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**COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE  
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MARINE CORPS UNIVERSITY  
COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

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AY 2013

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## FOREWORD

Effective written and oral communication skills are vital in Marine Corps University students' professional military education and in their development as leaders in the armed services. In the operational forces, strong communication skills are needed to brief, instruct, persuade, counsel, and motivate fellow service members; at Marine Corps University, these skills are needed to engage in critical debate with classmates and to demonstrate your ability to understand and apply course material in written assignments. A key written and oral communications resource, the *Marine Corps University Style Guide* will provide you with the skills necessary to succeed both in the schoolhouse and also upon return to the operating forces.



The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* establishes a uniform style of writing adapted from *The Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS). In the guide, you will find information consistent with CMS regarding proper citation practices, grammar and punctuation rules, and appropriate formatting of charts, graphs, and tables. This condensed, user-friendly reference also provides you with guidance on the use of civilian academic and professional military styles in research, writing, and oral presentations, which makes the guide an asset to students and faculty university-wide.

In keeping with the Marine Corps initiative to go green, and in an effort to make the guide more interactive, an online copy of the Academic Year 2013 *MCU Communications Style Guide* has been made available. Students and faculty comfortable using new technological tools, such as the Kindle reader and iPad, will find the hyperlinks useful in cross-referencing chapters and sections within the guide itself, outside university and PME writing guides, and additional resources from writing and speaking centers across the country.

The use of the *MCU Communications Style Guide* is in keeping with my goals to further progress throughout Marine Corps University operations, and I am pleased to provide you with this informative, user-friendly resource. Best wishes for a successful academic year.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "W. F. Mullen III". The signature is fluid and cursive.

W. F. MULLEN III  
Brigadier General (Select), U. S. Marine Corps  
President, Marine Corps University

## PREFACE

The [Leadership Communication Skills Center](#) is an academic support center for [Marine Corps University](#) (MCU) students, faculty, and staff. Its mission is to provide classes, written guidance, and one-on-one assistance in the delivery of degree-granting education programs in order to strengthen students' leadership by enhancing their written and oral communication skills.

The *MCU Communications Style Guide*, written and developed by the Leadership Communication Skills Center staff, and published through Marine Corps University, is a user-friendly resource that can be useful both in MCU's academic coursework and also in the operating forces regarding the completion of written and oral tasks and assignments. This style guide serves three main purposes: First, the guide introduces a uniform style and procedure of writing that is implemented university-wide. Second, the guide will provide you with a user-friendly reference tailored specifically to your needs; that is, the guide incorporates specific examples from previous MCU student papers using content specific to the US military. Third, the guide directs you to additional resources for effective communication guidelines.

The style guide is a compilation of information from [The Chicago Manual of Style](#), Joint Military Intelligence College's *Research and Writing Style Guides*, [Naval Correspondence Manual](#) guidelines, and guidance from [Marine Corps University faculty](#), students, and staff. However, the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is made considerably shorter than any of the previously mentioned style guides in order to serve as a user-friendly document. The style guide attempts to simplify the information introduced by *The Chicago Manual of Style*, as well as military writing style guides. For this reason, the guide's tone is conversational and relatively informal. In the vein of informal style guides, such as [Zinsser's On Writing Well](#) and [Strunk and White's The Elements of Style](#), the chapters are written in second person, making the text more approachable than the more traditional style guides.

The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* has also adopted a bulleted/listing approach to presenting information as opposed to strict text. This format allows you to quickly locate, read, and digest the information you need. The style guide's listing approach helps to condense complex information and steps in the writing process into a comprehensive form to aid you as you face not only academic, but also professional tasks while at MCU. Be advised, however, that the guide is not a replacement for the *Chicago Manual of Style* or other military writing guides. Instead, it is a condensed, combined, and adapted version of these previous publications.

We are honored to work with the country's finest men and women, and we thank you for the service you give in support of freedom and democracy. We are here to support your goals this academic year and beyond, and we hope you find our guide useful in your endeavors.

Respectfully,

Ms. Andrea Hamlen, *Interim Director*, and Ms. Stase Rodebaugh, *Communications Instructor*  
Leadership Communication Skills Center

## OPERATING PROCEDURES

With 769 total visits from students, faculty, and staff in Academic Year 2012, the Leadership Communication Skills Center is Marine Corps University's key written and oral communications resource. Our staff members provide "brown bag" elective classes throughout the academic year; topics range from critical reading to oral presentations to all aspects of the writing process (i.e. brainstorming, topic development, grammar, revisions, peer review, etc.). We also provide direct student support in the form of one-on-one appointments and electronic feedback through our [paper e-mail service](#). In addition, we can help you prepare your papers for publication/writing contests, and we assisted 15 of the 16 writing award recipients (94%) in AY 2012. If you are an International Military Student who would like more information on Marine Corps University's writing and speaking requirements, we also offer MCU orientation and TOEFL preparatory courses for students who speak English as a second or third language. Further, our center can provide information on proper citation practices and strategies for avoiding plagiarism.

For faculty, the LCSC can offer strategies for addressing writing issues in student work. We can also edit faculty course cards and assignment prompts, as well as faculty work for publication both in house and outside of the University. If you would like the LCSC staff members to provide a class to your conference group, an orientation session where we introduce who we are and what we can do for you, or a second set of eyes on your writing, we are ready and willing to support your needs.

The LCSC's operating hours are 0800 – 1630 Monday through Friday, excluding Federal holidays. Our office is located in Room 122 of the [Alfred Gray Research Center](#), Marine Corps Base Quantico, Virginia. We accept walk-ins and scheduled appointments with questions about assignments or electronic feedback we have provided, but ask that you [submit your paper](#) prior to making an appointment if you would like a full review. To ensure the fastest turnaround possible, you should send your papers to the LCSC as an electronic attachment and indicate which areas of writing (thesis development, organization, grammar, style, etc.) require attention. Upon receiving the paper in our queue, an LCSC staff member will respond with an approximate date when you can expect to receive feedback. We review papers on a first come, first serve basis, and although we accept second drafts, they are placed behind first draft submissions in the queue. We highly recommend that you submit your draft early, especially MMS, IRP, and Future War papers, as this will allow us to provide a detailed review and guide you through the writing process to ensure the best possible final draft. The LCSC requires that you submit your paper no later than 48 hours prior to the due date. For updated information throughout the academic year on operating hours and turnaround times, please visit our [web site](#).

Two staff members make up the LCSC team. Ms. Andrea Hamlen can be contacted via phone, (703) 784-4401, or by [e-mail](#). Ms. Stase Rodebaugh's phone number is (703) 432-5524, and she can also be contacted via [e-mail](#).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors of the *Marine Corps University Style Guide* are grateful to the following individuals for their contributions to this edition of the manual:

Thank you to the **University students, faculty, and staff** who offered suggestions on how to improve the guide. Your ideas helped elevate the quality and effectiveness of the document in meeting user needs. Additionally, thanks to those students who permitted us to use their papers for some of the examples in this document. Although the students were not given individual attribution, we want to acknowledge that the majority of the examples came directly from MCU students' course work.

Thank you to **Rachel Langlois**, MLIS, Chief Reference Librarian, [Library of the Marine Corps](#), who contributed to the research and citation chapters. Her knowledge of student reference questions and database resources helped us to address students' citation and research challenges. Thanks also to **Lindsey Kleinow**, MLIS, Reference and MCWAR Direct Support Librarian, who provided us with detailed information on uncommon sources for student citation. Additionally, the guide benefitted from the knowledge and guidance of other **Librarians and staff members at [Alfred Gray Research Center](#)**; thanks to all of you.

To **Monica Champalbert**, Systems Librarian/Web Content Manager, Library of the Marine Corps, who included the style guide information on the Library's web site and assisted the authors with technical questions, we are grateful.

To **Michael Miller**, MA, and **Jim Ginther**, PhD, CA, [Archives and Special Collections Branch](#), Library of the Marine Corps, thank you for help with archival references and historical research information. Your support was invaluable.

To **Dr. Donna Connolly**, whose [writing style guide](#) for the [Naval War College](#) provided us with citation examples requested by many of our students this past academic year, your guidance and collaborative efforts are greatly appreciated.

Finally, the authors want to thank **Ambassador Anthony D. Marshall** for sponsoring the Leadership Communication Skills Center. The opportunity to work with MCU students and to help develop their leadership skills through written and oral communication is an honor, and without the Ambassador's sponsorship, the Leadership Communication Skills Center and the *Marine Corps University Style Guide* would not exist.

Respectfully,

Ms. Andrea Hamlen, *Interim Director*, and Ms. Stase Rodebaugh, *Communications Instructor*  
Leadership Communication Skills Center

# CHAPTER ONE

## COMMUNICATION—A LEADERSHIP SKILL

As a leader, the responsibility to mentor and inspire the people who work for you directly correlates with the need to effectively communicate your visions and goals. You can do this by developing strong written and oral communication skills, which will help you to take your innovative ideas and state them in a logical, coherent manner in order to put them into action.

Here at Marine Corps University, academic programs focus heavily on developing your communication skills. In 2005, the University's Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) identified communication as one of the three pillars of leadership, and, in reaction, created the Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC) in 2007. Since the introduction of the QEP, the University has placed a greater emphasis on written and oral communication skills. You will use your written skills obtained through completing a variety of writing assignments to demonstrate your critical thinking abilities. This will remain a valuable skill set as you begin to move into joint assignments, in which much of your time will be spent constructing e-mails, information papers, and strategic plans.<sup>1</sup>

### **Oral Communication versus Written Communication**

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

In addition, speaking allows you to assess your audience each time you give a message; you can then use this assessment to change the tone, word choice, and style with which you present your information. Writing, on the other hand, does not afford you this opportunity; particularly in the academic environment, it is important to make your language accessible and formal to reach a more general picture of a potential audience.

### **Taking Your Writing Beyond the Classroom**

While an MCU student, you will have the opportunity to explore and write about a variety of subjects ranging from strategic studies to military history and even to the future of warfighting. Having been accepted to [CSC](#), [SAW](#), or [MCWAR](#), you likely have several years of valuable experience that you can pull from as you propose new ideas and solutions to issues in your respective military service branch or government organization. Your fellow students from sister services, civilian government organizations, and international military organizations will also provide unique perspectives through their writing that may alter your worldview. Out of this unique, eye opening experience may come some of the best writing you have ever produced! It is

important to take your writing assignments seriously, as the academic papers you produce may be submitted for awards and even for publication, giving you the chance to voice your opinions on some of the most difficult policy issues that face our nation today. [Appendix A](#) provides more information about the guidelines and deadlines for the different essay competitions, MCU writing awards, and publications that you can submit to.

While the effective writing skills you obtain here will ideally result in a publication or award submission, you can also take this skill set with you when you return to the operating forces, joint staff officer positions, and other professional work environments. General John W. Vessey, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in 1984, speaks of the importance of communication, [“From my own experience, I can tell you, more has been screwed up on the battlefield and misunderstood in the Pentagon because of a lack of understanding of the English language than any other single factor.”](#)<sup>2</sup> Regrettably, this trend in ambiguous language still plagues Joint Staffs today. In September 2008, the Joint Staff surveyed joint staff officers who ranged from the rank of first lieutenant to lieutenant colonel. The survey identified the primary duties of joint staff officers, core competencies joint officers should possess, and “gaps” that need to be filled in order for joint officers to be more effective in their positions.

The findings of this study indicate that joint staff officers spend the majority of their time performing communication tasks—40% of work time is spent on written tasks, while 33% is spent creating and contributing to briefings.<sup>3</sup> The report also identified 15 core competencies for Joint Staff Officers. Of these 15 core competencies, five relate to the need for strong communication skills. These five core competencies are as follows:

1. Communicate effectively at executive levels and across a diverse workforce.
2. Write, read, and conduct research at an advanced level appropriate for work performance at an executive level.
3. Build constructive work relationships.
4. Effectively manage and lead in a diverse work environment (civilians, contractors, Guard and Reserve, sister Services personnel, and interagency and multinational personnel).
5. Use well-developed strategic and higher order critical thinking skills for task assignments and problem solving.<sup>4</sup>

These tasks all require strong communication skills, even if they do not contain the word “communication.” For instance, effective interpersonal communication skills are needed to build constructive work relationships. This ability to create a common understanding is crucial, as over half of the officers surveyed (951/1858) reported having communication problems that resulted from discrepancies in terminology.<sup>5</sup> By developing effective communication strategies and avoiding jargon, these communication problems could be avoided. Finally, critical thinking and writing are closely interconnected. While it is possible to be a strong critical thinker without being a strong writer, writing is often the medium used to transfer ideas.

The study also surveyed senior leaders regarding the main gaps that need to be filled in order for joint officers to be more effective in their positions. Of the seven major responsibilities outlined by these senior officers, four deal with the ability to communicate effectively. These responsibilities are as follows:

1. Functions as the brains of the boss; ability to pick up on the boss's comment and run with it without formal tasking.
2. Functions as an information integrator.
3. Rarely serves as the technical content subject matter expert, but rather as the harvester of information from subject matter experts.
4. Has a "word-processor mentality;" understands that he or she is the conduit for moving masses of staff paperwork to reach a small audience for signature.<sup>6</sup>

In the long term, then, joint officers' responsibilities are three-fold: gather information, synthesize and consolidate the information, and communicate information. This is essentially what you will be doing as an MCU student. While the information and purpose of your assignments will be different, the process you will use to generate a finished product will essentially be the same. Therefore, you should not view your time at [Marine Corps University](#) as a mere academic endeavor. Taking time to learn the process of scholarly research and writing will make your transition to a Joint Assignment much easier and more successful. The following chapters will detail the research and writing processes and will provide strategies, models, and tools you can take back to the operating forces.

## **The Writing Process**

Writing is as much of a thinking process as it is a composing process. Because writing is a thinking process, it is also a cyclical process. As you write, you will constantly revisit, reevaluate, and revise your ideas. As your ideas on a topic change and evolve, so will your writing. While a student at MCU, you will be writing a variety of papers—from a one-page position paper, to a short essay, to a fully developed research paper. These papers vary in length and style, but the basic steps in writing the paper are generally the same. The following steps are interrelated and often overlap:

1. Prewriting/Topic Development
2. Drafting
3. Revising
4. Editing

The following chapters will provide more information about each stage of the writing process. The next chapter will address writing preparation strategies.

## CHAPTER TWO

# PREPARING TO WRITE

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

1. Determine the purpose and scope of the assignment.
2. Identify the audience.
3. Critically read all material that relates to the assignment.

### **Deciding on and Planning Your Purpose**

The easiest way to determine your purpose is to ask yourself what you want the audience to do as a result of your writing. You can then make your answer into a statement of purpose. For instance, you might write, “As a result of my writing, I want my audience to believe the troop surge policy in Iraq was successful.” Your statement of purpose may be slightly different if you want to not only persuade your audience, but also encourage them to adopt a particular course of action. For instance, you may write, “as a result of my writing, I want my audience to believe forcible entry is an essential capability for the U.S. Armed Forces in order to persuade them to increase funding for naval amphibious ships and forces.”

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

### **Analyzing Your Audience**

After you have identified your purpose, you will want to think about the characteristics of your audience. It is critical that you know who you are communicating with in order to ensure your intended message is effective. When conducting an audience analysis, you will want to ask yourself a few questions about the group you are writing or speaking for. What is the audience’s level of education? What viewpoints and experiences do the audience members bring to the table? Is the audience interested in the topic at hand? How much does your audience know about your topic? How much background information do you need to provide? What type of language should you use? To what degree will your audience agree or disagree with your thesis? What do you hope the audience will gain from your text?

These are all questions that will influence the style, diction, tone, topic, and organization of your communication. For instance, if you are writing a policy memo that is only going to be used within your unit, you can use more jargon and terms that are specific to your line of work than you would if the policy letter was going to be circulated outside of your unit. You also would not feel the need to provide as much background information on the policy as you would if you were briefing an outsider. Furthermore, your approach will be different if you are dealing with a hostile audience who disagrees with your position than it would be if you were dealing with an audience who shares your point of view. The following audience analysis worksheet includes questions that will help you to think about the characteristics of your audience and how they may react to your communication:

### **Audience Analysis Worksheet**

1. My objectives in relation to my audience include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Values that need to be considered with this particular audience include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Constraints that must be recognized when addressing this particular audience include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Special needs of this particular audience include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. I would rate my audience's knowledge of this topic and technical terminology to be:  
High\_\_\_\_\_ Low\_\_\_\_\_ Mixed\_\_\_\_\_ Unknown\_\_\_\_\_
6. My assessment of the audience's willingness to accept the ideas I present is:  
High\_\_\_\_\_ Low\_\_\_\_\_ Mixed\_\_\_\_\_ Unknown\_\_\_\_\_
7. My audience's opinion of me as a speaker prior to the presentation is:  
High\_\_\_\_\_ Low\_\_\_\_\_ Mixed\_\_\_\_\_ Unknown\_\_\_\_\_
8. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to work well include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to cause a negative reaction include:  
\_\_\_\_\_
10. Contacts who can provide insight into my audience's thinking and understanding are:<sup>7</sup>  
\_\_\_\_\_

Your intended audience for written assignments at [Marine Corps University](#) may likely be your instructor and/or your fellow students. Bear in mind that the joint nature of the schoolhouse means you may have readers from all branches of the U.S. military, from many different government agencies, and from a variety of different nations around the globe. This is particularly true for the Command and Staff College Master of Military Studies paper, as the paper is submitted into [DTIC](#) following a successful oral defense, and it potentially can be read by anyone with Internet access. It is also important to remember that should you choose to submit these papers for publication, the audience may change, as well as the tone, organization, and word choice you use to convey your message. As you think about redefining your writing based on audience, think also about the changes you may need to make depending on the assignment guidelines.

### **Approaching Assignments**

Sometimes, it is necessary to think deeply about the purpose of your writing. However, in an academic environment, the purpose of your writing is usually predetermined. That is, your instructor asks you to write about your course material from a particular angle or with a particular goal in mind. To make sure you are fully meeting the intent of every assignment, read each prompt carefully and make sure you fully understand the task at hand before you begin writing. Here are three key steps you can take to make sure you meet the requirements of your assignments:

1. Identify the key words.
2. Keep the essay requirements in mind (length, outside research, type of paper).
3. Give yourself enough time to complete the assignment correctly.

### **Key Words**

First, look for the key words in the assignment. Key words will tell you how to approach the assignment and will indicate the type of paper the instructor wants you to develop. For instance, is the instructor asking you to analyze, interpret, compare and contrast, summarize, or argue? Below are examples of some common key words as well as academic assignments and personal or professional tasks that might require you to use the approached that is described:

1. **Summarize:** To briefly provide the key concepts and main points. An example assignment might be, "Write a paragraph explaining the plot of the movie *An Officer and a Gentleman*."
2. **Apply:** To use a learned concept, model, or idea in a new situation. An example assignment might be, "Use David Kilcullen's counterinsurgency theory to examine current operations in Afghanistan."

3. **Argue:** To take a position and to justify that position with evidence. An example assignment might be, “Write an email to your supervisor telling him/her why you need funding for additional training.”
4. **Compare/Contrast:** To examine aspects of similarity and difference. An example assignment might be, “Explain the differences and similarities between the Allied occupations of Germany and Japan.”
5. **Evaluate:** To weigh the advantages and limitations; to assess. An example assignment might be, “Write an After Action Report that describes a recent operation and identifies strengths and weaknesses of how the operation was executed.”
6. **Synthesize:** To combine existing elements in order to create something original. An example assignment might be, “Combine the most relevant aspects of David Kilcullen’s counterinsurgency theory and David Galula’s counterinsurgency theory to create a new theory.”
7. **Explain:** To show the meaning of something; to clarify. An example assignment might be, “Inform a civilian about Marine Corps Birthday Ball traditions.”
8. **Discuss:** To consider a subject from multiple points of view. An example assignment might be, “Consider the benefits and drawbacks of reinstating the draft.”
9. **Analyze:** To break content into components in order to understand the whole. An example assignment might be, “Determine the main factors that led to mission failure.”

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

1. Compare Bugeaud’s counterinsurgency theory with Callwell’s counterinsurgency theory. Which approach is more applicable today?
  - a. How are the theories similar?
  - b. How are the theories different?
  - c. What is the current military situation?
  - d. How can I apply the theories to the current situation?
  - e. Which approach would work best? What will I propose as my argument?
2. Agree or disagree with this statement: ECO will revolutionize the way the Marine Corps conducts operations.
  - a. What is ECO? (briefly)
  - b. How will it change (or not change) the way the Marine Corps conducts operations?
  - c. Is this a positive or negative change?

3. Assess the concept of “people’s war” as it affected the course of the American Revolution. How did this concept affect American military strategy?
  - a. What is the concept of “people’s war?”
  - b. What made the American Revolution a “people’s war?”
  - c. How did this affect the way the war was fought? (strategy/ tactics)

Understanding these tasks and key words will allow you to fully comprehend and answer assignment questions at Marine Corps University. While a student at MCU, you will complete several different types of assignments, from bullet papers, to summaries, to short essays, to research papers. The type of paper you are writing will influence how you plan your approach. Below are a few of the most common types of papers you will write while a student at MCU.

## Summary

A summary is a condensed version of a longer text. Though a summary will give the reader an overview of the main themes and ideas expressed in the original text, it does not need to follow the same organizational pattern, nor should it copy the tone and word choice used in the original source. Summaries allow you to present the most important points of the text in your words.

When summarizing a longer work, it is often useful to break that work down into its component parts. For example, if you are summarizing a book or a long report, you may want to outline the two or three key supporting points the author presents, and then construct a few sentences or paragraphs (depending on the length of the original document) that describe those concepts. If you are summarizing a shorter work, such as a chapter or an article, you may find it useful to write a one-sentence summary of each paragraph in the work, and then construct a paragraph or several paragraphs from those one sentence summaries.

**A word about plagiarism:** Although you will likely indicate in the text that you are presenting another author’s viewpoint or idea, you still need to attribute the information to the original source (by using an endnote or footnote and a properly formatted citation) when you summarize someone else’s ideas or work. For more information about proper citation practices, please consult [Chapter Six](#).

The following are types of summaries:

1. **Element of a longer paper:** The summary is one of the most basic components of an academic research paper, as you will need to summarize what others have said in order to show the reader where your ideas fit in the broader critical conversation. In other words, your paper will contain summaries of others’ work, which you will then critique and compare with the argument you present. You will not have enough space to provide direct quotes from all of your supporting sources; therefore, you will need to summarize some of the ideas these researchers present in order to capture the essence of their arguments without necessarily quoting their ideas word for word—this will allow you more space to fully develop your supporting arguments.

2. **Executive Summary:** An executive summary presents the main points of a longer document and makes a recommendation for action. The executive summary is generally written for someone who may be too busy to read the document in full (e.g., a general or SES), but who needs to understand the information presented in the document, making precision and accuracy of information essential. If you are summarizing an academic work (as you will likely need to do when you turn in your final paper), the executive summary should include a condensed explanation of your findings and present a recommendation based on those findings. [This type of summary focuses on the conclusion you drew as a result of your research and should not discuss the method you used in order to conduct your research or reach that conclusion.](#)<sup>8</sup>

## Abstract

Much like an executive summary, an abstract will identify some of the points that are presented in a work; however, the tone and focus of the abstract may be slightly different. In many cases, abstracts precede the body of an academic article and help readers decide whether or not they want to read the entire article. Unlike the executive summary, which is usually written for a more general audience, the abstract may contain technical language that is unfamiliar to individuals who do not have subject matter expertise. Below are two types of abstracts:

1. **Descriptive Abstract:** The descriptive abstract provides an overview of the topics that will be covered in the paper, the purpose of the study, and the method used to conduct the study, but it does not present the findings or conclusions.
2. **Informative Abstract:** An informative abstract tends to be more specific in that it presents the arguments the paper will make. It contains a citation of the work, a restatement of the thesis and problem that will be addressed within the paper, and conclusions that you have drawn as a result of this research. In some cases, especially when conducting experimental research, you may also include the methodology you used to collect the data.<sup>9</sup>

## Argumentative Essay

Argumentative essays may include summaries of outside source material; however, they place far greater emphasis on the position taken by you, the author. These essays may vary widely in length and focus; however, the main commonality is that these essays must present a central argument (usually referred to as a thesis statement), and must support that argument with evidence. You may choose to think of each piece of evidence as a new supporting example; the more specific your examples are, the stronger your case. Argumentative essays typically require you to use outside resources to support the claims you make in the paper—whether this means providing information from course readings, consulting scholarly journals, or including information you have obtained by conducting surveys and interviews.

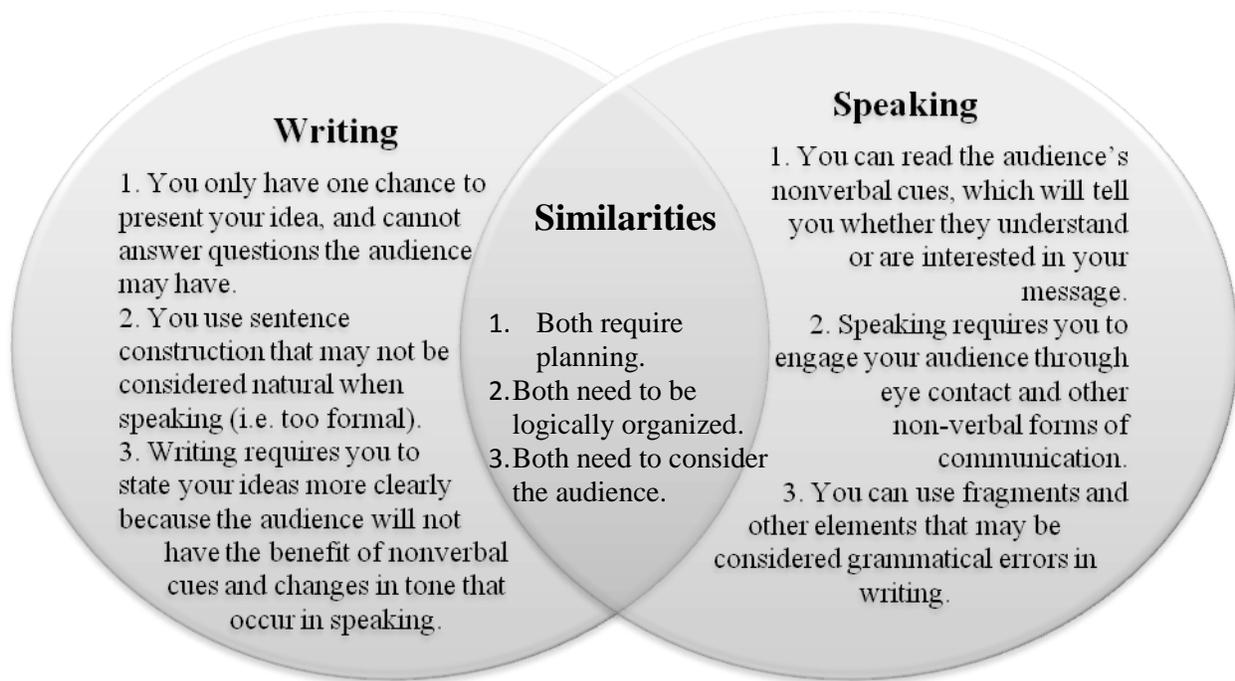
The most important aspect of the argumentative essay is the thesis statement. The thesis statement tells the reader not only what the paper will do, but it also presents a specific argument that establishes your position on your topic. A thesis without an argument, for example, might

say, “This paper will discuss the Marine Corps future forcible entry capability.” It does not state why the paper will discuss this, nor does it describe how the paper will develop this idea. A revised thesis might be, “The U.S. Marine Corps will not have the capability to support theater operational plans for forcible entry by the year 2025 due to limited amphibious assault ships.” This makes an argument that can be opposed, and thus can form the foundation of a true argumentative essay. For more information about drafting an effective thesis statement, please see [Chapter Five](#).

### Compare/Contrast Essay

A compare and contrast paper requires you to focus on the similarities and differences between two or more elements. Most of the compare/contrast papers you will write as a student at MCU will require you to compare two events (e.g. campaigns) or theories, but the same strategies may be used to approach any compare/contrast paper.

When writing a compare/contrast paper, you will first want to think about some of the main similarities and differences between the elements you are comparing. You may do this by developing a list, chart, or mind map. You will then want to focus on some of the most important points of difference or similarity, as you likely will not be able to address every element you have listed. Below is an example of a mind map to illustrate the similarities and differences between writing and speaking:



One of the most challenging aspects of writing a compare and contrast paper is crafting an appropriate thesis statement. Much like the argumentative essay, the compare/contrast paper must have a thesis statement that tells the reader not only what the paper will cover, but also the position you will take on your topic. If you were to simply provide a thesis stating, “Writing and speaking are different in many ways,” your thesis would be considered too general and would not effectively present the main points you want to prove in the paper. You could revise to say, “Though both written and spoken communication must be logically organized and call for a great deal of planning, writing requires a clearer and more direct expression of ideas.”

## **Analytical Essay**

The analytical paper requires you to “study the parts of something to understand how it works, what it means, or why it might be significant.”<sup>10</sup> The analytical papers you will write while a student at MCU will usually require you to examine an event or theory and to break that event or theory into its component parts in order to better understand it. In particular, all CSC students are required to write a campaign analysis paper in which they identify the main factors of the campaign that led to success or failure. One of the first steps and the most challenging part of writing an analytical paper is determining the criteria you will use to examine your subject matter. For instance, when writing a campaign analysis, you will not have the time or space to discuss all of the factors that led to a campaign’s success or failure. While a plethora of factors undoubtedly determine the outcome of a campaign, in order to focus the analysis and to make it manageable, you will need to identify the most pertinent elements (usually two to four factors) of the campaign and to fully develop those supporting points in your analysis.

The analytical paper will also need to contain a thesis statement that presents your specific position on your topic. That is, even though the paper is referred to as an “analytical paper,” it still needs to contain an argumentative thesis statement. An example of a thesis statement lacking analysis is, “There were numerous factors that led to Russian success during the Russo-Finnish War.” While this may be true, it is not a claim that can necessarily be debated since the Russians won the war, and there was likely more than one reason for their victory. A more specific, argumentative statement is needed in this case. A revised thesis might state, “Finnish tactical success ultimately factored into its strategic demise; this occurred once the Soviets demonstrated vast campaign plan improvements to include improved intelligence processes, effective combined arms application, and enhanced logistics and combat service support efforts.” This statement proposes specific criteria for analysis and presents a claim that can be debated.

