The Marine Corps University

COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

THE MARINE CORPS UNIVERSITY COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

FIFTEENTH EDITION

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FOREWORD

Effective written and oral communication skills are essential in professional military education and leadership development. As military and civilian interagency leaders, you need strong communication skills to brief, instruct, persuade, counsel, and motivate others. At Marine Corps University, you will use these skills to engage in critical debate with colleagues and to demonstrate your ability to understand and apply course material in written assignments. The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is a key communication resource that will provide you with the skills necessary to succeed both in the schoolhouse and upon return to your professional endeavors. Given the increasing complexities of the global security environment, effective communication is of paramount importance. A seminal work on military leadership, *The Armed Forces Officer*, acknowledges that military success in battle rests on officers' ability "to express concrete ideas in clear and unmistakable language" and "to make their thoughts articulate and understandable at all levels."[i] The increasing reliance on text as a way of moving policy forward makes these words as relevant today as when the manual was first published in 1950.

The fifteenth edition of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* establishes a consistent style of writing adapted from the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMOS), 17th edition. In the guide, you will find information regarding CMOS 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 and writing, which makes the guide an asset to students and faculty university-wide.

The use of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is in keeping with Marine Corps University's commitment to leadership communication throughout its academic programs, and I am pleased to provide you with this excellent resource. Best wishes for a successful academic year.

Brigadier General Maura M. Hennigan
President/Commanding General
Marine Corps University

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[i] Armed Forces Information Service, *The Armed Forces Officer* (Department of Defense, 1988), 36, https://www.marines.mil/portals/1/Publications/NAVMC%202563.pdf.

PREFACE

The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* was written and developed by the faculty in the Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC), an instructional communication support center for Marine Corps University (MCU) students, faculty, and staff. The LCSC mission is to help strengthen students' leadership by developing their written and oral communication skills through classroom instruction, written guidance, and one-on-one mentoring.

We intend this style guide to be a user-friendly resource to assist students in meeting coursework requirements and in completing written tasks and assignments upon their return to the operating forces. The guide is a condensed, simplified compilation of information from the *Chicago Manual of Style*, seventeenth edition; the National Intelligence University *Research and Writing* style guides; *Naval Correspondence Manual* guidelines; and guidance from Marine Corps University faculty, students, and staff. Examples in the guide are adapted from consenting MCU students' written products. Although the LCSC publication is not a replacement for the *Chicago Manual of Style* or other military writing guides, our use of MCU student examples and military citation references makes the guide more approachable for its intended readership.

The fifteenth edition of the guide introduces Podium Pages, which pertain to best practices in oral communication as part of the Profession of Arms curriculum. They are designed to clarify the fundamentals of presentation design, which often follows a different path than composing written work. Reference the table of contents for Podium Pages and look for the podium moniker as you browse the guide. This edition also includes a reorganization of Chapter Eight, which now includes more information about avoiding plagiarism. Finally, we have added more quizzes to the "Now You Try It" sections at the end of each chapter so you can test your knowledge.

It is our hope that our students gain valuable insight about how to convey important messages that change the way we approach warfighting in an increasingly complex global security environment. We are honored to serve the finest men and women from all branches of the United States Military, Department of Defense, government agencies, and foreign military allies and partners around the globe. We are here to support your goals this academic year and beyond, and we hope you find our guide useful in your writing and speaking endeavors.

Sincerely,
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication is one of the most important components of leadership. As a leader, the responsibility to mentor and inspire the people who work with you directly correlates with the need to communicate your vision and goals effectively. Developing strong written and oral communication skills will help you to convey your innovative ideas in a logical, coherent manner in order to put them into action or influence your leaders or subordinates to do so.

The processes of writing and thinking are interrelated, with writing acting as the highest manifestation of thinking.[1] At Marine Corps University, students must grapple with wicked problems and demonstrate deep critical thought in their written essays. Written and oral communication skills are thus not only a demonstration of thinking skills but also a requirement for graduates and future military leaders. The new doctrinal publication *Training and Education 2030* underscores the importance of critical thinking in preparation for future warfare: "[W]e need Marines who possess the intellectual ability to out-think their adversaries. We hone this ability through deep and active engagement with the brightest minds and the most challenging material, which forces Marines to contend with their assumptions, perceptions, and concepts."[2]

In both writing and speaking, it is important to analyze your audience and the context of the conversation to which you are contributing. Writing can be thought of as engaging in conversation with those in your academic community. Before you write about a topic, it is first important to read what others have written about your topic—you will want to write confidently and contribute new information to the conversation, which is similar to generating solutions to problems in your unit or command through spoken communication. Figure 1 depicts writing as a form of conversation.

Draft and share your contribution to the conversation.

Begin by reading about a topic or an issue, just as you'd listen for a while before speaking.

Look for something new to share with the other participants in the conversation.

Think carefully about what you've read, just as you'd think carefully about what you've just heard.
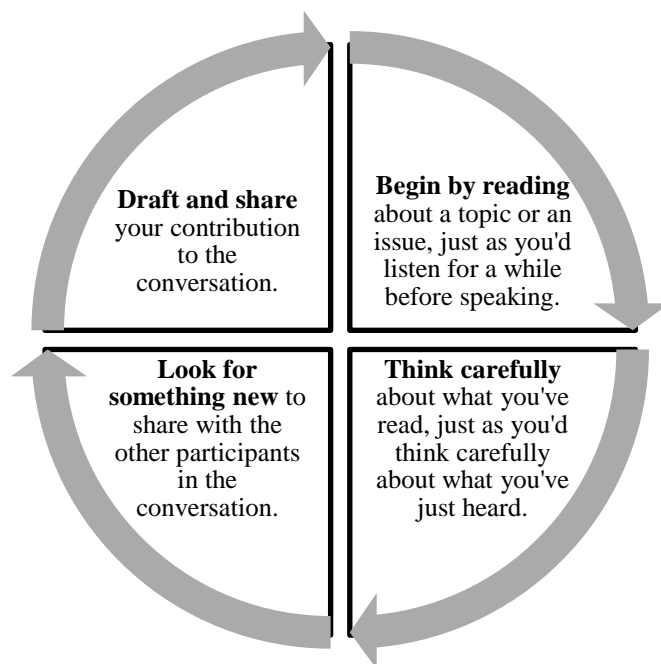
Figure 1: Writing as a Form of Conversation
Source: Mike Palmquist, *The Bedford Researcher,* 6th ed. (Boston: Macmillan Learning, 2018), 5.

1.1 Communication at Marine Corps University

Throughout Marine Corps University's degree-granting and affiliated non-degree-granting schools, academic programs focus heavily on developing communication skills. Students attending the Command and Staff College (CSC), School of Advanced Warfighting (SAW), and Marine Corps War College (MCWAR) will write a variety of papers throughout the course of the academic year—from bulleted background papers, to argumentative essays, to an academic research paper that presents the findings of a year-long research project. Students will also develop presentations suitable for a professional audience. Through these assignments, students learn not only how to structure academic and professional arguments but also about how writing can stimulate critical and creative thinking processes through its role in knowledge creation.

The importance of communication resounds in the College of Enlisted Military Education (CEME) as well. Students attending CEME courses write essays and professional papers that must present well-structured, supported arguments. As communication is a critical aspect of leadership and decision-making, the academic writing component present in the courses helps to build on this necessary skill for enlisted military service members. Further, Marines who wish to serve as curriculum developers for the enlisted force or as faculty advisors for the regional SNCO academies are required to have solid communication skills.

1.2 Taking Your Writing and Speaking beyond the Classroom

Communication skills—written, verbal, and non-verbal—play a vital role in leadership development. Current theories of leadership emphasize the ways in which leadership is constituted by language. A leader's communication style—spoken, written, and non-verbal—will determine whether his or her strategic vision is adopted or ignored.

Writing is one form of communication that is essential to your development as a leader, especially as we increasingly communicate through email and as leadership policies are codified in writing. As such, the writing you do is important not only to your success as a student but also to your professional growth.

One way to hone and develop your written communication skills is to write often and to take the writing you do seriously. Your experience at MCU provides you with time and space for writing that you will be unlikely to have once you return to the operating forces. Use your time wisely, and consider taking your writing beyond the classroom by submitting your work for publication or entering an essay competition.

Two competitions we would like to highlight are the Secretary of Defense National Security Essay Competition and the CJCS National Defense and Military Strategy Essay Competition. These competitions are meant to "stimulate thinking about national defense and military strategy, promote well-written research, and contribute to a broader security debate among professionals."[3] Submitting an essay to one of these competitions allows you to enter into a conversation about the most pressing issues facing national defense professionals today, and winning papers are published in *Joint Force Quarterly*. Though these JPME essay competitions occur each spring, you might want to start thinking about the contests early in the academic year.

