cleared it with the commander.

5-6. Adaptive. Commanders will frequently change their mind or direction after receiving additional information or a new requirement from their commander. Remain flexible and adjust to the needs and desires of the commander. Staff officers must rapidly adjust and continually assess plans, tactics, techniques, and procedures.

5-7. Flexible. Understand that all staff work serves the commander, even if he rejects your recommendation. Do not become overwhelmed and frustrated by the changes required by the commander and mission objectives. Staff officers remain flexible and understand that changes will happen, often times with no apparent reason. Never forget that your work is essential to the mission and your unit's success, regardless of the commander's decisions.

5-8. Discipline and self-confidence. As a staff officer, discipline requires a certain sense of selflessness. Remember your purpose and always conduct your work in a way that supports the commander and ultimately the Soldiers in the organization. You must give a full effort even if you believe the commander will disagree with your recommendations. Remember that quality staff work always helps inform decision-making and the operations process.

5-9. Team player. Effective staff officers must be able to work with people in a constructive manner. Successful staff work is a collaborative effort, requiring interaction and effective coordination within your organization and with higher and lower commanders and staffs.

5-10. Reflective. Staff officers need to assess their actions and adjust as necessary to ensure future success. Upon completion of actions, they analyze and assess events to implement measures that maximize efficiencies in the future.

5-11. Clear communicator. Effective communications encompass competence in writing, speaking, and listening. These competencies are essential to the success of the staff officer. Staff officers routinely write concise papers, brief senior officers and accurately interpret guidance. Another part of being an effective communicator is being proficient with current computer technology. You will be asked to produce visual briefing products such as charts, graphs, slides, or other multimedia briefing products.

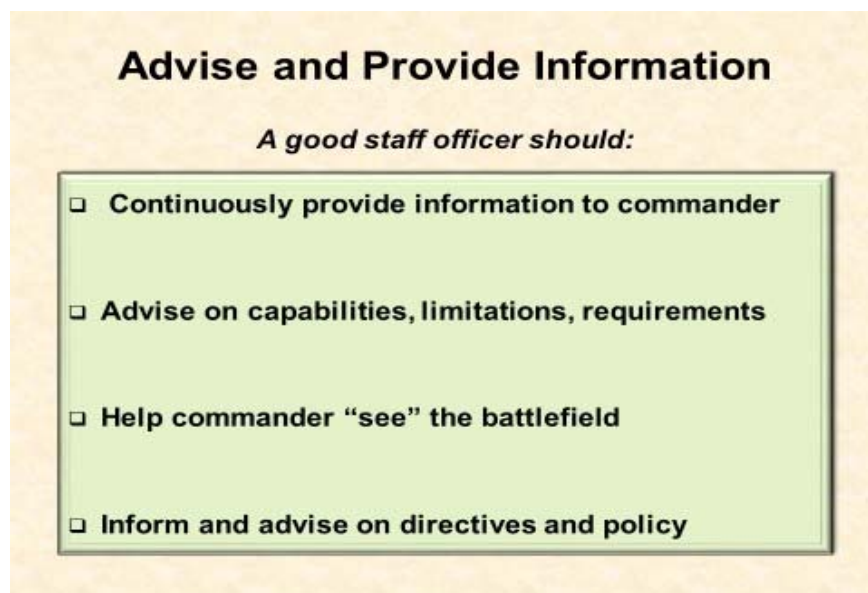
5-12. The staff's role. The commander is responsible for all that their organization does or fails to do. They will always retain the ultimate responsibility to make the final decision. The staff officer's duty is to assist the commander in making that final decision. Staffs must provide the commander with the necessary, timely, and correct information to make the right decisions. As a staff officer your job is to accomplish the commander's intent by operating within your assigned authority to perform the duties in your area of expertise. Your efforts relieve the commander of routine and detailed work.

5-13. Staff actions. The staff officer assists the commander, helps communicate intent, and acts as an extension of the commander. Staff actions contribute to mission accomplishment and the procedures employed must be the means to accomplish the mission and the commander's intent. Some examples of typical staff actions are:

- Advise and provide information
- Produce staff estimates
- Course of action development
- Plan and execute conferences
- Conduct inspections
- Produce staff writings and briefings
- Conduct research

Any activity conducted by a staff officer at the direction of the commander can be considered a "staff action".