## **Scope**

Once you have identified what the assignment is asking you to do, you need to determine its scope—that is, what information you will cover and what you will leave out. When deciding on what information to include in your assignment, make sure to keep the essay length in mind; try to strive for depth as opposed to breadth. Make sure you are analyzing, evaluating, and applying the concepts you learned in class as opposed to merely describing or rehashing course material. For instance, if your instructor assigns a three-page paper evaluating the civilian government’s role in the Vietnam War, you will not want to detail every action the government took throughout the conflict. Instead, you want to focus on two or three main points and fully develop

these points. When instructors assign a short paper on a broad topic, they are often checking to see if you recognize the most important elements in the material.

The scope of the assignment will determine how much preparation you will need to do before you can begin writing. For instance, a one-page reaction paper requires much less preparation than a 30-page research paper, which entails locating outside sources and presenting ideas in a logical structure. The nature of the assignment will also dictate how much time you will need to give yourself to complete the process. While you may be able to get away with writing a one-page reaction paper the night before it is due, the same may not be true for a ten-page research paper.

The next chapter will move beyond preparing to write in general and will provide you with more specific information on preparing to write a research paper.

## CHAPTER THREE

# PREPARING TO WRITE A RESEARCH PAPER

Research, like writing, is a process that will help you develop a deeper understanding of course material or a specific topic that you are passionate about. A great deal of learning occurs during the research process as you explore and examine the literature surrounding your chosen topic. In evaluating your research, you have the opportunity to examine all aspects of your topic and see how your individual perspective fits with the body of scholarly research that has already been conducted. Through comparing and contrasting your ideas with the ideas of other experts, you can develop a more in-depth understanding of your topic. Furthermore, you may contribute new knowledge to your topic's field or discipline.

### **Research Paper vs. Report Paper**

A research paper is a formal, written presentation of discovered facts and supporting arguments that provide the necessary evidence to defend your thesis statement. To write a research paper, you need to collect information from a variety of sources (e.g. library texts, interviews, surveys, etc.) to answer a question. You then use this information to develop an argument or a theory that is outlined in the form of a thesis statement.

The research paper is not to be confused with a report paper. For a report paper, you collect information on a topic from several sources and simply report on what others have written in your own words and without adding your own ideas or points of view. This type of paper is not considered “original work” because it is a mere compilation of what others have written.

To successfully write a research paper, then, you must propose an answer to a question in the form of a thesis statement and support that thesis through a reasoned argument, rather than simply reporting what you have learned throughout your research process. Your work will be original because you will determine your own conclusions and implications based on the data you collect.

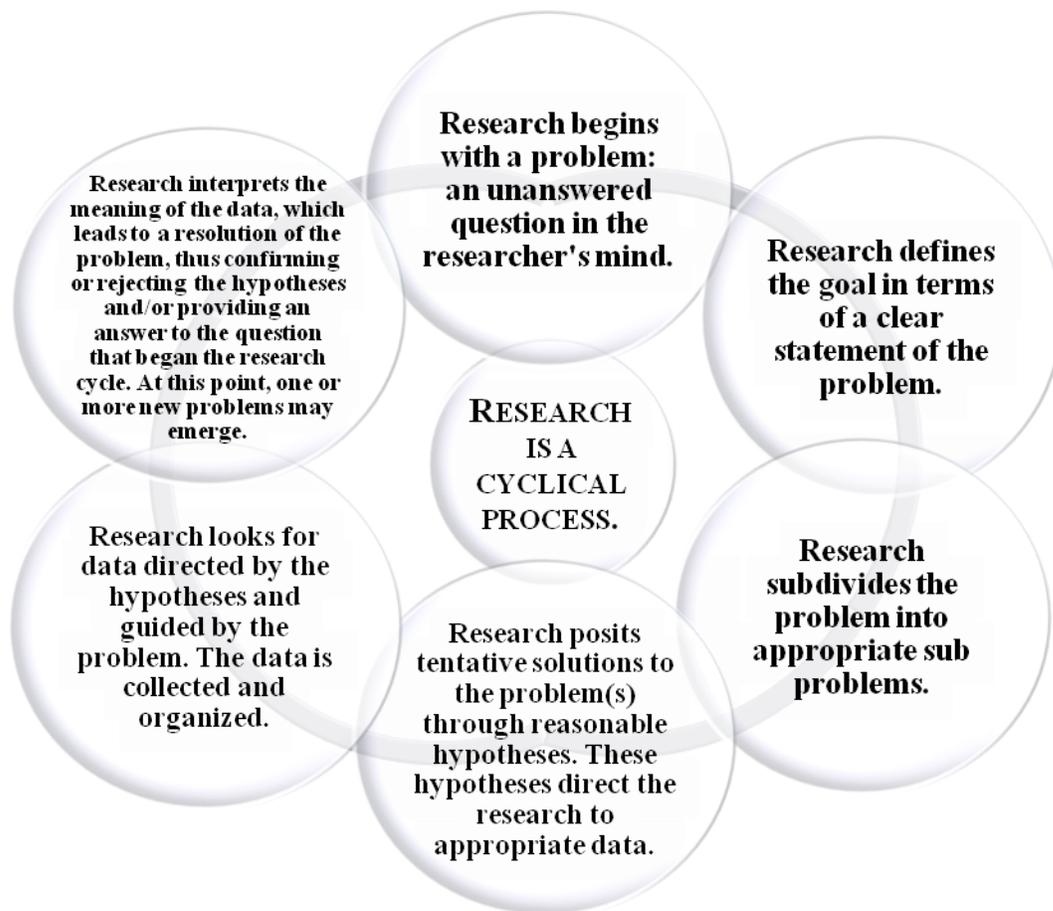
### **Research**

As a noun, research is the careful and systematic process of investigating a subject in order to discover or prove a truth, or to revise theories, facts, or applications. As a verb, research is studying something “thoroughly so as to present [information] in an accurate and detailed manner.”<sup>11</sup> You will experience both definitions as you prepare and develop papers as part of your course curriculum. Both definitions also illustrate that research is a path of discovery, rather than a search for material that proves what you already know or believe to be true. Albert Einstein speaks to this when he states, “If we knew what it was we were doing, it would not be called research, would it?”

Systematic (scientific) research provides you with an objective way to explore relationships among events, facts, and ideas. Being objective in your research is important when developing a scholarly paper. When writing this kind of paper, think of yourself as a lawyer and your audience

as the jury. You need to present the facts and convince your audience (the jury) that these facts support your claim. If you can objectively demonstrate why and how a topic's events, facts, and ideas are related and why these trends or patterns occur, then you have written a well-supported research paper. In addition, when you review your collected data or literature, remember to keep an open mind. As much as your research should support your point of view, it is also important to keep opposing points of view in mind. Considering and refuting opposing viewpoints makes for a more complete and thoughtful argument.

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



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

As the visual depicts, research is a cyclical process during which you will consult a variety of different sources to determine the answer to your hypothesis. As you consult outside sources, it is helpful to understand how to read with a critical eye.

## Critical Reading

While many of us have heard of critical thinking, fewer people are familiar with the term critical reading. However, constructing a strong, well-supported paper is as much a thinking process as a composing process; the strength of your claims is closely intertwined with your understanding of course material. Therefore, critical reading is one of the most important components of the writing process. Below is a visual showing the relationship between critical reading, critical thinking, effective writing, and research:



When you read critically, you attempt to find information and perspectives that enrich your research and help you to further your own arguments. This involves much more than a mere skimming of information. Generally, you want to read a text three times. The first time you read the text, you should be skimming, or “previewing” the material. The second time you will want to slow down and read the full text using active reading strategies, which include questioning the text, annotating the text, taking notes, and mind mapping. The third time, go back and look at the areas you have highlighted and annotated; you will also want to review any maps or notes you have developed. How are the key ideas interrelated? Can you trace main patterns, themes, or ideas throughout the text? Are there any words or concepts you do not understand?

Below are a few strategies for critical reading. While you may not use every strategy each time you read, these approaches may help you to read more effectively, preventing you from having to go back to relearn concepts you read about the week before.

### Previewing

Previewing refers to the process of “skimming” the chapter before you begin to read. When you preview material, you will want to look at the main headings and subheadings. What are some of the main topics? What are some of the main ideas? If you are reading a chapter in a text book, what are some of the questions that are asked at the end of the chapter? You may want to

look for the answers to these questions as you read. At this point, you may also want to identify who the author is, what background experience or level of expertise he or she has regarding the topic, and what potential biases could be present based on this background knowledge and experience.

If you are previewing a longer text, such as an entire book, you may not want to “skim” the entire text. However, you will want to take a look at the table of contents and the preface. By looking at this introductory front matter, you will have some idea of the approach the book will take and the main critical perspectives that will be incorporated or disputed throughout the book. The preface and table of contents will also give you some insight into the author’s purpose and possible biases. Strategies for determining author bias are included in [Chapter Four](#).

### **Questioning**

Once you have previewed the text, you can begin using active reading strategies to interact with the text. It may be useful to think of every text as a conversation. If the author were arguing his or her main points with you over a cup of coffee, how would you respond? Would you agree with the author’s main points? Would you present a new point of view? Are there parts of the argument you agree with? Are there parts of the argument that are unsupported? Are there any terms, concepts, or models you do not understand? These are the questions you will want to keep in mind as you read.

### **Annotating**

Annotating refers to the process of marking important ideas, definitions, and concepts in the text. When you annotate, you may highlight key phrases, indicate supporting points that you agree or disagree with, or even ask important questions in the margins. Since students are not permitted to write in MCU books, it is suggested that you use post-it notes or flags to indicate key ideas. You can even color code the flags to trace main themes throughout the reading. For instance, if you are trying to determine how the DIME principle was applied in a particular conflict, you could assign a color to each element of the DIME (e.g. yellow for diplomacy, green for information). When you review the text before an important exam or before sitting down to draft a paper, your post-it notes should lead you to the most important points. As many books, articles, and other documents are now available online, another way you may annotate is to copy and paste a portion of the article (and reference information) into a Microsoft Word document. This will allow you to use Microsoft track changes and comments to note your questions and/or comments in the margin.

### **Taking Notes**

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

<p><b>Connect to other research or course material:</b>  “Universal overconfidence also resulted in the blind dissemination of antiquated, terribly inaccurate maps.”<sup>1</sup></p>	<p><b>Quote or paraphrase from source:</b>  The Soviet leadership failed to recognize that “German tactical doctrine had been tailored for very...central European conditions: familiar landscape with a network of modern roads.”<sup>2</sup> The Soviets neglected to identify that the 800 km stretch of territory from Lake Ladoga north to the Arctic Ocean “was quite impenetrable except for a handful of unpaved roads.”<sup>3</sup></p>
<p><b>Implications or further research:</b>  “Soviet intelligence preparation of the battlefield (IPB), and, specifically, their terrain analysis, was severely flawed.”<sup>4</sup></p>	

1. Trotter, A Frozen Hell: the Russo-Finnish Winter War of 1939-1940, 123.
2. Trotter, 6-1.
3. Trotter, 6-7.
4. Trotter, 35.

## Analyzing

When you analyze a text, you are “breaking it down into its parts to find out how these parts relate to one another.”<sup>12</sup> When you analyze a text, you want to look at the author’s assumptions, the sources and evidence he or she uses to support those assumptions, and possible author biases. Here are some questions you may want to ask yourself when you analyze a text:

1. Do you agree with the assumptions the author makes? Why or why not?
2. What type of evidence does the author use to support these assumptions (surveys, interviews, field research)?
3. Does the author use secondary sources to support his or her argument? If so, are the secondary sources written by credible researchers?

4. How does the author make his or her point? Does the author use emotional appeals? Does the author include unsupported, sweeping generalizations?
5. Who is the author? Does he or she belong to an organization with known biases? What are the author's credentials?
6. What is the author's purpose for writing?

## **Responding**

Generally, responding to a text involves taking a few minutes to write down your initial reaction to a text. This need not be a polished, well-organized piece of writing and may be crafted in paragraph form or may consist of a series of bullet statements. When you respond to a text, you are thinking about its broader implications and drawing connections between main ideas. Was the text convincing? Why or why not? How does it relate to other texts you have read on the same subject? Can you connect the text to your own experience?

Though responding generally refers to the act of writing down your initial impressions of a text, you may also respond by discussing your reading with your fellow classmates. Such discourse may help you to recognize how the new information may be practically applicable to your own life, thus helping you to internalize concepts. In this way, the text literally becomes a dialogue.

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

## **Critical Reading Worksheet**

1. What does the text say?
  - a. What is the author's bottom line/main idea?
  - b. What is the author's stated purpose?
  - c. What are the supporting points?
  - d. What key questions does the author address?
2. What is the purpose of the text?
  - a. Who is the author?
  - b. What political, social, or professional goals does the author have for writing?
  - c. Who is the author's intended audience?
3. How does the author make his or her point?
  - a. Is the author's argument logical?
  - b. What type of style, tone, organization, and language does the author use?
  - c. Is the author's actual purpose different from the stated purpose?
  - d. What type of evidence does the author use to support his or her point (statistics, experience, examples, theory)? Is the evidence effective?
  - e. Is there evidence of bias?

4. What are the broader implications of the text?
  - a. What are the main critical perspectives presented? How do they differ from other critical perspectives in the field?
  - b. How does the text relate to other course material you have read? How does it relate to other research you have conducted?
  - c. What are the main issues for future consideration that the text raises?

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

QUOTE OR PARAPHRASE FROM TEXT	ANALYSIS	CONNECTION TO OTHER RESEARCH

The next two chapters will help to simplify the complex, sometimes overwhelming process of conducting scholarly research and writing a research paper.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### CHOOSING A TOPIC AND DEVELOPING A RESEARCH QUESTION

Choosing a topic can be one of the most difficult aspects of writing a research paper. It can also be an opportunity for professional development, however. As you begin brainstorming, you may want to think about your experience in the field. Is there anything you would do to change your organization's technology, strategy, or training? Were there any specific problems or issues you encountered that you would like to find solutions for? Often, the most fulfilling research projects are those that can be applied when you return to the field.

If you do not have a topic in mind, you may want to review some of your course material and look for themes, ideas, or problems that you would like to further investigate. You may also want to consider the topics from guest speakers, a current event, the Deputy Secretary of Defense Essay Competition (See Appendix A), or current military history and strategic planning journals such as *Parameters*, *Small Wars Journal*, or *Joint Forces Quarterly*. This will help you familiarize yourself with some of the current topics and critical perspectives in military studies. In particular, you may want to pay attention to the last few pages of an article of interest. Researchers will often propose issues for further consideration or ideas for future research in the conclusion portion of an article. These may provide a jumping off point for your research.

Before you commit to a topic, there are three issues you must consider. First, you should choose a topic you are passionate about. Second, you should choose a topic that is appropriate for the assignment. Third, you should choose a topic on which you will be able to find credible primary and secondary sources. If you are still in doubt after considering these three issues, speak with the faculty member responsible for grading the assignment.

#### **Primary Sources**

Primary sources are original documents and include letters, diaries, legislative bills, laboratory studies, field research reports, operational orders, after-action reports, message traffic, unit diaries, map overlays, and eyewitness accounts. In order for a paper to be considered original research, it should include primary source material. Conducting primary research means going back to the original document, work of art, letter, or battlefield and making your own observations about that particular place, event, person, or object. This means you are collecting unfiltered data and first-person observations on your topic, but keep in mind that your interpretation of a particular correspondence, document, or piece of legislation may be drastically different from someone else's interpretation.

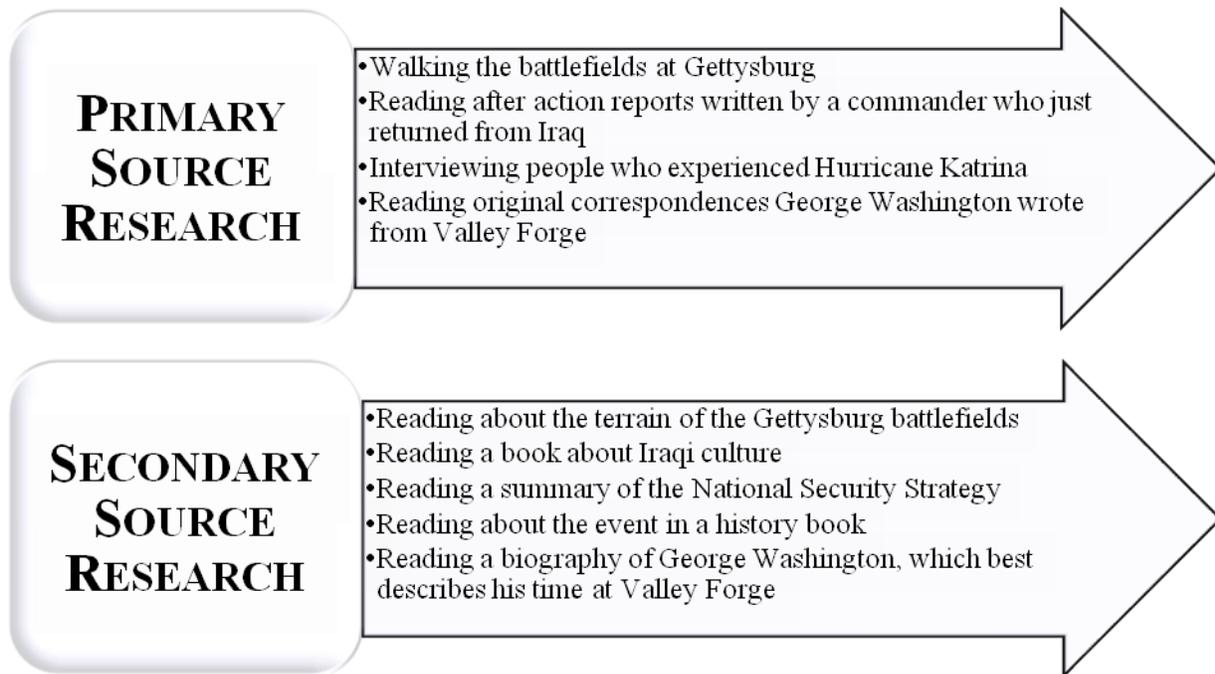
There are times when consulting a primary source is not feasible; for example, if you have three weeks to write a paper about the D-Day invasion, it is unlikely that you will fly to France to study the beaches. However, you may be able to find valuable correspondence in the Marine Corps Archives. When viewing primary sources, try to remember to place the object or document you are studying into its context; this can be done by studying the time period in

which the source was written. Questions to ask include: How did the society, politics, and economics of the time period affect the object’s significance?

## Secondary Sources

Secondary sources comment on primary sources and may be seen more as a review or a compilation of previously completed research. While secondary sources can provide useful and reliable information, the information the author provides has already been analyzed and filtered for you. This means the work is subject to the secondary source author’s personal biases or interpretation. Although it is important to read critically in order to be aware of the biases and inconsistencies that may be present in secondary sources, they are an important component to include in your research. By reviewing secondary sources, you will familiarize yourself with some of the main arguments and critical perspectives on your topic.

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



Now that you have developed strategies for choosing a topic, as well as an understanding of primary and secondary sources to use in your research, it is helpful to focus the research process by developing a research question.

## **Developing a Research Question**

Most research papers begin with the identification of a specific problem. It is helpful to frame this problem in the form of a question, which is commonly referred to as a research question. Developing a research question is the first step in narrowing your topic; it helps you focus on one particular aspect of your topic, but it also gives you the flexibility to shift your hypothesis as you gather data. The research question also may help you begin thinking about the keywords you will need in order to find information that is relevant to your topic. Rather than researching “counterinsurgency” or “socialized medicine”—topics which are simply too broad and may not yield a fruitful search—your search will be significantly more productive if you develop a specific research question; for example, “Why was the British military’s counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya more effective than the French military’s counterinsurgency strategy?” Below are a few examples of research questions that can be used to direct and narrow the focus of your paper:

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

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

1. Is Hugo Chavez’s growing influence dangerous to the United States’ national and regional (Latin American) interests?
  - a. Should the United States address Hugo Chavez’s growing influence in Latin America?
2. Was the Santiago campaign during the Spanish-American War successful?
  - a. How was the joint operation executed?
  - b. What role did the actions of the U.S. commanders play in the success or failure of the campaign?

## **Reviewing the Literature on Your Topic**

After you have developed a research question, you will need to conduct a preliminary literature review. A literature review is a thorough examination of collected, published research relevant to a research question. The literature review has three main purposes:

1. It determines whether there is enough research to support your topic or to answer your research question.
2. It allows you to make sure that each source serves your purpose before you begin taking notes or analyzing the information, and that your sources are credible and unbiased.

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

By examining the research others have done, you will gain a deeper, more holistic understanding of your topic. Even if a source does not directly support your argument or claim, it may provide information that will help you construct an overview of your topic. Presenting other viewpoints and theories gives your paper more credibility and demonstrates to your readers that you understand the full scope of the issue. As much as you may want your research to support your point of view, it is also important to keep opposing points of view in mind; this will help you avoid making hasty, unfounded conclusions. When conducting a literature review, ask yourself the following questions:

1. What is known about the topic?
2. Is there a chronology attached to the topic?
3. Are there any gaps in knowledge of the subject?
4. Is there debate or consensus on the subject?
5. What directions are indicated by various authors on the subject—that is, what implications or suggestions for future research are offered by authors of the literature you reviewed?

Here is an example of a literature review process: You are beginning a research paper on the topic of counterinsurgency (COIN). An excellent way to begin is to find a seminal work on the topic and study that work's bibliography to ascertain what that author used in preparing his or her fundamental work. This approach makes it easier to trace information relevant to your topic. In this case, we know David Galula and David Kilcullen have written several seminal works on counterinsurgency. Therefore, going online to the *Small Wars Journal Reference Library*, you may look directly under the topic "counterinsurgency" for an annotated list of seminal works on this subject by these authors. In each document, you will find the bibliography and notes that will guide you further in your search.

If your initial searches seem to yield few results, you may need to broaden your topic or even select a new one. Focus on your question, take thorough notes, and use a systematic approach. When in doubt, consult the reference librarians for assistance. Their training allows them to find sources in a matter of minutes, and they may have access to databases that you do not. Reference librarians can also instruct you on the use of online databases in your article searches.

### **Evaluating the Veracity (Truthfulness) of Sources**

When you review a source, it is important to remember you are not only reading to make sure it suits your purpose, but you are also evaluating the author's credibility and logic.<sup>13</sup> There are four areas to be aware of when evaluating a source: reliability, credibility, objectivity, and neutrality.

Reliability determines what extent a source's claims and presentation of the facts are consistent and able to be verified. If someone were to tell you that his or her counterinsurgency strategy is effective, reliability would be lowered if you were to find out that a group of commanders employed his strategy in Vietnam with limited success. Reliability would be increased if other data (e.g., personal letters, orders, photographic evidence, and personal interviews) validated the individual's theory and demonstrated that the strategy he proposed was consistently effective.

Credibility directly relates to your capacity to believe someone and is influenced by reliability. For instance, if the theorist mentioned above were to develop a new counterinsurgency theory, he would have little credibility, as his previous works were not reliable. Likewise, an individual's position and experience may affect credibility. If someone were to tell you that his or her theory about professional military education (PME) is effective, credibility would be lowered if you were to find out that individual had never taught a PME class, or had never been exposed to the military environment before. Credibility would be increased if that individual could show you statistics proving the effectiveness of his theory on a targeted group of PME students.

Objectivity refers to an author's ability to present ideas that are not colored by bias, individual interpretation, or personal feelings and/or opinions. It also refers to an author's ability to present both sides of an issue (i.e., it must address counterarguments). For instance, if one were to argue that our current president is unable to meet the economic policy needs of the nation, the author would need to examine the issue using a variety of sources written by both individuals who are politically aligned with the president and those who oppose his political policies. Objectivity would be increased if the author of the source could state this argument simply based on facts, statistics, and/or logical arguments gleaned from statistics; the use of neutral sources may also help to bolster objectivity. You can often tell whether or not a source is objective by examining the type of language and tone the author uses. For instance, if the text tends to use hostile language when referring to a particular group of individuals or a particular philosophy, the text is likely not an objective presentation of the facts.

Neutrality refers to the degree to which the author has an interest (whether social, political, or economic) in the subject at hand. For instance, if someone were to argue that the United States military needs to pull all troops out of a certain location tomorrow, and you find out that this individual's brother was set to embark on a dangerous mission that same day, the neutrality of this text might be questionable. Likewise, if someone were to argue that our current president is unable to meet the economic policy needs of the nation, neutrality would be compromised if you were to find out that individual was a candidate from an opposing party in the upcoming presidential election. Neutrality would be increased if the individual was not partial to either political party, and was simply a subject matter expert in American economic policy. You will often want to briefly research a text's author and his or her affiliations before you begin reading, as this may help you to determine to what degree the text may be considered neutral. However, very few texts can be considered genuinely neutral, as most authors are personally invested in their work and the particular truth they wish to convey, even if their presentation of the facts is objective.

Keeping in mind these four areas, there are many strategies you can use to evaluate sources. On the following page, you will find a chart that will help you to evaluate different types of sources.

TYPE OF SOURCE	DETERMINE RELEVANCE	EVALUATE VERACITY
<b>BOOK</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Use the index to look up words that are related to your topic.</li> <li>2. Review the table of contents to determine whether there are smaller sections within the book that pertain to your topic.</li> <li>3. If you find a chapter that seems to relate to your topic, read the opening and closing paragraphs and skim any headings.</li> <li>4. Is the book too specialized? Is it not specialized enough?</li> <li>5. When was the book published? Checking the publication date may help you to understand the factors that shaped the author's mindset. Furthermore, if significant advances have been made in the field since the book's publication, the text may no longer be relevant.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Keep the author's style and approach in mind. Is the book scholarly enough to be considered credible?</li> <li>2. Are the ideas presented biased?</li> <li>3. Read the preface: What is the author's motivation for writing the book? How may his or her affiliations and goals affect his or her interpretation of the facts?</li> </ol>
<b>JOURNAL ARTICLE</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Look for an abstract or statement of purpose at the beginning of the article.</li> <li>2. Read the last few paragraphs, as these often will provide a summary or conclusion of the article's main points.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Is the publication peer-reviewed?</li> <li>2. Who publishes the journal? Is it an organization with a particular agenda or bias?</li> <li>3. Are the authors academics (as opposed to journalists)?</li> <li>4. Are the conclusions drawn from original research?</li> </ol>
<b>NEWSPAPER ARTICLE</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Focus on the headline and the opening paragraph.</li> <li>2. Skim the headings and look at visuals that may indicate the article's focus.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Does the newspaper have a nationally recognized reputation?</li> <li>2. What type of newspaper article are you reading? Editorial opinion pieces may have a different level of veracity than more factual pieces, for example.</li> </ol>
<b>WEB SITE</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Look at the web site's home page. Is the information relevant to your research question?</li> <li>2. Find out when the web site was last updated. Is the information current enough for your purpose?</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What is the purpose of the web site? Is it trying to sell a particular product or idea?</li> <li>2. Check the name of the author or webmaster and his or her credentials. If you have trouble finding the author's name or information about the sponsors, be wary of the information that is provided.</li> <li>3. Think about the motives/interests of the sponsor or organization who maintains the web site.</li> </ol>

## Bias

After evaluating a given piece of information, even if you find it reputable, it may still be biased. Always consider the source of your information. You may want to consult *Magazines for Libraries* if you are unsure about the special interests of a particular periodical. To check for biases in books, you can refer to *Book Review Digest*.<sup>14</sup> The following questions can help you to evaluate whether or not an article is biased:<sup>15</sup>

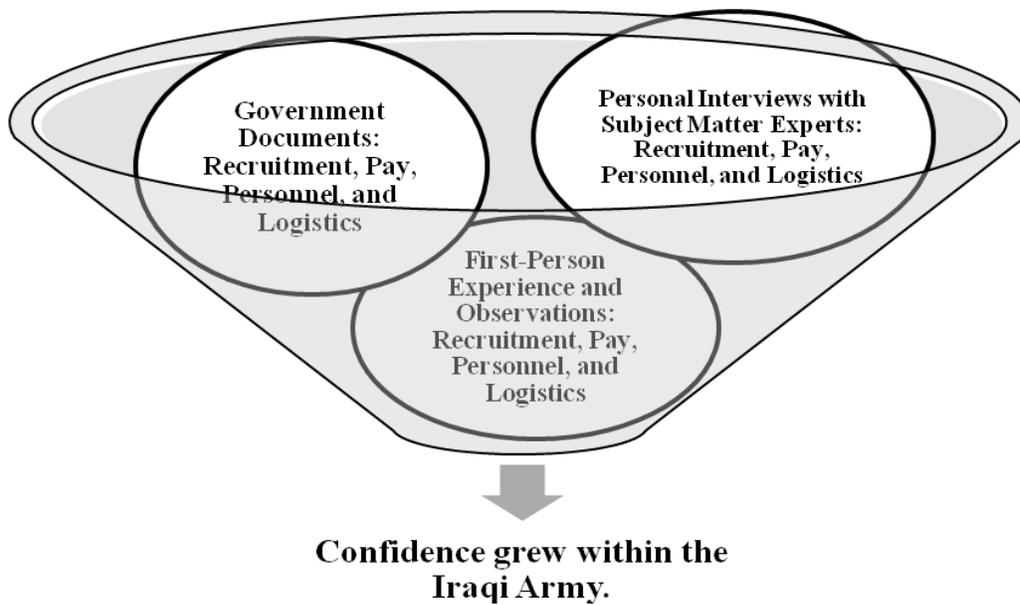
1. Does the author or publisher have political or religious views that may affect his or her objectivity?
2. Is the author or publisher associated with a special interest group that would be likely to promote one aspect of an issue?
3. Are alternative views addressed? Does the author treat opposing views fairly?
4. Does the author's language show signs of bias?

## Varying your Sources

As you think about evaluating sources and checking for potential bias, keep in mind that the more sources and different types of analysis you can use to prove your thesis, the more credibility your work will have. This process of collecting multiple sources of data that come together to support a particular point is commonly known as triangulation.<sup>16</sup> Triangulation adds to the academic rigor of your work because it demonstrates to the reader that the conclusions you have drawn are not a result of biased observation. The following is an example of how you can use triangulation of data to prove your thesis statement:

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

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



When you use an historical approach or an experimental approach to collect data, it is critical that you learn to manage the data. In this instance, you need to manage means to archive, store, and/or arrange the data into a system so the data is easy to retrieve. Some of the data may include articles, book chapters, or published interviews. You may also use interviews and surveys of your own.