For more information or to read last year's winning essays, visit: https://ndupress.ndu.edu/About/Essay-Competitions/. If the writing you wish to publish does not fit the requirements of the NDU essay contest, there are other military and history journals you might consider submitting to. Tables 50 and 51 in Appendix D provide an extensive list of publication and contest opportunities where you may submit your written work.

1.3   Professional Military Communication

During your time at the university, you will hone your writing and public speaking skills, not only in hopes of attaining an award or publication but also to improve your professional communication skills. Communication skills are needed in the operating forces to write orders, deliver inspiring speeches, brief superiors, send emails, and even engage with the media. In the operating forces, there are few chances to develop these skills, which is why they are so heavily emphasized in the schoolhouses.

The following chapters present a process for approaching written communication tasks, both professional and academic. Because these written tasks will likely require you to use outside resources to substantiate your claims, the text addresses the process of scholarly research. You will find a more in-depth discussion of the research process in Chapters Five and Six.

PART ONE: THE WRITING PROCESS

Good writing is rarely produced in one sitting. Writing involves multiple stages, and the best writing is often a result of a successful writing process. Though the amount of time you spend on each step of the process may change depending on the length, scope, and purpose of your assignment, the steps in the process are essentially the same, whether you are writing a standard operating procedure for your supervisor or a 30-page academic research paper. The following chapters provide you with guidance for approaching the writing process.

CHAPTER TWO: INVENTION
CHAPTER THREE: DRAFTING
CHAPTER FOUR: THE REVISION PROCESS
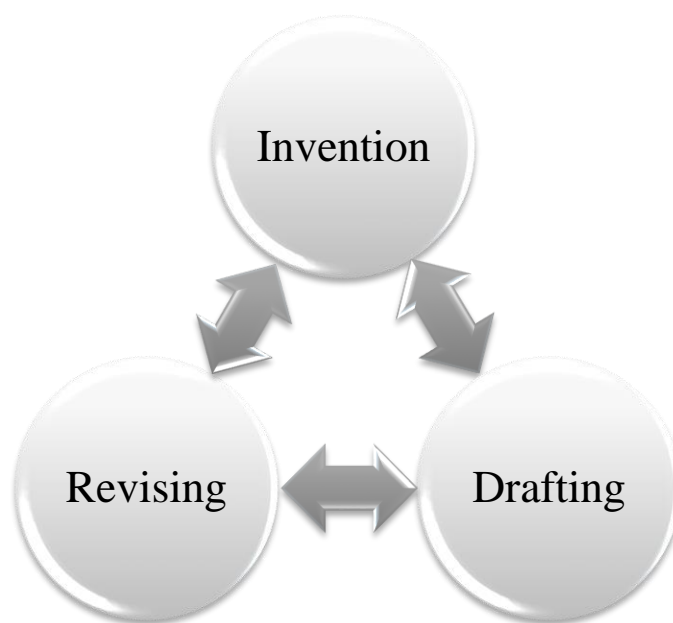
Figure 2: The Writing Process

It is no accident that writing is depicted as a recursive, cyclical process in figure 2. Though it seems logical that a writer will go through the invention stage before drafting or revising, the writing process does not follow a linear, step-by-step model. In fact, most writers frequently shift back and forth between different phases of the writing process. As you write, your ideas about your topic may begin to change; these changing ideas may require you to change the focus of your paper and move back to an earlier stage of the writing process. For instance, your thesis statement might change as you read more about your topic. You may then find yourself needing to remove some paragraphs that no longer support your new thesis statement, which is part of the revision process. At the same time, you will likely need to draft text to substantiate your new argument, which means you will enter into the drafting stage again. Further, different sections of the paper may be in different phases of the writing process. For example, the first few paragraphs might be in the polishing stage, while the last few paragraphs are still undergoing conceptual development. These are only a few examples of how you may cycle through the stages of the writing process multiple times before finalizing your document.

CHAPTER TWO: INVENTION

Because writing is an extension of thinking, you will need to examine your topic thoroughly before you write a complete first draft. This process of thinking about your topic is referred to as *invention*, though you may hear the process referred to as *prewriting*. Through invention, you can explore your topic and discover what you want to say about it. That is, writing becomes not only a vehicle for expressing thought, but also a process through which you may come to fully understand what it is you want to write about and the perspective you will take on the topic. Organizing arguments and supporting information before you sit down to draft is a component of invention. Though many students think of the traditional outline as the primary means for organizing ideas, this chapter includes several other techniques for putting your thoughts in order before you begin to draft. Chapter Two covers the following topics:

2.1   Understanding the Rhetorical Situation

The first step in the writing process is to understand the rhetorical situation you are encountering. The term **rhetorical situation** can be used to describe any scenario in which a speaker or writer attempts to convey a particular argument or claim to another person. The rhetorical situation is often depicted as the rhetorical triangle that positions the text between the author/speaker and audience. Figure 3 depicts the rhetorical triangle. We encounter rhetorical situations on a daily basis: we see advertisements on social media attempting to sell us products, we argue with a friend over where to go to lunch, we read an editorial about why our favorite sports team lost last week, and we see a commercial endorsing a candidate in a local election. All of these examples are born out of a specific situation in which a person or organization attempts to change the perspective of another individual or group of individuals.
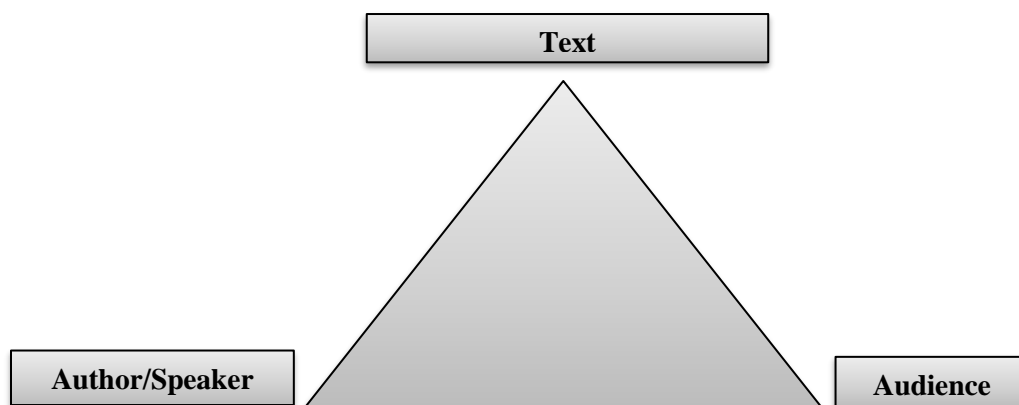
Figure 3: Rhetorical Triangle

Aristotle, who has provided many of the foundational concepts upon which modern rhetoric rests, claimed that the effectiveness of communication often results from the interaction of three types of appeals used for persuasion: **ethos**, **logos**, and **pathos**. Understanding the rhetorical situation through the rhetorical triangle can help you choose the most persuasive appeals for your argument and audience.

Ethos may refer to a writer or speaker's reputation or credibility and is often translated to mean "character." For instance, a Nobel Prize-winning scientist would likely have more credibility when speaking on matters of environmental policy than would a college sophomore. A writer may also demonstrate ethos by showing consideration for other points of view, even though the writer may ultimately debunk the opposing side's claims.[4]

Logos, which is often translated as "logic," actually means "discourse" or "reason." It refers to the rationale that is used to support the argument: Logos considers the types of examples that are used to support the argument and the way the argument is organized.

Pathos refers to emotional appeals that are used to influence the audience. Pathos considers how the audience might react to the message the speaker communicates.

Thinking critically about the interactions between these three appeals may help you to develop stronger arguments in your writing. For example, consider the argument that the Marine Corps needs a new type of recruiting and promotion system to attract and retain creative officers. What might the interaction between ethos, logos, and pathos look like in this context?

> **Claim:** The Marine Corps needs a new type of recruiting and promotion system to attract and retain a creative officer corps.

Ethos Considerations: What is your perspective on this topic in relation to your character, and what pressures drive the argument? That is, what makes it relevant at this time? What makes the current system of recruitment and promotion ineffective for attracting creative officers? What aspects of recruitment and promotion can be feasibly changed? Specifically, what types of changes will allow for a more creative officer corps? Why do you see this as a problem that can be solved through recruitment and retention rather than through other systemic means?

Logos Considerations: What types of evidence will you use to support your argument? Will you use statistics, a vignette, or interviews with senior officers? The types of evidence you use will depend on the other two factors—ethos and pathos. If your argument rests on the idea that current recruitment and promotion practices are failing, the evidence you would use might be different than if you were trying to argue that current recruitment and promotion practices are sufficient for today's fight but will fail in the future when the Marine Corps will need a different type of officer.