5-14. Advise and provide information. The staff must continuously feed the commander information. One piece of information alone may not be significant, but added to others it may be the information that allows the commander to formulate the big picture and to make a decision. You must remember that you will be required to work multiple issues at the same time. Information must be set into the proper frame of reference and be relevant to prevent wasting yours and the commander's time.



5-15. Produce staff estimates. Estimates assist the commander in decision-making. Estimates consist of significant facts, events, conclusions, and recommendations on how available resources can be best used and what additional resources are required. Commanders use recommendations to select feasible courses of action for further analysis.

Adequate plans hinge on early and continuing estimates. The staffs' failure to make or update these estimates could lead to errors or omissions in the development of a

course of action. (An example is staff officers maintaining a current estimate of the situation in their areas of interest, in coordination with other staffs.)

Staff Estimates

- ❑ **Estimates assist the commander's decision making**
- ❑ **Estimates consist of significant facts, events, conclusions and recommendations**
- ❑ **Adequate plans hinge on early and accurate estimates**
- ❑ **Failure to make or update estimates may lead to mission failure**

5-16. Conduct staff writing. Every officer must be able to write effectively. You must articulate, in writing, the commander's intent and guidance through operation orders, plans, staff studies, staff summaries, and reports. You should prepare the product as if you were going to sign it or brief it yourself. To adequately assist the commander you must be able to transform the commander's intent and guidance into written policy.

Staff Writing

- ❑ **Writing is an essential means of informing the commander and staff**
- ❑ **Staff officers must be able to prepare a variety of written products**
- ❑ **Effective writing must be precise and unambiguous**
- ❑ **Briefings, e-mail, staff papers, reports, and summaries are some of the most common methods**

5-17. Problem solving. Staff officers cannot be just data collectors and transmitters. They must have the ability to analyze and clearly articulate information. The staff collects, collates, analyzes, processes, and disseminates information that flows continuously into the headquarters. The staff rapidly processes and provides critical elements of this information to the commander and other members of the staff.

Problem Solving

- ☐ **Staff officers must analyze and clearly articulate information**
- ☐ **The problem and main issues drive information requirements**
- ☐ **The staff must rapidly process and provide critical information to the commander**
- ☐ **Valid conclusions are relevant to the problem and supported by collected facts and assumptions**
- ☐ **Staff officers cannot simply collect and transmit data**

5-18. Staff coordination. Staff coordination is essential for several reasons. It ensures a thorough understanding of the commander's intent. It serves as the integrating function in management and is vital to any planned activity. Coordination ensures complete and coherent staff actions. It enables the staff officer to avoid conflict and duplication by adjusting plans or policies before their implementation to ensure all factors are considered. It is a systematic way of communicating with organizations and staffs at all levels.

Staff Coordination

- ☐ **Coordination is a systemic way of communicating**
- ☐ **It is the integrating function in staff processes**
- ☐ **It is vital to any planned activity**
- ☐ **Staff officers must understand the commander's intent**

5-19. Keys to coordination. Coordination is necessary to ensure a smooth running operation. Listed are some keys to success that many inexperienced officers often overlook.

Keys to Coordination

- ☐ **Build your reputation on competence**
- ☐ **Build relationships with the right people**
- ☐ **Deliver on promises**
- ☐ **Treat others with courtesy, especially administrative personnel**
- ☐ **If people deny your requests, act appropriately, don't burn your bridges**

5-20. Coordination “must do’s.” While learning to coordinate isn't hard, it requires initiative and perception. As soon as you report to your new job, you must:

- Observe what's going on around you
- Find out who's making things happen
- Get a copy of the organization or installation staff officer's guide

To find out what's going on review these documents:

- Mission statement-this helps you determine the mission, goals, and priorities, so you know what's worth coordinating
- Organization and functions manual-this document can help you identify functions, positions, and responsibilities and locate where you fit in
- Office and computer files-review office and computer files for background and precedents on actions for which you're responsible

Coordination “Must Do’s”

As soon as you begin a new job:

- ☐ **Observe what is happening around you**
- ☐ **Find out who makes things happen**
- ☐ **Get a copy of the organization’s staff officer’s guide**
- ☐ **Review the unit mission statement, organization and functions manual, office and computer files**

APPENDIX A

THE CONCISE COMMAND AND GENERAL STAFF SCHOOL STYLE GUIDE

This guide addresses common citing rules as described in the Kate Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* (eighth edition).