### **Constructing Interview and Survey Questions**

While constructing interview and survey questions may sound like a fairly simple task, there is a science to developing effective questions that will evoke the proper response from your participants. Make sure to write down a list of interview questions and pilot test these questions before using them on your sample group. To pilot test your interview/survey questions, try having a person who matches the demographic of the sample group answer your questions. The responses you obtain from this person should not be used in your actual study; however, the responses will give you some insight into whether or not the questions you have developed are effective.

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

1. What do you want to know? To keep the survey as short as possible, ensuring more detailed responses, make sure each question has a purpose.
2. Who will you survey? Are you interested in targeting a specific group of people? If so, you may want to begin or end your survey with a demographics section; the purpose of

this is to help you highlight trends between a survey participant's background/experience and his or her survey responses.

3. What type of questions will you ask? Will you ask open-ended or close-ended questions?

### **Open-ended versus Close-ended Questions**

There are two basic types of questions that you can use to gather data: Close-ended questions allow a respondent to select his or her answer from a number of responses and tend to yield more consistent data, making the responses easier to interpret. Close-ended questions are also less time consuming, arguably making responders more likely to answer; however, they can be limiting, and you may have to create more questions to gather sufficient data. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, allow for freer, individualized responses. They are sometimes difficult to interpret because they tend to evoke inconsistent responses. The following are examples of close-ended and open-ended questions:

**Close-ended question:** Did the ethics training you received pre-deployment prepare you to make difficult decisions in combat situations? (Yes/No)

**Open-ended question:** How can the Marine Corps improve its ethics training to better prepare Marines for the operational forces?

When constructing interview and survey questions, you will want to avoid the following mistakes: leading questions, double barreled questions, and ambiguous quantifying words.

**Leading questions** contain some of the interviewer's own biases or views. An example is, "It seems to me that the pushing down of intelligence assets (i.e., company intelligence cell) is a natural evolution paralleling the changing character of warfare. Thoughts?" This interviewer is first telling you what he perceives, and does not orient the question to what you, the responder, perceive to be the case. A suggested rewrite might be, "Do you think that it is beneficial to have an intelligence cell at the battalion level?"

**Double barreled questions** often have a question imbedded within a question. Frequently, the words "and" and "or" may signal a double barreled question. An example may be, "Do you think military officers should receive culture training and language training?" These questions should be listed as two separate items because they contain two different ideas. A survey participant may think that military officers should receive language training, but not culture training and vice versa. A suggested rewrite might be, "Do you think military officers should receive culture training? Do you think military officers should receive language training?"

**Ambiguous quantifying words** are vague ways of describing something. For example, if someone asked you, "How well did your organic intelligence capability support planning?" the word "well" is a bit vague and leaves too much room for interpretation. When asking survey participants to evaluate a particular person, process, or idea, you should provide a scale instead of using vague descriptors. A suggested rewrite might be, "On a scale of 1-5, 1 being good and 5 being poor, how well did your organic intelligence capability support planning?"

## **Conducting Surveys**

Now that you've learned about how to construct a survey, the next step is determining how to conduct one. The first thing you need to do when conducting a survey is to decide on a sample group. A sample refers to the people, sources, and materials a researcher chooses to study. The type and size of the sample you will use will depend on the research question you want to answer and the breadth of the conclusions you hope to draw. For instance, if you are trying to make conclusions about an entire population, you must choose a sample that represents the entire population of a particular group or organization. However, if you are attempting to make inferences about a small, specific part of the population, you will need to select what is referred to as a purposeful sample. This means that the researcher must select the individuals who will "yield the most information about the topic under investigation."<sup>17</sup>

## **Conducting Interviews**

Similar to conducting surveys, you need to make sure the people you are interviewing represent the group you are studying. If an individual is an exception to the rule, you need to indicate this in your field notes. The best place to conduct an interview is in a quiet environment, away from the individual's office and without personal or phone interruptions. Also, make sure you have permission to record the person's answers. Let the person know you will maintain confidentiality and anonymity. Furthermore, tell the person you will send him or her a copy of your study once it is completed. This arrangement enhances your credibility with the interviewee and puts him or her at ease. It is important to establish and maintain a rapport with the interviewee, and the aforementioned guidance will likely allow for this rapport to occur.

It is also important to allow interviewees to express their thoughts in their own words and record their responses verbatim. You can always ask a clarifying or follow-up question if they do not give you enough information, but do not show approval or agreement with responses. Instead, monitor your nonverbal gestures. Finally, if you are conducting a focus group, make sure to take group dynamics into account.<sup>18</sup> Several factors affect group dynamics, including interviewees' ranks, positions in the organization, experience/background with the topic, personal feelings about the topic, and homogeneity.

## **Organizing Your Data**

As you collect data, you will need to begin taking notes on your sources, including your observations, interviews, surveys, and other documents from your literature review. The most important aspect of note taking is keeping track of where your sources are from; that is, you need to provide citation information as well as notes so you know where you found each quotation or idea you plan to use in the paper. One way to do this is to compile a working bibliography. Each time you consult a new source, enter the source's publication information into a notebook or word document. You may also want to provide a few brief notes describing the source. This way, if you need to go back and hunt down a quote or idea, the working bibliography should help to make the process easier. For more information, please see [Chapter Six](#).

Students have many different note taking methods, but if you are unsure of where to start, you may find note cards helpful when you are working with multiple sources. You can group note cards according to topic and source. Assigning source and topic numbers will help you to organize your information. You may also use different colored note cards to represent the various topics you intend to discuss in your paper. Assigning topics to a particular color note will not only help you to organize your information, but it also will help you to lay out your thoughts when you begin to write your paper.

It is important to make sure you only include one topic and one source per note card. This approach will make it easier to organize your ideas when you have to write your paper. Make sure you indicate whether the note card is a paraphrase or a direct quotation. If the quotation is long or complex, you may want to include your own paraphrase simplifying the information. You may also want to include your perspective on the source or connection to another source. Below are a few sample note cards:

### **Alexander the Great: Background**

- **King of Macedon (326-323 BC)**
- **Undefeated in battle**
- **Conquered the Persian empire**
- **Integrated foreigners into his army**
- **Introduced new military logistics to the ancient world**

### **Quote: Alexander the Great on the importance of provisions**

**“For, just as when a child is born, if it lacks the nurse’s milk, cannot be fed or led up the courses of growing life, so a city without fields and their produce abounding within its walls cannot grow, not become so populous without an abundance of food, not maintain its people without provisions” (Engels 3).**

**Comment: This philosophy allowed Alexander to be successful in battle. He focused not only on protecting his soldiers from an attack, but also on maintaining water sources and food supply. He used military intelligence to gather information on terrain, harvest cycles, agriculture, waterways, and water sources to help the army maintain these resources.**

A note of caution: Please remember to distinguish between your own ideas and quoted or paraphrased material to avoid plagiarism, especially if you are going to take notes electronically. Make sure to indicate which text is quoted and/or paraphrased and which forms your own ideas. Likewise, if you are going to cut and paste information from an electronic source, make sure you immediately differentiate the quote from the rest of the text.

### **What if my research no longer supports my initial hypothesis?**

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

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

### **Begin to Formulate Your Working Thesis Statement**

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

The purpose of the working thesis statement is to state (in one or two sentences) what it is you are trying to prove through your research. The working thesis statement can and will shift as you progress through the research process; however, it is important for you to have a clear vision of what you wish to prove before you begin conducting focused research. The next chapter will provide you with strategies for developing a working thesis statement and further narrowing your topic.

## CHAPTER FIVE

# NARROWING THE FOCUS

Once you have formulated your research question and completed your literature review, it is time to begin narrowing the focus of your paper even further. At this point, you should begin to formulate what is commonly called a working thesis statement. The working thesis statement should tell readers what you are trying to prove through your research. This statement can and will shift as you progress through the research process; however, it is important for you to have a clear vision of what you wish to prove before you begin conducting more focused research. The purpose of the working thesis statement is to keep your research on track.

The word thesis comes from the Greek word meaning “position.” This is fitting, as you will be asked to take a position or make an argument in your master’s thesis, which will be formed and restructured through a long and often arduous process. Thus, it is helpful to think of your thesis statement as a road map: It outlines the main idea of the paper and how the main idea will be proven. In its most basic terms, a thesis is a sustained and logical argument that clearly demonstrates the ability to successfully perform research and analysis while contributing to the existing body of knowledge in a particular discipline.<sup>19</sup> An effective thesis statement should answer three questions: What is my argument? How will it develop (i.e., what factors will be considered)? What is my argument’s significance (i.e., why is it important to the existing body of research and my readers)? For short papers, the thesis is often only one sentence long; however, it is acceptable to have a two-sentence thesis statement for longer papers, such as your Masters of Military Studies paper, your Future War paper, or your Independent Research Paper. In terms of placement, the thesis usually appears near the end of the introduction.

### **The Importance of Argument**

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

While not all papers you write at MCU will be described as “argumentative” or “thesis” papers, most will require you to develop some sort of argumentative thesis statement. Any time instructors ask you to take a position on a particular subject or to debate a particular point of view, they are asking you to formulate a “mini-thesis.” That is, you are expected to take a position and to use facts and examples to support your position. Recall the description of report papers versus research papers in [Chapter Three](#). The papers you write at MCU should focus on

analyzing events and answering questions like “why” and “how” rather than simply summarizing or describing what occurred. Although it is likely that your topic has been covered by someone else at some point in time, the unique analysis you present will help you to avoid recycling old arguments and will instead allow you to contribute to the body of knowledge in your particular field. Ask yourself: What new insight can I bring to this event? Are there any research gaps? Does this event provide any lessons learned that can be applied on the modern battlefield? If you find you have something new to add to the debate, then the paper is likely a great use of your time and energy.

The following are additional issues to consider when building an argument:

1. **Audience:** Your audience will determine your process for proving an argument. Ask yourself: What sort of evidence will the audience find convincing? What biases and beliefs do the readers already hold? How will you counter these beliefs?
2. **Critical Reading:** Think of writing as a conversation with other scholars in the field. In order to participate in this conversation, you need to familiarize yourself with the common points of view in the field. You need to learn about the main arguments and perspectives. Ask yourself: What are the main disagreements? Who are some of the most credible people in the field? What stances do they take on your topic?
3. **Evidence:** The type of evidence you supply will depend on your topic and your approach. Ask yourself: What type of evidence will you provide to support your ideas? Will you use secondary sources (e.g., journal articles and books)? Will you use archival information (e.g., correspondences, journals, and original documents)? Will you conduct interviews and surveys?

### **How to Begin Constructing Your Working Thesis Statement**

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

While there are many different strategies for narrowing and developing thesis statements, many students prefer to use the research question as a jumping off point. A research question tells the reader “what” is the focus of the paper; however, effective thesis statements include not only an answer to the question “what” but also answers to the questions “why” and “how.” The section below provides some examples of how research questions can be used to form working thesis statements. These working thesis statements can be tweaked to form final, polished thesis statements.

1. **Research Question:** How did the British military’s counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya differ from the French military’s counterinsurgency strategy?

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

*Critique of the Working Thesis Statement:* This statement provides a starting point, but it still needs to be further refined. Although the author tells how the insurgency was different (i.e., more successful), the author also needs to explain why this is the case.

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

*Critique of the Revised Working Thesis Statement:* This statement will help to guide the researcher through the research process. It provides the “what” as well as the “why;” however, the statement may continue to evolve and become even more focused as the researcher collects evidence to support his or her argument.

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

2. **Research Question:** How should the United States address Hugo Chavez’s growing influence in Latin America? Is this growing influence dangerous to the United States’ national and regional Latin American interests?

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

*Critique of the Working Thesis Statement:* This thesis is vague and incomplete because it does not answer the “how.”

**Final Thesis Statement:** In an effort to maintain its regional credibility in Latin America and to preserve its national interests, the U.S. must become less dependent on Latin American oil and must reach out diplomatically to other nations in the region to counter Hugo Chavez’s influence.

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

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

*Critique of the Working Thesis Statement:* This sentence gives the researcher a starting point, and also gives a reason for this change. However, the sentence is

still a bit vague because it begs the question, “How should the Army improve its training?”

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

The final thesis statements in each example are polished, answering the “what,” “how,” and “why” questions discussed earlier in the chapter. As you revise and polish your working thesis statement, remember to avoid the common problems addressed below.

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

**Example of Broad Thesis:** The U.S. must find a new, greener source of energy.

*Critique of Broad Thesis:* This thesis statement begs the question, “greener than what?” It also neglects to answer the “how” and “why” aspects of the thesis. The thesis statement should not only take a stand, but it should also tell the reader why this stand is important.

2. The thesis statement contains ambiguous/undefined terms.

**Example of Ambiguous Thesis:** China will become a superpower within the next 20 years.

*Critique of Ambiguous Thesis:* Superpower is a buzzword and may mean different things to different people, depending on culture and nationality. Also, readers are left wondering how you are defining superpower. Are you referring to economic power, military power, technological power, or diplomatic alliances?

3. The thesis statement does not take a stand.

**Example of Non-Argumentative Thesis:** The Long War has affected the type of recruits the Marine Corps has attracted in recent years.

*Critique of Non-Argumentative Thesis:* “Affected” is a vague term and begs the question, affected how—negatively or positively? What is the implication here? Why is it important?

The aforementioned examples should give you an idea of what to avoid when developing and constructing a thesis statement. Below you will find examples of effective thesis statements, as well as an explanation of what makes these thesis statements effective.

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

This thesis statement takes a side and makes a claim that can be argued. It explains what is dangerous (e.g., prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests). It also explains why this is dangerous (e.g., that it violates an individual's right to free speech and prohibits opposing viewpoints from being heard).

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

This thesis statement takes a stand that can be argued. It discusses the need for an effective civil-military relationship (i.e., the "what" aspect of the thesis). It also discusses how this relationship will be accomplished (e.g., uncensored debate and institutional trust), as well as why this is important (e.g., to project the will of the American people).

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

This thesis statement demonstrates a specific argument, which focuses on one aspect of reconstruction. It answers what this did for Iraq (e.g., set conditions to create a secure and stable country).

Once you have formulated your working thesis statement, you will begin conducting more focused research. Remember to keep compiling a working bibliography as you research; this will make for an easier and more organized process. The next chapter will provide you with information on proper citation practices and strategies for avoiding plagiarism. In addition, it will provide you with examples of how to cite a variety of different sources.

## CHAPTER SIX

### PART ONE: PROPER CITATION PRACTICE

When writing an academic paper, you typically will include outside source material to add depth or support to your argument or position. These sources should be properly cited to demonstrate that they are not your ideas, but rather belong to others contributing to your research field. Properly citing sources will allow you to show readers where they can find information to verify your claims, form a jumping off point where you can find gaps or inconsistencies in previous research, and help you to avoid plagiarism. In academic writing, footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical documentation indicate the original source of words or ideas you borrow from other authors. These forms of documentation are unique to the different style manual formats.

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

	CMS	APA	MLA
IN-TEXT CITATIONS	Citations are used in the form of endnotes or footnotes.	Citations begin with a signal phrase that includes the author's name and date of publication; the parenthetical reference follows and includes the author's last name, date of publication, and page number. Commas separate each piece of information within the parenthetical reference.	Citations begin with a signal phrase, but this phrase does not include the date of publication. This information is followed by a parenthetical reference that includes the author's last name and page number. No commas are used inside the parenthetical reference.
REFERENCE PAGES	Reference pages are titled, "Bibliography." This title is centered at the top of the page.	Reference pages are titled, "References." This title is centered at the top of the page.	Reference pages are titled "Works Cited." This title is centered at the top of the page.
BLOCK QUOTATION LENGTH	Quoted material needs to be set off in block quotation format if it is at least one hundred words, or if it takes up at least six to eight lines in the original source.	Quotations are set off in block quotation format when a quotation is forty words or more in length.	A quotation that is four lines of text or longer must be set off in block quotation format. Poetic verses comprised of three lines or more must also be set off from the text.
PAGE FORMAT	Page numbers go in the top right; the author's last name precedes the page number. A title page is required but does not need a page number.	Page numbers go in the top right with a shortened version of the paper's title preceding the page number. A title page is required and needs a page number.	Page numbers go in the top right with the author's last name preceding the page number. No title page is required.

More information about APA and MLA can be found in their respective style manuals, located in the Gray Research Center. When citing sources, regardless of citation style, however, it is important to remember that it is your own ideas that demonstrate what you have learned at MCU over the course of the academic year. Although other researchers and authors may be credible additions to your argument, your voice and your opinions should be the focus of any argument or persuasive piece of writing. Solely using the words and ideas of outside sources can lead to plagiarism in writing.

## **Plagiarism**

Plagiarism refers to the practice of using someone else's ideas or words (intellectual property) as your own. Although the concept of intellectual property differs across cultures and nations around the world, in the United States, published writing is considered to be the personal property of the author(s). Using someone else's work without giving proper credit to the original author is treated as theft. As part of the course curriculum at Marine Corps University, you will write at least one research paper in which you will be required to use primary and secondary sources to support your ideas. Citing other authors reinforces your credibility as a writer by demonstrating how your ideas fit into the pre-existing body of research surrounding your topic. However, when you use someone else's words, ideas, or data, you need to make sure you give proper credit to the original source by using a correctly formatted citation. There are three main types of plagiarism:

1. **Plagiarism of language:** Plagiarism of language refers to the copying of an entire phrase or group of phrases. It is important to use quotations and a proper citation to indicate that you have borrowed a particular phrase or group of phrases from another author.
2. **Plagiarism of ideas/paraphrasing:** Discussing a particular idea or concept that was developed by someone else without giving due credit is considered plagiarism. You can paraphrase the main idea of a group of sentences or even an entire paper, but you must reference the original source of the idea.
3. **Self-plagiarism:** Self-plagiarism refers to the practice of re-using your own writing by either submitting an article or paper to two different publications, or by submitting the same paper for two different courses. Many of the ideas you present in shorter papers and assignments may resurface when you write your master's thesis. For example, if your Campaign Analysis paper and your Master of Military Studies paper are written about a similar topic, you may find yourself repeating some of the same observations and conclusions. You can incorporate the original ideas from the Campaign Analysis paper into the MMS paper as long as those ideas are properly cited using the [unpublished paper/working paper citation format](#).

As a rule of thumb, you should use a citation any time you borrow someone else's language or ideas. You do not need to cite facts that are accepted as common knowledge; for example, if you state in your paper that Christopher Columbus' famous discovery occurred in 1492, you likely do not need to cite your source, as this is a generally accepted fact. However, if you are making a more controversial claim that is not accepted as a fact (i.e., that someone other than Columbus

was responsible for the discovery), a citation is generally needed. The following are strategies you can use to avoid plagiarism in your writing:

1. **Take detailed notes:** Make sure that you differentiate between your own ideas and the ideas presented in your supporting research. Also, it is important to set off any direct quotations in quotation marks.
2. **Put your research away:** It is easier to accidentally copy an author's ideas, words, or writing style when you are trying to read your research and formulate ideas for drafting simultaneously.
3. **Always double check your draft:** Make sure you have used a properly formatted endnote/footnote to credit any outside sources you have used. Also, make sure your research paper includes a bibliography in which you will cite all the sources that you have compiled to support your ideas. Using plagiarism detection software (e.g., [Turnitin](#) or Blackboard [SafeAssign](#)) is a great way to make sure you are not unintentionally borrowing verbiage from outside sources.

As you check to ensure that you have properly formatted your citations, it is helpful to keep in mind three common ways to use a source in your paper:

1. **You can quote a source directly (word for word):** Generally, you should quote when the specific language used in the original text is needed.
2. **You can paraphrase the ideas in a source:** You should typically paraphrase when presenting the main points of short passages to avoid unnecessarily lengthy direct quotes.
3. **You can summarize the source:** You should summarize when explaining basic concepts or when discussing main points in longer texts.

In order to avoid plagiarism when quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing, make sure to use an endnote to cite all paraphrased and summarized information. Use your own words to paraphrase and summarize outside source material. Also, you should place all borrowed language in quotation marks and use an endnote to indicate the source of the borrowed text (i.e., direct quotations).

### Using Direct Quotations

A direct quotation “records the exact language used by someone in speech or in writing.”<sup>20</sup> It is important to avoid plagiarism when using direct quotations. The following quotation is an example of an original source you may choose to use in your paper.

**Original Source:** “Today, many parts of the Al Anbar Province resemble feudalist Europe in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. When one speaks to tribal leaders there is no perception or understanding of a system where tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state. There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any

other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments. The real (and only) measuring stick for the tribal leader is simple—what can you do for my family, my tribe, and me now? That measuring stick drives people’s decisions, actions, and associations.”<sup>21</sup>

An example of an improperly cited version can be seen below:

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

The student’s use of the information is considered plagiarism for two reasons: First, the student did not cite the source used with a footnote or endnote. Second, the student used the exact ideas of the author (highlighted in yellow). Although the student slightly changed the language, the majority is material that should be quoted and cited. Another example of improperly cited source material is shown below:

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

The student’s use of the information is still considered plagiarism. While this student cited the source he used with an endnote, he still used some of the writer’s exact words without placing those words in quotation marks. A properly cited version can be seen below:

**Properly Cited Version:** According to Edwin O. Rueda, in his discussion of similarities between the Al Anbar Province and feudalism in 16<sup>th</sup> century Europe, “There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments.”<sup>1</sup>

This student’s use of the information is not considered plagiarism because directly borrowed verbiage from the original source is in quotation marks and is cited with an endnote. Make sure when you directly quote outside material that what you have quoted is accurately stated word for word in your paper, with exact spelling and punctuation use matching the original source. Likewise, make sure that what you have stated in your own words does not match the original source’s word choice and style; this is known as paraphrasing.

## Paraphrasing

A paraphrase captures the main idea or focus of a particular section or paragraph, but is considerably different in both word choice and syntax (i.e., sentence structure). The ability to paraphrase is an important skill, as it will allow you to discuss the essence of an author’s work without needing to quote that information verbatim. The following quotation is an example of an original source you may choose to paraphrase in your paper:

**Original Source:** “Galula claims, ‘The population’s attitude...is dictated not so much by the relative popularity and merits of the opponents as by the more primitive concern for safety.’ Furthermore, he ponders, ‘which side gives the best protection, which side threatens the most, which one is likely to win; these are the criteria governing the population’s stand.’”<sup>22</sup>

The source can be paraphrased by putting these ideas in your own words, as shown below.

**Paraphrase:** For Galula, control over the population is the key to success, as it allows the counterinsurgent to establish the secure environment in which those who support the counterinsurgent and his cause can come forward to organize for their own governance and eventual self-protection.<sup>1</sup>

When comparing the original source with the paraphrase, the word choice, order, and sentence structure are quite different. Notice, however, that an endnote is still used to credit the original author with the borrowed ideas. Paraphrasing can help you avoid using long, wordy direct quotations in your paper, as readers often find these distracting and nonessential to read. Summarizing longer quotes and concepts from an outside source can also strengthen your argument.

### **Summarizing**

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

Summaries are particularly important when you are comparing several perspectives or theories on the same subject, or when you have limited space and time to provide information. For instance, you may provide your supervisor with a one-page summary of a 200-page report, or you may write a paragraph that presents the main themes discussed in a 20-page research article. Overall, summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting are good ways to effectively incorporate outside sources into your paper. More information is provided below on using these methods.

### **Using Your Sources Effectively**

The source material you use to support your claims and the way you present this material will influence the way your reader perceives your argument. Gracefully weaving source material into your paper takes practice, but there are a few general guidelines you can follow that will help you to use your sources effectively.

1. Make sure your sources and paraphrases play a supporting role to your own ideas. When you write a research paper, you need to make an original argument based on the research you conduct—your sources merely provide the evidence to support your central argument.

2. Avoid quoting if paraphrasing will suffice. Exact wording may be important at times, especially when you are discussing doctrine, legislation, or another researcher's exact position on a topic. Well-known facts, truths, and adages do not need to be quoted, however. Be selective about the material you choose to quote directly, and avoid the practice of using a quotation simply because you feel the author expressed a particular concept or idea better than you could.
3. Make sure to place all quotations into the context of your paper and main argument. Each quotation should be introduced, and its significance should be explained (e.g., who said it, how it relates to your research, and why it is important).
4. Avoid back to back quotations. Placing one quotation directly after another does not give you the chance to fully explain the first quote before moving on to the next statement. Adding details, explaining concepts, and relating quoted ideas back to your main argument shows that you have original ideas and have done enough reading on the topic to be able to discuss it fully.
5. When multiple sources make the same claim, group them together. For example, instead of saying, "General X believes it is important to employ the concept of Distributed Operations in current and future conflicts. General Y also thinks Distributed Operations should be used in current and future conflicts," you may want to say, "According to Generals X and Y, the concept of Distributed Operations should be employed in current and future conflicts."
6. If you use a formal signal phrase to precede quoted material, then the phrase needs to be followed by a colon. If you are simply demonstrating to readers that a speaker said, argued, or described an idea, a comma needs to follow the phrase.
7. If you are using a quotation to precede a section of the paper or the beginning of the paper—this is called an epigraph—you do not need to use quotation marks. Rather, you should set the text apart by indenting and/or italicizing, and you should format each epigraph consistently with the others in the paper.
8. If you are quoting at least one hundred words, or if the quoted material takes up at least six to eight lines in the original source, you need to set it off in block quotation format. Quoted letters or other forms of correspondence, bulleted lists, and specially formatted information should be set off in block quotation format as well. Block quotations do not need quotation marks; instead, the entire quotation is indented five spaces or one TAB space from the left margin, similar to a new paragraph. An end note is needed to cite the quotation.
9. Even though you do not use quotation marks to set off a block quotation, if there is a quote contained within the block quotation, you need to use double quotation marks to set off that material.

## Frequently Asked Questions

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

Peer reviewed articles will often reference others' works, either in the form of a paraphrase or a quotation. You can integrate this type of source by quoting the main source in double quotation marks and enclosing the source within the source in single quotation marks, for example, "While Kilcullen views insurgency as a global conflict, Galula views insurgency as political war in which the people are the center of gravity. Galula claims, 'The population's attitude...is dictated not so much by the relative popularity and merits of the opponents as by the more primitive concern for safety.' Furthermore, he states, 'which side gives the best protection, which side threatens the most, which one is likely to win; these are the criteria governing the population's stand.'"<sup>23</sup>

You can also paraphrase the main themes in another researcher's work. Here is an example: For Galula, control over the population is the key to success. Only by gaining and keeping control of the population can the counterinsurgent establish the secure environment within which those who support the counterinsurgent and his cause can come forward to organize for their own governance and eventual self-protection.<sup>1</sup>

Remember, you should first try to consult the original source rather than use a paraphrase from the secondary source. Your interpretation of the source may be different from the secondary source author's interpretation of the source, and both of your interpretations may not quite match the original author's intended meaning. If you cannot consult the original source, however, you can follow the format below.

#### **Bibliography**

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

#### **Note**

<sup>1</sup>David Galula, *Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice* (Westport, CT: Praeger Security International, 1964), 8, quoted in Terence J. Daly, "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice," *Military Review* 86, no. 5 (September/October 2006): 112.

### 2. What do I do if I need to make changes to quoted material?

You are allowed to change quoted material in certain ways to match your paper's format and sentence structure. For example, you do not have to use the font used in the original source. If all words in the original source are in full capital letters, you can make them lowercase to match proper capitalization guidelines in your paper. In addition, if the original source underlines words or phrases, you can italicize them instead unless you

have a reason to leave them underlined. Sometimes you may also need to edit words in a quotation in order to integrate the source material with the rest of your text. In order to preserve the integrity of the original text, it is important to make sure you acknowledge any changes or omissions you make.

### 3. **How do I omit words at the beginning of a quoted sentence?**

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

**Original Quotation:** “There is no constant set of operational techniques in counterinsurgency; rather, this is a form of ‘counter-warfare’ that applies all elements of national power against insurrection.”<sup>24</sup>

**Bracketed Quotation:** According to David Kilcullen, “[T]his is a form of ‘counter-warfare’ that applies all elements of national power against insurrection.”<sup>25</sup>

As you can see, brackets enclose the first letter of the word “this” because the preceding words have been omitted. If the quote becomes a dependent clause once the additional words are omitted, there are two main ways you can make the quotation grammatically correct. First, you can use brackets to insert words or phrases (being careful not to change the meaning of the quoted material). Below is an example:

**Original Quotation:** “In the post-Cold War world, the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern. Instead, politicians tell us that the U.S. is now at risk from biological and chemical weapons, that the international community is subject to the predations of transnational terrorists, and that ‘cyberwar’ could bring daily life as we know it to an absolute standstill without a shot being fired.”<sup>26</sup>

**Bracketed Quotation:** According to the authors, “the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war [which helped to characterize attitudes during the Cold War] seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern.”<sup>27</sup>

Second, you can combine the quotation with a framing sentence. Below you will find an example of this practice:

**Original Quotation:** “A militia system also offers many advantages to the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats. Israel’s militia system ensures that any limited incursion—even by a band of a few bomb-throwing terrorists—can be contained by the presence of armed citizen-soldiers.”<sup>28</sup>

**Edited Quotation:** Israel’s militia system is favorable to “the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats.”<sup>29</sup>

#### 4. How do I omit words from the middle or at the end of a quotation?

If you introduce a quotation in the middle of a sentence in your own paper (e.g., Clausewitz believes that), and the quotation starts with a capital letter, you should use a lowercase letter to make for correct sentence structure. If the quoted material does not complete the sentence (e.g., As Clausewitz argues), then you should use a capital letter to begin the quotation. When omitting words from the middle or end of a quotation, use an ellipsis to indicate omitted words. When you have omitted words at the end of a sentence, end the sentence with a period and then insert the ellipsis. Below is an example of a quotation that omits words in the middle of the sentence:

**Original Quotation:** “Whether the Founders and subsequent Americans were liberal individualists or republican communitarians, or even driven by racism, I would argue that in the main they were still suspicious of government, skeptical about the benefits of government authority, and impressed with the virtue of limiting government.”<sup>30</sup>

**Edited Quotation:** According to Kingdon, Americans are “suspicious of government...and impressed with the virtue of limiting government.”<sup>31</sup>

You can see here that even though some details were left out of the edited quotation, the original author’s meaning does not truly change. The following example shows how to edit a quotation by omitting words from the end:

**Original Quotation:** “Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state. The insurgent challenges the *status quo*; the counterinsurgent seeks to reinforce the state and so defeat the internal challenge. This applies to some modern insurgencies—Thailand, Sri Lanka and Colombia are examples. But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure, and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an ‘ungoverned space.’”<sup>32</sup>

**Edited Quotation:** “Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state.... But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure, and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an ‘ungoverned space.’”<sup>33</sup>

You can see here there are four periods—a period to denote the end of the previous sentence, and three as an ellipsis to indicate there is material omitted.