Pathos Considerations: Who is your audience? What types of appeals will inspire this audience? What types of appeals might the audience find alienating? If writing for a military audience, the writer would likely want to avoid suggesting that the entire officer corps lacks creativity. By the same token, the writer might be able to assume more familiarity with issues of

retention and promotion that may plague the armed forces (and that might not be familiar to a civilian audience). The following section includes more information about strategies for analyzing your audience.

2.2 Analyzing Your Audience

While attending Marine Corps University, your instructor will most likely be your audience, which means you will begin a writing assignment by analyzing the guidelines your instructor provides (**See sections 2.2.1 and 2.3 for more information about writing for an MCU audience**). However, when you leave the university you may need to spend more time thinking about your intended audience and its needs, interests, and biases. When writing for a like-minded audience, the purpose of your communication may be to facilitate group cohesion and solidify group beliefs; when writing for a hostile audience, your purpose may be to persuade your audience to adopt a new point of view. You can use the Audience Analysis Worksheet below to help you determine your audience's interests so that you can decide which strategies would be most effective.

Worksheet 1: Audience Analysis

1. What audience do you want to reach? What expectations do they have of you? What is your relationship with them, and how does this relationship affect your tone?
2. What is your audience's background—their education and life experiences?
3. What are their interests? What motivates them? Do they have any political attitudes or interests that may affect the way they read your piece?
4. Is there any demographic information about your audience that you should keep in mind, such as race, gender, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, or economic status?
5. What does your audience already know—or believe—about your topic? What do you need to tell them?
6. What kind of response do you want from your audience? Do you want them to do or believe something?
7. How can you best appeal to your audience? What kind of information will they find interesting or persuasive? Are there any design elements that will appeal to them?

Source: Richard Bullock, Michal Brody, and Francine Weinberg, *The Little Seagull Handbook,* 3rd ed. (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 2017), 3.

Your answers to the worksheet's questions will influence the choices you make about style, diction, tone, development, and organization of your communication. For instance, if you are writing a policy memo that is going to be used only within your unit, you might use more jargon and terms that are specific to your line of work than you would if you were writing the memo for an external reader. You would not feel the need to provide as much background information on the policy as you would if you were briefing an outsider. Figure 4 depicts how the focus of an essay might change to address a different target audience.

Explain sequestration to an American high school student.	**VS**	Explain sequestration to an international student attending EWS.
Explain the Marine Corps Planning Process to a group of lieutenants at the Basic School.	**VS**	Explain the Marine Corps Planning Process to a group of Air Force officers.
Write an email to your supervisor outlining the tasks you plan to accomplish this week.	**VS**	Write an email to your employees explaining the tasks you need them to accomplish this week.

Figure 4: Tailoring Writing to Needs of Intended Audience

2.2.1   Audience at Marine Corps University

Your intended audience for written assignments at Marine Corps University will likely be your instructor and/or your fellow students. If your audience is your professor, why has he or she assigned this topic? What might he or she expect you to do?

If you are attending the Expeditionary Warfare School or the Staff Non-Commissioned Officer Academy, most of the writing and presenting you do may be for your Marines. Bear in mind, however, that these Marines may still have different Military Occupational Specialties (MOSs) and may not be familiar with the jargon and terminology you use within your specific MOS. If you are attending one of the degree-granting schools, you will likely need to be even more conscious of the terminology and language you use, since these schoolhouses have students from all branches of the US military, from many different government agencies, and from international military organizations around the globe. Should you choose to submit a paper for publication, your intended audience may change, and so will the tone, organization, and word choice you use to convey your message. As you think about redefining your writing based on audience, think too about the changes you may need to make depending on the assignment guidelines. On the following page, you will see a podium page with information on how to analyze your audience in public speaking.
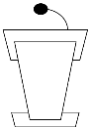
Podium Page – Analyzing Your Audience

Guidance in "2.2 Analyzing your Audience" translates well into public speaking; however, you will also want to keep the following considerations in mind when speaking to an audience.

1. **Allocated speaking time**: Time is the biggest factor in deciding the scope of your topic, as it is akin to the maximum word count in a paper. Decide how much content you can realistically cover for your audience's benefit. This will determine the breadth and depth of the subject matter and determine the number of slides you build.

2. **Size of the Audience**: Estimate how many people will be present at your speaking event. The number of available seats in the room is a good indication. Knowing audience size helps in preparing the type of speech delivery. A lecture followed by a question and answer session (Q & A) is suitable for large groups, such as one that fills an auditorium. An interactive class with discussion questions throughout works well for a medium group, such as a classroom. A malleable conversation-style brief with full participation from the audience works well for small groups, such as one that fits at a conference table.

3. **Technology in the classroom**: You can likely display a slide deck. It is important to know of the technology in your presentation space. Below are a few considerations to keep in mind.

- Determine if there is reliable internet service. This is relevant if you plan to share a link, stream a video, or invite virtual participants.
- Determine if there is audio capability. Cue your audio before the audience arrives to know where to set the proper volume.
- If speaking in a large space, ensure you have access to a microphone. You may have a preference between hand-held and a wearable lapel microphone.
- Ensure you have access to a clicker to move through your slides.
- Test the classroom technology before audience members arrive. Cue the video to adjust sound, test the microphone, and sample the controls on the clicker.

4. **Audience's familiarity of your topic**: The audience's prior knowledge intersects with public speaking time management. Ascertain what your audience already knows to distinguish crucial content from a mundane review. Belaboring familiar details absorbs time that is better used to explain new ideas. Offer a brief and concise background of a main point before proceeding to the new content.

5. **Time of day**: Audiences are most alert between breakfast and lunch. Afternoon audiences are more relaxed. Bear in mind it may take more effort to keep an afternoon audience engaged.

Below are some additional considerations to keep in mind when preparing presentations for virtual participants.

1. Use a software that accommodates participation so they may ask questions and participate in discussion.
2. Know where the camera is in the room, so that you may give virtual participants eye contact.
3. It is best practice to ask virtual participants to mute the microphone on their device until they participate with questions or discussion.

2.3　Identifying Key Words and Understanding Common Academic Writing Tasks

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 ensure 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. Below are three key steps you can take to ensure you meet the assignment requirements.

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

2.3.1　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, argue, or perform a combination of these tasks? 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 described approaches.

1. **Summarize:** to briefly provide the key concepts and main points
2. **Apply:** to use a learned concept, model, or idea in a new situation
3. **Argue:** to take a position and to justify that position with evidence
4. **Compare and Contrast:** to examine aspects of similarity and difference
5. **Evaluate:** to weigh the advantages and limitations, to assess
6. **Synthesize:** to combine existing elements in order to create something original
7. **Explain:** to show the meaning of something, to clarify
8. **Discuss:** to consider a subject from multiple points of view
9. **Analyze:** to break content into its components in order to understand the whole

You will often have to perform more than one cognitive task when you answer a test question or respond to a writing prompt. In fact, graduate-level work may require you to answer multiple sub-questions, even if the prompt proposes only one question. Below are examples of the sub-questions you may need to address to answer a test question or essay prompt fully.

A. Is the Marine Corps Planning Process (MCPP) still a useful tool for planners, or does it require revision?
    a. Is the MCPP still a useful tool for planners?
    b. If so, what are the specific characteristics that make the MCPP a useful tool for planners?
    c. If not, what aspects of the MCPP need to be changed? Why? How?
2. 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 "people's war?"
   b. What was the American military strategy during the American Revolution?
   c. How did "people's war" affect the course of the American Revolution?
3. Evaluate the United States' policy towards China.
   a. What is the current US policy towards China? What type of policy will the paper analyze (e.g., economic, military, diplomatic)?
   b. What factors could be used to evaluate the policy?
   c. Is the current policy effective according to these factors? Why or why not?
4. Analyze the outcome of the Battle of Belleau Wood.
   a. What were the objectives of the Battle of Belleau Wood?
   b. What was the outcome of the Battle of Belleau Wood?
   c. What factors led to this outcome?

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: bulleted papers, summaries, short essays, and research papers, among others. The type of paper you are asked to write will influence how you plan your approach. On the pages that follow, you will find analyses of the most common types of papers you are likely to write while a student at MCU.

2.3.2 Common Academic Writing Tasks

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. You can use summaries to accomplish the communication tasks listed below.

1. To briefly cover the main points of another author's idea, theory, or claim
2. To present an overview of a longer document
3. To provide a "recap" of a specific event (e.g., staff meeting minutes)

Below are strategies for writing a summary.