Citation Styles

Turabian describes the two most common citation styles: *notes-bibliography style* or simply *bibliography*, and *author-date style*. *Bibliography* style features footnotes or end notes; and the *author-date style* uses parenthetical citations. The Turabian manual provides detailed guidance on the correct formats to cite sources using these styles. Citation styles lend themselves to different academic writing requirements. CGSC does not dictate citation styles. Lesson authors will determine the appropriate citation style for their specific writing requirements (essays, manuscripts, exams, etc.)

Ideas or data forming the core of common knowledge do not require citation. Careful citation of all other ideas, data, and quotations is especially important when paraphrasing and should protect the writer from the possibility of plagiarism.

Subsequent References to Previously Cited Material in Footnotes or Endnotes

When citing references previously cited in full in earlier footnotes or endnotes:

Use *Ibid.* (from *ibidem*, "in the same place"; always takes a period) when referring to the identical source and page number as in the previous source (footnote or endnote immediately preceding the current footnote or endnote). For example:

¹ James Willbanks, *Abandoning Vietnam: How America Left and South Vietnam Lost Its War* (Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas, 2004), 46.

² *Ibid.*

Use *Ibid.* and the page number, if only the page number differs from the immediately preceding reference. For example:

¹ James Willbanks, *Abandoning Vietnam: How America Left and South Vietnam Lost Its War* (Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas, 2004), 46.

² *Ibid.*, 24.

The second, nonconsecutive reference to a work already cited in full requires an **abbreviated** format: last name of author, shortened title of book, page number. This makes it easier for the reader to identify when you are introducing a new source. For example:

² James Willbanks, *Abandoning Vietnam: How America Left and South Vietnam Lost Its War*, (Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas, 2004), 46.

¹⁴ Willbanks, *Abandoning Vietnam*, 48.

Direct Quotations

Authors should enclose direct quotations of *less than three lines* in quotation marks inside the main text. Failure to cite a direct quotation is plagiarism. Set quotations of *three or more lines* apart from the text by indenting and single-spacing them *without* quotation marks. The superscript endnote or footnote number usually appears at the end of such indented text.

Bibliography

A bibliography is required only if sources other than course materials are used. The bibliography should follow the endnotes (if used), or the last page of text if footnotes are used. Arrange bibliography alphabetically (last name first) and group according to type of source (books, Internet, periodicals, etc.). Refer to style rules in Turabian for complete details.

Internet and Electronic Sources

Citation of Internet and electronic sources remains in transition. The principal rule is that the source must be traceable, so that the reader can locate the source. If you are in doubt as to the site's stability or longevity, download and print the file. If you have any questions, consult your instructor for detailed guidance. Commonly cited information includes the source of the site (generally an organization or individual), title, date website last revised, web address, and date accessed. (See examples below for format.) Researchers beware. While information found in books and scholarly journals is routinely subject to scholarly review, the same level of fact checking and evaluation may be lacking for information and articles on the Internet. For that reason, **do not use Wikipedia or similar uncontrolled sources for information.**

EXAMPLE BIBLIOGRAPHY AND NOTE FORMAT

The following examples illustrate the appropriate documentation for works commonly cited by CGSC students and not addressed specifically in the above references. These are the accepted formats for such entries. Otherwise, use the examples in Turabian.

1. Field Manual

Bibliography:

US, Department of the Army. FM 25-100, *Training the Force*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office. November 1988.

Note:

¹ Department of the Army, FM 25-100, *Training the Force* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, November 1988), 121.

2. Book of Readings

Bibliography:

Clausewitz, Carl von. "What is War?" *On War*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976, 75–89. Excerpt reprinted in US Army Command and General Staff College, *H100 Book of Readings*, 50–61. Fort Leavenworth, KS: USACGSC, July 1992.

Note:

¹ Carl von Clausewitz, "What is War?" *On War* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976), 75–89; excerpt reprinted in US Army Command and General Staff College, *H100 Book of Readings* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: USACGSC, July 1992), 55.

[List author by first name first in the note and last name first in the alphabetical bibliography.]