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

After you first reference a work in an endnote, use a secondary or shortened citation with only the author's last name and the page number. If you use more than one work by the same author, agency, or organization, use a short title in each subsequent reference. While many publications use *ibid* when a source is used multiple times, the *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends a shortened citation form. Below is an example of a shortened citation:

**First Note**

<sup>1</sup>Joseph D. Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), 198-199.

**Second Note**

<sup>2</sup>Douglass Jr., 202.

The next example (below) assumes you have used more than one work by the author.

**First Note**

<sup>1</sup>Central Intelligence Agency, "Contemporary Soviet Propaganda and Disinformation: A Conference Report," Airlie, VA, 25-27 June 1985 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1987), 312.

**Second Note**

<sup>2</sup>CIA, "Conference Report," 313.

6. **Can I use plagiarism detection software (e.g., Turnitin.com and Blackboard SafeAssign) to check which material I need to quote/cite?**

Plagiarism detection sites have access to a wide variety of sources and have an incredibly high probability of catching plagiarized work, whether intentional or unintentional. There is also a high probability that these sites will match other papers using your sources, rather than the original sources you consulted. As a result, it will be difficult to determine where you have obtained source material unless you have already compiled a working bibliography. To ensure that you submit an accurate document to your instructor, it is best to cite quoted, paraphrased, and summarized material prior to and while drafting.

Additional guidelines demonstrate how to effectively incorporate sources into your paper. For example, if you want to correct typographic errors in an original source, you would use the Latin abbreviation [*sic*], meaning "thus" or "such as" to indicate a misspelling. Similarly, if the original text contains bold or italicized words for emphasis and you wish to keep those words emphasized, add a note [emphasis in original] to let the reader know the emphasis was added by the text's original author. For more information and additional guidelines, please see *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 16<sup>th</sup> edition. The next section in this chapter will provide you with example formats for a wide variety of sources you may use in your paper. These bibliographic references and sample endnotes are in Chicago Style.

## PART TWO: CITATION EXAMPLES

### Book with One Author

#### *Bibliography*

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

#### *Note*

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

In the bibliographic reference, the author's name is inverted (the last name is listed first). A comma follows the last name. In the note, however, the author's name is not inverted. Another unique feature of the note is that it typically includes a page number, if one is available. In both the bibliographic reference and the note, book titles and subtitles (the part of the title following a colon) are italicized. The first word in the title, the first word in the subtitle, and any other major words should be capitalized. One space follows the colon.

### Book with Two Authors

#### *Bibliography*

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

#### *Note*

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

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

### Book with Three Authors

#### *Bibliography*

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

#### *Note*

<sup>3</sup>Waldemar Erfurth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisonburg, PA: Military Service Publishing, 1943), 18, 21-22.

As stated in the previous example of a book with two authors, when citing a book with three authors only the first author's name is inverted in the bibliography (the last name precedes the first). In addition, in regards to the publication information you will notice that the state is added

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

### **Book with Four to Ten Authors**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

#### ***Note***

<sup>4</sup>Doug Suisman et. al., *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007), 16.

If a work has four to ten authors or editors, include all names in the bibliography, but not in the note. In the note, only cite the first author. Use “et. al.” in place of the remaining authors.

### **Book with a Corporate Author**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

#### ***Note***

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

When citing a book provided by an organization that does not have a personal author’s name on the title page, you would list the organization as the author in the bibliography and in the note.

### **Book with an Editor(s)**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

#### ***Note***

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

When there is no author listed on the title page, or when an editor is seen as more important than the author of the source, the editor’s name can be used instead. Use “ed.” to distinguish an editor from an author; this abbreviation is not needed in shortened note citations.

### **Book with an Author and Editor and/or Translator**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

### **Note**

<sup>7</sup>Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), 99.

In the note, the word “edited” is abbreviated to “ed.” Only use the singular form “ed.” even if there is more than one editor. If there are four or more editors, cite the first and add “et. al.” When adding the name of a translator or translators, separate this information with a comma.

### **Non-English Language Source**

According to the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS), when works written in English cite sources written in a foreign language, bibliographic terms (e.g. volume, edition, etc.) may be translated if the author or editor is familiar with common bibliographic terms in the foreign language. However, the CMS recommends leaving the terms in their original language.

### **Book with Edition**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

### **Note**

<sup>8</sup>Diana Hacker et. al., *A Writer's Reference*, 6<sup>th</sup> ed. (Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007), 43.

While there are more than three authors listed in the bibliography, only cite the first author listed in the note, followed by the phrase “et. al.” The edition follows the title, and in the note it is preceded by a comma. If you are citing a revised edition, you would abbreviate the phrase and place it after the title in the same way (e.g., rev. ed.). The word “revised” in the edition statement should be in lowercase.

### **Article in an Edited Book**

#### ***Bibliography***

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

### **Note**

<sup>9</sup>Kent Calder, “U.S. Foreign Policy in Northeast Asia,” in *The International Relations of Northeast Asia*, ed. Samuel S. Kim (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 2004), 225-248.

Note the difference between the bibliographic reference and the note in the article and the book titles. In both, the word “in” precedes the title of the book; however, in the bibliographic

reference, the first letter of the word is capitalized. Also in the bibliography, the page numbers of the article precede the publication information.

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<sup>10</sup>Donald R. Gardner, foreword to *Applications in Operational Culture: Perspectives from the Field*, by Paula Holmes-Eber, Patrice M. Scanlon, and Andrea L. Hamlen, ed. (Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University Press, 2009), ix.

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<sup>13</sup>Roger E. Kanet, "Limitations on the Soviet Union's Role in Protracted Warfare in the Third World," in *Guerrilla Warfare and Counterinsurgency: U.S.-Soviet Policy in the Third World*, ed. Richard H. Shultz, Jr., Robert L. Pfaltzgraff, Jr., Uri Ra'an, William J. Olson, and Igor Lukes, 81-98 (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1989), 96.

In the bibliographic reference, list the author of the contribution first. The title of the contribution, which is not italicized, and the ending punctuation are enclosed within quotation marks. The word "In," which is also not italicized, and the title of the book (italicized) follow. In the bibliography and in the end note, list the page numbers of the contribution after the last editor. In the end note only, place the page used in the citation at the end.

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<sup>15</sup>Alfred Beck et. al., *The Technical Services: The Corps of Engineers; The War against Germany* vol. 6, pt. 6, vol. 4, *United States Army in World War II* (Washington, DC: Center of Military History, 1988), 351.

When citing a particular volume, the volume title goes first before the title of the entire work (e.g., *The Technical Services: The Corps of Engineers; The War against Germany*). Note that in this title there are two subtitles, so the second subtitle should be preceded by a semicolon. One difference between the bibliography and end note references is the listing of authors; in the end note, only cite the first author. Use the abbreviated phrase “et. al.” for the remaining authors.

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

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<sup>17</sup>Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Pearson/Longman, 2010), 225.

An imprint is a subdivision or brand of a publication company. For example, St. Martin’s Press is an imprint of Macmillan. For both the bibliography and the note, if a book was published by an imprint of a publishing company, link the name of the imprint and the name of the publisher with a slash, putting the imprint last.

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<sup>18</sup>Abigail Adams to John Adams, 1801, in *My Dearest Friend: Letters of Abigail and John Adams*, Margaret A. Hogan and C. James Taylor, ed. (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001), 15.

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<sup>21</sup>T. X. Hammes, "The Emergence of 5<sup>th</sup> Generation Warfare," *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (May-June 2007): 14-23.

To cite a journal article, put the title of the article first in quotation marks, followed by the title of the journal (in italics). The volume number follows the title. There is no punctuation between the title and the volume number. Write the volume as an Arabic numeral even if it is written as a Roman numeral in the original. If an issue number is given, place a comma after the volume number and the abbreviation "no." before the issue number. It is not necessary to include a month or season if an issue number is given, but it is allowed and may help your readers.

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Sanassarian, Eliz, and Avi Davidi. "Domestic Tribulations and International Repercussions: The State and the Transformation of Non-Muslims in Iran." *Journal of International Affairs* 60, no. 2 (Spring-Summer 2007): 55-69. <http://search.ebscohost.com/>.

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<sup>22</sup>Eliz Sanassarian and Avi Davidi, "Domestic Tribulations and International Repercussions: The State and the Transformation of Non-Muslims in Iran," *Journal of International Affairs* 60, no. 2 (Spring-Summer 2007): 55-69, <http://search.ebscohost.com/>.

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## Foreign Language Articles and Journals

### ***Bibliography***

Foucault, Michael. "Des espaces autres." *Architecture, Mouvement, Continuite* 5 (October 1984): 46-49.

### ***Note***

<sup>23</sup>Michael Foucault, "Des espaces autres," *Architecture, Mouvement, Continuite* 5 (October 1984): 46.

Usually, only the first letter of foreign-language article titles is capitalized, unless there are other proper nouns in the title; however, capitalization is treated in accordance with the conventions of the particular language.

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McGirk, Tim. "In the Shadow of 1967." *Time*, June 11, 2007, 42-44, 47.

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You do not need to include the volume or issue number for weekly or monthly magazines. Only the full date (not in parentheses) is needed. In addition, it is not necessary to include the page range for magazines in your bibliography because articles are often interrupted by advertisements and other extra pages. If page numbers are included, particularly in the end note, separate the date and page numbers with a comma.

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Cragg, Jennifer. "Battle of Midway." *All Hands*, June 2007, 15-23.  
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<sup>27</sup>Walter Pingus and Ann Scott Tyson, "Big Boost in Iraqi Forces Is Urged," *Washington Post*, June 13, 2007.

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

It is not necessary to include the date a newspaper article was accessed from an electronic database. Simply add the main URL to get the entrance of the database. Also, if an author is not listed, you can use the name of a news service instead. Capitalize the title of the news service, but do not italicize it like you would the newspaper title.

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**Note**

<sup>29</sup>Bill Mears, "Divided Court Rejects School Diversity Plans," *CNN.com*, June 28, 2007,  
<http://www.cnn.com/2007/LAW/06/28/scotus.race/index.html>.

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

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### **Note**

<sup>31</sup>Howard J. Langer, *The Vietnam War: An Encyclopedia of Quotations* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2005), 33.

It is not necessary to cite well-known reference sources, such as the *Webster's dictionaries* and *Encyclopedia Britannica*; however, they must be included in the note. If the reference material is not well known, include it in the bibliography. It is also not necessary to include the publication information, volume number, or page number. Instead, include the edition and the name of the specific article or entry after the abbreviated phrase “s.v.” This is Latin for “under the word.”

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<sup>32</sup>Encyclopedia Britannica Online, s.v. “battalion.” <http://www.search.ed.com/eb/article-9013771> (accessed July 14, 2007).

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**Note**

<sup>33</sup>Matthew Culbertson, "A Study of the Soviet Conflict in Afghanistan and Its Implications," (master's thesis, Marine Corps University, 2005), 23-24.

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Amdemichael, Haile Araya. "East African Crisis Response: Shaping Ethiopian Peace Force for Better Participation in Future Peace Operations." Master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, 2006. <http://stinet.dtic.mil/>.

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<sup>34</sup>Haile Araya Amdemichael, "East African Crisis Response: Shaping Ethiopian Peace Force for Better Participation in Future Peace Operations," (master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, 2006), 51, <http://stinet.dtic.mil/>.

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When citing unpublished papers, include the author, title, the words *unpublished manuscript*, the date you last consulted the source, and the format of the source (e.g. Microsoft Word file, PowerPoint presentation, etc.).

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***Bibliography***

Cordesman, Anthony. "One Year On: Nation Building in Iraq; a Status Report." Working Paper, Center for Strategic and International Studies, 2004.

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### ***Note***

<sup>37</sup>Cynthia O’neill, “Evaluating the OODA Loop,” (lecture, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, October 2, 2008).

Keep in mind that lectures provided in Breckenridge Auditorium should not be cited due to MCU’s non-attribution policy.

## **MCU Handouts**

### ***Note***

<sup>38</sup>Lewis Miller, “Iraqi Culture and Politics,” (course card, Marine Corps University, 2012), 2.

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### ***Bibliography***

Lopez, Jacob. “MCPD.” PowerPoint presentation, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 25 June 2012.

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<sup>39</sup>Jacob Lopez, “MCPD,” (PowerPoint presentation, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 25 June 2012).

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### ***Bibliography***

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**Note**

<sup>42</sup>Walter Isaacson (managing editor of *Time* magazine), interview by Edward Smith, March 22, 2010.

<sup>43</sup>Jane Green (CEO of Green Publishers), in discussion with the author, October 2011.

The note should include the names of the interviewer and the person being interviewed, brief identifying information (i.e., the interviewee’s title or credentials when appropriate), and the place and time of the interview. If a transcript or recording is available, the note should also include where this information can be located.<sup>34</sup>

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Gallagher, Gary. “Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview.” By Peter S. Carmichael. *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 20-27.

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<sup>44</sup>Gary Gallagher, “Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview,” by Peter S. Carmichael, *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 20-27.

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Gallagher, Gary. “Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview.” By Peter S. Carmichael. *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 20-27. <http://www.proquest.com/>.

**Note**

<sup>45</sup>Gary Gallaher, “Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview,” by Peter S. Carmichael, *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 23, <http://www.proquest.com/>.

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Rice, Condoleezza. "Interview with Condoleezza Rice." By Washington Post Editorial Board. *Washington Post*, December 15, 2006. <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2006/12/15/AR2006121500529.html>.

### ***Note***

<sup>46</sup>Condoleezza Rice, "Interview with Condoleezza Rice," by Washington Post Editorial Board, *Washington Post*, December 15, 2006, <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2006/12/15/AR2006121500529.html>.

## **Unattributed Interviews**

According to CMS guidelines, "An interview with a person who prefers to remain anonymous or whose name the author does not wish to reveal may be cited in whatever form is appropriate in the context."<sup>35</sup>

### ***Note***

<sup>47</sup>Interview with senior executive servant, June 10, 2011.

The citation should also explain the reason for omitting the interviewee's name (e.g., all interviews were conducted in confidentiality).

## **Government Publications**

According to the *CMS*, "Almost all legal works use notes for documentation and few use bibliographies... any work so cited need not be listed in a bibliography."<sup>36</sup> Additionally, Chicago Style recommendations for legal works (bills, laws, government documents, etc.) follow The Bluebook style.

## **Congressional Hearings in Print**

### ***Note***

<sup>48</sup>*Status of the V-22 Tiltrotor Aircraft Program: Hearing before the Procurement and Military Nuclear Systems Subcommittee and the Research and Development Subcommittee of the Committee on Armed Services*, 102<sup>nd</sup> Cong. 2 (1992).

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### ***Bibliography***

U.S. Congress. House. *Thinkers and Practitioners: Do Senior Professional Military Education Schools Produce Strategists?: Hearing before the House Armed Services Subcommittee*, 111th Cong., 2009.

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<sup>49</sup>*Thinkers and Practitioners: Do Senior Professional Military Education Schools Produce Strategists?: Hearing Before the House Armed Services Subcommittee, 111th Cong., 10 (2009) (Rear Adm. James P. Wisecup, President, U.S. Naval War College).*

The relevant committee should be listed as part of the title and italicized. Session numbers are not required for citations of House Reports “published as of the 60<sup>th</sup> Congress, where an odd-numbered year indicates a first session and an even year a second session.”<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>50</sup>U.S. Department of Defense, *Defense Manpower Requirements Report* (Washington, DC: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, April 2012), 15.

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**Note**

<sup>52</sup>House Committee on Veterans’ Affairs, *Report to the Committee on the Budget from the Committee on Veterans’ Affairs Submitted Pursuant to Section 201 of the Congressional Budget Act of 1974 on the Budget Proposed for Fiscal Year 2008*, 110<sup>th</sup> Cong., 2007, Committee Print 2, 15-16.

<sup>53</sup>Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, *Palestinian Legislative Council Elections: Challenges of Hamas' Victory: Staff Trip Report to the Committee on Foreign Relations United States Senate*, 109th Cong., 2nd sess., 2006, Committee Print 55, 13.

## **Commission Reports**

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### ***Note***

<sup>54</sup>Commission on the Intelligence Capabilities of the United States Regarding Weapons of Mass Destruction, *Report to the President of the United States* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2005), 33.

<sup>55</sup>Commission on Roles and Missions of the Armed Forces, *Report of the Commission on Roles and Mission of the Armed Forces* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1995), 26.

## **Government Documents Available in Electronic Databases such as STINET or LexisNexis**

According to the *CMS*, "Sources consulted through commercial databases such as Westlaw or LexisNexis may also be cited; these are treated like print sources but with the addition of the database name and any identification number (or, in the case of constitutions and statutes, information about the currency of the database)."<sup>38</sup>

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### ***Note***

<sup>56</sup>Commission on Roles and Missions of the Armed Forces, *Report of the Commission on Roles and Missions of the Armed Forces* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1995), 26, <http://stinet.dtic.mil/>.

<sup>57</sup>Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, *Combating Terrorism*, 108th Cong., 2003, Committee Print 37, 11, <http://www.lexis-nexis.com/>.

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### ***Note***

<sup>58</sup>U.S. President, Proclamation, “Honoring the Memory of the Victims of the Indian Ocean Earthquake and Tsunamis,” *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 3 (2005 Comp.), accessed 2 June 2006, <http://www.gpoaccess.gov/cfr/>.

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### ***Note***

<sup>60</sup>U.S. Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, “Fisheries off West Coast States and in the Western Pacific; Coastal Pelagic Species Fisheries; Annual Specifications,” *Federal Register* 71, no. 10 (17 January 2006): 2510-11.

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When citing government documents accessed online, “citations should follow the format for printed sources with the addition of a URL. Access dates (‘last visited’ in *Bluebook* parlance) are recommended only for undated documents.”<sup>39</sup>

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<sup>61</sup>Government Accountability Office, *Defense Contracting: Use of Undefined Contracts Understated and Definitization Time Frame often Not Met* (Washington, DC: Government Accountability Office, 2007), 16, <http://www.gao.gov/new.items/d07559.pdf>.

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*Declaratory Judgment Act*. U.S. Code. Vol. 28, secs. 2201-2 (1952).

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<sup>64</sup>*Declaratory Judgment Act*, U.S. code, vol. 28, secs. 2201-2 (1952).

### **Supreme Court Decisions**

When citing Supreme Court decisions, include the name of the case, “the volume number, abbreviated name of the reporter, the ordinal series number of the reporter (if applicable), the abbreviated name of the court (if not specified by the reporter) and the date together in parentheses, and other relevant information. A single page number designates the opening page of a decision; an additional number designates an actual page cited.”<sup>40</sup>

### ***Note***

<sup>65</sup>*Brown v. Board of Education*, 347 U.S. 483, 380 (1954).

### **Constitutions**

When citing a constitution, include the name of the constitution (an abbreviation of the jurisdiction and Const.) and the cited part (e.g., article, amendment, clause, section).

### ***Note***

<sup>66</sup>U.S. Const. art. II, § 2, cl. 2.

<sup>67</sup>V.A. Const. art. V, § 6, cl. 2.

Articles are abbreviated “art.,” amendments “amend.,” and clauses “cl.”

## **Treaties and International Agreements**

### ***Bibliography***

“Maastricht Treaty.” 1 February 1992. *International Legal Materials* 33, I.L.M. 395 (1994): 20-44.

International Convention for the High Seas Fisheries of the North Pacific Ocean.” 9 May 1952. TIAS 2785. *United States Treaties and Other International Agreements* 4, pt. 1 (1953): 380-420.

### ***Note***

<sup>68</sup>“Maastricht Treaty,” 1 February 1952, *International Legal Materials* 33, I.L.M. 395 (1994).

<sup>69</sup>“International Convention for the High Seas Fisheries of the North Pacific Ocean,” 9 May 1952, TIAS 2786, article 3, *United States Treaties and Other International Agreements* 4, pt. 1 (1953).

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### ***Bibliography***

James, Col Richard, Policy and Operations, Marine Corps University. Col Richard James to Col Joseph A. Wright, Policy and Operations. Memorandum, 2 September 2011.

### ***Note***

<sup>70</sup>Col Richard James, Policy and Operations, Marine Corps University, to Col Joseph A. Wright, Policy and Operations, Memorandum, 2 September 2011.

## **Draft Memorandum**

### ***Bibliography***

Director, Marine Corps Museum. Director, Marine Corps Museum, to Director, Command and Staff College. Draft memorandum, 15 July 2010.

### ***Note***

<sup>71</sup>Director, Marine Corps Museum, to Director, Command and Staff College, draft memorandum, 15 July 2010.

## **Memorandum of Understanding**

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Director of the Marine Corps Museum. Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College. Memorandum of understanding, 10 August 2010.

**Note**

<sup>72</sup>Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of the Marine Corps Museum, memorandum of understanding, 10 August 2010.

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Smith, Maj Zachary A., Chief of Staff, Marine Corps University. Memorandum for record, 20 December 2000.

**Note**

<sup>73</sup>Maj Zachary Smith, Chief of Staff, Marine Corps University, memorandum for record, 20 December 2000.

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Green, Col S.W., executive, Commandant's Strategic Initiatives Group. Col S.W. Green to Commanding General, Marine Corps Training and Education Command, 10 February 2001.

**Note**

<sup>74</sup>Col S.W. Green, executive, Commandant's Strategic Initiatives Group, to Commanding General, Marine Corps Training and Education Command, 10 February 2001.

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Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps. *MAGTF Intelligence Production and Analysis*. MCWP 2-12. Washington, DC: Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, September 27, 2001.

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**Note**

<sup>75</sup>Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *Warfighting*, MCDP 1 (Washington, DC: U.S. Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 52.

<sup>76</sup>U.S. Department of the Army and Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *Counterinsurgency*, FM3-24 or MCWP 3-33.5 (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Army, December 2006), 20.

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U.S. Department of Defense. *Joint Improvised Explosive Device Defeat Organization* (JIEDDO). Directive 2000. 19E, February 14, 2006.

### ***Note***

<sup>77</sup>U.S. Department of Defense, *Joint Improvised Explosives Device Defeat Organization* (JIEDDO), Directive 2000, 19E, February 14, 2006, 2.

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U.S. Department of Defense. *Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps (JROTC) Program*. Instruction 1205.13, February 6, 2006, <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/120513p.pdf>.

### ***Note***

<sup>78</sup>U.S. Department of Defense, *Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps (JROTC) Program*, Instruction 1205.13, February 6, 2006, 2, <http://www.dtic.mil/whs/directives/corres/pdf/1205.13p.pdf>.

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### ***Bibliography***

Commandant of the Marine Corps. *Marine Air-Ground Task Force Staff Training Program*. MCO 1500.53A, August 20, 2002. <http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/82001916d226893285256d1200493/file/mco20153A.pdf>.

### ***Note***

<sup>79</sup>Commandant of the Marine Corps, *Marine Air-Ground Task Force Staff Training Program*, MCO 1500.53A, August 20, 2002, 13, <http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/82001916d226893285256d1200493/file/mco20153A.pdf>.

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Commandant of the Marine Corps. *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances*. MCBul10120, October 1, 2006. [http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/\\$FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf](http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/$FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf).

### ***Note***

<sup>80</sup>Commandant of the Marine Corps, *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances*, MCBul10120, October 1, 2006, [http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/\\$FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf](http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/$FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf).

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### ***Bibliography***

Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review*. Staff study, 1980.

### ***Note***

<sup>81</sup>Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review*, staff study, 1980.

## **Correspondence**

### ***Bibliography Format***

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

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>82</sup>McCutcheon, Keith B. to Earl E. Anderson, September 27, 1971, Keith B. McCutcheon Papers, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Box 1, Folder 12. Coll. 3040.

## **Reports**

### ***Bibliography Format***

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

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>83</sup>"Composition and Functions of Marine Corps Aviation," 1955, Headquarters, United States Marine Corps, Studies and Reports Collection, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, Coll. 3746.

## **Photographs**

### ***Bibliography Format***

Collection, Archive information, Coll. Number/name.

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>84</sup>Straub, Robert, photographer, "Mortar Fire," photograph, San Francisco: Force Information Office, III Marine Amphibious Force, Military Assistance Command Vietnam 1969, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, *Johnathan F. Abel Papers*, Folder 58, Box 4, Coll. 3611.

## **Oral Histories**

### ***Bibliography Format***

Name of interviewee (first, initial, last). Format. Archive information. Collection number/name.

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>85</sup>Krulak, Victor I., Interviewed by Benis M. Frank, 1970, transcript, History and Museums Division, Headquarters United States Marine Corps, transcript, page 83, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Oral Histories Collection.

## **Films**

### ***Bibliography Format***

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

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>86</sup>Armitage, Frederick S., photographer, *Bargain Day, Fourteenth Street, New York*, 35mm film, United States: American Mutoscope and Biograph Co., 1905. Library of Congress, *Early Motion Pictures 1897-1920*.

## **Maps**

### ***Bibliography Format***

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

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### ***Note Example***

<sup>87</sup>United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey, *Topographic Map of the Island of Saipan, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands*, map, Reston, Va: U.S. Geological Survey, 1983, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Map Collection.

## **Sound Recording**

### ***Bibliography Format***

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

### ***Bibliography Example***

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

### ***Note Format***

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

### **Note Example**

<sup>88</sup>Bourgeois, John R., director, *Esprit de Corps*, compact disc, Quantico, Va: Marine Corps Historical Foundation, n.d. Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Sound Recordings Collection.

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#### **Bibliography**

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

#### **Note**

<sup>89</sup>Kenneth Katzman, *The Iran Sanctions Act (ISA)*, CRS Report for Congress RS20871. (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, January 25, 2007), 12.

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#### **Bibliography**

Kan, Shirley A. *China and Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction and Missiles: Policy Issues*. CRS Report for Congress RL3155. Washington DC: Congressional Research Service, May 9, 2007. <http://search.ebscohost.com/>.

#### **Note**

<sup>90</sup>Shirley A. Kan, *China and Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction and Missiles: Policy Issues*. CRS Report for Congress RL3155. (Washington DC: Congressional Research Service, May 9, 2007), 5, <http://search.ebscohost.com/>.

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#### **Bibliography**

Best, Richard A. *Intelligence Issues for Congress*. CRS Report for Congress RL33539. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, May 16, 2007. <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/intel/RL33539.pdf>.

#### **Note**

<sup>91</sup>Richard A. Best. *Intelligence Issues for Congress*, CRS Report for Congress RL33539. (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, May 16, 2007), 6, <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/intel/RL33539.pdf>.

### **Websites**

Specific titles of blogs and websites should be set in italics. According to CMS, “Titled sections or pages within a website should be placed in quotation marks.”<sup>41</sup>

When citing a website, provide as much of the following information as possible:

“The title or description of the page, the author of the content (if any), the owner or sponsor of the site, and a URL. Also include a publication date or date of revision or modification; if no such date can be determined, include an access date.”<sup>42</sup>

Generally, websites and blog citations should appear in the notes section, but do not need to be included in the bibliography unless the work does not contain notes.

#### **Note**

<sup>92</sup>“How to Write Numbers,” Mignon Fogerty, *Grammar Girl*, last modified May 21, 2012, <http://grammar.quickanddirtytips.com/how-to-write-numbers.aspx>.

<sup>93</sup>“The History of the Chicago Manual of Style,” The Chicago Manual of Style Online, accessed 1 June 2012, [http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/about16\\_history.html](http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/about16_history.html).

<sup>94</sup>Jim Web’s Facebook page, accessed 4 October 2011, <http://www.facebook.com/jimwebb>.

#### **Blogs**

If the word “blog” is not found in the title of the web site, include “(blog)” in the citation note after the blog title. Blog entries generally do not appear in the bibliography.<sup>43</sup>

#### **Note**

<sup>95</sup>Frederic Lardinois, “Google Transparency Report: U.S. Content Removal Requests Increased 103%,” *Techcrunch* (blog), June 18, 2012, <http://techcrunch.com/2012/06/18/google-transparency-report-u-s-content-removal-requests-increased-103/>.

<sup>96</sup>Ian Leslie, “A Journey,” *Marbury* (blog), May 31, 2012, <http://marbury.typepad.com/marbury/2012/05/unspun.html>.

<sup>97</sup>Byron Sarge Watson, June 19, 2012, comment on Elise Foley, “Obama Immigration Decision Favored by Likely Voters: Poll,” *Huffington Post* (blog), June 19, 2012, [http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2012/06/19/obama-immigration-decision\\_n\\_1608307.html?utm\\_hp\\_ref=election-2012-blog](http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2012/06/19/obama-immigration-decision_n_1608307.html?utm_hp_ref=election-2012-blog).

When citing a comment on a blog posting, you will need to include the name of the commenter and date of the comment, followed by “comment on” and the citation information for the posting that is being commented on.<sup>44</sup>

#### **Online Multimedia**

#### **Note**

<sup>98</sup>“MCM Forward-6,940 Miles Away at Camp Leatherneck, Afghanistan,” YouTube video, 1:20, Marines prepare to run the Marine Corps Marathon in Camp Leatherneck, posted by MarineCorpsMarathon October 26, 2011, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WUA5R1gdJzI>.

<sup>99</sup>“President Obama Delivers the 2012 State of the Union Address to Congress and the Nation,” video, 1:05:13, posted by the White House, January 25, 2012, <http://www.whitehouse.gov/photos-and-video/video/2012/01/25/2012-state-union-address-enhanced-version>.

## **Podcast**

### ***Bibliography***

Hopke, Jack. “Foreign Artists Visit Louisiana and the Times-Picayune Slowly Dissolves.” *All Things New Orleans*. Podcast audio. NPR. 14 June 2012. [http://www.npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast\\_detail.php?siteId=113308984](http://www.npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast_detail.php?siteId=113308984).

### ***Note***

<sup>100</sup>Jack Hopke, “Foreign Artists Visit Louisiana and the Times-Picayune Slowly Dissolves,” *All Things New Orleans*, podcast audio, NPR, 14 June 2012, [http://www.npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast\\_detail.php?siteId=113308984](http://www.npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast_detail.php?siteId=113308984).

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### PREWRITING

Once you have completed your research, you will want to provide some sort of plan or model for your paper. This stage in the writing process is referred to as prewriting; it allows you to decide exactly what you want to say and what framework you will structure your ideas within to reach readers in the most effective way. You can think of the prewriting process as looking at an unfinished puzzle. As you compile research, each piece of information you gather and each new thought you generate form pieces of a puzzle; prewriting is a way of taking the individual pieces and determining how they best fit together to form a larger picture for your readers to envision as they read your paper.