1. Include a signal phrase that indicates you are summarizing someone else's work.
   Example: In his article "The Interagency Problem," Max Hamilton claims that government agencies are often unable to share information with one another due to technological barriers.[1]
   Note: An endnote is used to cite the summarized source, even though the writer is not using a direct quotation. See Chapter Eight for more information on how to cite summarized material.
2. When summarizing an entire text (e.g., an entire book or chapter), break the text into its component parts.
   Example: If you are summarizing a chapter that is broken into three sections, you may want to focus on presenting the main point of each of these sections.

3. When summarizing a part of a work (e.g., a few pages or paragraphs), try writing a one-sentence summary of each paragraph, and then combine all of the sentences.
   Note: You may find some of the sentences cover the same idea, since many writers will develop one main idea over the course of several paragraphs. You do not need to repeat this idea in the same way that the original source does. Further, you will need to add transitions to connect these summary sentences so your paragraph reads as a unified, coherent unit as opposed to a collection of standalone sentences.
4. Attempt to put the text's concepts and ideas into your own words.
5. Put the text away while summarizing, and then reread the summarized text to check for accuracy.
6. Concentrate on presenting main themes; do not get caught up in the details.

While many different types of summaries exist, the **internal summary** is one of the most basic components of an academic research paper. An internal summary provides an overview of another author's work or ideas within a larger piece of writing. For instance, in a 30-page research paper, you will likely include several internal summaries of others' work, which you will use to show where your ideas fit in the broader critical conversation about your topic. You will likely not have enough space to provide direct quotations from all of your supporting sources; therefore, you will need to summarize some of the ideas these researchers present to capture the essence of their arguments without necessarily quoting their ideas word for word—this approach will allow you more space to develop your supporting arguments fully.

Argumentative Essay: Argumentative essays require you to take a position on a specific issue and to support that position with examples that serve as evidence for your position. Keep in mind that the argument you are making does not have to be something that you personally agree with in order to write the paper. In fact, you may encounter topics that you do not have feelings about at all. However, argumentative writing still requires you to take a stance on a particular issue and to support your claim. This often means taking a stance you feel most equipped to support or the side for which there is the most evidence. Though argumentative essays may consider other viewpoints, an argumentative essay should maintain a clear, consistent position throughout the document.

Argumentative essays may vary widely in length and focus; however, they must present a central argument (usually referred to as a thesis statement or claim) 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 will be.

Argumentative essays may include summaries of outside source material; however, they place far greater emphasis on the position taken by you, the author. The main component of an argumentative essay is the thesis statement (known as the central "claim" in the paper), which not only tells the reader what your paper will do but also presents a specific argument that establishes your position on your topic. For example, you might write the following:

```
The US Marine Corps will not have the capability to support
theater operational plans for forcible entry by the year
2025 due to limited numbers of amphibious assault ships.
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This statement makes a claim that can be opposed; thus, it can form the foundation of a truly argumentative essay. For more information about drafting an effective thesis statement, see section 3.4.

The Importance of Argument

Most essays you write at Marine Corps University will require you to present some type of argument, even if the assignment itself is not necessarily asking you to write an "argumentative" paper. For instance, compare and contrast essays, analytical essays, and critical reviews will all require you to develop some type of arguable thesis statement and to persuade your reader of your argument's viability. That is, these papers require you to take a stance on the ideas you are comparing, analyzing, or reviewing and to support that stance with an evidence-based argument. Chapter Three and Chapter Seven provide more detailed information about writing thesis statements.

Compare and Contrast Essay: A compare and contrast essay requires you to focus on the similarities and differences between two or more elements. Most of the compare and contrast essays you will write as a student at MCU will require you to compare two events (e.g., campaigns) or theories in order to reach a particular insight, but you may use the same strategies to approach any comparative paper. When writing a compare and 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 in the space allotted.

Much like the argumentative essay, the compare and contrast paper must have a thesis statement that tells the reader not only what the paper will cover and why it is important, but also the position you will take on your topic. Consider the following thesis statement:

```
The writings of Mao Zedong, Che Guevara, David Galula, and
Roger Trinquier have many similarities and differences.
```

This thesis is ineffective because it does not provide a rationale for the claim. What are the specific similarities and differences between these theorists' ideas about insurgency and counterinsurgency? Why is this important today? A more effective thesis statement for a compare and contrast paper might read as follows:

```
Mao Zedong, Che Guevara, David Galula, and Roger Trinquier
all advocate a form of war that focuses on the population
and integrates political strategy with military force,
though there are differences between Mao's Protracted War
and Che Guevara's Focoist strategy, and between Galula's
population-centric approach and Trinquier's insurgent-
centric approach.  The differences in approach between
```

13

> revolutionaries and counter-insurgents highlight the
> importance of adjusting broad strategies for revolutionary
> war and counterinsurgency to a specific local context.

This revised thesis statement is two sentences, which is sometimes necessary to respond adequately to a complex assignment. The first sentence shows the author's purpose is to compare and contrast specific characteristics of the four theorists' writings, while the second sentence demonstrates the significance or "so what" factor of the argument.

Analytical Essay: The analytical essays you will write at MCU usually require examination of an event or theory and require you to break that event or theory into its component parts to better understand its significance. Much like the arguable essay and the compare/contrast paper, the analytical paper will 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 a thesis statement that is arguable or persuasive in nature. For instance, consider the following statement:

> Numerous factors led to Russian success during the Russo-
> Finnish War.

While this may be true, it is not a claim that another researcher or writer could contest since the Russians won the war, and there was likely more than one reason for their victory. The paper requires a more specific, arguable statement in this case. A revised thesis statement might look like the example below.

> In the Russo-Finnish War, Finnish tactical failure
> ultimately factored into Finland's strategic demise; this
> demise occurred once the Soviets implemented vast campaign
> plan improvements, including better 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.

2.3.3   Scope

Once you have determined 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 essay, make sure to consider the following:

1. **Keep the essay length in mind and strive to cover a specific topic in detail rather than providing an overview of a broad topic.**
   Note: 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. Keep this in mind when deciding what details you can afford to leave out.

2. **Unless the assignment requires only a strict summary of a particular work, make sure you are analyzing, evaluating, and applying the concepts you learned in class as opposed to merely describing or rehashing course material.**

    Example: 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, focus on presenting the most important actions the government took during the Vietnam War and analyzing the effects of those actions.

3. **Think about the information that will be most important to your audience.**

    Example: If you are analyzing the costs of replacing aging aircraft, it may not be necessary to write about the aircraft's capabilities.

Having considered the scope of the assignment, it will be easier for you to come up with specific, concrete ideas as you prepare to draft.

2.4   Invention Strategies

Unless your instructor requires you to turn in a specific type of "invention" document (such as an outline or a paper proposal), the inventing you do does not need to take on any specific form or structure. Rather, you can think of invention as preparation for the writing you do. Some individuals may even prefer to talk through their topics with a classmate or faculty member instead of doing preliminary writing. The more time you spend thinking about your topic before you begin to draft, the less time you will need to spend writing and revising.

2.4.1   Mind Mapping

Mind mapping is a form of scribbling, outlining, or note taking in which you literally map out your ideas. Mind maps can be useful, not only for helping you to organize information before you begin to draft but also in helping you to determine the scope and focus of your paper. You can create mind maps on paper or by using graphic design platforms and presentation tools like Canva, Prezi, and Adobe Spark. In figure 5, you will see a mind map that depicts the reconstruction of Japan. As you can see, the boxes that branch off from the main topic present the types of reforms (political, social, and economic) that Japan implemented. The "political reforms" branch is further developed to include specific types of political reforms. In the case of figure 5, a "Reconstruction of Japan" mind map, the author's specific examples concentrate primarily on the political reforms implemented in Japan; therefore, the author may decide political reconstruction should be the primary focus of the paper. On the other hand, if the assignment requires you to discuss political, economic, and social reforms, you may want to think about adding specific examples to the mind map's other two components before drafting to improve the argument's balance.
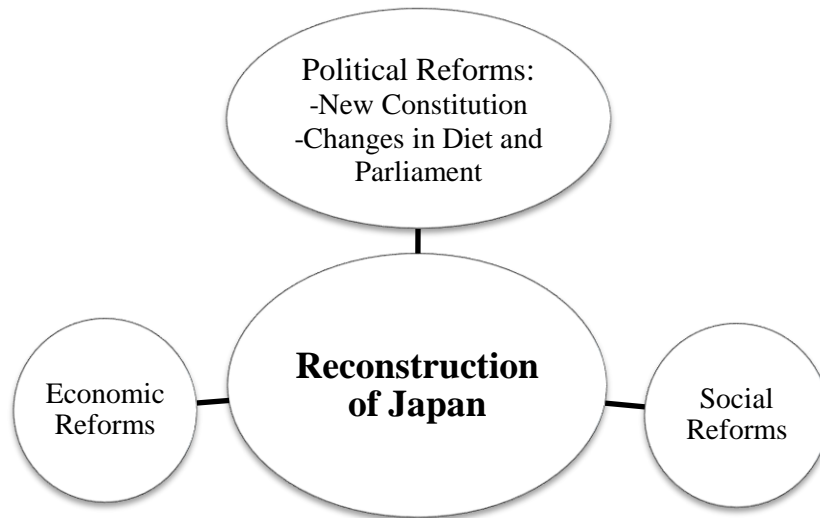
Figure 5: Reconstruction of Japan Mind Map Example

Sometimes you may begin mind mapping in order to see the component parts of the topic you plan to write about. This approach may help you to develop your central argument (your thesis statement). At times, you may create a mind map after developing a working thesis statement in order to determine how you might support that thesis statement in the paper. Figure 6 presents an example of this process.
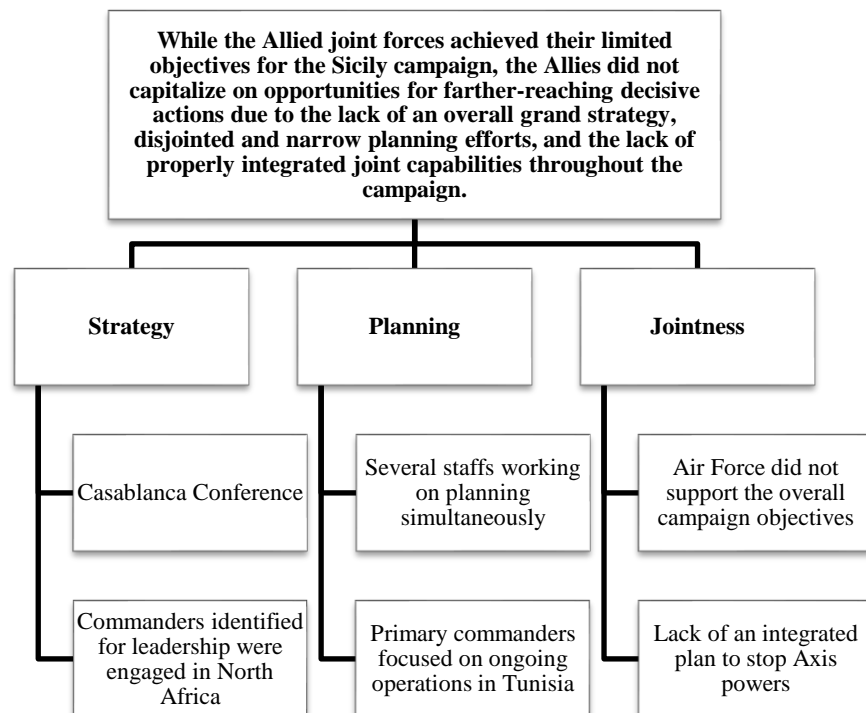
Figure 6: Sicily Campaign Mind Map Example

2.4.2 Traditional Outline

The mind maps pictured in figures 5 and 6 comprise only one method for thinking about your topic. While some writers may be more comfortable with this free-flowing invention method, others may prefer to develop their ideas in a more linear fashion, such as a traditional outline.

An outline allows you to see your main points on paper and to organize them strategically before you begin to write. This strategy may be particularly important when writing a research paper that requires you to use multiple sources to support your ideas. By outlining your research and grouping similar sources together, you can more easily see where you need additional research or evidence to support your argument. Outlining gives you the chance to read and evaluate the ideas you have already generated.

Below are some common argumentative strategies for organizing the main points of your outline.

Argumentative Organizational Strategies:

1. **Problem-Solution-Counterargument:** begins with establishing the problem, then proposing a solution to address the problem, and finally confronts the counterargument.
2. **Cause-Effect-Solution:** identifies the variables that cause harm, examines the harmful effect(s), and proposes a solution.
3. **Problem**-**Cause-Solution:** examines the problems, argues the causes, and proposes solutions.

Some MCU papers might be more analytical than argumentative. That is, they might be more concerned with application of a theory or breaking a problem down into its component parts as opposed to making a particular claim about a problem or presenting a solution. Below is an example of how to use an analytical strategy to organize your ideas.

Analytical Organizational Strategy:

1. **Theory-Application-Implication**: Begin by introducing the theory, doctrine, or model and define the tenets you will use as an analytical lens. Then, apply the lens to the subject you intend to analyze. Finally, draw implications or a conclusion of what the analysis reveals.

While most of the writing you do at MCU will be structured as an argument or analysis, your larger argument might have shorter supporting pieces that are organized using more informative strategies. If you are writing a short informational paper, directive, or background paper, the entire document could be organized using an informative organizational strategy.

Informative Organizational Strategies

1. **Chronological order:** organizes elements in the outline into major stages. You can use this type of organization when describing a process or event.
2. **Classification:** divides material into major categories and distinguishes between those categories. You may use this type of organization when discussing the main factors that gave rise to a particular conflict or event.
3. **In order of importance:** arranges supporting items so the most important point comes first. You may use this type of organization when writing for an audience who may not have time to read your entire document or when writing for an audience who may not agree with your argument.
4. **Compare and contrast:** organizes items in terms of similarities and differences. You might use this type of outline to prepare for a paper that compares and contrasts two campaigns or theories.

Outlines may follow a variety of formats, though traditional outlines typically use the following levels of organization:

1. Roman numerals (I, II, III)
2. Capital letters (A, B, C)
3. Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3)
4. Lowercase letters (a, b, c)

Figures 7 and 8 display examples of two-level and three-level outlines. The levels of organization you decide to include in your outline may depend on your instructor's guidelines (if you are turning in the outline for a grade) or on your desired level of detail. While some writers may feel comfortable writing a first draft after making a list of two or three key supporting points, others may feel more confident and ready to write after developing a detailed outline. Keep in mind a highly structured, detailed outline may make the writing process faster and easier since you will have already thought through and developed your main supporting examples. At the same time, you should not feel you have to adhere to the structure of your outline if your ideas about your topic begin to shift as you write. If this happens, it may be useful to outline your paper again after you draft so that your second outline can serve as a tool to help you in your revision. Remember that an outline is a guide and should not restrict the development of ideas.

Thesis: While the Allied joint forces achieved their limited objectives for the Sicily campaign, the Allies did not capitalize on opportunities for farther-reaching decisive actions due to the lack of an overall grand strategy, disjointed and narrow planning efforts, and improperly integrated joint capabilities throughout the campaign.