Bibliography:

Howard, Michael. "Military Science in an Age of Peace." *RUSI, Journal of the Royal United Services Institute for Defence Studies* 119 (March 1974): 3–9. Reprinted in US Army Command and General Staff College, *H100 Book of Readings*, 205–11. Fort Leavenworth, KS: USACGSC, July 1992.

Note:

¹ Michael Howard, "Military Science in an Age of Peace," *RUSI, Journal of the Royal United Services Institute for Defence Studies* 119 (March 1974); reprinted in US Army Command and General Staff College, *H100 Book of Readings* (Fort Leavenworth: USACGSC, July 1992), 210.

3. Books

Your research may require the use of individual pages and/or chapters within a book written by different authors and edited by someone other than the author. The following example is a chapter from a book used throughout the course:

Bibliography:

Herwig, Holger H. "Innovation Ignored: The Submarine Problem—Germany, Britain, and the United States, 1919–1939." In *Military Innovation in the Interwar Period*, Edited by Williamson Murray and Allan R. Millett, 227–264. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1996.

Note:

¹ Holger H. Herwig, "Innovation Ignored: The Submarine Problem—Germany, Britain, and the United States, 1919–1939," in *Military Innovation in the Interwar Period*, ed. Williamson Murray and Allan R. Millett (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1996), 229.

4. Journal Articles

Following is an example using a common source (*Military Review*) of research topics and information.

Bibliography:

Karcher, Timothy M. "The Victory Disease." *Military Review* 83 (July–August 2003): 9–17.

Note:

² Timothy M. Karcher, "The Victory Disease," *Military Review* 83 (July–August 2003): 11.

5. Leavenworth Papers

Following is an example using a common source from the Leavenworth Papers series of professional writings.

Bibliography:

Doughty, Robert A. *The Evolution of US Army Tactical Doctrine, 1946–76*. Leavenworth Papers No. 1. Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1979. (Reprinted 2001)

Note:

³ Robert A. Doughty, *The Evolution of US Army Tactical Doctrine, 1946–76*, Leavenworth Papers No. 1 (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1979, reprinted 2001), 28.

6. Electronic and Web-based Sources

Bibliography:

US Department of the Army, Center For Army Lessons Learned. *Urban Combat Operations—References*. Fort Leavenworth, KS: Center for Army Lessons Learned, 2002. CD ROM; available from CALL.

Note:

⁴ Department of the Army, Center For Army Lessons Learned. *Urban Combat Operations—References* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Center for Army Lessons Learned, 2002) [CD ROM]; available from CALL.

Bibliography:

Royal Air Force. The Battle of Britain History Site. *The Battle of Britain—Commanders*. Delta Web International, 2000. <http://www.raf.mod.uk/bob1940/bob> (accessed [date]).

Note:

⁵ Royal Air Force. The Battle of Britain History Site. *The Battle of Britain—Commanders* (Delta Web International, 2000) <http://www.raf.mod.uk/bob1940/bob> (accessed [date]).

Bibliography:

Paret, Peter, ed. *Makers of Modern Strategy: from Machiavelli to the Nuclear Age*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1986. Kindle edition, 2007.

Note:

⁶ Felix Gilbert, "Machiavelli: The Renaissance of the Art of War." In *Makers of Modern Strategy: from Machiavelli to the Nuclear Age*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1986, chap. 1. Kindle edition, 2007.







APPENDIX B

EDITING SYMBOLS

Faculty may use these symbols as shorthand to identify errors or questions arising in assessment of written products. To the right of each symbol is a brief explanation. Some of these symbols are original, and unique to CGSC; others (including some with modifications) come from a variety of sources, including the *Prentice Hall Handbook for Writers* (currently out of print) and *The Gregg Reference Manual*, tribute edition. Symbols may be combined for a fuller, more definitive identification of a problem. When interpreting the editing symbols an instructor has marked on your paper(s), skim the left-hand column to find the symbol, and then look to the right for an explanation.