Once you have determined the structure for your ideas, it is much easier to “fill in the blanks” with logical arguments, outside source material, and your own conclusions on the topic. Three overarching methods fall within the prewriting category and may benefit you as you determine your paper’s structural framework: concept mapping, mind mapping, and outlining.

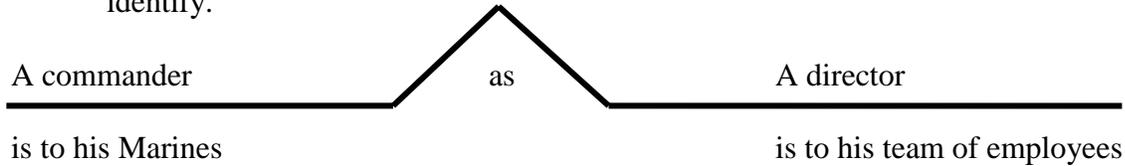
#### **Mind Mapping**

Mind mapping is a personalized way to outline and cluster your ideas. The method allows you to highlight connections between ideas, and each mind map has its own unique purpose. If you are analyzing a campaign’s effectiveness, for example, you would use a different type of mind map than if you were comparing and contrasting two different campaigns. Below you will find a few examples of mind maps you can use as brainstorming tools.

1. **The Table Map:** This map shows how a main argument is supported or strengthened. The main argument is written down on top of the table. It comprises the most essential information pertaining to your position or topic. The table legs are the foundations upon which your main argument rests. These may be supporting pieces of evidence, logical arguments, or other theories and concepts. These ideas must be sturdy enough to support your “table top.”

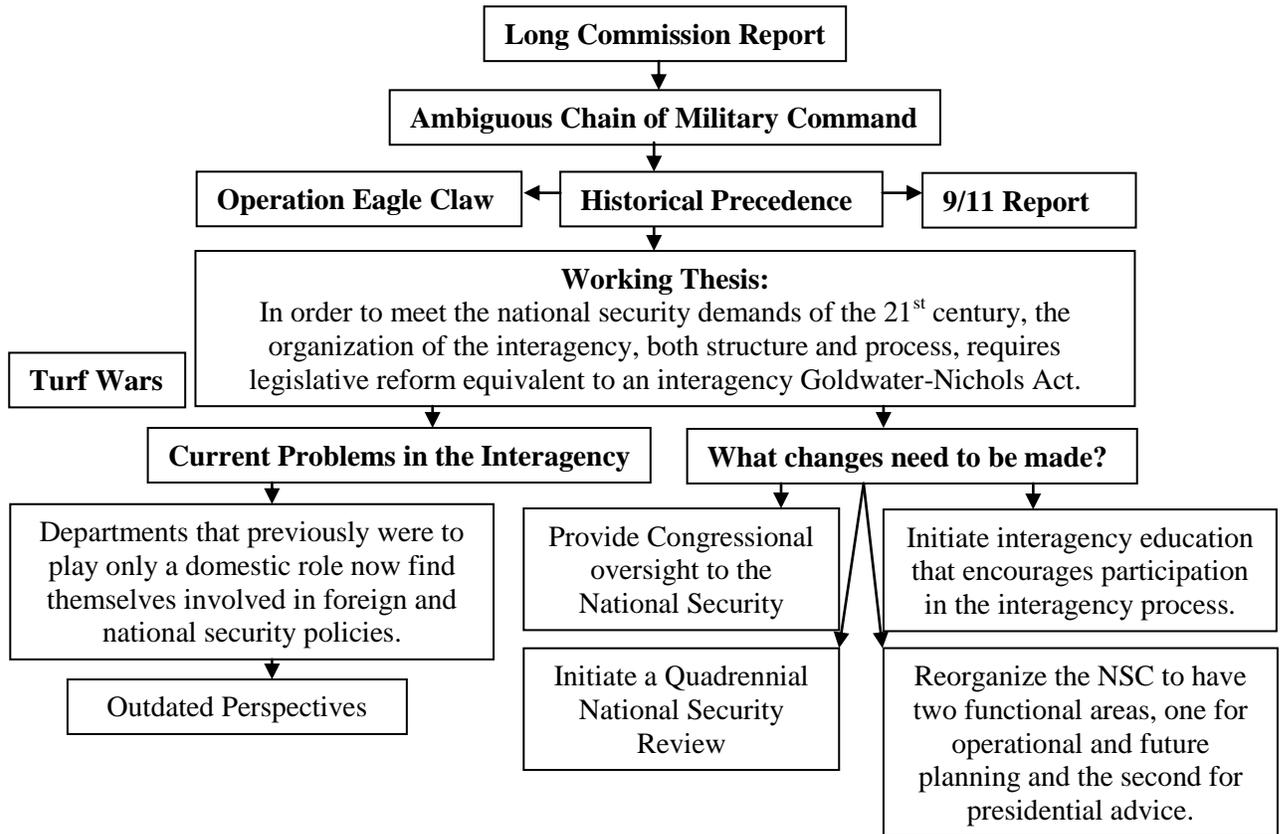


2. **The Bridge Map:** Bridge maps are helpful for highlighting analogies between different subjects. You can see one example of a bridge map below highlighting how a military structure may work. If you are explaining military structure to an unfamiliar reader, for example, it may be helpful to compare it to something with which your reader can identify.

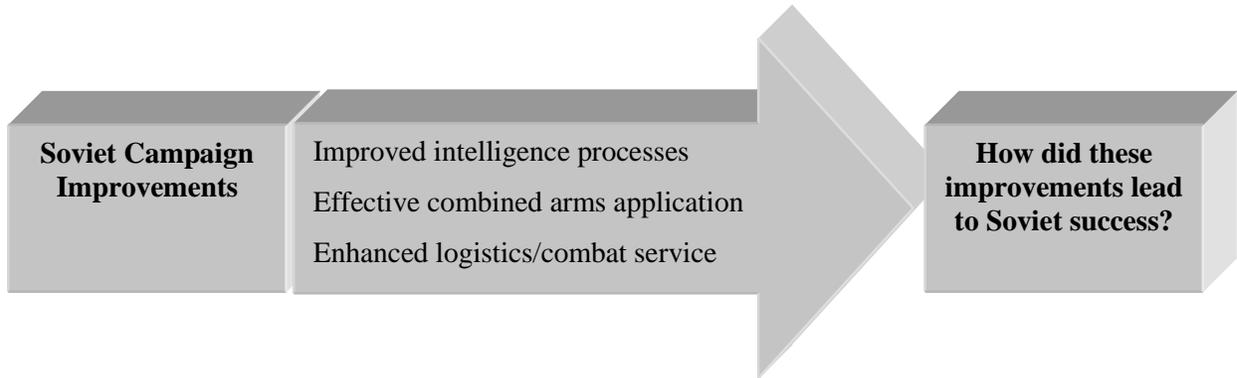


You could develop a paper from this mind map by further determining the relationship between the two subjects. Ask yourself: How are they similar? How are they different? An answer might be, for example, that both a commander and a director supervise: A commander supervises his Marines on tasks and assignments, while guiding them and working with them to advance their performance in the military combat and operation zones. A director also supervises his team while guiding the members and working with them to advance their performance in the workplace and boardroom.

3. **The Cluster Map:** If you are not a sequential thinker, you may want to develop a cluster map to highlight connections between ideas. A cluster diagram will allow you to group together related ideas and see how your supporting points relate back to your main argument or thesis statement.



4. **The Cause and Effect Map:** You can use a cause and effect map to show the implications of a certain event or idea. In this example, the following thesis statement is broken down into components of a cause and effect map: Finland’s tactical success ultimately factored into its strategic demise; this occurred once the Soviets demonstrated vast campaign plan improvements to include improved intelligence processes, effective combined arms application, and enhanced logistics and combat service support efforts.



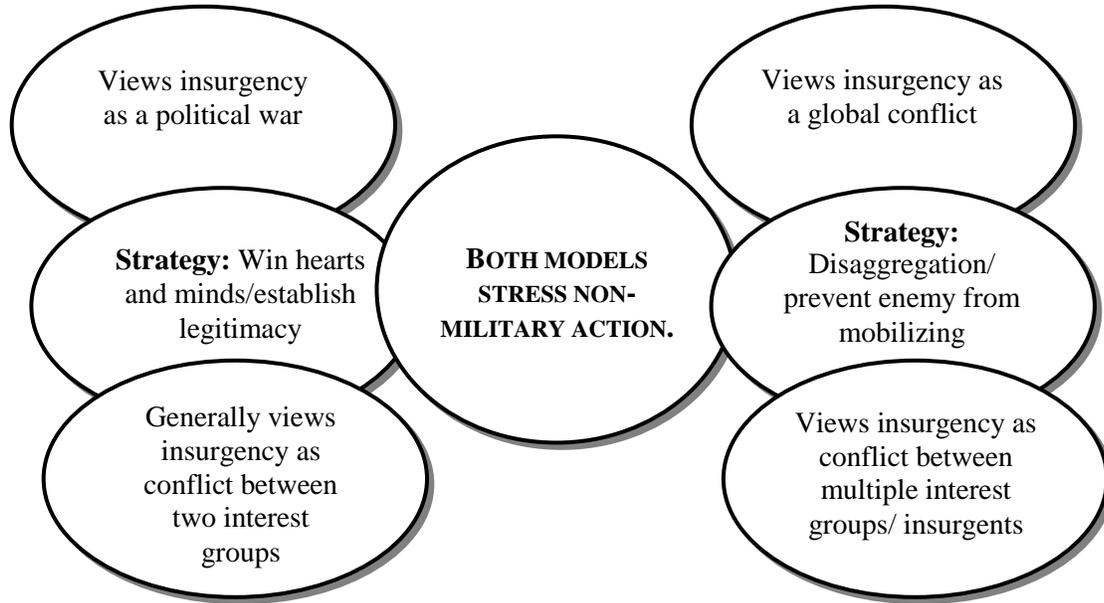
5. **The Theory and Application Map:** This type of map allows you to determine not only what components make up a theory, but also how the theory can be applied to a given situation. The following is an example of two military theories and their contextual applications in the form of a mind map.

<b>KILCULLEN’S INSURGENCY THEORY</b>	<b>CONTEXTUAL APPLICATION OF THEORY</b>
He views insurgency as a global conflict.	Need to control overall environment as opposed to a specific area (war on terrorism approach vice war on Iraq approach).
He views counterinsurgency as a system.	Need strategy of disaggregation (de-linking or dismantling elements so insurgency can no longer function).
<b>GALULA’S CLASSIC INSURGENCY THEORY</b>	<b>CONTEXTUAL APPLICATION OF THEORY</b>
He views insurgency as political/revolutionary war; therefore, military leaders must consider the political reaction of every military action.	Insurgency will be defeated by controlling the target population. This means eliminating opposition, winning hearts and minds of people, and building infrastructure.
He believes people tend to favor the side that can offer the most protection.	Presents unity of command, and divides lower ranks from the leaders.

6. **The Double Bubble Map:** The bubble map provides you with a way to compare and contrast two or more things. Using the same information provided in the previous example, you can compare and contrast the two theories using a bubble map.

**Galula Insurgency Theory**

**Kilcullen Insurgency Theory**



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

	<b>2002 SUMMARY</b>	<b>2006 FUTURE DIRECTION</b>
<b>OVERVIEW OF AMERICA'S INTERNATIONAL STRATEGY</b>	The goal of the 2002 NSS was to assist in creating a world of democratic, well-governed states that could meet the needs of their citizens and conduct themselves responsibly in the international system.	This is best achieved by remaining focused on the course started by the 2002 NSS and is the best way to provide enduring security for the American people.
<b>CHAMPION ASPIRATIONS FOR HUMAN DIGNITY</b>	The United States will defend principles of liberty and justice. These rights are essential to human dignity and necessary for securing democracy. The United States will advance this effort by speaking out and taking appropriate action, upholding human rights, and allocating necessary resources to attain these goals.	The United States will continue to achieve these goals by leading an international effort against tyrannical rule and promoting effective democracy by being vocal in its support and disagreement. Additionally, the United States will promote effective democracy and encourage others to do the same. The nation will clearly state disapproval for tyranny in its words and actions.
<b>STRENGTHEN ALLIANCES TO DEFEAT GLOBAL TERRORISM AND WORK TO PREVENT ATTACKS AGAINST THE UNITED STATES AND ITS ALLIES</b>	This goal requires a long-term strategy and a break from traditional solutions. The enemy possesses a global reach, and the United States can no longer simply rely on deterrence to keep the terrorists at bay or defensive measures to thwart them at the last moment. The nation must take the fight to the enemy and keep them off balance. To achieve this goal, the United States must attain the support of its friends and allies, and it must maintain contact with others to ensure those who intend to do harm do not have sanctuary to commit their acts of terror.	The United States has achieved enormous progress in this area and clearly made the world a more dangerous place for terrorists and non-state actors to operate unmolested. The nation must continue to forge these relationships through political, security, economic, and educational means at all levels of engagement. This interaction is not only limited to Iraq and Afghanistan, but also extends globally and includes stable, failed, and failing states. Through world-wide engagement, the US message will be consistent, and results will continue to be positive.

As shown by the examples, mind maps can take on virtually any shape or form, and serve a variety of purposes when brainstorming. Although this can be a great tool to get you started as you consider many aspects of a particular topic, you may want to use a more structured concept map to further identify the connections between your thesis and supporting points.

### **Concept Mapping**

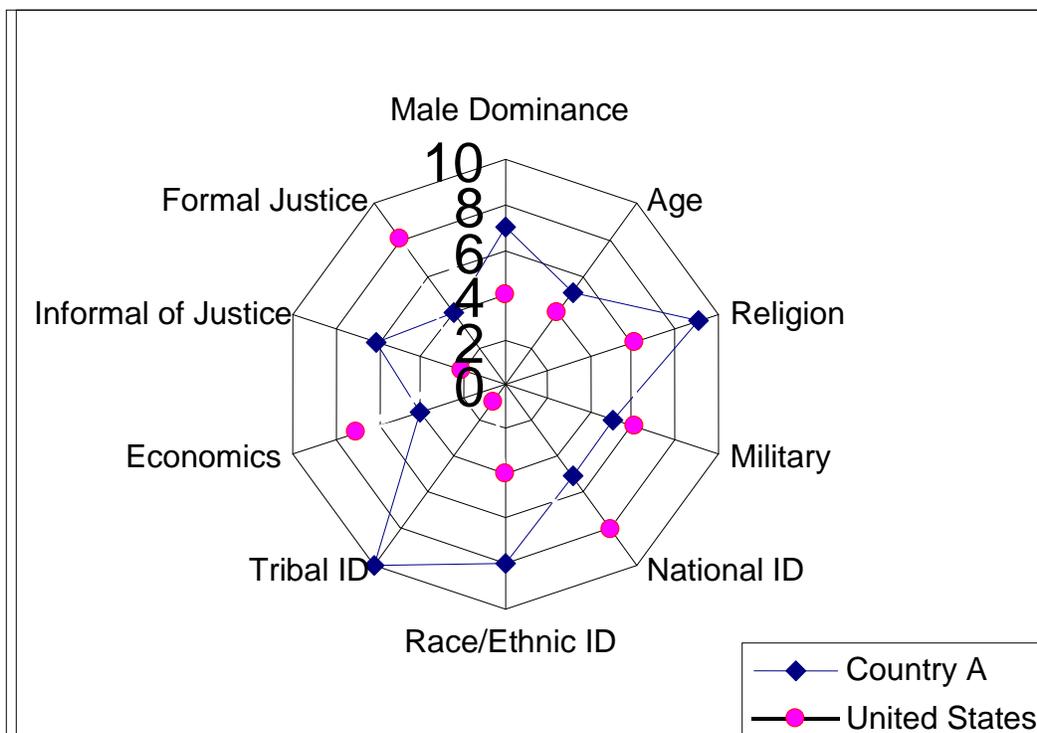
Concept mapping and mind mapping are similar; however, while a mind map is often used for brainstorming and developing a paper, you may use concept mapping to visually represent your conceptual framework within your paper. This conceptual framework will explain how the ideas or theories in your thesis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

Think of the concept map as a tool that will help you convey information visually to other readers and will keep you on track as you collect and analyze your data. By looking at a concept map, you can begin to see how each point you plan to include in your paper is connected to your

thesis statement. This will help you to develop transitions and to identify any gaps or contradictions in your research.

When you make a concept map, there are many different visual structures you can use to depict your concept. The type of visual framework you choose to use will depend on the structure of your paper. Think about the main points you want to include in your paper. How do they relate to one another and to your main argument or position? What is the relationship between your thesis or research question and the influential works that have been written on your topic?

The model in the figure below was used in a Command and Staff College Master’s paper. It was developed to visually depict cultural friction points between the hypothetical country (A) and other countries who have adopted a Western-thinking value system. The model illustrates the author’s concept that understanding and communicating cultural values in a region prior to military operations is critical for the success of those operations. The author’s thesis states: A Cultural Values Model can be leveraged as part of the human terrain preparation for any given region prior to commencement of military operations. In addition, the model provides a vehicle to communicate a perspective of these cultural influences to other units or individuals that will be operating in the same area.



**Figure 4: Hypothetical Cultural Values Model**

Source: Alejandro P. Briceño, “The Use of Cultural Studies in Military Operations,” Manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007-2008.

Although concept maps can visually convey your message and allow you to keep track of your thoughts and ideas, a much more structured way to do this is to formulate an outline. Upon completion of a detailed outline, you could potentially have the skeletal framework within which your entire paper can be written.

## Outlining

An outline allows you to see your main points on paper and organize them strategically before you begin to write. By outlining your research and grouping similar sources together, you will be able to more easily see where additional research or evidence is needed to support your thesis. Outlining also gives you the chance to reread and evaluate the ideas you have already generated. If you think an idea is pertinent to your topic, write it down. Remember that it is typically much easier to cut existing material than it is to find and add new, relevant material.

Your thesis statement and topic sentences provide the frame for your outline. Topic sentences contain the main idea in each paragraph; organizing these points in a logical order will allow them to build upon each other. When you evaluate your outline, it is important to ensure that each point relates directly back to your thesis statement, and also that your points are ordered according to importance.

Your outline may be structured or abstract, depending on your personal writing style and whether your thinking is more or less sequential in nature. Following are several strategies for ordering the major points of your outline:

1. **Chronological order:** Paragraphs separate the process or series of events into major stages.
2. **Classification:** Paragraphs divide the material into major categories and distinguish between them.
3. **Increasing importance:** Paragraphs are arranged so that the most important point comes last, thus building the paper's strength.
4. **Cause and effect:** Paragraphs indicate causal relationships between things and events while not mistaking coincidence with causality or disregarding other possible causes.
5. **Compare and contrast:** Paragraphs line up related ideas for a detailed account of similarities and differences, focusing mainly on either similarities or differences.

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

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

- a. IW is nothing new, but is enduring and effective.
- b. Learn to adapt
- c. Transformation
- d. Thesis statement

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

- a. Vietnam interview
- b. Algeria
- c. British in Malay
- d. Rhodesia

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

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

- a. Australians
- b. British
- c. Israelis
- d. Army

All use the concept of an intelligence cell.

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

- a. MCDP-2
- b. Front Line intelligence
- c. 3-24 Counterinsurgency
- d. Information operations (IO) /etc.

Preliminary doctrinal review demonstrates the requirement of company intelligence capability.

5. **Current Adaptation:** What does it look like?

- a. HUMINT enterprise
- b. MCWL initiative
- c. Mojave Viper
- d. Marine JF command MTT

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

6. **Formalization:** What should the final product look like in terms of capability set?

- a. HUMINT
- b. IO
- c. Technical

Common threads throughout are HUMINT and Information operations. Recommend HUMINT + new approach to IO + technology...symbiotic relationship. Tactical action with operational and strategic results. Ramadi?

7. **Conclusion:** Formalize our “best practices” with institutional change to maximize needed capability.

Another way to structure an outline involves using a question and answer approach. To structure an outline in this way, you need to first pick a topic, but you do not need to develop a thesis statement at this stage. Second, develop several questions that you want to find answers to. By answering these questions, you should be able to eventually prove or disprove your main argument/premise. These questions may also form the different sections in your paper. Once the

questions are answered in detail, you need to draft an introduction and a conclusion. These steps should be easier because you will have already done research to answer these questions. While you are doing research, you may further develop some questions, while finding other questions to be irrelevant or less relevant; this is all a part of the normal evolution your paper will undergo. Once you complete all of these steps, you will need to develop transition sentences or phrases to connect ideas. The following is an example of a question outline:

**Title of Paper**

**Student Name**

**Mentor**

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

**Topic:** Post Conflict Reconstruction (PCR)

1. Will the US Military participate in PCR in future conflicts?
  - a. Answer to question – evidence from research
2. What role should the US Military have in PCR?
  - a. Answer to question – evidence from research
3. What role should other US Governmental agencies have in PCR?
  - a. Answer to question – evidence from research
4. What are the recommended structure and employment changes for the US Military in order to facilitate PCR?
  - a. Answer to question – evidence from research
5. What are the recommended structure and employment changes for the USMC in order to fulfill PCRs?
  - a. Answer to question – evidence from research

The previous examples showed linear ways to integrate concepts and arguments into a structured outline. Another, less structured way to depict your ideas in outline form is through the use of a storyboard. A storyboard is a series of visual representations of the ideas you will present in your paper. You can design a storyboard by writing different concepts, ideas, or main points on note cards or entire pieces of paper. Once you have mapped out the main points you will present, you can arrange these points in a logical order; this allows you to visually represent the progression of your ideas. Below you will find an example of a storyboard:

Introduction Thesis	Current System Current Limit	Current TTPs	Historical Example Future
State Requirements No New Stuff	Solution Capability	Product	Product
Concept	Counter-argument	Conclusion	Conclusion Restate Thesis

### Writing Your Thesis Proposal<sup>45</sup>

After you finish outlining your ideas, you should be forming a concrete thesis statement. Your instructor may ask you to write a thesis proposal, particularly for your master's paper (e.g., MMS, Future War, or IRP). Your initial thesis proposal does not need to be set in stone, but it should provide your reader with information on your specific topic and how you will go about studying the topic you have chosen. It should also provide the "so what" factor; i.e., why is the study important? How does it tie into other critical works?

Submitting a thorough thesis proposal will allow your mentor to assess whether or not you are on the right track before you begin drafting. Taking the time to brainstorm and formulate an effective research design and clearly defined thesis will save you the time and energy of completely refocusing the paper during the drafting process. Below are some of the basic questions that you should consider when constructing a thesis proposal:

1. **Statement of the Problem:** What is your paper trying to solve?
2. **Preliminary Research:** What is known about the topic at hand? What are the prevailing viewpoints about the topic? What do the critical works say? Your paper should introduce a new perspective, even if you are researching a frequently discussed topic.
3. **Research Gaps:** What missing elements exist in the literature you have researched? When you conduct a study, you will generally be looking to fill this "gap" by introducing a new approach or perspective on a topic.
4. **Research Questions/Sub-questions:** What is the central question that your paper strives to answer? What sub-questions can be developed from this central question? Often, your

research questions will help you to develop a working thesis, and the sub-questions will help you develop your supporting points.

5. **Working Thesis:** What is the basic argument you wish to present in the paper?
6. **Limitations:** What is the scope within which you will conduct research and write the paper? What specific aspects of the topic will you study? What specific aspects of the topic will you leave out of your study, and why?
7. **Key Terms:** What particular definitions will you use to describe your key terms? When you are sorting through critical works, you will often encounter several opposing theories and definitions.
8. **Research Design/Methodology:** What research methodology will you use to conduct your research? What types of sources will you use? Will you draw mainly from primary or secondary sources?
9. **Data Collection:** How will you collect your data? Why?
10. **Population Sample (if you choose to conduct interviews or surveys):** Who are you interested in interviewing? What characteristics should these people have? How will you choose your survey sample? Why?
11. **Data Analysis:** How will you analyze or make sense of your data? How will you visually report the data to the reader?

You may find after answering these questions that the outcome of the study does not match your initial conclusions; however, you can still defend the conclusions you formulate after completing your research. The success or failure of a research paper has little to do with whether or not you are able to prove your original hypothesis. As long as your claims are supported by your research, the paper can be defended.

Once you have formulated an outline of your ideas, it is time to start writing. Do not worry about smaller issues (formatting, surface-level grammar, and spelling errors) when writing your first draft. The goal of the drafting process is simply to put your ideas on paper and to make sure you include all major components (introduction, thesis statement, supporting points logically organized in the body, and a conclusion). The next chapter will provide more detail on the drafting process.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

# THE FIRST DRAFT: WRITING YOUR IDEAS

Once you have identified the writing task at hand, developed a working thesis, and determined how you will support your thesis, it is time to begin drafting. Drafting refers simply to the process of putting the ideas you developed during the brainstorming stage of the writing process into paragraph form. These ideas will form the skeleton around which you will build the paper. The following strategies will help to guide you through the drafting process:

1. Accept that the first draft will not be your final draft.
2. Remember to be flexible in your writing. If you begin to formulate new ideas as you are drafting, do not be afraid to refine your original ideas. Do not become fixated on your first draft; expect to make changes.
3. Give yourself enough time. While a rapidly approaching deadline does provide some motivation, it does very little to improve the quality of the writing produced. Writing is a process; it takes time and involves multiple steps. Giving yourself the time to put your draft aside for a day or two before revising will help you to spot mechanical or logical problems in your writing. In addition, *the earlier you complete your draft, the more time you will have to seek a peer, faculty, or writing center review.*
4. Consult your outline.

At this stage in the writing process, you likely have already made an outline, mind map, or even a basic list of arguments and ideas that you intend to address in the paper. You will want to consult some of these ideas as you draft the paper, but do not be afraid to stray from your outline if you develop a new idea or way of looking at your topic.

### Parts of the Paper

Most academic papers contain three main parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The length, focus, and nature of these parts will vary depending on the type of writing task you have been asked to perform. Especially in longer papers, the body may contain several sections covering separate topics related to the thesis; however, the overarching organizational structure should include the aforementioned three components.

### The Introduction

The introduction will vary in length and complexity depending on the type and length of the paper you are writing. For instance, if you are writing a five-page paper, your introduction may only be a short paragraph (four to six sentences); however, if you are writing a longer paper, your introduction may be several paragraphs long. Generally, the introduction contains just enough background information to lead up to your thesis statement. The thesis statement is usually the last sentence (or group of sentences) in the introduction, but the thesis should be

placed where it will be most effective for the purpose of your paper and for the reader's needs. The introduction should:

1. Present relevant background information—just enough for the reader to understand your thesis statement.
2. Capture the reader's interest.
3. Present an argument that will be proved in the body of the paper (thesis).
4. Define terms or concepts when necessary.
5. Explain the focus of the paper and your specific purpose.

Now that you have seen what an introduction should do for readers, the following are common pitfalls to avoid when drafting your introduction:

1. **Vague terms:** Vague terms include acronyms, abstract ideas and concepts, and subjective expressions.
2. **Broad, sweeping statements:** These types of statements include such phrases as “from the beginning of time,” and “underdeveloped nations are a threat to national security.”
3. **Superfluous information:** If you want to investigate how George Washington shaped the Continental Army, you do not need to begin providing specific examples of his leadership style in the introduction. Save these specific details for the body.
4. **Creation of suspense:** The reader should not have to “dig” or read beyond the introduction to get a sense of what the paper is about.

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

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

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

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

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

This is an abstract term and does not convey the author’s intent. What does the author mean by “optimization of resources across Air Stations?”

These terms are jargon. In an academic paper, it is advisable to use scholarly terms vice military terms to reach a broader audience.

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

While the introduction above does present an argument (i.e., Marine Aviation Logistics Squadrons should be restructured in order to more efficiently and effectively support high operational tempos), the concept of the MALS is explained in vague, abstract terms. Another example of writing issues in the introduction is shown below.

The wording here is a bit vague. What is meant by a “new level” in this context? Have these IEDs increased the likelihood of U.S. casualties? Have they raised the need to develop new ways of combating terrorism?

The introduction of Bard O’Neil’s theory is a bit abrupt here. It is not clear whether the author intends to debunk this theory, or if the author will use this theory as a framework to organize the essay.

Improvised Explosive Devices (IEDs) have brought terrorism in Iraq to **a new level**. Examination of US Government response to IED warfare will enable the US Military to identify seams in the insurgent tactics and faults within US policy toward IEDs to build a framework to combat IED warfare. The war is ours to win or lose **based on the direction our government decides to take us**. Bard O’Neill uses the human environment to describe the factors that enable an insurgency and views popular support as the means through which an insurgency can gain support and momentum; however, the government response to IEDs is the most important factor that will enable victory or seal our fate.<sup>1</sup>

This is a very general statement. It is not clear what the government is “deciding on” in this context.

There are two main problems with the introduction example above: First, it contains ambiguous language and general terms that need to be clarified (i.e., “new level”). Next, the paragraph needs transitions to connect ideas. As written, the introduction of Bard O’Neill’s theory is a bit abrupt and does not seem to connect to the other ideas the author presents. The author needs to indicate whether he or she is agreeing with or debunking this theory. Now that you have seen two examples of introductions needing improvement, below are two examples of effective introductions.

The first sentence defines terms and states the problem up front.

The author provides the “so what.” That is, he or she tells the reader why this transformation is needed.

**Marine artillerymen, deployed globally in support of the Long War, are not performing their primary artillery mission; instead, they are fulfilling countless “in lieu of” (ILO) capacities.** These provisional missions include service as infantrymen, convoy security elements, military policemen, detention facility operators, civil military operations centers (CMOCs) and civil affairs units, and information operations cells. The counterinsurgency efforts in Iraq have required large degrees of flexibility and ingenuity by *all* Marines, but current circumstances do highlight a significant question – what is the mission, focus, or perhaps even the relevancy of the Marine artillery? More pointedly, one must ask – what is the future mission(s) of the Marine artillery community? An examination of the current operating environment dictates that today’s artillery community is not structured, trained, or employed to maximize its effectiveness in support of full spectrum operations conducted by expeditionary forces. **This study serves as an examination of the need for continued force structure transformation within Marine artillery. This transformation will allow the artillery community to effectively conduct lethal as well as non-lethal fires in support of 2015 expeditionary operations.**

The author explains the purpose of the paper.

In the introduction above, the author states the problem the paper will address up front in specific, concrete terms. The author then provides a thesis statement that includes a specific, well-defined argument.

The first sentence provides just enough background so the reader can understand the thesis statement.