I. Allies did not have an overall grand strategy
    A. Casablanca Conference
    B. Commanders identified for leadership were engaged in North Africa and were unable to plan for operations in Sicily
II. Allies' planning efforts were disjoined and narrow
    A. Several staffs working on planning at once
    B. Primary commanders focused on operations ongoing in Tunisia
III. Allies lacked properly integrated joint capabilities
    A. Lack of an integrated plan to stop the Axis evacuation
    B. Air Force did not support the overall campaign objectives, nor did ground forces receive the air support they required

Figure 7: Two-Level Traditional Outline Example

Thesis: Possession of nuclear weapons is a privilege, not an inherent right. In order to possess nuclear weapons, nations should need to demonstrate responsibility to the global community and must have appropriate levels of security concerning employment of nuclear weapons.

I. Until it can prove its responsibility and accountability to the global community, no nation has the right to have nuclear weapons.
    A. Defining of actions that demonstrate global responsibility.
        1. Expending treasure to develop nuclear weapons.
        2. A history of rational, predictable actions when dealing with other members of the global community.
    B. The global community should prevent countries that do not meet these standards from gaining access to nuclear weapons.
        1. Nuclear weapons are an extremely powerful force and could have dire consequences for the global community.
        2. The global community cannot risk a random nuclear attack.
II. In order to possess nuclear weapons, nations should need to demonstrate appropriate levels of security.
    A. Being responsible with nuclear weapons also means securing such weapons against their seizure by terrorist groups and non-state actors.
        1. A nation must have enough capital to invest in security mechanisms to protect against this type of seizure.
        2. A nation must have the manpower to secure its nuclear weapons.
    B. A nation's ability to provide this type of security must be continuously assessed.
        1. Example: Soviet Russian States lost the ability to maintain airtight security of nuclear weapons after the dissolution of the Soviet Union.
        2. The rise of non-state actors may cause security situations to change quickly.

Figure 8: Three-Level Traditional Outline Example

2.4.3 Listing

Another less-structured form of invention is to list everything that comes to mind about your topic. This strategy may be particularly useful if you are attempting to narrow a topic or if you do not have a clear idea of the specific question you want your paper to address. Figure 9 is an example of a list you might use before starting to draft a paper about "principles of good writing."

Principles of Good Writing

1. Has a focused thesis statement
2. Contains topic sentences
3. Is clear and concise
4. Is free of grammatical errors
5. Has logically organized paragraphs
6. Presents original thought
7. Has a clear purpose
8. Normally contains an introduction, body, and conclusion
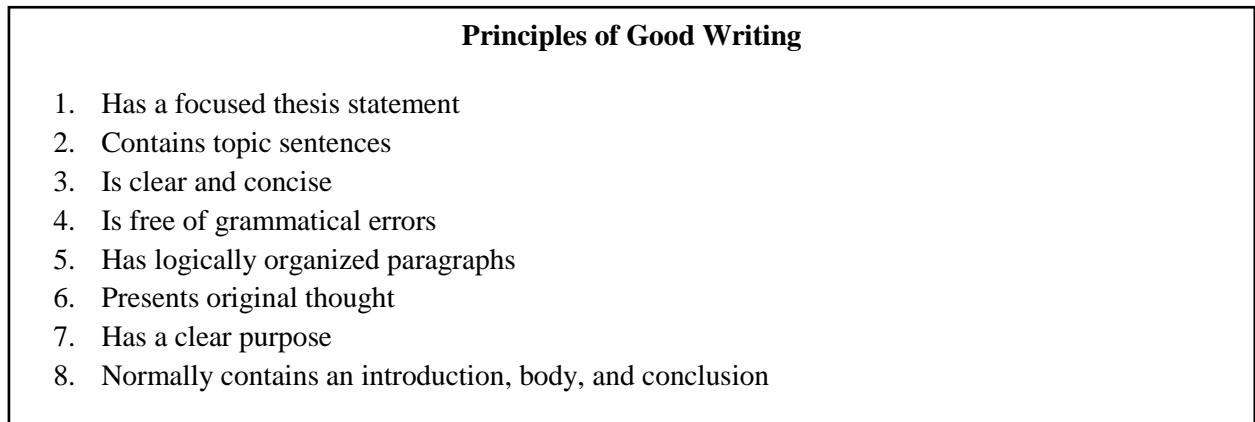
Figure 9: Listing Approach Example

Listing is an approach that will help you to think about your subject, but you will often need to go back and make a more structured outline or mind map before you begin to write in order to get a sense of where each supporting idea might fit in your paper. For instance, though all of the items listed in figure 9 relate to principles of good writing, the individual items in the list are not arranged in any particular order. Below are a few strategies you may use when thinking about how to make a structured outline from a list.

Outlining Strategies

✓ Look for trends and connections between listed elements.
✓ Identify "outliers" (items that do not seem to have anything in common with the other listed elements).
✓ Think about specificity: Do some of the items belong to a larger category? (In figure 9, the thesis, purpose, and original thought might be "big picture" characteristics of good writing, while conciseness and proper grammar focus on surface-level elements.)
✓ Think about how the elements fit within the scope of the paper. Which items are most important? Which items will you have enough time and space to cover, considering the assignment length and amount of time you have to complete your paper?

2.4.4 Matrix

Another tool you may use to organize ideas in your writing and research is a matrix. A matrix allows you to compare multiple elements or see the progression of a particular idea or concept. For this reason, matrices may be useful when you are attempting to show trends or patterns in the data you collect. Matrices may also be helpful when you

are attempting to synthesize or compare several texts, events, or theories. For instance, you might use Table 1 to organize your thoughts if your instructor asked you to determine the relevance of *On War, The Art of War,* and *MCDP-1.* Table 2 might help you consider trends in 20th century US foreign policy.

Table 1: Textual Relevance Matrix

	Source 1: *On War*	Source 2: *The Art of War*	Source 3: *MCDP-1*
Main idea text presents			
Examples/arguments author uses to support main idea			
Source relevance to current military operations			

Table 2: US Foreign Policy Trends and Shifts since 1914 Matrix

	WWI: 1914-1920	WWII: 1941-1945	Cold War: 1947-1991	1992-Present
Characteristics of US foreign policy during this period				

The Venn diagram in figure 10 may help you to think about similarities and differences between two events, systems, or theories.

Cause: views insurgency as a political war

Strategy: win hearts and minds, establish legitimacy

Actors: generally view insurgency as conflict between two interest groups

Both models stress non-military action.

Cause: views insurgency as a global conflict

Strategy: disaggregation, prevent enemy from mobilizing

Actors: view insurgency as conflict between multiple interest groups or insurgents

Figure 10: Venn Diagram Model

2.4.5 Freewriting

Freewriting[5] is a strategy that some writers use to get started with a writing project. In an interview with the Media Education Foundation, Peter Elbow, who is often credited with introducing the concept of freewriting, defines the process as follows:

> The idea is simply to write for ten minutes (later on, perhaps fifteen or twenty). Don't stop for anything. Go quickly without rushing. Never stop to look back, to cross something out, to wonder how to spell something, to wonder what word or thought to use, or to think about what you are doing…The only requirement is that you never stop.[6]

Many students find freewriting helps them to overcome writer's block and to generate new ideas about a topic. You may do this at any stage of the writing process—you may use it to help you determine a topic, to generate ideas about a topic you have already selected, or to further develop a particular paragraph or section when you feel stuck. Some students may find they need to write freely before they can sit down and construct an outline, since the process of writing often helps learners to think through their topics. Other students may freewrite to generate a topic and construct an outline, and then do so again to further develop supporting points. There are no rules as to how or when to do this activity; the only requirement is to keep writing.

In order to begin a freewriting exercise, you will want to write—by hand or on your computer or tablet—for at least ten minutes. Write at a steady pace, and allow your thoughts to flow. Keep writing, and let the words fill up the paper. Do not worry about spelling, grammar, or logic; your goal with freewriting is simply to get your ideas into words and onto paper. If you are stuck, Elbow advises you to write the same word over and over again until your mind takes you somewhere else. When you stop writing, read over what you have written. You are bound to find you have generated some interesting ideas that may turn into new lines of inquiry.

Freewriting Strategies

1. Write down anything that comes to mind about your topic.
2. Do not worry about grammar, mechanics, or organization of ideas.
3. Set a time limit.

➡️ **Be aware your freewriting will likely not become a first draft. You will need to reorganize your ideas, and you will probably decide to discard parts of the writing completely. Therefore, it is important not to become too attached to any of the products you develop during your freewriting sessions.**

2.4.6 Talking Outline

Though some writers may graphically map out or outline their papers before they begin drafting, others begin the invention phase by talking through their thoughts with a friend,

colleague, or instructor. If you find it is easier for you to have a conversation about your topic than it is for you to put your ideas on paper, then you may want to consider using an iPhone, computer, iPad, or any other device that has an audio recording capability to capture your ideas about your topic. You can then play back the recording and write down what you believe to be the most important points—this information may eventually take the form of a written outline, list, or mind map.

2.4.7 Elevator Speech

Regardless of whether you prefer to work from a talking outline, mind map, or written outline, practicing an elevator speech about your topic will often help you to focus your writing.

Elevator Speech Strategies

An elevator speech is a short statement that tells your reader specifically what your paper is about and what it will argue—something you would be able to communicate in the amount of time spent on a short elevator ride.

Draft Elevator Speech: "My paper will focus on tactics the Finnish army used during the Russo-Finnish War and how they were successful at first, but then the Finns could not get the support they needed from Britain and France. The Finns were eventually overwhelmed by the Russian troops."
> ➢ This statement would likely leave your faculty member puzzled about the central purpose of your paper.

Revised Elevator Speech: "The Soviets' use of intelligence, effective combined arms, and logistics efforts led them to win the Russo-Finnish War."
> ➢ This statement tells the reader precisely what the paper will argue and what supporting factors you will consider.

2.4.8 Invention Templates for MMS, Future War, and IRP Papers