SYMBOL EXPLANATION

ab	Inappropriate or incorrect abbreviation.
ad	Improper use of an adjective or adverb.
agr	Agreement error: subject-verb, pronoun-antecedent, or adjective-noun.
awk	This is awkward--there's a better way to say this.
BF	BOLD font.
bluf	State the thesis statement (bottom line) up front.
coh	These words or sentences aren't well connected.
coord	Faulty coordination.
cs	Comma splice.
cw or wc	Choice of word--there's a better word than this.
dglm	Dangling modifier.
doc	Document your sources.
emp?	The emphasis in this sentence is not where it should be.
frag	Sentence fragment, incomplete sentence.
GIB	Gibberish. This sentence does not make sense.
gr	Grammar error.
ital	italics.
lc	Make this letter or WORD lowercase.
log	This seems illogical. These statements don't agree.
log (p __)	This isn't consistent with your statement on page__.
mm	Misplaced modifier.
p	Punctuation error.
pas or PV	Inappropriate use of the passive voice.
poss	Possessive error.
RED	redundant.

ref	Unclear pronoun reference.
ROS	Run-on sentence.
RTQ/ATQ	Read the question / answer the question.
seq	Bad sequencing. Change the order.
sh	Inappropriate shift in tense, person, number, or tone.
sp	Spelling error.
SO	Spell out.
spt	Support--you need to explain or prove this.
ss	This sentence does not make sense.
sub	Faulty subordination.
SVM	Subject-Verb mismatch (singular/plural or plural/singular).
sum	Summarize your important parts (for an introduction or transition).
tone	Inappropriate tone.
ts	I think this is your controlling idea, (thesis).
ts?	I can't find your thesis statement.
ts:v	Your thesis statement is vague or unfocused.
ts (p__)	I think your thesis statement is on page ____.
UL	Underline.
v	Vague or ambiguous--what do you mean here?
var	You need more variety in structure or word choice.
VT	Verb tense error or disagreement.
w	Wordy--you can say this in less space.
wc or cw	Word choice (wrong word for this meaning or context).
≡	Capitalize a lowercase letter or word.
	Weak or no connection (coherence) between these.
	Delete the items marked.
	Start a new paragraph here.
no 	Don't start a paragraph here.
???	Is this right? Did you mean to say this?
	Faulty parallelism.
^ or v	Insert a word or punctuation. May be combined with other symbols for clarity.
	Close up--make these two one word.

#	Insert space.
~ or tr	Transpose; change sequence as indicated.
ss[Single space.
ds[Double space.
↓	Subscript.
↑	Superscript.
└─n	Indent (number of spaces).
○	There is a problem here (probably combined with a proofreading symbol).

APPENDIX C**AN ARGUMENTATIVE ANALYSIS CHECKLIST**

Examine the elements of an argument using the criteria below.

Thesis

- What is the writer's thesis? Is it clear and concise? Does it plainly state a position and the reasons for that position?
- What claims are being asserted? Do those claims support the thesis?
- What assumptions are being made—are they acceptable?
- Are important terms defined? Are terms used that are broad, vague or ambiguous?

Supporting Evidence

- What support is offered on behalf of the argument?
- Are statistics (if there are any) relevant, accurate, and complete?
- Is there authoritative testimony used as evidence and if authorities are cited, are they indeed expert on this topic, and can they be regarded as impartial?

Other Considerations

- Is the logic apparent? What type is used—deductive and inductive? Is it valid?
- Are there any obvious fallacies of logic in the argument?
- Is there an emotional appeal in the argument? Is its use excessive?
- Does the writer seem to be fair?
- Are counterarguments adequately considered?
- Is there any obvious dishonesty or unscrupulous attempt to manipulate the reader?

IS THE ARGUMENT PERSUASIVE? WHY OR WHY NOT?

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APPENDIX E

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Sabin, William A. *The Gregg Reference Manual: A Manual of Style, Grammar, Usage, and Formatting* (Tribute ed., 11th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill College, 2010.

Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* (8th ed.). Rev. by Wayne C. Booth, Gregory G. Colomb, Joseph M. Williams, and the University of Chicago Press Editorial Staff. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press, 2013.

Army Doctrine Publication No. 5-0, *The Operations Process*. Washington, DC, May 2012.

Army Field Manual 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations w/Change 1*, Washington, DC, May 2015.

Army Regulation 25-50, *Preparing and Managing Correspondence*. Washington, DC, 17 May 2013.

FM 6-0, w/ C1, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations*. Washington, DC, 11 May 2015.