**Following World War II, war torn colonial European powers began to recede from the world stage and focused instead on internal domestic issues. At the same time, the flames of communist ideology began to spread across the globe, fanned in large part by the Chinese and Soviet regimes. These two conditions, combined with a rise in nationalism in many parts of the world, sparked several insurgencies worldwide.** One such insurgency, dubbed The Malayan Emergency, was successfully countered by British forces, despite the fact that Malaya was on the opposite side of the globe. In contrast, the Algerian War, which was fought by French forces only a few hundred miles from their homeland, resulted in a staggering defeat for the French nation. **By comparing the two approaches to counter-insurgency, it is apparent that the British method in Malaya was ultimately more successful than the French strategy because the British focused on reinforcing the perception of legitimacy, whereas the French resorted to unrestrained military action.**

The thesis statement is specific and presents an argument. It tells the reader which insurgency was more successful and why.

This introduction is effective because it contextualizes the paper’s argument without providing excess background information. The thesis statement is specific and provides the “what” as well as the “why.” Successful introductions provide readers with a clear sense of direction, allowing them to understand what your main argument is and how it will be supported with evidence in the body of the paper.

### The Body: Constructing Supporting Paragraphs

The body is considered the “meat and potatoes” of the paper and provides specific evidence and examples to support the thesis statement. In the body of the paper, you will synthesize the data you have gathered from your literature review, field research, and interviews/surveys. For this reason, it is often helpful to construct an outline before you begin drafting. The outline will allow you to see how your sources support your thesis and where they should be included in the paper. As the body typically takes up a majority of space in the paper, it is important to separate body sections and/or paragraphs in a unified, coherent, and developed manner.

### Unity

In order to achieve unity in the body of your paper, each paragraph should contain only one main idea. For instance, if you are writing about economic, social, and political reconstruction in post-World War II Japan, you would not want to address economic and political reconstruction in the same paragraph. In fact, since all the supporting elements in this paper (economic, political, and social reconstruction) are broad, each element may need to be discussed in two or three paragraphs. For example, there may have been three different actions the United States took to

aid in Japan's economic reconstruction. In this case, you could construct a separate paragraph for each action.

The main idea of a paragraph is often expressed in a topic sentence. While paragraphs do not need to have a topic sentence, developing one may help you to focus on which details and examples should be included in a paragraph. In other cases, the topic sentence may be the last element you develop and may unify the other ideas you present in the paper. You may even want to think of a topic sentence as a “mini thesis statement.” Just as the paper should only cover the scope of the thesis statement, a paragraph should only address the main idea covered in its topic sentence. When connecting the different main ideas covered in separate paragraphs, it is important to ensure each connects back to your thesis statement.

## Coherence

Coherence refers to the practice of highlighting connections between ideas. When a paper is coherent, it provides transitions—that is, the author shows the reader how each sentence or idea in a paragraph is related to the next. A coherent paper also highlights relationships between paragraphs, showing the reader how each element of the thesis is related to the next. While you may think these connections are obvious, they may not be immediately clear to the reader, particularly if readers are unfamiliar with your topic. Below are a few strategies you can use to create coherence in your writing:

1. **Use transitional words and phrases:** Transitional words (i.e., however, therefore, conversely, moreover) highlight relationships between ideas. Are you trying to compare/contrast? Are you trying to show cause and effect? Transitions will help to make these relationships clear to the reader. Refer to [Chapter Nine](#) for more information about how to use transitions in your writing.
2. **Avoid ambiguous pronouns:** While you do not want to constantly repeat the same words, be careful with your pronoun usage. When you use pronouns, make sure it is immediately clear what subject the pronoun is replacing. Refer to [Chapter Ten](#) for more information about correct pronoun usage.
3. **Keep your terminology consistent:** Make sure you are using the same terminology throughout the paper. If you begin changing these key words or replacing them with synonyms, you run the risk of confusing your reader.

As you transition between paragraphs and ensure each connects back to the paper's main argument, you will find it much easier to form a sustained argument if each idea or paragraph is well developed.

## Development

Adequate development is one of the most difficult principles of paragraph construction. In general, each paragraph should contain enough examples and evidence to support the paragraph's central claim. If the paragraph leaves the reader asking, “So what?” you may need

to go back and add more supporting examples, or you may have more than one main idea in the paragraph (i.e., lack of unity). A thoroughly developed research paper also requires you to balance your own ideas with supporting information from outside sources. Though you will want to include information from other sources (reports, journal articles, books), you will want this information to play a supporting role in the paper. Most of the ideas that you present in the paper should be your own, while the sources you include simply provide evidence to support your claims. For more information about using sources effectively, please refer to [Chapter Four](#).

As stated earlier, the primary goal of the drafting process is to put your ideas on paper. You can always go back and edit for unity, coherence, and development later. For this reason, many of the concepts addressed in the “Constructing Body Paragraphs” section will be discussed in-depth in [Chapter Nine](#).

## The Conclusion

Now that the reader understands your argument, what do you want the reader to do with this information? The conclusion gives you the chance to make connections between the main points you have presented throughout the paper and to draw broader implications. The conclusion may include a call to action, or it may present an issue that is worthy of further study. The conclusion should:

1. Provide the “so what” factor.
2. Give the reader a sense of closure.
3. Synthesize material you have presented in the body of the paper.

When writing the conclusion, try to avoid:

1. **Rewriting the introduction in different words:** The introduction and conclusion should not contain the same information. While the introduction presents the information you will discuss in the body, the conclusion is your “last word” on the topic. Once your reader reaches the conclusion, he or she is already familiar with your argument. Therefore, by simply restating the information you present in the introduction, you may insult the reader’s intelligence, or leave the reader asking “so what?”
2. **Restating the thesis statement verbatim:** While you will want to revisit the paper’s central argument (thesis), you may want to put this argument in different words. Direct repetition, although it can be a valuable component in oral communication, is not necessarily as effective in an academic paper.
3. **Introducing new information:** The conclusion should not present more evidence or ideas to support your thesis. While you may want to introduce some issues for consideration or topics/questions for further study, you do not want to present new or unfamiliar information in the conclusion.

As stated in previous chapters, writing is a process and involves multiple steps. Therefore, it is important to remember that your first draft will not be your last. Once you have finished your draft, try to put it aside for a few days before taking another look. You may be surprised at how easily you will spot trouble areas after distancing yourself from your writing. The next few chapters will focus on the steps you will need to take to turn your draft into a final product—otherwise known as the revisions process.

## CHAPTER NINE

# THE REVISIONS PROCESS

The purpose of the revisions process is to catch errors before they become a part of the final product. Even the most experienced writers spend a great deal of time revising their drafts; thus, you should not expect your first draft to be perfect. The amount of time you spend revising depends on the type of document you are working with and your time constraints, but as a rule of thumb, you should expect to spend almost as much time revising as drafting. The following pie chart provides an example of the balance you should give to research and planning, drafting, and revising.



After you complete your first draft, try to distance yourself from the paper. If you are writing a longer research paper or term paper, allow a few days between the drafting and revising stages; if you are under a tighter deadline, try putting the paper aside for a few minutes while you complete another task. You will be more likely to spot logical, structural, and grammatical errors if you allow for some time between the drafting and revising phases. When you are ready to revise, print out the document so that you can mark it up; it is easier to spot errors when you have a hard copy in front of you.

### Global and Surface Level Revision Areas

Many students make the mistake of attempting to write and revise at the same time. Evaluating your writing while you are still determining what you want to say may hinder you as you put your ideas on paper. This simultaneous writing/revising process also may cause you to focus primarily on word choice and grammar, but revising the paper involves more than just giving it one last read through. Rather, the revisions process requires you to evaluate the logic, structure, and organization of your argument, as well as sentence-level issues that may distract the reader from your message. When you revise the paper, you will examine it for two different types of issues: global-level issues and surface-level issues.

**Global-level issues** refer to what many people may deem “big picture” issues—the thesis, logic, organization, focus, and idea development. When you revise for global-level issues, you will need to question the validity of your argument and how you have supported the argument. You will evaluate your central claim, decide whether you still agree with that claim, and critically think about whether the information you include to support that argument is accurate, valid, and convincing to your target audience.

**Surface-level issues** refer mostly to sentence-level elements such as concision, word choice, grammar, punctuation, and general formatting. Though most people think of the revisions process as the act of correcting these surface-level issues, you will spend the majority of time concentrating on global-level issues, as these may require you to adjust the content or focus of your writing. For example, you do not need to focus first on adjusting your comma usage in a given paragraph if that paragraph may be deleted, further developed, or completely reorganized.

### **Global-level Revisions: Focus, Logic, Development, Organization, and Documentation**

**Evaluating focus:** Sometimes it is easy to stray from the expectations of the assignment or task at hand when you are passionate about your subject. Therefore, a key part of the revisions process is evaluating the draft to make sure the focus of your writing is appropriate. Below are a few elements you may want to take into consideration as you evaluate the focus of your draft.

Go back and review your assignment question, concentrating on some of the key words (See [Chapter Two](#) for more information about identifying key words).

1. Does your draft address the specific assignment prompt you have been given?
2. If the writing task you have been asked to complete is not necessarily academic, does it fulfill all of the requirements of the project?
3. Does your draft accomplish the task at hand? If you determine that your paper does not meet the requirements of the assignment, it is likely that significant revision is needed, as you may need to adjust the paper’s content, not just the presentation of that content.

Now think about your target audience:

1. Does your paper approach the assignment/task in a way that is appropriate considering the audience’s familiarity with your subject and purpose for reading the paper? For instance, if you are writing a report, does it include all of the information your supervisor or colleagues will need to know?
2. Does the draft contain information that distracts from the central purpose and focus of the report? For more information about determining the needs of your audience, please refer to [Chapter Two](#).

**Evaluating the central argument:** Sometimes your ideas about your topic will shift as you write, especially if you are drafting a longer paper that involves a great deal of research. You

may find, therefore, that the thesis statement you submitted when you wrote your proposal no longer reflects the argument you wish to present. Similarly, even when writing a shorter paper, you may find that your ideas about your topic change as you begin to defend your argument and develop your rationale. Below are a few items you will want to consider when you evaluate your central argument:

1. Does your paper contain an argumentative thesis statement or statement of purpose that accurately captures your perspective on the topic?
2. Is the argument sustained throughout the paper? For more information on thesis and argument development, please consult [Chapter Five](#).

**Evaluating supporting evidence and logic:** Supporting evidence refers to the specific examples and facts (often found through the research process) that you use to prove your thesis statement or central argument. Below are a few criteria to keep in mind when evaluating your supporting evidence.

1. Do you provide enough evidence to support your central argument?
2. Are your claims supported by primary and secondary sources, not just your opinions and personal experience?
3. Are the conclusions you have drawn from your sources logical?
4. Will the evidence you present be convincing to your target audience?
5. Do you cover the full scope of the issue/topic?
6. Does the paper have clear connections between premises (evidence and examples) and conclusions (arguments and evaluation of the premises)?

When evaluating your supporting evidence and logic, you will also need to consider your use of primary and secondary source material. Though you will want to use outside sources to provide support for the claims you make throughout the paper, most of your document should be comprised of original thought. As a general rule, if your paper is made up of more than 1/3 quoted and/or paraphrased information, you may want to reevaluate your use of source material, as you may be lessening your own ideas by spending too much time discussing what others have said about your topic. On the other hand, if most of the claims in the paper cannot be verified, you may need to add evidentiary support (in the form of primary and secondary sources) to substantiate your claims. The following list provides some issues to consider as you evaluate your use of sources:

1. Do you provide enough primary and secondary sources to support your argument?
2. Do you provide too much information from other sources and not enough original thought (e.g., a large number of direct quotes)?

3. Can the reader easily differentiate between your discussion of others' ideas and findings and your interpretation of those ideas?
4. Do you use a variety of sources (e.g., both primary and secondary sources, not all sources are written by the same author or organization) in your paper?

**Evaluating documentation:** Once you have evaluated your use of outside source material, you will also want to make sure that you have used proper documentation practices to provide attribution. The list below provides some issues to consider as you double check your citations:

1. Do you provide adequate documentation for your sources?
2. Is all paraphrased and summarized information end noted?
3. Are all the direct quotes placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote?
4. Is the paper written in your own words? Sometimes it is easy to accidentally copy an author's phrasing, tone, or style without noticing. Remember to reread your document to make sure that if you have borrowed words or ideas from an author, they are properly documented.
5. Are all of the direct quotes you use in the paper introduced with a signal phrase?
6. Does your paper include a bibliography?

If you are using Microsoft Word 2007, you will find a resource on the toolbar that will help you to format citations and bibliography entries in APA, MLA, and CMS citation styles. [Chapter Six](#) provides in-depth instruction on formulating proper citations using Chicago Style, which is the style used at MCU.

**Evaluating structure and organization:** Organization refers to the order in which ideas are presented in your paper and how the paper's argument progresses from one section to the next. An organized paper is often recognized as having a "logical flow." The list below provides some issues to consider as you evaluate the organization of your document:

1. Does the introduction provide enough information for the reader to understand the argument that will be discussed in the body of the paper?
2. Does the thesis statement appear in the introduction?
3. Does the paper include transitions that provide readers with a sense of direction and carry readers from one idea to the next?
4. Are relationships between paragraphs clear?
5. Are relationships between sentences within paragraphs clear?

6. Does each body paragraph support the thesis in some way?
7. Are paragraphs arranged in a logical order? Do they build on each other?
8. Does the conclusion draw broader implications from the information and arguments that are presented in the body, rather than summarize the main points?
9. Is the conclusion free from new information/evidence? For more information about how to properly structure and organize an academic paper, please consult [Chapter Eight](#).

### **Surface-Level Revisions: Word Choice, Clarity, and Verbosity**

Once you have made the global-level revisions needed to improve the paper, it is time to begin revising the document for surface-level issues. Below are some strategies that you can use to revise your paper and improve word choice, clarity of thought, and conciseness.

**Word Choice:** Each word in your paper should match your intended meaning as related to your topic and argument. The following rules outline effective word choice:

1. Use strong, active verbs, such as “illustrates” instead of “shows.”
2. Use specific nouns, such as “Clausewitz” instead of “the strategist.”
3. Avoid using intensifiers, such as “extremely,” “really,” and “importantly.”
4. Keep verbs in active voice (the subject goes before the verb), but use passive voice to soften criticism or keep a neutral tone to the piece.
5. Avoid changing verbs into nouns and adjectives with endings such as: - ion, - ment, and - ency.
6. Express parallel ideas in sentences in parallel form. [Chapter 10](#) provides an explanation of parallel structure.
7. Vary the length of your sentences to make your writing interesting and to keep the audience’s attention.
8. Rely on short words, but make sure they are appropriate for the assignment and academic level.
9. Use words that are familiar to the audience.
10. Avoid clichés.
11. Avoid obsolete or pompous language including cumbersome words and trite phrases.

**Clarity:** Although a concept or idea may seem clear to you as the author, it is not always clear to the audience. Try to evaluate your writing from your audience's point of view. Use language your audience will understand. Describe, illustrate, and repeat key ideas that may be less familiar to your audience. You may explain difficult concepts by connecting any new information to existing ideas or experiences the reader may have with a topic.

1. Make sure you select words that convey your exact intent; for example, "It was a good meeting" versus "the meeting resolved three questions."
2. Avoid abstract language. Abstract language refers to words that cannot be represented by anything in the physical world. Concepts and ideas (i.e., Communism, diplomacy, love, freedom, and success) are usually represented in abstract terms. While you will likely need to use abstract terms in your writing, you will want to break these terms down so the reader can understand what they mean within the context of your paper. For instance, many theorists and flag officers may have different visions of what "success in the Long War" should mean. Abstract words are relative and depend on your perspective, and thus specific, concrete examples are often needed to qualify these terms. For example, even in a Western society, individuals will have different ideas regarding what is moral. If you say you are going to evaluate whether a commander's actions were "moral," you will need to provide some sort of framework or criteria to measure "morality."
3. Avoid clichés, euphemisms, idioms, and careless phrasing that may produce two or more interpretations. An example of a cliché might be, "It was raining cats and dogs." As this would be impossible to occur literally, it may not make sense to someone unfamiliar with the expression. Similarly, a euphemism such as the phrase "she passed away last year" may leave some readers confused. Where did she pass? How far away? Finally, American English includes the use of many idioms, such as "apple of my eye" and "a catch 22." These may or may not be familiar to your readers, who may come from a variety of different backgrounds and different countries/nationalities.
4. Jargon is technical language used by a specific group of individuals as a form of "shorthand." An example might be a US Marine calling his uniform his "cammies." While jargon is understood by the people within that specific group, it is often meaningless and confusing to outsiders. Avoid using jargon when writing for or speaking to people outside of your group. Use jargon sparingly when writing for or speaking to people within your group.
5. Avoid using ambiguous acronyms and abbreviations. The same acronym may have multiple meanings across services or even within the same service. For instance, in the Marine Corps, MSC commonly refers to Major Subordinate Command; however, within the Marine Corps Institute, MSC is frequently used to refer to Military Sealift Command. Abbreviations can also be confusing in that they vary across and even within fields of study. In addition, abbreviations (e.g., prof. vice professor) are often seen as too informal for academic writing.

**Avoid Verbosity/Eliminate Fluff:** Verbosity refers to writing that uses too many words to get a point across. If you can eliminate words within a sentence without changing the meaning or grammatical structure, cut them out. Below are some examples of ways to make your writing more concise:

1. Eliminate filler words. If your writing is cluttered with filler words and phrases, you seem less credible, even if the ideas you are presenting are valid and original.

**Verbose Example:** in light of the fact that

**Concise Example:** because

2. Eliminate unnecessary prepositional phrases.

**Verbose Example:** This character and nature of the Continental Army was a direct result of the profound significance of George Washington's motives for joining the cause and his actions during the war.

**Concise Example:** George Washington's motives for joining the Continental Army and the actions he performed during the war directly shaped the character and nature of the Continental Army.

3. Look for sentences that contain a form of the verb "to be (am, is, are, was, were, etc.)." Forms of the verb "to be" can tend to make your sentences wordy and less active. If possible, try to replace these verbs with active verbs (argues, establishes, proves, debunks).

**Verbose Example:** It was decided by the faculty that the assignment due date would be pushed back one week.

**Concise Example:** The faculty decided to push back the assignment due date one week.

**Vary Sentence Length and Structure:** There is a good chance you will lose your audience's attention if each sentence has the same basic structure. Try to vary your sentence length and construction in order to keep your writing interesting.

1. **Example of a paragraph with repetitive sentence structures:** The IRGC conducts special operations beyond the Iranian borders. The IRGC also conducts domestic security operations. The IRGC is a religiously zealous organization that perceives the United States as the most significant threat to the Iranian regime. The IRGC controls Iran's nuclear weapons program, which endangers both regional order and U.S. interests.
2. **Revised paragraph:** The IRGC is a religiously zealous organization that conducts both domestic security operations and special operations beyond the Iranian borders. This organization is in charge of Iran's nuclear weapons program and has identified the United States as the most significant threat to the Iranian regime, making it a potential danger to regional order and US national interests.

**Diction:** While many people use the word diction to refer to pronunciation, this word frequently refers to the type of vocabulary choices that are made in a document. When evaluating your diction, you need to question whether the vocabulary used in your paper suits your intended

purpose and audience. For example, the vocabulary used when writing to a friend is much different from the type of vocabulary used in a formal research paper.

**First Example:** correspondence vs. letter

**Second Example:** oversight vs. accident

**Third Example:** better vs. improvement

The word pairs above are similar in meaning; however, they have varying levels of formality. For instance, while you may use the word oversight in formal writing, you would probably choose to use the word accident instead if you were conversing with a friend.

**Tone:** Tone refers to the attitude the author adopts towards the audience and the subject of the paper or presentation. Tone refers not only to the degree of formality used, but also to the specific attitude of the writer. For instance, tone may be grave, serious, sarcastic, impassioned, experimental, or plain-spoken. Remember that the tone of your writing may also affect your credibility. While it may be appropriate if the purpose of your communication is to entertain or to express an opinion, a sarcastic or passionate tone may cause readers to discredit the claims you make in the paper.

**Grammar and Punctuation:** Checking your paper for correct grammar and punctuation is another aspect of revising for surface-level issues. You may find that it is difficult to identify grammar and punctuation errors in your own writing, primarily because when you read your own work, you may have the tendency to fill in missing words and punctuation marks. In addition, you may rely on spell check to identify and correct many of these errors for you. Though spell check is a useful tool, it will not catch every error, nor will it always provide the best solution to correct the error. Therefore, you need to have the skills to identify and correct errors without relying on your word processor. Because there are so many grammar and punctuation rules that govern the way we craft our sentences, and because these rules are often complex, this chapter provides only strategies for identifying grammar and punctuation errors. In [Chapter Ten](#), however, you will find in-depth information regarding correct grammar and punctuation usage, as well as strategies for correcting common errors.

### **Strategies for identifying grammar and punctuation errors**

1. Read your document backwards. That is, read each page from the bottom right corner to the top, starting at the last word in each line.
2. Place your finger under each word and read the word silently.
3. Make a slit in a sheet of paper that reveals only one line of type at a time. Proof the words from the bottom right corner to the top of the page, one line at a time.
4. Read the document out loud and pronounce each word carefully. You can also use a tape recorder to record your words as you read. Then play the tape back to yourself and listen for discrepancies.

5. Have a spouse or friend read your paper.
6. Send your paper to the LCSC for a review.

There are several resources you can consult for additional guidance on the revisions process. Below is bibliographic information for three of these recommended resources:

Alred, Gerald J., Charles T. Brusaw, and Walter E. Oliu. *The Business Writer's Companion*. New York: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2002.

The Chicago Manual of Style Online, accessed 1 June 2012,  
<http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/>

Hacker, Diana. *A Writer's Reference*. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007.

### **Paper Order**

During this final step in the revisions process, it is important to proofread not only for surface level errors (punctuation and grammatical errors, for example) but for errors in formatting as well. Research papers must be formatted correctly and must include all components in order to be accepted for grading and for publication. When formally turned in, an academic paper should have the following front matter components:

1. Some papers (MMS papers, e.g.) may require a report documentation page. This is placed before the title page. The title page includes the name and address of the university in the top right hand corner. If you are turning in the paper for the Master of Military Studies degree program, the degree name should be centered below the address in bold, and in all capital letters. A line breaks up the degree name from the title of the paper. The title of the paper goes below this line, and is in bold. MMS papers must include the following blurb, in all caps, below the title, "SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF MILITARY STUDIES." Your name goes below this information, and the academic year goes below your name.
2. The table of contents is centered in bold and italicized at the top of the page. Make sure that the page numbers listed in the table of contents correspond exactly to their respective pages in the body of the paper.
3. The disclaimer is centered in bold, and it goes on the lower half of the page. This is necessary to show that the thoughts and ideas presented in your paper are yours, and not those of Marine Corps University. The disclaimer also includes a permission to use outside sources, with acknowledgement given. Note that you must give credit to authors whose ideas you have quoted or paraphrased in your paper. For more information on citations and plagiarism, see [Chapter Six](#).

4. The executive summary is centered, in bold, and italicized two double spaces below the top of the page. Executive summaries briefly indicate the themes and ideas that you will discuss more in-depth in your paper. They allow readers to get a sense of the topic and the research you have done without reading the paper in its entirety. For more information about writing executive summaries, please refer to [Chapter Two](#).
5. The preface is centered, in bold, and italicized at the top of the page. It contains several key pieces of information, including “reasons for undertaking the work, method of research (if this has some bearing on readers’ understanding of the text), [and] acknowledgements.” See the preface at the beginning of this style guide for an example of information to include.
6. The appendix includes material that supplements the information in the main text, but that is not essential information the reader needs in order to understand that text. This information may include complex tables, maps, graphs, or technical/field notes. Each appendix should address a different topic and should be labeled with letters or numbers (e.g., Appendix A, Appendix B).
7. The endnotes should go after the appendices, but before the bibliography. Use endnotes to provide attribution each time you quote or paraphrase a source. See [Chapter Six](#) for more information about how to format endnotes in Chicago Style.
8. The bibliography should appear after the endnotes and should begin on a new page. The bibliography includes only sources that you have cited in your paper. It should be alphabetized. See [Chapter Six](#) for more information about how to format the bibliography in Chicago Style.

## CHAPTER TEN

# MECHANICS AND GRAMMAR OF WRITING

Grammar, in its most basic definitive form, is a set of rules that direct your use of Standard American English. Due to differing schools of thought, the adherence to these rules may differ slightly across US institutions (and even within them), and it certainly differs across English speaking cultures around the globe. If you have not recently taken a grammar or composition course, or if you have spent more time in the operating forces than in the classroom during the past several years, this chapter will provide you with a condensed, user-friendly version of Chicago Style's guidelines for using grammar and punctuation correctly in order to improve the clarity and flow of your writing.

### Punctuation

You may want to think of each punctuation mark as a sort of traffic signal: It lets a reader know how to read and understand your writing. Punctuation is primarily used to clarify the meaning of a sentence, and if used incorrectly, it can also lead readers to incorrect interpretations of your message. At Marine Corps University, as well as throughout the United States military, clear communication is essential. Correct or incorrect punctuation in your writing may change the entire meaning of a specific command, request, or response. Following are several guidelines for using different punctuation marks:



#### The Comma

A comma indicates a pause in the text and highlights relationships between words and phrases within a sentence. Generally, the comma is used to emphasize a particular part of a sentence or to clarify a meaning. It is important to use commas correctly to avoid a misinterpretation of your writing. Below is an example of how comma placement can change the meaning in a sentence:

1. The colonel said the general is crazy.
2. The colonel, said the general, is crazy.

In the first sentence, it is the colonel who calls the general crazy. In the second sentence, the commas demonstrate that the general is calling the colonel crazy. The following rules outline when to use a comma:

1. Adjectives following nouns are preceded by a comma.  
**Example:** The chief of staff, articulate and meticulously dressed, never lost his temper.
2. Adverbial modifiers are usually followed by a comma if they appear at the beginning of a sentence.  
**Example:** If insurgents attack, we will be prepared to fight.

3. Commas separate two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction (e.g., and, but, for, so, yet, or, nor).

**Example:** I run three miles each day, but I am still not ready to run the Marine Corps Marathon.

4. Commas are used to emphasize contrasting statements in a sentence.

**Example:** David Cameron, not Winston Churchill, is the current Prime Minister of England.

5. If the order of adjectives can be reversed or if the word “and” can stand between them, the adjectives are considered parallel and should be separated by a comma.

**Example:** I found an old, dusty book in the library.

6. Parenthetical or nonrestrictive elements—words, clauses, and phrases that are not essential to the sentence’s structure and meaning—need to be separated from the main clause by a comma.

**Example:** The man, although he shaved yesterday, already needs to visit the barber shop.

7. Commas separate a series of phrases, letters, or numbers.

**Example:** Faculty members will review papers for conference groups 1, 10, and 11 today.

8. Commas usually set off transitional words when they do not separate two independent clauses.

**Example:** The United Nations disagreed, however, on how to define terrorism.

9. Commas are used after city and state names.

**Example:** Marine Corps University is located in Quantico, Virginia.

This list does not cover every rule for using a comma; however, it does provide you with a basic set of principles that you can use to keep your writing clear and concise. There are also many common errors you should avoid when using commas in your writing. Below are a few of these common errors:

1. Linking two main clauses with only a comma is known as a comma splice, and is incorrect. You can correct a comma splice by replacing the comma with a semicolon, using a coordinating conjunction, or restructuring the sentence.

**Incorrect Example:** The professor was disappointed, the student turned in his thesis late.

**Correct Example:** The professor was disappointed; the student turned in his thesis late.

2. A fused sentence, more commonly known as a run-on sentence, occurs when a writer neglects to add a comma to clarify meaning or separate unrelated phrases.

**Incorrect Example:** The pain was excruciating the soldier needed morphine.

**Correct Example:** The pain was excruciating, and the soldier needed morphine.

The comma and the semicolon are frequently confused, particularly when determining how to separate two independent clauses. The key is in the use of the coordinating conjunction. When you have a coordinating conjunction in between two independent clauses, a comma is used, for example, “There was an accident on the interstate this morning, and I was late for work.” When you do not have a coordinating conjunction, a semicolon is used, such as in the following example, “There was an accident on the interstate this morning; I was late for work.”

- **The Semicolon**

The semicolon is a mark of separation. Unlike the comma, which indicates a pause, a semicolon designates an almost complete stop. Also unlike the period, which denotes a complete separation of two ideas, the semicolon shows that the two ideas could technically stand alone as complete thoughts, but are being joined due to their relatedness. The following rules outline when to use a semicolon:

1. A semicolon is used before a conjunctive adverb (e.g., therefore, however, thus, hence, nevertheless) when it connects two related, complete thoughts.

**Example:** I tore my Achilles tendon yesterday; therefore, I cannot complete my physical training.

2. A semicolon may be used to connect two complete, related sentences.

**Example:** The Marine ran the Marine Corps marathon; he reached a new personal record.

3. A semicolon is used to separate a series of clauses or phrases if one or more of the phrases contain internal punctuation.

**Example:** The awards ceremony was attended by Dr. Jones, the project’s benefactor; Mr. Davis, the project engineer; and Mrs. Beck, the president of the university.

A semicolon functions in a similar way to a colon when separating two independent clauses; however, a colon is used more rarely to solely emphasize the fact that the second clause serves to exemplify or highlight the preceding clause.

- **The Colon**

The colon is generally used to call attention to the idea or series of ideas that follow it. You

- should not use more than one space to separate a word or phrase from the colon. The following rules outline when to use a colon:

1. A colon is used after an independent clause to call attention to a list, an appositive, or a quotation.

**Example:** The desired candidate for the position should possess the following qualifications: advanced computer skills, the ability to communicate clearly, and a strong work ethic.