When writing a paper with an open topic, it may be difficult to decide where to begin. As a professional who has a great deal of practical experience in your field, you may want to begin the process of selecting a topic by reflecting on your experience as a military officer or government agency official. For instance, you may wish to investigate a particular problem or phenomenon you experienced in the field or to learn more about a particular technological system a sister service is using. The next few invention templates may help you think about your prior experience and how it might lead to a topic for your Master of Military Studies (MMS), Independent Research Project (IRP), Future War Paper (FWP), or Arguable Research (AR) paper.

Table 3: Sample Invention Template

Assignment Location	Duty Assignment	Major Duties or Projects	Possible Topic Areas
Frankfurt, Germany	Chief, Intelligence Division, V Corps G2 Commander, Special Security Detachment	-Contingency plans -Threat briefings	-IC support to US commands -All-source intelligence analysis -Targeting -Intelligence writing & briefing
Fort Gordon, Georgia	(SSO), US Army Signal School	-Security of SCI -Physical security -"Black book"	-Improving SCI document security -Improving physical security in SCIFs -Intelligence support to TRADOC schools
The Pentagon	Intelligence Support Coordinator, NATO and SHAPE	-Intel support to HQ NATO, SHAPE, and EUCOM -Products and briefings	-Improving intelligence support to NATO -Facilitating intelligence release to allies -Better IC support to a unified command

Source: Adapted from Donald M. Murray's *Write to Learn*, 2nd edition.

While table 3 focuses on using specific personal experiences to discover a topic, worksheet 2 provides a template that may help you determine your purpose and further develop your topic.

Worksheet 2: Blank Invention Template

Topic	1. Name your topic: I am studying _____
Question	2. Imply your question: because I want to find out who/how/why/whether_____
Significance	3. So what? so that_____

As you transition from the invention stage to the drafting stage, remember to be flexible. Do not be afraid to deviate from your outline—many writers find once they begin drafting, their ideas begin to shift. Be aware, however, if you decide to take the paper in a new direction, you will need to make sure all of the components in the paper still support one central argument. You may even want to create a new outline that better suits your new purpose and focus. Chapter Three provides more information about the process of drafting and useful drafting techniques. The podium pages section on the following page provides invention strategies you might use to prepare for a speech or briefing.
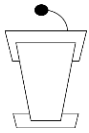
🎙 Podium Page - The Invention Process in Public Speaking

Developing your presentation main idea - Like a thesis statement in an essay, declare your main idea early in your presentation. The point of a presentation is to impact an audience in a way that a document will not. Be cognizant of what you can bring to the floor, such as subject matter expertise in action, stories/experiences that pique the audience's interest, and an engaging delivery to enhance the audience's attention span on the subject.

Mind Mapping

Mind mapping, as illustrated in 2.4 Invention Strategies, is useful in developing a presentation. You are the vessel of your message, and your slides are there to clarify your message. Understand that presentations are visual, which makes mind mapping a clever tool to visualize the main points. Show the audience what they cannot imagine with words alone. See your main points in your mind, like items on a shelf. Then, organize the items in a pattern that is most likely to resonant with the audience. Rather than developing a traditional outline, as done in the writing process (2.4.2), draw your mind map, and consider this a rough draft of a visual representation to use in your presentation.

Your mind map easily translates into an image to refine on a presentation slide. When an audience sees how ideas connect, they are likely to retain what they have learned. The process is best done on paper, or a device that allows you to draw free-hand. Your idea should take shape in big and general pieces. Write words inside of shapes, draw arrows between connecting ideas, and use color. Once you've sketched out your ideas, look for features in your presentation software for charts, text boxes, mind map templates, and drawing tools to create a professional image.

Scribble your agenda slide so your audience can see how the main ideas connect.
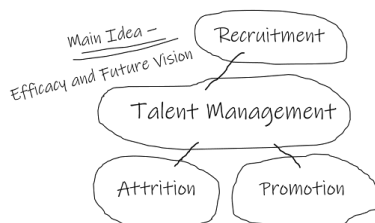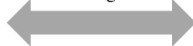
When developing the content of main ideas such as a process, a timeline, a relationship, or a hierarchy, scribble these images as rough draft ideas for your slides. Design a chart or graph with the information you want to convey. For instance, a comparison of attrition and retention is best conveyed with a graph.

What current structure looks like

E-4
E-3
E-2

Potential Restructure/Overlap

E-4
E-3
E-2
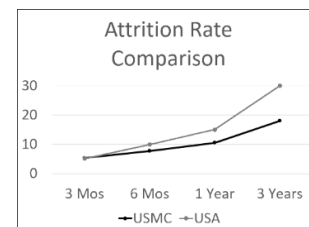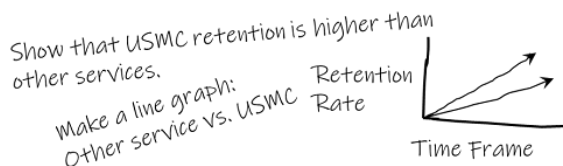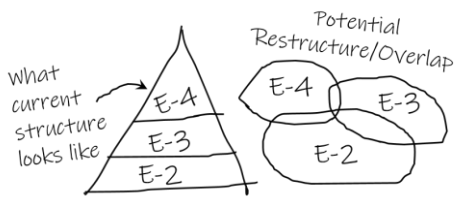
A comparison between a current organizational structure against what a restructure could look like. Insert a SmartArt graphic to convey the mind-map scribbles.

Efficacy: Present and Future

E-4
E-3
E-2

E-4
E-3
E-2

Recruitment Stats from last year:

35 38
18
15 20 20

Enlisted   Officer   Diversity
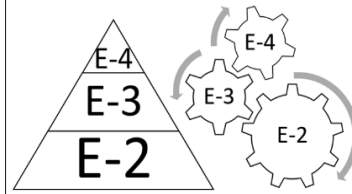
Statistical trends or patterns are best captured with charts and graphs. Insert a graph that conveys the scribble of the statistics.

Recruitment Statistics from Last Year

40
30
20
10
0

OFFICER   ENLISTED   DIVERSITY

■ FY GOALS   ■ FY RESULT
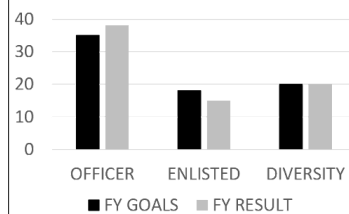
CHAPTER THREE: DRAFTING

Drafting refers to the process of putting your ideas on paper in a structured format. By the time you begin drafting, you should have a good sense of the paper's purpose, audience, and how you will approach your topic. As mentioned in Chapter Two, you should not feel constrained by the planning you did during the invention stage. Your ideas will probably shift and change as you begin drafting. You may even take a completely new perspective on your topic. Likewise, because writing is a recursive process, you may perform some aspects of invention during the drafting phase. For instance, you may map out or outline your supporting paragraphs before you draft them. Similarly, you may find one of your supporting points no longer serves your purpose. In these cases, you may need to revisit some of the products you created during the invention stage and develop new supporting elements. The main sections of this chapter are listed below.

3.1   Strategies for Approaching the Drafting Process

Listed below are several strategies that may be useful to you as you begin to draft.

1. **Accept that the first draft will not be your final draft.**
2. **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 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 or faculty review.
3. **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.
4. **Consult your outline as you draft to make sure you are staying on topic.** At the same time, do not become so fixated on your outline that you are unable to make changes if your ideas on your topic shift.
5. **Do not attempt to edit your paper as you draft**. Instead, focus on writing your ideas. You can reevaluate logic, structure, grammar, and word choice once you have a complete first draft. It is often helpful to step away from your completed draft for a short period of time and come back with a fresh set of eyes.
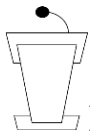
Podium Page – The Presentation Drafting Process

Strategies for Approaching the Drafting Process 3.1 are adaptable to drafting a presentation. This is an extension of your invention mind map, and it entails putting your ideas on slides and/or writing your presentation notes. Your audience will benefit from your presentation if you follow the **CORE** plan: **C**lear, **O**rganized, **R**etainable, and **E**ngaging.

Clear: Keep content simple, direct, and relevant. Audiences appreciate knowing the Bottom Line up Front (BLUF) early in the presentation. Make it clear to the audience why it is prudent to speak on this subject rather than distribute a written document.

Organized: Your presentation should have several main points, and 3-5 is optimal. Develop content that is appropriate for each main point and keep main points distinct and separate. Audiences appreciate presentations that have an apparent organization.

Retainable: The average person can listen to and retain 150 *spoken* words per minute in contrast to reading and retaining 300 *written* words per minute. Belaboring details breeds audience disengagement. You can share the details in a link or document if there is a request for more information. Share only what is necessary to understand the subject and make your point.

Talent Management
• It is important to review the current structure of talent management in the Marine Corps.
• In doing so, we can make assessments on the efficacy of the current talent management methods.
• We can look at how attrition and promotion impacts retention impacts the USMC.
• There are connections between recruitment, attrition, and promotion.
• It is necessary to discuss the future vision of USMC talent management.

Slides belabored with details in text are difficult to retain.

Simple and clear mind maps are easier to retain.

Engaging: If you are bored with the content of your presentation, your delivery will reflect that. Likewise, you will bore your audience. Prioritize the urgent, important, and relevant areas of your subject matter. Audiences respond well when they sense a purpose to listening carefully. Engaging delivery entails thinking about your presentation as a conversation, no matter the venue.

General Presentation Guidelines with Visual Aids: Drafting Your Slides
PowerPoint is a widely accepted platform for slide decks that can be saved on a secure drive. For these reasons, this section assumes PowerPoint as the preferred presentation software. If you have the prerogative to hang your slides in a cloud, Google Slides is a widely used application with similar features.

Background Design: Select a simple design theme that affords you room to illustrate your ideas clearly through images and text. White backgrounds are best, as they are easy to work with, display well in presentation mode, and use less ink if printed.