2. A colon is used between independent clauses if the second clause summarizes or explains the first.

**Example:** I will study diligently for the test: It will lead to a better score.

3. A colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.

**Example:** To Whom It May Concern:

A colon is not always necessary to precede a series of items or a list, however. Below are some common colon usage errors to avoid in your writing:

1. Do not use a colon between a verb and its object.

**Incorrect Example:** Last year I visited: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

**Correct Example:** Last year I visited the following places: Hawaii, Iraq, and Vietnam.

2. Do not use a colon between a preposition and its object.

**Incorrect Example:** I was stationed in: Afghanistan, Japan, and North Carolina.

**Correct Example:** I was stationed in Afghanistan, Japan, and North Carolina.

## ? The Question Mark

The question mark indicates a direct, interrogative statement; a form of doubt about something, such as publication information; and/or an expression of surprise. The following rules outline appropriate uses for the question mark:

1. A question mark is used at the end of a direct, interrogative statement.

**Example:** What will be the commander's next move?

2. A question mark is used to show doubt about a fact or piece of information.

**Example:** The Civil War (1860?-1865) will form the historical background for the student's case study.

3. A question mark is used to show where a direct question ends in the middle of a sentence.

**Example:** Is this the right strategy? the commander wondered.

There are also common misuses of the question mark. Below are some question mark usage errors to avoid when writing:

1. Do not use a question mark at the end of an indirect question.

**Incorrect Example:** The men wondered when the battle would end?

**Correct Example:** When would the battle end? the men wondered.

2. Do not use a question mark for a request.

**Incorrect Example:** Please respond to the Mess Night invitation by April 19?

**Correct Example:** Please respond to the Mess Night invitation by April 19.

## ■ The Hyphen

Two and three word modifiers that express a single thought are hyphenated when they precede a noun. A modifier should not be hyphenated if it follows the noun it modifies. Hyphens are generally used to create the impression of unity, or to clarify ambiguity, particularly when distinguishing a similar sounding compound word with a different meaning. The following rules outline when to use a hyphen:

1. Modifiers that precede the noun they modify should be hyphenated.  
**Example:** What was the outcome of the Six-Day War?
2. A hyphen is used when the modifier is a letter or number.  
**Example:** The M-16 was used on the battlefield.
3. A hyphen is used when a letter would be doubled or tripled to create a compound word.  
**Example:** There was much discussion over the anti-immigration laws.
4. A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.  
**Example:** Weapons were not as advanced pre-World War I.
5. A hyphen is used to separate non-inclusive numbers.  
**Example:** The general's telephone number is 123-456-7890.

The aforementioned rules for hyphen usage represent many, but not all, appropriate hyphen usage examples. Below you will find additional guidance regarding when not to use hyphens:

1. Do not use a hyphen if a modifier follows the noun it modifies.  
**Incorrect Example:** The ship was not well-designed.  
**Correct Example:** The ship was not well designed.
2. Do not use a hyphen after an adverb ending in -ly.  
**Incorrect Example:** The mess hall served freshly-baked cookies.  
**Correct Example:** The mess hall served freshly baked cookies.

## ■ The Dash

There are four types of dashes—the en dash, the em dash, the 2-em dash, and the 3-em dash—and all vary in length and usage. The en dash basically stands for the phrase “up through” or “to” if the word “for” is not used to start the phrase (e.g., 1995-2005). For the purposes of your academic assignments, this guide will focus on the use of the em dash, and not on the other three types, which are less commonly used.

The em dash should not be used in scholarly writing if another punctuation mark can be used in its place. This type of dash may be used for emphasis, explanation, or a sudden break in thought. The following rules outline proper em dash use:

1. An em dash can point out a sudden break in thought, or set off a parenthetical element.  
**Example:** *On War*—which was written by Clausewitz—is still considered an important military and political text today.
2. An em dash can be used to emphasize the second independent clause of a compound sentence, or to emphasize a single word or series.  
**Example:** Rain, snow, a tireless opponent—nothing would stop the Marine from completing his mission.
3. An em dash may be used for repetition, or to give the appearance of an afterthought.  
**Example:** The soldiers lost morale after losing over 1,000 men in the battle—they were ready to surrender.
4. An em dash may be used before summarizing words that set off a group of ideas or details.  
**Example:** Two students—John and Katie—received an “A” on the paper.

### **(Parentheses**

Parentheses enclose explanatory words, phrases, or sentences. The text within the parentheses is usually used to clarify the meaning of a particular passage without changing its message. The information in the parentheses is not necessary to complete the sentence’s meaning and does not interfere with the grammatical structure of the sentence. However, parentheses may provide readers with a note of interest or with valuable information. The following rules outline correct parentheses use:

1. Parentheses are used to set off definitions or translations of unfamiliar terms.  
**Example:** Clausewitz’s paradoxical trinity (primordial violence, hatred, and enmity), is often discussed in professional military education.
2. Parentheses are used to enclose numbers or letters that indicate sequence.  
**Example:** The soldier’s narrative (see Section A) described the Battle of Fallujah.
3. If parentheses occur at the end of a sentence, the closing punctuation mark should appear after the second parenthesis.  
**Example:** There was a small dent in the plane (though it is unknown how it got there).
4. An entire sentence may be enclosed in parentheses, and in this case, the closing punctuation mark should appear inside the second parenthesis.  
**Example:** The president vetoed the bill. (But the veto can be overturned by Congress.)
5. Brackets are preferred to enclose parenthetical information that is already in parentheses.  
**Example:** (The president [George W. Bush] introduced the legislation five years ago, but it did not pass.)

## The Ellipsis

• • • Ellipses are used in place of omitted words, phrases, or other quoted material. You can use an ellipsis to save space by cutting quoted information that is irrelevant to your topic, and you can improve the flow of the paper by cutting out quoted information that does not grammatically fit the structure of the sentence surrounding it. Ellipses should not be used to separate two distinct, unrelated ideas in an outside source, nor should they be used to your advantage to skew the original author's meaning in favor of your own interpretation. It is important to preserve the author's original intent when you are furthering his or her ideas in your own academic paper. Please see [Chapter Six](#) for more information on using ellipses when quoting outside sources. Below you will find guidance outlining proper ellipses usage in your own writing.

1. You can use an ellipsis to indicate that an idea is fragmented due to uncertainty. That said, in an academic paper where you are likely trying to persuade readers to accept your argument or position on a topic, this may not be the tone you want to set.

**Example:** I...well...I am not quite sure what to say about that one.

When used correctly, punctuation marks can improve the clarity and flow of sentences, whole paragraphs, and even the paper as a whole. When used incorrectly, however, punctuation marks can hinder effective sentence structure and can even change the meaning of a sentence or idea. Another important part of effective grammar is the proper use of mechanics.

## Mechanics

Mechanics simply refers to the technical aspects of a given subject. As auto mechanics must possess an understanding of the parts of a given automobile and how they work together to form a cohesive, functional vehicle, writing "mechanics" find it helpful to understand how sentences work structurally to improve organization and style in a paper. The following aspects of writing mechanics will be discussed further:

## Italics

Italics is simply a style of writing that looks slanted, similar to cursive writing when done by hand. Italics are most often used to indicate book titles and/or foreign expressions, or to add emphasis. Although most current word processing systems provide you with the ability to italicize, it is often difficult to do so when writing by hand; in this case, underlining may be used instead. It is highly advised that you do not switch back and forth between underlining and italicizing words and/or phrases in your paper; rather, it is best if you pick one method and stick to it throughout to improve consistency. You can find more information on italicizing outside source material in [Chapter Six](#). The following are rules outlining proper italics use in your writing:

1. Italics may be used to emphasize a particular word or phrase. This should be done sparingly in academic writing, however.

**Example:** I would *never* leave my post unattended.

2. Unfamiliar foreign words and phrases should be italicized, particularly on first use in your paper.  
**Example:** In the organization, members interact by using the greeting *Nazdar*.
3. Italics are used when referring to key words, letters, or figures, predominantly on first use in your paper.  
**Example:** The word *strategic* is often misinterpreted.
4. Ship names should be italicized.  
**Example:** *Santa Maria*

## Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase. Abbreviations should only be used if the context is clear to the reader. The abbreviated term must be spelled out completely the first time it is used in a piece of writing. Try to avoid abbreviations in academic writing as much as possible. Below you will find additional guidance for using abbreviations:

1. If you are abbreviating a term that your readers may find unfamiliar, spell out the term the first time you use it in the paper. Also, you should not be abbreviating terms that you use less than five times in the paper.  
**Example:** This paper will focus on the negative effects that the aircraft upgrades will have on Marine Expeditionary Units (MEUs).
2. Do not begin a sentence with an abbreviation, with the exception of address terms (e.g., Mr., Ms., and Mrs.).  
**Incorrect Example:** MEU commanders need to fully leverage their assigned capabilities against the physical and fiscal constraints that define today's Amphibious Ready Groups.  
**Correct Example:** Marine Expeditionary Unit commanders need to fully leverage their assigned capabilities against the physical and fiscal constraints that define today's Amphibious Ready Groups.
3. When abbreviating in all capital letters, do not use periods to separate each letter. This rule can be applied to acronyms—words formed by combining the first letter of a series of words in a phrase—as well.  
**Incorrect Example:** U.S.M.C.  
**Correct Example:** USMC
4. States and territories should typically be spelled out; however, do not use periods between letters when abbreviating state names and the United States. In your paper, spell out the word “United States” when you are using it as a noun. You can abbreviate the word “United States” when using it in adjective form.  
**Incorrect Example:** VA is a state in the US.  
**Correct Example:** Virginia is a US state.

5. After a person is identified by his or her full military rank or formal title, use only the surname and short grade title. The titles *Reverend* and *Honorable*, for example, can be abbreviated to *Rev.* and *Hon.* only when the word “the” does not precede the term.  
**Example:** Hon. Mitman versus The Honorable Mitman  
Example: Colonel Diaz (first naming) versus Col. Diaz
6. Abbreviate agencies and organizations in full capital letters, and do not use periods.  
**Example:** NATO
7. Abbreviate months and days of the week by spelling out words with four letters or less; the rest should be abbreviated with a period after the first three letters (except for September, Thursday, and Tuesday, which are abbreviated with a period after the first four letters).  
**Example:** Jan., Feb., Mar., Apr., May, June, July, Aug., Sept., Oct., Nov., Dec., Sun., Mon., Tues., Wed., Thurs., Fri., and Sat.
8. Make sure you use abbreviations consistently.  
**Incorrect Example:** The U.S.M.C. is a US military organization.  
**Correct Example:** The United States Marine Corps (USMC) is a US military organization.

The final rule—be consistent—is most important, particularly when discrepancies arise across and within service branches, educational institutions, and the like. Another element of mechanics, capitalization, also has a variety of rules outlining its proper usage.

## Capitalization

Capitalization is simply the practice of using capital letters as opposed to lowercase letters. The following rules outline appropriate capitalization practices in your writing:

1. Capitalize the first word of every sentence.  
**Example:** The student turned in his Independent Research Paper yesterday.
2. Capitalize the first word of every expression used as a sentence.  
**Example:** That’s too bad! How come?
3. Capitalize when writing the salutation and the closing of a letter.  
**Example:** Sincerely, Jane
4. Capitalize the first word after a colon when the word is a proper noun.  
**Example:** Major Civil War battles occurred in the following cities: Atlanta, Fredericksburg, and Gettysburg.
5. Capitalize the first word after a colon when it is the first word of a quoted sentence.  
**Example:** Winston Churchill was quoted as saying the following: “He is a modest little man who has a good deal to be modest about.”

6. Capitalize the first word after a colon when it introduces two or more sentences.  
**Example:** Marine Corps University is dedicated to fostering both academic and professional achievement: Its schools offer students the opportunity to think, write, and speak critically. Additionally, the University publishes award-winning papers at the end of the year, allowing students to take their ideas beyond the classroom.
7. Capitalize the first word after a colon when the material following the colon starts on a new line.  
**Example:** According to the QEP, there are three pillars of leadership:  
Communication, understanding, and problem solving.
8. Capitalize the first word after a colon when the colon follows an introductory word.  
**Example:** Global conflicts may be arising as a result of the following: Competition for natural resources, an increase in population density, and poorly patrolled borders.
9. Capitalize all proper nouns (nouns referring to a specific person, place, or thing).  
**Example:** Atlantic Ocean, George Bush, US Army
10. Capitalize a common noun or adjective that forms an essential part of a proper noun. However, if a common noun is used to stand for a proper noun, do not capitalize the word.  
**Example:** Potomac River versus the river
11. Capitalize all names of national or international government and military organizations, documents, and regions. However, do not capitalize common nouns that are used to replace these organizations, documents, or regions.  
**Example:** The Bill of Rights versus the bill
12. Capitalize names of departments within organizations.  
**Example:** Department of Agriculture
13. Capitalize proper names of colleges, organizations, committees, and agencies.  
**Example:** Marine Corps University
14. Capitalize military rank when used with a proper name, but not when it stands alone.  
**Example:** Major General Murray versus a general
15. Capitalize official degree names only when they are spelled out; do not capitalize the degree name when it is referred to in general.  
**Example:** Master of Military Studies versus a master's degree
16. Capitalize the names of specific medals and awards.  
**Example:** Purple Heart
17. Capitalize the names of official documents, regulations, directives, acts, laws, bills, and treaties, but not the common nouns that refer to them.

**Example:** The Declaration of Independence versus a declaration

18. Capitalize the names of major battles and campaigns.

**Example:** Battle of Bunker Hill versus the battle

19. Capitalize names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as proper nouns.

**Example:** The Women's Suffrage Movement

20. Capitalize the names of certain types of aircraft, vehicle model types, trains and train stations, and space programs.

**Example:** Virginia Railway Express

21. Capitalize the proper names of ships and spacecraft. Also italicize them.

**Example:** *Discovery* the space shuttle

22. Capitalize nouns followed by numbers or letters with the following exceptions: note, page, paragraph, line, size, and verse.

**Example:** Figure A

23. Capitalize compass directions when referring to a specific region, or if the direction is a part of a proper name. Do not capitalize directions when used to indicate a general location.

**Example:** Southern California versus south

24. Capitalize days of the week, months, events, races, languages, seasons, holidays, and religions.

**Example:** Monday, French, Spring, Labor Day

25. Capitalize brand names, but not the common nouns that refer to them.

**Example:** Ivory Soap versus soap

26. Capitalize specific course names, but not courses of study.

**Example:** Biology 101 versus biology

## Numerals

Determining whether to spell out a number or to use a numeral to refer to its value in academic writing can be challenging. Below are rules outlining proper use of numerals:

1. Use numerals when referring to money.

**Example:** \$10

2. Use numerals when referring to measurements, dimensions, or temperature.

**Example:** 25 km

3. Use numerals when referring to percentages, ratios, proportions, or scores.

**Example:** 75%

4. Use numerals when referring to numbers named specifically as numbers.  
**Example:** Prime numbers include the following: 5, 3, and 2.
5. Use numerals when referring to mathematical expressions.  
**Example:**  $4 \times 6 = 24$
6. Use numerals when referring to abbreviations, symbols, and serial numbers.  
**Example:** AR-15 Rifle
7. Use numerals when referring to unit modifiers and hyphenations.  
**Example:** M-16
8. Use numerals when referring to dates.  
**Example:** May 6, 2012.
9. Use numerals when referring to military time.  
**Example:** The meeting will begin at 1400.
10. Use numerals when referring to state, federal, and interstate highways.  
**Example:** I-95

There are also times when you need to spell out numbers in your writing. The following rules outline when this practice is necessary:

1. Print numbers when a number is less than ten in value, unless the numbers appear in a series and one of those numbers is greater than nine.  
**Example:** Buses 4, 7, and 12 will be late today. I will wait on base and drink one beer.
2. Centuries are spelled out and lowercased.  
**Example:** twenty-first century
3. Decades are spelled out and lowercased, as long as the century you are referring to is clear.  
**Example:** the eighties
4. Times of day should be spelled out in a text if not followed by a.m. or p.m., even if you are referring to a half or quarter hour.  
**Example:** five thirty
5. Numbers designating military units should be spelled out if they are 100 or less in value.  
**Example:** Second Battalion
6. Names of numbered streets are spelled out if 100 or less in value.  
**Example:** Forty-Second Street

7. Numbers are spelled out when they begin a sentence.  
**Example:** Four students got on the bus for the staff ride to Gettysburg.
8. Numbers are spelled out when used with formal subjects.  
**Example:** the thirteen colonies
9. Numbers are spelled out when preceding a compound modifier with a figure.  
**Example:** three 12-inch subs

## Grammar

In addition to properly using punctuation and mechanics in your writing, grammar also encompasses the overall structure of language. The remainder of the chapter will discuss use of correct grammar.

### Possessive Nouns

A possessive is used to indicate ownership. In most cases, singular nouns are made possessive by adding an apostrophe “s” (’s) to the end of a word (e.g., dog’s paw); plural possessives are usually formed by adding an apostrophe (’) after the “s” (e.g., students’ books). The information below provides more detailed information regarding the possessive form as well as exceptions to the general rule presented above.

1. Possessive forms of acronyms and numbers are formed by adding an apostrophe “s” (’s).  
**Example:** NATO’s members, 2012’s budget cuts
2. The possessive of a compound word always forms on the last word of a compound word. The creation of these possessives is not always pleasing to the ear, however.  
**Example:** District Attorney’s (singular possessive), Districts Attorney’s (plural possessive), Committee Chair’s (singular possessive), Committees Chair’s (plural possessive)
3. The general rules for possessives also apply to proper nouns, letters, and numbers, to include nouns ending in s, x, or z.  
**Example:** Valdez’s army, Mars’s atmosphere
4. Possessives of words and names ending in an unpronounced “s” and proper classical names of two or more syllables ending in an “eez” sound now follow the traditional rules for possession. This is a change that was introduced in the *CMS 16<sup>th</sup>* edition.  
**First Example:** Degas’s paintings (possessive of word ending in unpronounced “s.”)  
**Second Example:** Pericles’s philosophy (possessive of proper classical name of two or more syllables)
5. When a noun is singular in meaning and plural in form, add an apostrophe only. This rule also applies to singular places, organizations, and publications that take on plural forms.

**Example:** the United States' position on Jerusalem, the trousers' pockets

6. When you have two nouns in a sentence that are treated as a single element and both possess the same element, only the second element should be made possessive.

**Example:** Jim and Tina's mother, Strunk and White's rules for possessives

7. Do not add an apostrophe "s" ('s) to pronouns that are inherently possessive.

**Example:** hers, his, theirs, ours, yours, its

## Pronouns

Pronouns take the place of a noun or another pronoun and are often used to avoid excessive repetition. For example, instead of saying "James reads the *Wall Street Journal*, the *New York Times*, and the *Washington Post* every day; James is interested in becoming a journalist" you might write, "James reads the *Wall Street Journal*, the *New York Times*, and the *Washington Post* every day; he is interested in becoming a journalist."

The person, place, or thing (formally referred to as a noun) that a pronoun replaces is called an antecedent. The antecedent must agree with the pronoun that replaces it in number and person; it must also be clear to the reader as to what person, place, or thing the pronoun is replacing. The following guidelines demonstrate how to properly use pronouns in your writing.

1. **Pronouns need to have clear antecedents.** When using pronouns, make sure the pronoun's antecedent is clear. For example, in the sentence, "Sarah gave me a signed copy of her book," the pronoun *her* clearly refers back to the proper noun, *Sarah*. However, in the sentence, "Sarah and Jill are published authors; she gave me a copy of her book," the pronoun *she* could refer to either Sarah or Jill. Therefore, the antecedent is unclear.

In other cases, a pronoun may not have an antecedent at all. For instance, consider the following sentence: "The violence mostly subsided with the capture of Emilio Aguinaldo, the leader of the movement and self-proclaimed President of the Philippines, but *their* political desires for autonomy and independence were still granted by the United States." In this case, the pronoun *their* lacks an antecedent, and as such, it is not possible to identify who *their* is.

In some cases, a pronoun does not require an antecedent. For instance, the pronoun *I* rarely has an antecedent because it usually refers to the speaker; similarly, the pronoun *you* rarely has an antecedent, as it is clear that *you* refers to the person or people who are being addressed.

2. **Pronouns need to agree in number with their antecedents.**  
**Incorrect Example:** Every Marine must field day *their* own room.  
**Correct Example:** Every Marine must field *his or her* own room.

In this case, the pronoun *their* is incorrect because it is a plural possessive pronoun, which does not agree with its singular antecedent.

3. **Pronouns need to agree in person.**

**Incorrect Example:** When Marines are on the rifle range, *we* are always alert.

**First Correct Example:** When Marines are on the rifle range, *they* are always alert.

**Second Correct Example:** As Marines, *we* are always alert while *we* are on the rifle range.

In the incorrect example, it is unclear as to whether the writer is speaking as a Marine or if the pronoun *we* refers to a group of people who are not Marines.

4. **Pronouns need to agree in gender.** In the English language, only third person singular pronouns take on a particular gender. Most often problems with gender agreement are the result of placing a plural pronoun with a singular antecedent or vice versa.

**Example:** For Jeff to attain a perfect score on the PFT, *he* has to train.

In the example, the pronoun *he* agrees in number and gender with the proper noun, *Jeff*.

5. **Pronouns need to agree in case.** There are three cases of pronouns, subjective case pronouns, objective case pronouns, and possessive case pronouns, all of which are further discussed below:

**Subjective case:** pronouns used as subjects. Subjective case pronouns include *I, you, he, she it, we, they,* and *who*.

**Example:** *I* went for a walk. *She* enjoys skiing and sailing.

**Objective Case:** pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions. Objective case pronouns include *me, you, him, her, it, us, them,* and *whom*.

**Example:** I went to the movies with *her* and Dennis. Though filled with action, the movie was not appealing to *them*.

**Possessive Case:** pronouns that express ownership. Possessive case pronouns include *my/mine, your/yours, her/hers, it/its, our/ours, their/theirs,* and *whose*.

**Example:** *Our* house is filled with antiques. Don't forget *your* camera.

Problems with pronoun case often occur when dealing with compound subjects or compound objects. If a compound sentence contains two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, drop the other noun. This action will help you decide which case pronoun you need to use in the sentence.

**First Example:** Andy and *me* went to the store.

**Sentence after noun is removed:** *Me* went to the store.

Since you would say, "I went to the store," as opposed to "me went to the store," *I* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

**Second Example:** He had a meeting with Ann and *I*.

**Sentence after noun is removed:** He had a meeting with *I*.

You would not say, “He had a meeting with *I*,” so *me* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

**Third Example:** *Us* chefs like to cook.

**Sentence after noun is removed:** *Us* like to cook.

You would not say, “*Us* like to cook,” so the appropriate pronoun here is *we*.

Problems with pronoun case may also occur when making comparisons. When deciding which pronoun to use, try filling in words to complete the comparison.

**Example:** She is older than *I* (am old). This helps you as much as (it helps) *me*.

6. **Demonstrative pronouns need to have clear antecedents.** Demonstrative pronouns substitute nouns when the nouns they replace can be understood from the context. Demonstrative pronouns include *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *none*, and *neither*. They also indicate they are replacing singular or plural words and give the location of the object.

**This:** singular and near the speaker

**That:** singular and at a distance from the speaker

**These:** plural and near the speaker

**Those:** plural and at a distance from the speaker

**First Example:** I bought *this* cake, but Sam baked *those*. (*Those* refers to cakes that are at a distance from the speaker.)

**Second Example:** I wrote *this* last year. (*This* refers to something that is singular near the speaker, and readily understood in the context of the conversation.)

## Parallelism

Single words should be balanced by single words, phrases should be balanced by phrases, and clauses should be balanced by clauses. Furthermore, each element in the series should “serve the same grammatical function in the sentence (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb).”<sup>46</sup> A sentence is more easily understood and more pleasing to the ear when parallel construction is used.

**Incorrect use of parallel construction:** The general enjoys golfing, sailing, and reads.

**Correct use of parallel construction:** The general enjoys golfing, sailing, and reading.

**Incorrect use of parallel construction:** Today I will edit my paper for grammar, sentence structure, and re-organize my thesis.

**Correct use of parallel construction:** Today I will edit my paper for grammar mistakes, improper sentence structure, and poor thesis development.

The following examples showcase parallel constructions used in famous works:

**First Example:** “I choose my friends for their good looks, my acquaintances for their good characters, and my enemies for their intellects.” –Oscar Wilde

**Second Example:** “The inherent vice of capitalism is the unequal sharing of blessings; the inherent virtue of socialism is the equal sharing of miseries.” –Winston Churchill

According to the CMS, “in a parallel series of prepositional phrases, repeat the preposition with every element unless they all use the same preposition.”<sup>47</sup>

**Example:** I have been published in *The New Yorker*, *The Atlantic*, and *Time* magazine.

In this case, the preposition “in” does not need to be repeated because the same preposition applies to each element.

**Example:** I checked behind the bookshelf, behind my desk, and on top of the mantle, but I still could not find the missing paperwork.

Prepositions need to precede each element in this case because not every element requires the same preposition.

### Active Voice vs. Passive Voice

Though most academic assignments should use the active voice, an author may make the stylistic choice to use the passive voice in order to emphasize a particular point of view or to intentionally create ambiguity. For instance, consider the sentence, “There was a disagreement regarding the use of the semicolon.” This sentence conveys the same idea as “Dr. Martin and Dr. Stein disagreed on how the semicolon should be used;” however, the second sentence is more direct, providing the reader with a clearer description of the “dispute.” The construction you choose to use in your writing will depend on the nature of your assignment and your reason for writing. For instance, if the context in which you are writing requires you to place less emphasis on the conflict, the passive voice might be more appropriate.

**Passive voice:** The command was issued by the general.

**Active voice:** The general issued the command.

**Passive voice:** The winning home run was hit by Babe Ruth.

**Active voice:** Babe Ruth hit the winning home run.

**Passive voice:** As a result of cooperative lessons learned at Joint Helicopter Forces Iraq (JHF-1), the request was made from MND-SE to shift the HH-60s to an armed escort role for convoy protection.

**Active voice:** As a result of cooperative lessons learned at Joint Helicopter Forces Iraq (JHF-1), MND-SE requested to shift the HH-60s to an armed escort role for convoy protection.

## Point of View

There are three common point of view types: first person, second person, and third person. The first person point of view is formed when the author writes from his or her point of view and is usually indicated by the first-person pronouns *I*, *me*, *my*, or *we*. Generally, the first person point of view should be reserved for informal writing (emails, personal correspondence, etc.), though it is sometimes used in more formal contexts such as autobiographies, memoirs, and some social science research reports. The first person point of view may also be used in the more informal and conversational preface for the MMS. Below are examples of first person point of view:

1. *I* observed the participants in their natural habitat.
2. *We* observed the participants in their natural habitat.

This sentence is written in the first person because *we* is a first person plural pronoun. The second person point of view is formed when *you* is the subject of the sentence. Commands (in which the implied subject is you) are always written in the second person. Sometimes the second person point of view is used when an author wishes to address the reader directly. For instance, most of this guide is written from a second person point of view, which was done to give it a more conversational, informal tone. Though the second person point of view may be used to make a dense text seem more approachable, it should generally be avoided in academic writing. Below are examples of second person point of view:

1. *Observe* the participants in their natural habitat.
2. *You* observed the participants in their natural habitat.

Third person point of view is used to allow for distance between the author and the subject. You will generally use the third person point of view in your formal writing. Below are examples of third person point of view:

1. *They* observed the participants in their natural habitat.
2. *The researcher* took a case study approach to collect and organize the data.

The point of view you choose to write from will depend on your purpose for writing, your audience, and the level of formality needed to meet your purpose. Regardless of the point of view you choose to use, pick one and stick to it (e.g. do not switch between second and third person point of view in your writing).

**Incorrect Example:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize the D.O. concept. You need to apply this concept at the unit level.

**Correct Example:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize the D.O. concept. It needs to apply this concept at the unit level.

In the example above, the first sentence is written in third person, while the second sentence is written in second person. Switching between voices within a paper can be confusing to your reader and can make your paragraph structure seem disjointed.

Overall, revising at the sentence level can improve clarity and flow in your writing, and will result in a more clear, polished document. The next chapter concerns your use of visuals to convey a message or support an argument in your writing.

## CHAPTER ELEVEN

### USING VISUALS

Although concept mapping and mind mapping visuals were discussed in [Chapter Seven](#), this chapter will address other types of visuals you may use in your papers, such as tables, graphs, and charts that display data and other information to support your argument. While concept maps may help you to demonstrate relationships between ideas as you prepare to write your paper, the images depicted in this chapter will help you to visually represent the data you collect.

Visuals are an important component of both academic research papers and oral presentations. They help to emphasize a specific point of information, demonstrate relationships between concepts/events/people, and simplify complex information points. The number and type of visuals you need for a paper or presentation depends on your audience and your purpose. Visuals also may engage your readers or audience members—particularly those who are more inclined to learn through visual means—and may also further emphasize your credibility if used effectively.

The following guidelines provide information on when you should convey your message through written text or oral speech, and when you should use visuals to do so:

1. Do not use visuals to convey the main argument and concluding information.
2. Do not use charts, graphs, or tables to convey stories and tales from your personal experience.
3. Do not use visuals to convey particularly detailed information (i.e., when you need to paint a picture of an experience for your readers or audience members).
4. You can use visuals to convey names, numbers, factual details, dates, and sequences of events (e.g., timelines).

As you can see from the list above, it is not necessary to outline every point of your paper or presentation using visuals. It may be distracting to do so; as such, visuals should be focused mainly to explain or emphasize a particular point. The following guidelines demonstrate how to maximize the effect of your visuals:

1. Have a clear title that identifies the purpose of the visual.
2. Clearly indicate what data is being measured.
3. Use clearly labeled measurement units.
4. Use clearly labeled legends.
5. Identify the source of your data.

6. If the visual is a reproduction from an outside source, give credit to the original author.
7. If using a visual in an oral presentation (e.g., PowerPoint), use at least 18-point font.

As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, there are three main types of visuals: tables, charts, and graphs. Each type of visual should be used in different ways to present different types of information. Tables should be used when the reader needs to identify exact values. Charts, such as pie charts, are helpful when comparing a part to a whole. Graphs are useful when the reader needs to focus on relationships between elements. Line graphs, in particular, should be used to compare one item to another, or to show a shift in trends over time. The following guidelines provide information on when and how to use the various types of visuals and the type of information your visuals can illustrate.

### **Guidelines for Using Tables**

1. Use tables when you want the readers to focus on exact numbers and more technical material.
2. Format and style should be made consistent when using more than one table in your paper.
3. When using tables and other visuals or figures in a paper, number tables separately. Give each table its own number, and use Arabic numerals (e.g., Table 1).
4. Tables should be cited in text, rather than in the bibliography or endnotes.
5. When discussing the table in the body of the paper, make “table” lowercase.
6. Do not use tables to interpret data, merely to report/showcase data.
7. Provide a title that clearly and concisely identifies the subject.
8. You can use abbreviations if readers can clearly understand their meaning.
9. You can include totals in the table if they are useful to the paper or presentation. Use exact numbers/values, especially if a percentage equals to more or less than 100 percent.

The following example demonstrates the proper use and format of a table:

Table 1. Personnel authorization for selected Reserve and Reserves on full-time active duty in support of Reserves

<b>Service</b>	<b>Selected Reserve Force Authorization</b>	<b>Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserve Authorization</b>
Army National Guard	350,000	--
Army Reserve	205,000	14,970
Naval Reserve	83,400	14,152
Air National Guard/Air Force Reserve	182,900	14,153
Marine Corps Reserve	39,600	2,261

*Source:* U.S.C. 10, Subtitle E, Part II, Chapter 1201, § 12001 Authorized Strengths: Reserve Components.

As shown, the table is labeled with a clear title, depicts specific and clearly labeled information to be of use in the paper or presentation, and is followed by a source with citation information. The following guidelines demonstrate proper use of charts:

### **Guidelines for Using Charts**

1. Label a chart as a figure.
2. Make sure readers can understand the chart as it stands without additional explanation.
3. Make sure your charts are consistent in terms of format and style.
4. Segments of the chart (such as the pie chart below), should be distinctly labeled. It is easier to read these labels if they are located outside the visual.
5. Lowercase labels within the chart unless they are proper nouns.
6. You can abbreviate in labels if readers can clearly understand the abbreviated terms.
7. If not using color to separate segments of the chart, use black and white rather than shades of gray (unless otherwise instructed).

See the pie chart below for an example of these guidelines.

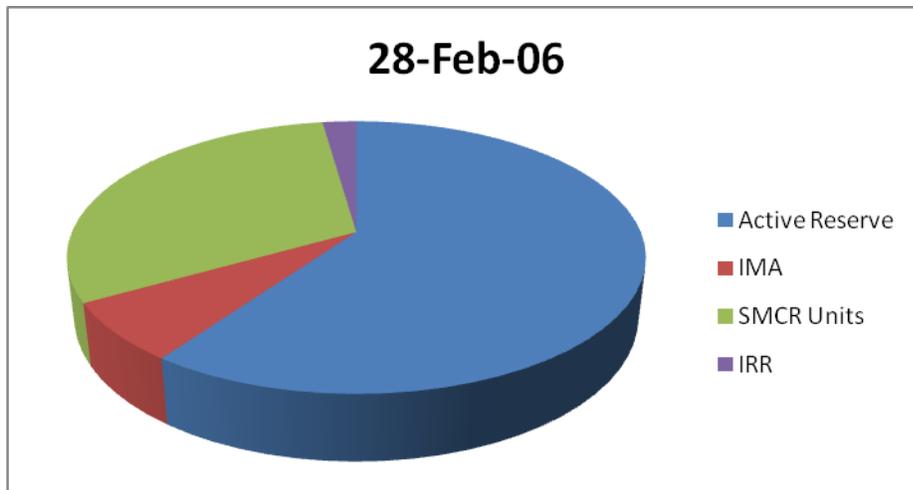


Figure 1: Marine Corps Reserve Personnel  
*Source:* Joseph J. Garcia, “Total Force Integration: Transforming the United States from Good-to-Great,” (manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007).

The pie chart above is slightly different from a table in that the title follows the figure, rather than preceding it. Another type of illustration that can be used in a paper or presentation is a graph. Below are guidelines for using graphs.

### Guidelines for Using Graphs

1. Put bars in a logical or chronological order.
2. Label the horizontal and vertical axes.
3. Be consistent with the labeling, format, and style of your graphs.
4. When time is a variable, put it on the horizontal axis.
5. Avoid using a graph to interpret data; rather, simply use a graph to report the data.

Below is an example of a bar graph:

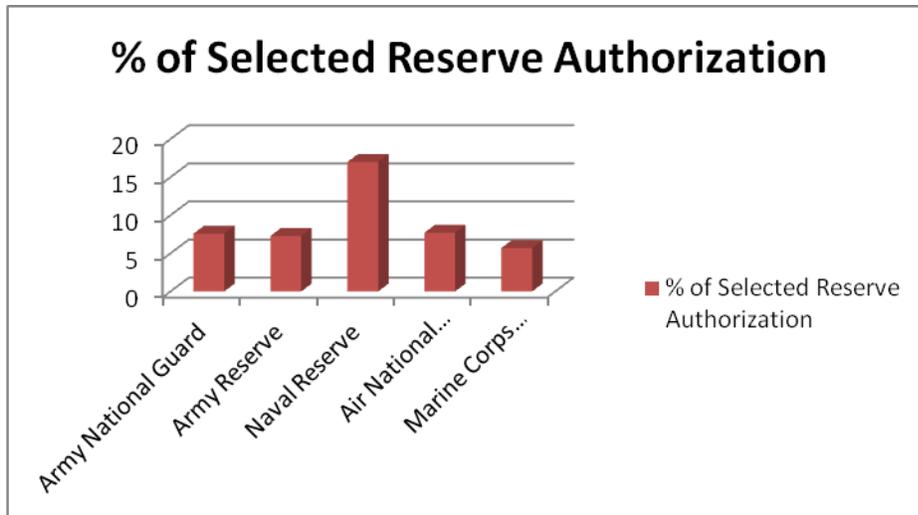


Figure 2: Percentage of Reserves on full-time active duty in support of Reserves  
*Source:* Joseph J. Garcia, “Total Force Integration: Transforming the United States from Good-to-Great,” (manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007).

Overall, adhering to the guidelines outlined in this chapter will improve the way you use visuals in your papers and in your oral presentations. Remember, visuals should not overwhelm or hinder your ideas and arguments. Rather, they should be a supporting element in a paper or presentation and should help you to explain complex ideas. It is important to note that while graphics may take up a great deal of space, they do not count towards the assignment’s page length. This means visuals cannot be a substitute for text; likewise, if you already have a sufficient amount of text, the visuals will not cause you to exceed the page limit.

The following chapter gives more information on presenting information orally, something you will do in seminar discussions and during your master’s thesis defense at Marine Corps University.

## CHAPTER TWELVE

# ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

Thus far, the contents of this style guide have largely focused on the writing process and on written forms of communication. Similar to a piece of writing, an oral presentation requires advance planning to be most effective. Oral presentations must have a logical organizational structure, typically including a main point in the introduction, a body of supporting points, and a conclusion. These presentations must also consider the needs of the audience. For more information on audience analysis, see [Chapter Two](#).

Although there are some key similarities between oral and written communications, there are also key differences you must take into account. When you deliver an oral presentation, you only have one chance to convey your message. The audience members cannot re-read your presentation as they would a document. For this reason, it is important to catch the audience's attention at the very beginning and repeat important points throughout the presentation (a process that may seem repetitive in a piece of writing). Although you only have one chance to convey your message, presenting information orally allows you to connect with your audience in a way that writing cannot; you can see and hear your audience's verbal and nonverbal reactions, and you can respond accordingly to improve rapport and convey your message more effectively.

There are five elements to consider when you engage in the public speaking process:

1. The **speaker** is the source of the message; he or she brings an individual perspective, identity, and background experience to the presentation.
2. The **message** is the factual content of the speech; it often incorporates the speaker's attitudes and values.
3. The **listener** is the receiver or interpreter of the message; he or she brings prior knowledge, attitudes, and interests to the situation.
4. **Feedback** is provided by listeners, and it can be verbal or nonverbal in nature (e.g., frowns, yawns, laughter, questions, and head nods).
5. The **context** is determined by the physical setting, social expectations, and cultural norms of both the speaker and the audience.

Keeping the elements of the public speaking process in mind, you also need to determine your purpose, central argument or idea, and your intended audience prior to delivering your oral presentation.

### **Audience**

When creating an oral presentation, the first thing you want to do is analyze your audience. Your presentation will be more successful if you understand the backgrounds and demographics of

your audience members; this will allow you to construct a speech that reaches them in the most effective way. Ask yourself the following questions when analyzing your audience:

1. How familiar is the audience with your topic?
2. What questions and/or objections might the audience have about your topic?
3. What prior experiences and knowledge do they bring to the presentation? How will this affect the way you deliver your argument or main idea?

## **Purpose**

After analyzing those to whom you are presenting, it is important to know what your main goal is for the presentation. If you are speaking to inform readers of a particular topic or viewpoint, you will structure the presentation differently than if you are speaking to persuade audience members to adopt a particular philosophy or course of action. Your general purpose is related to the type of presentation you aim to give (informative, persuasive, entertaining), and your specific purpose combines this general purpose with your topic. Below is an example:

**General Purpose:** My general purpose is to inform my audience.

**Specific Purpose:** My specific purpose is to inform my audience about General X's actions during Y battle of the Civil War.

Your purpose will also be affected by the constraints in which you are giving the presentation. Time length, audience size, lack or presence of audio-visual support, and the nature of the topic (e.g., technical, abstract) are factors to take into consideration.

## **Central Idea**

Your main idea should capture the essence of the information or perspective you wish to communicate to your audience. This can be compared to a thesis statement in writing (for more information on thesis statements, please see [Chapter Five](#)). Below is an example of a central idea.

**Example:** General X's actions during Y battle set up a unique situation, which had Z impact on the Civil War and can be studied as our current military enters into similar situations today.

Similar to a thesis in a written paper, your central idea should be well supported with scholarly research. Finding sources on your topic is a necessary component of both the speaking and writing processes.

## Delivery

After you have determined your purpose, audience, and central idea, it is also beneficial to plan how you will deliver this information to your audience. This may involve constructing a written outline to ensure you have a logical, sustained argument throughout your presentation. As you review the content you plan to cover, ask yourself the following questions: Is it succinct? Can any information (e.g., visuals, specific details, and examples) be eliminated? Does the presentation fit within the time length allotted? Will your presentation style allow you to reach your audience effectively? There are several strategies you can use to effectively deliver an oral presentation. Below are some guidelines on delivery:

1. **Know your topic well and be prepared.** If you know your subject matter well, you will likely feel more confident during your presentation. This ensures that even if you forget the exact words you had practiced, your familiarity with the topic will allow you to stay on track.
2. **Practice delivering the presentation more than once.** Delivering the presentation to a friend, coworker, or family member will help you to ensure that you stay within the time limit, that you are comfortable working with your visuals if you are using any, and that you can determine ahead of time what audience reactions may be to your examples, references, use of humor (if applicable), and the like.
3. **Maintain eye contact with audience members.**
4. **Interact with your audience immediately upon beginning your presentation.** You can do this through asking questions or telling a story, for example.
5. **Use your visuals and note cards effectively.** Make sure you understand the content well enough that you can look at your audience while you explain concepts, rather than reading the visuals and note cards. Also, do not write on both sides of the note cards. Flipping your cards around may distract your audience and may also distract you.
6. **When you find yourself wanting to use a filler word (e.g., um, like, you know), pause instead.** Avoiding filler words will make you sound like a more formal, credible speaker. The pause will also give you time to think of the best statement to continue with in your presentation.
7. **Move comfortably and appropriately.** If the presentation is not extremely formal, feel free to move around and use confident gestures. Avoid unnecessary gestures, such as “knife hands” or other distracting movements, however.
8. **Repeat important concepts in different ways.** This ensures that your audience will remember your message.
9. **Use inclusive language.** Use word choices that appeal to and engage all or nearly all audience members. At Marine Corps University, you may be speaking not only to United

States Marine officers, but also to sister service members, international officers, and civilian government officers, as well as civilian and military faculty members.

10. **End with a strong message.** Keep in mind the most important thing you want your audience to take away from your presentation, and make sure that is the last thing they hear.

### **Question and Answer Session Strategies**

Many oral presentations are followed by a question and answer session, particularly in a master's thesis defense at Marine Corps University. This session often requires you to address any points the audience did not understand during your presentation. It may also require you to fill in any gaps in the information you have presented. As you may not know what questions you will be asked ahead of time, the following are some strategies you can use to prepare:

1. Ask yourself what an individual, company, or industry would know about your topic (e.g., preconceived notions, experience).
2. Play devil's advocate with yourself. Make a list of potential objections the audience may have. Look for weaknesses or gaps in your argument.

You can also prepare by familiarizing yourself with the types of questions audience members typically ask. The first is simple—audience members may ask a question merely to find an answer. One key word that indicates an answer-seeking question is “how.” To answer, make sure you reinforce your purpose. If you do not know the answer to a question, admit it and let the audience know you intend to find out the answer for them.

The second type of question you may encounter is called the message question. It is less of a request for more information and more about the person's wish to express his or her viewpoint or to share information. Some key phrases that set off message questions are, “don't you think,” “have you ever considered,” and “what would happen if?” To answer, listen carefully to the question or statement presented. Find some form of agreeing point or common ground with the speaker if you can. Then, rephrase the question and answer in a way that strengthens your position and complies with your purpose.

The third type of question you may be asked is the getcha question. This type of question is used to uncover an error in logic or inaccurate information in your material. Some key words indicating a getcha question include, “why” or “how come?” To answer, try not to argue with the questioner. Rephrase the question to make it appear less intimidating, and present information that backs up both sides of the argument.

You will likely be more relaxed during the question and answer session if you anticipate potential issues ahead of time and prepare yourself to answer the types of questions the audience members may raise. Thinking about the types of questions the audience members will ask may also help you to address counter argument and opposing viewpoints in the body of your presentation. Additionally, letting the audience know how you will handle questions at the

beginning of the session will set up their expectations nicely. Strategies like repeating the question before you answer will show the audience you understand what is being asked and will also give the questioner a chance to clarify his or her intended meaning. If you do not receive any questions, take a minute to summarize your main idea again. This will allow the audience to process your message. Many of these question and answer strategies can also aid you as you participate in seminar discussions and debates.

### **Seminar Contribution**

Many of your classes at Marine Corps University will require you to participate in a seminar style discussion. Seminar discussions have many benefits; they allow for new perspectives and ideas to be shared among peers, they allow you to actively participate in your own learning experience rather than passively listen to a lecture or other presentation, and they help to establish a rapport among those in your seminar.

To make the most of a seminar discussion, it is important to be an effective participant. The following are several strategies you can use to contribute effectively to a seminar discussion:

1. Move the conversation forward without prompting from the instructor. Asking a question, providing an opposing viewpoint, or furthering a previous participant's idea or position are great examples of ways to move the conversation along.
2. Avoid dominating the conversation. Invite others who are less inclined to speak up to do so by asking what they think or feel about the ideas present in the discussion.
3. Do the readings ahead of time, and take notes that you can use as you participate in the discussion. Demonstrating a deep knowledge of the readings will make you a more credible participant than simply relying on your personal experience—although experiences and prior knowledge can be effective components of seminar participation if incorporated effectively.
4. Do additional related reading and reference additional supporting materials related to the discussion topic (e.g., films and interviews).
5. Avoid drifting to outside topics or trivial aspects of the topic at hand. It is best to stay focused and get the most out of the discussion.
6. Make eye contact and be an active listener, establishing a respectful and open environment for all participants. The discussion should focus on the topic at hand, not the discussants; avoid any ad hominem attacks.
7. If the idea of participating in a seminar discussion makes you uncomfortable, write down questions to ask or comments to share beforehand as you do the reading; this will give you something you have already prepared to say, and you can use this as a jumping off point from which to delve into more “off the cuff” remarks during the discussion.

## APPENDIX A

### SELECTED MILITARY PERIODICALS AND ESSAY CONTESTS

#### Periodicals

*Air & Space Power Journal* - <http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/>

*Armed Forces Journal* - <http://armedforcesjournal.com/>

*Joint Force Quarterly* - <http://www.ndu.edu/press/jointForceQuarterly.html>

*Journal of Military History* - <http://www.smh-hq.org/jmh/jmh.html>

*Marine Corps Gazette* - <http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/>

*Military History Magazine* - <http://www.historynet.com/military-history>

*Military Review Journal* - <http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/MilitaryReview/>

*Naval History* - <http://www.usni.org/membership/naval-history-author-guidelines>

*Naval War College Review* - <http://www.usnwc.edu/Publications/Naval-War-College-Review.aspx>

*Parameters* – <http://www.carlisle.army.mil/usawc/Parameters/default.cfm>

*Proceedings* - <http://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings>

*Royal United Services Institute Journal* - <http://www.rusi.org/publications/journal/>

*SeaPower Magazine* - [http://www.navyleague.org/sea\\_power/about\\_seapower.php](http://www.navyleague.org/sea_power/about_seapower.php)

*Small Wars Journal* - <http://smallwarsjournal.com/>

#### Military Essay Contests

*Marine Corps War College Academic Excellence Award* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Marine Corps Command and Staff College Colonel Bevan G. Cass Award* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Chase Prize Essay Contest* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation <http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Hogaboom Leadership Essay Contest* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Col Francis "Fox" Parry Memorial Article* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*The Schulze Memorial Essay* - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Lt Col Earl "Pete" Ellis Writing Award*- Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Woman Marine Association Essay Contest*- Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation  
<http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program>

*Award for International Affairs* – Sponsored by the Foreign Area Officers Association  
[http://www.moaa.org/Main\\_Menu/About\\_MOAA/Scholarship\\_Fund/Faces\\_of\\_Donors/Foreign\\_Area\\_Officer\\_Association.html](http://www.moaa.org/Main_Menu/About_MOAA/Scholarship_Fund/Faces_of_Donors/Foreign_Area_Officer_Association.html)

*General Clifton B. Cates Award* – Sponsored by the Navy League of the United States  
[http://www.navyleague.org/councils/awards\\_manual.pdf](http://www.navyleague.org/councils/awards_manual.pdf)

*Colonel Franklin Brooke Nihart Award* – Sponsored by the Marine Corps University Foundation through Col. Franklin Brooke Nihart (ret.) and his wife Mary Helen Nihart  
[http://www.mcuf.org/first\\_draft/support\\_awards.html](http://www.mcuf.org/first_draft/support_awards.html)

*Streusand-Cooper Writing Award* – Sponsored by the Marine Corps University Foundation through Dr. Douglas Streusand and LtCol and Mrs. Francis Cooper  
[http://www.mcuf.org/first\\_draft/support\\_awards.html](http://www.mcuf.org/first_draft/support_awards.html)

*General John A. Lejeune Writing Award* – Sponsored by the Marine Corps League  
<http://www.mcldet1073.org/MCLDET107314.html#AWARDS>

*Lieutenant General Edward W. Snedeker Award* – Sponsored by the Armed Forces Communication and Electronics Association  
<https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf>

*The Brigadier A. W. Hammett Award* – Sponsored by Colonel William G. Price, USMC (ret.)  
<https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf>

*Intelligence Writing Award* – Sponsored by the CIA Associate Director for Military Affairs  
<https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf>

*Secretary of Defense National Security Essay Competition* – Sponsored by National Defense University Press  
<http://www.ndu.edu/press/SECDEF-EssayCompetition.html>

*Center for Homeland Defense and Security Annual Essay Competition* – Sponsored by the Naval Postgraduate School Center for Homeland Defense and Security  
<http://www.chds.us/?essay/overview>

## APPENDIX B

### WRITING ASSIGNMENT GRADING RUBRIC FOR MCWAR, SAW, AND CSC

Points	Thesis and Evidentiary Support of Thesis		
	55-60 Points (A Level)	48-54 Points (B Level)	43-47 Points (C Level) Unacceptable
10	Substantial (interesting, creative), clearly stated thesis. Thesis directly links to assignment.	Interesting thesis, but was not as clearly stated. Thesis adequately links to the writing assignment.	Weak (obvious), poorly stated thesis. Thesis does not link directly to assignment.
50	Thesis strongly supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is accurate and thorough. Supporting argument reflects appropriate depth of analysis and interpretation of data. Argument reflects appropriate depth of research. Effective conclusion.	Thesis is adequately supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is less thorough. Supporting argument reflects adequate depth of analysis and interpretation of data. Argument reflects adequate depth of research. Conclusion is stated.	Thesis is not adequately supported by argument and evidence. Supporting evidence is inaccurate or weak. Supporting argument reflects inadequate depth of analysis/interpretation of data. Argument reflects inadequate research. Conclusion is inconclusive or not stated.
<b>Organization</b>			
	<b>13-15 Points</b>	<b>12-13 Points</b>	<b>10-12 Points</b>
15	Proper ordering of argument and evidence. Plan outlined and clear to reader. Plan is sustained throughout the paper. Each element of assignment is addressed.	Minor flaw in ordering of argument and evidence. Plan is apparent, but not faithfully sustained throughout the paper.	Random ordering of argument and evidence. No apparent plan.
<b>Style</b>			
	<b>13-15 Points</b>	<b>12-13 Points</b>	<b>10-12 Points</b>
15	Clear, easy to follow logic. Good transitions between sentences and between paragraphs. Paragraphs focused on one idea. Precise and appropriate word choice.	Logic is evident but more difficult to follow. Some inconsistency in the flow between sentences and paragraphs. Minor problems with word choice.	Not clear, hard to follow. Poor flow or awkward transitions between sentences and paragraphs. Many incorrect/inappropriate word choices.
<b>Mechanics and Grammar</b>			
	<b>9-10 Points</b>	<b>8-9 Points</b>	<b>7-8 Points</b>
10	Consistently correct sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.	Occasional errors in sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.	Frequent errors in sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.
Total Score			
Final Grade			Legend 90-100 = A 80-89 = B 70-79 = C
Instructor Comments			

## ORAL PRESENTATION GRADING RUBRIC FOR MCWAR, SAW, AND CSC

Points	Presentation of Thesis and Supporting Argument		
	40-45 Points (A Level)	35-39 Points (B Level)	32-25 Points (C Level) Unacceptable
10	Clearly stated purpose statement that directly links to the assignment. Skilled use of catchphrase to get audience attention.	Purpose statement less clearly stated, yet adequately links to the next assignment. Standard ideas and concepts that engage audience.	Weak purpose statement that doesn't link to the assignment. No use of catchphrase to get audience attention.
35	Argument is strongly supported with evidence. Supporting evidence is accurate and thorough, with effective and relevant examples. Appropriate use of military doctrine/terminology. Effective conclusion; links to purpose statement.	Argument is adequately supported by evidence. Supporting evidence is somewhat misleading or less thorough, with weak examples. Adequate use of military doctrine/terminology. Conclusion stated; inadequate link to purpose.	Argument is poorly supported by evidence. Supporting evidence is inaccurate, not thorough, with poor examples. Inadequate use of military doctrine/terminology. Poor conclusion; doesn't link to purpose.
Speech Organization			
	18-20 Points	16-18 Points	14-16 Points
20	Plan is clear to audience and sustained throughout. Effective transitions. Clear, easy to follow logic and flow of ideas. Proper ordering of argument and evidence. Clear summary of presentation before conclusion.	Plan is less clear to audience and/or not sustained. Acceptable transitions. Logic is less clear, but ideas are still comprehensible. Minor flaws in ordering of argument and evidence. Weaker summary of presentation before conclusion.	Plan is not clear to audience and not sustained. Poor transitions; rambling occurs. Logic and ideas are difficult to follow. Random ordering of argument and evidence. Poor summary before conclusion.
Presentation Style			
	18-20 Points	16-18 Points	14-16 Points
20	Language is appropriate to audience/occasion. Consistent use of correct grammar. Convincing, memorable presentation of ideas.	Language is acceptable for audience/occasion. Occasional errors in grammar. Adequate presentation of ideas.	Language not appropriate for audience/occasion. Frequent errors in grammar. Monotonous, boring.
Presentation Delivery			
	14-15 Points	13-14 Points	10-12 Points
15	Ease and control in delivery. Smooth recovery from mistakes or interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact enhance/bolster the verbal message. Vocal variety intensifies audience interest. Effective choice and use of interesting visual aids.	Acceptable ease and control in delivery. Acceptable recover from mistakes/interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact support the verbal message. Vocal variety holds audience interest. Visual aids acceptable, but not memorable.	Awkward or embarrassed presentation. Awkward recovery from mistakes/interruptions. Appearance, movement, facial expression, eye contact distract from the verbal message. Vocal tone distracts from audience interest. Visual aids are distracting and/or confusing.
Total Score			
Final Grade			
Instructor Comments			

Legend  
90-100 = A  
80-89 = B  
70-79 = C

**STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SEMINAR DISCUSSION RUBRIC**

<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Student 1</b>	<b>Student 2</b>	<b>Student 3</b>
PROVIDES SOLID ANALYSIS, SYNTHESIS, AND EVALUATION, without prompting, in order to move the conversation forward			
INITIATES AND ORIENTS OTHER PARTICIPANTS TO NEW IDEAS rather than gate keeping or dominating discussion in order to move the conversation forward			
DEMONSTRATES KNOWLEDGE OF THE TEXT AND THE QUESTION through his/her information/fact giving/seeking rather than relying on his/her opinion			
COMES TO SEMINAR PREPARED with notes, references, and/or citations			
CLARIFIES/ELABORATES/FOLLOWS-UP/ASKS QUESTIONS to extend the conversation			
REFERENCES SUPPORTING MATERIALS by citing specific parts of the text and/or previous readings/films/discussions			
ACTIVELY LISTENS TO OTHER PARTICIPANTS through his/her comments/questions/clarification/follow-up			
Total Score			
Instructor Comments			
	<p style="text-align: center;">Legend            3 = Strong ("A" work)            2 = Acceptable ("B" work)            1 = Unacceptable ("C" work)</p>		<p style="text-align: center;">Final Grade            A = 19-21            B = 14-18            C = 7-13</p>

## APPENDIX C

### GLOSSARY OF COMMONLY CONFUSED WORD PAIRS

#### Accept/Except

*Accept:* To agree to take or receive. I accepted the proposal.

*Except:* With the exclusion of. They all received A's, except for Major Smith.

#### Adverse/Averse

*Adverse:* Unfavorable, undesirable. The medication had no adverse effects.

*Averse:* Having strong opposition towards. He is averse to launching a preemptive war.

#### Advice/Advise

*Advice:* A noun meaning a suggestion for a proposed action. My platoon leader gave good advice.

*Advise:* A verb meaning to suggest someone to perform an action. I would advise you to visit the Leadership Communication Skills Center for assistance on your paper.

#### Affect/Effect

*Affect:* Causing or expressing emotion. The general delivered an affective speech.

*Effect:* Producing a desired outcome. He constructed an effective war strategy.

#### All Together/Altogether

*All Together:* All people or objects present at the same time. I put my books, pens, and notebooks all together on the table.

*Altogether:* Considering the entirety or whole of something. I was altogether pleased with the seminar discussion today.

#### Aloud/Allowed

*Aloud:* Conversing in the open, creating noise. Reading your paper aloud can help you catch typos and other writing errors.

*Allowed:* Tolerated or accepted. The employer allowed his employee to leave an hour early prior to the start of the holiday weekend.

## Appraise/Apprise

*Appraise:* To assess the value of something. The jeweler appraised her diamond ring for insurance purposes.

*Apprise:* To let somebody know something. The colonel apprised the general of the situation in theater.

## Assent/Ascent

*Assent:* Concurrence or agreement of something. He readily assented to remodeling the bathroom.

*Ascent:* The act of rising or climbing to the top. We need to make the steep ascent to the top of Mount Everest.

## Bear/Bare

*Bear:* The animal. I shot the bear.

*Bare:* Uncovered, minimal. The hot asphalt burned my bare feet.

## Born/Borne

*Born:* The start to life, creation. The Marine felt as though he had been born to do this job.

*Borne:* The past tense act of carrying someone or something. She had borne a child within the past year.

## Council/Counsel

*Council:* A group that makes decisions, a committee. The matter was brought up before the council.

*Counsel:* To advise someone on something. He was counseled by the general who had a great deal of deployment experience.

## There/They're/Their

*There:* Refers to a place. I do not want to go there.

*They're:* Contraction meaning "they are." They're going to employ guerilla war tactics.

*Their:* Plural possessive pronoun. It was their error.

## Elicit/Illicit

*Elicit*: To evoke or draw out. To elicit a response.

*Illicit*: Illegal, prohibited for moral or ethical reasons. There was an illicit drug trade in the city.

## Emigrate/Immigrate

*Emigrate*: To leave one's country or region to live in another. Miguel emigrated from Spain.

*Immigrate*: Refers to the arrival and settling in a new country or region. Miguel immigrated to America.

## Eminent/Imminent

*Eminent*: Issuing from a source. Many property rights are subject to eminent domain.

*Imminent*: Likely to occur at any moment. The attack is imminent.

## Fewer/Less

*Fewer*: Use fewer for things you count individually. There were fewer soldiers in Iraq last year.

*Less*: Use less when referring to something that is measured. Next time you make the coffee, use less water.

## Foreword/Forward

*Foreword*: The introduction to a book or other document, front matter. Some interesting points are made by General Murray in this book's foreword.

*Forward*: in the direction of something ahead of you. Keep moving forward and you will achieve your goal.

## If/Whether

*If*: Used when one occurrence depends on another. I will attend the Family Day activities if my spouse can come.

*Whether*: Used when there are two potential outcomes. I do not know whether my spouse will attend the Family Day activities or have to work.

## Its/It's

*Its*: A possessive term. The dog chased its tail.

*It's*: A contraction meaning it is. It's time to wake up.

## Lay/Lie

*Lay*: To place something, like an object, rather than a person; the verb lay must have an object. He always lays his paperwork on my desk.

*Lie*: To recline. After a long day's work, all I want to do is lie down.

## Prescribe/Proscribe

*Prescribe*: To recommend or authorize the use of something. The doctor prescribed medication to aid in my recovery.

*Proscribe*: To prohibit or ban someone from using or doing something. He was proscribed from throwing the first punch.

## Sit/Set

*Sit*: To be seated, an action meaning to be seated. Do not sit on your gun.

*Set*: To place something; set and lay are used similarly, and both require an object. Set the money on the counter.

## Than/Then

*Than*: A comparative word. My plan is better than yours.

*Then*: Represents sequence. We will eat dinner, and then go to the movies.

## Whose/Who's

*Whose*: Indicates possession. Whose idea was this?

*Who's*: A contraction meaning who is. Who's the president of MCU?

## Who/Whom

*Who*: The subject of a sentence, performer of an action. Who is in 10<sup>th</sup> battalion?

*Whom*: The object of a sentence, has something done to it. The person with whom you spoke about the plan is not here.

## Your/You're

*Your:* A possessive pronoun. Your uniform is on backwards.

*You're:* A contraction meaning you are. You're wearing your uniform backwards.

## That/Which

*That:* Used if a clause does not require a comma. The car that ran the red light was totaled.

*Which:* Used if a clause requires commas; if you can eliminate a clause without altering the main idea of a sentence, use which. The car, which was a Ford, was totaled.

## Endnotes

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- <sup>18</sup> Leedy and Ormrod, 142.
- <sup>19</sup> Russell G. Swenson, ed., *Research Design and Methods* (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, 2000), 61.
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- <sup>24</sup> David Kilcullen, "Counterinsurgency Redux," (2006): 2,  
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- <sup>35</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 745.
- <sup>36</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 770.
- <sup>37</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 776-777.
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- <sup>43</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 754.
- <sup>44</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 754.
- <sup>45</sup> Evelyn H. Ogden, *Completing Your Doctoral Dissertation or Master's Thesis* (Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Company, 1991), 87.
- <sup>46</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 259.
- <sup>47</sup> *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 260.

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