Using Graphics to Illustrate Ideas: In PowerPoint, familiarize yourself with the "Insert" tab. There, you will find illustration options that are a great help in visualizing your ideas. Try "SmartArt" to find a template that matches your mind map, "Chart" to visually represent statistics, or "Shapes" to create a custom image. The "Text Box" feature is best to add text over shapes.
Video from Goodwill Community Foundation - LearnFree.org, "PowerPoint: Smart Art Graphics."
Video from Goodwill Community Foundation - LearnFree.org. "PowerPoint: Charts."

Most papers contain three main parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The introduction gives the reader a sense of what the paper will be about and the issue it will examine. It presents the reader with the thesis and sets the stage for the rest of the paper. The body provides evidence and ideas to support the thesis. Finally, the conclusion revisits the paper's main ideas and closes the argument. In addition to the introduction, body, and conclusion, a research-based paper might include front matter such as a table of contents, preface, and acknowledgements; it might also contain back matter such as appendices, endnotes, and a bibliography. The length, focus, and nature of these parts of the paper will vary depending on the type of writing task you have undertaken. For instance, in longer papers, the body may contain several paragraphs covering separate topics related to the thesis; shorter papers, on the other hand, may include only one paragraph to discuss each supporting point.

3.3   Writing the Introduction

The introduction to your paper should draw the reader into the topic. This part of the paper is your opportunity to use your voice to explain what the paper is about. The introduction varies 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 be only a short paragraph. If you are writing a fifty-page paper, however, your introduction may be several paragraphs long. Generally, the introduction contains enough background information to lead up to your thesis statement. The thesis statement is usually the last sentence (or group of sentences) in your introduction, but you should place the thesis statement where it will be most effective for the purposes of your paper and for the reader's needs. An effective introduction should accomplish the following tasks:

1. Capture the reader's **interest**.
2. Present sufficient **context** for the reader to understand your argument.
3. Establish your **purpose** for writing.
4. Present a **thesis statement** that you will support in the body of the paper.

Capturing the Reader's Interest: You might present a controversial claim, a lesser-known fact, or a vignette to gain the reader's interest.
Presenting Context: The introduction should present the problem or phenomenon you will discuss in the paper and provide relevant background information about the topic or issue.
Establishing Purpose: The introduction should tell the reader why your topic is significant and why the reader should care about your topic.
Presenting a Thesis Statement: By the end of the introduction, the reader should have an understanding of what the paper will argue and why this argument is valuable. Almost all academic writing should present some type of arguable thesis statement.

While you may draft an introduction before writing the body of the paper, your ideas will frequently begin to shift and evolve as you complete your research. Just as you may need to adjust your thesis statement throughout the research and writing process, you may need to adapt the introduction to the new ideas you introduce later in the paper. Since it is often difficult to

know exactly what shape the paper will take before you sit down to write, you may want to begin the drafting process by developing a strong thesis statement and supporting body paragraphs. When you finish writing the body of the paper, you can return to 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. Therefore, even if you have crafted what you think is a strong introduction before developing the body paragraphs, that introduction may no longer suit the paper upon completion. Figure 12 presents an example of an introduction written by a student during the 2015-2016 academic year for the assignment prompt displayed in figure 11.

Assess military innovation in the Interwar Period. To do so, you must analyze either (1) a nation and its military establishment writ large (e.g., the Soviet Union or the United Kingdom) or (2) a single military service (e.g., USMC or USAAC). In the process of doing so, evaluate how this one nation (and its military establishment) or military service innovated and changed its paradigm of how to undertake the conduct of warfare. In your analysis, you should consider (as appropriate) the influence of the following factors on innovation: (1) military culture, doctrine, theory, and organization; (2) individual innovators; and (3) national policy. Your analysis should not focus on who "got it right" but rather on the factors that shaped their conception of what they thought "right" was and the process by which they innovated for the next war.

Figure 11: Assignment Prompt for Innovation Essay
Source: Marine Corps University, "Innovation Essay," course card, 2015.

Establishes Context and Purpose: The interwar period between 1918 and 1945 was an extraordinary phase in military innovations. While there was a diminished appetite amongst nations for war, a number of influential military officers demonstrated the doggedness, foresight, and willingness to champion groundbreaking innovations that would influence national fates in World War II. In the land domain, the undisputed leader in operational maneuver innovation remained German General Heinz Wilhelm Guderian. Whilst there remained notable German military leaders, such as General Ludwig Beck and General Werner von Fritsch who contributed greatly to Germany's Panzer forces, Guderian's radical approach, optimism, and outright obnoxious behavior in championing the new form of armor warfare remained the catalyst for German success. As stated by noted historian Williamson Murray, "'Hammering Heinz' at one time or another antagonized virtually every single senior officer in the army."[1] **Presents Argument:** Guderian, a Prussian veteran of World War I, played a pivotal role, despite international sanctions against Germany and constrained resources, in transforming the German military during the interwar period and revolutionizing warfare through innovation in three critical areas: operational maneuver, armored doctrine, and armor technology. **Develops** "**So What**" **Factor:** These innovations would prepare Germany for its initial successes in WWII and introduce the war to Blitzkrieg.

Figure 12: Sample Student Introductory Paragraph for Innovation Essay

Below are common pitfalls to avoid when drafting your introduction:

Vague terms: Vague terms include undefined acronyms, abstract ideas and concepts, and subjective expressions.
Broad, sweeping statements: These types of statements include trite, overused expressions and overgeneralizations, such as "from the beginning of time."

Including information that is too specific: If you want to investigate how George Washington shaped the Continental Army, you do not need to provide examples of his leadership style in the introduction. Save these specific details for the body of the paper.

Using an overabundance of citations: While you may need to define some key terms in the introduction, too much directly quoted and cited information in the introduction can also take away from your voice. You can define some of the paper's terminology in a background section.

Creation of suspense: The readers should not have to "dig" or read beyond the introduction to get a sense of what the paper is about. Figure 13 is an example of an introduction that demonstrates some of these pitfalls.

<table>
<tr>
<td>

Has this idealism remained credible? This seems to be an important point, but it is not clear as to whether this statement is meant to make a case for realism or idealism.

</td>
<td rowspan="2">

Since World War I, United States foreign policy has often appeared polarized to the casual observer, political commentator, and most astute of diplomats: on one side of the ledger sits Wilsonian values, driving global security and interdependence under the banner of liberalism; on the other is a more determined show of strength forged from the realism of the First World War and Second World War.[1] Significant events challenging the international landscape since World War I have drawn realist responses, but overall United States actions have been characterized by Wilsonian **idealism**. This idealism only remains credible when a nation is prepared to intervene, which is why the United States' foreign policy sometimes appears to take more of a realist tone. **Consequently, Wilsonian idealism is as alive today as it was when Woodrow Wilson first put forward the idea.**

</td>
<td>

What is Wilsonian idealism?

How have US actions been characteristic of Wilsonianism?

What "idea" is the author referring to here? It seems that the author is using this term to refer to Wilsonianism, but this is not quite clear.

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>

This appears to be the author's thesis, and while it does present a clear stance on the idealism vs. realism question, the writer has not provided a rationale for that stance.

</td>
</tr>
</table>

Figure 13: Sample Student Introduction Showcasing Pitfalls

Although the student makes a clear statement regarding the continued dominance of Wilsonian idealism in American foreign policy, it is not clear as to what makes this claim relevant or how it supports the author's thesis. In figure 14, you will find a more fully developed version of this introduction.

Since World War I, United States foreign policy has often appeared polarized to the casual observer, political commentator, and most astute of diplomats: on one side of the ledger sits Wilsonian values, driving global security and interdependence under the banner of liberalism; on the other is a more determined show of strength forged from the realism of the first and second world wars.[1] Post-World War I, the United States has projected some seemingly realist responses to counter global challenges, namely that of self-defence and containment. However, the Wilsonian goal of achieving peace through democracy requires collective security to be credible, making it necessary for the United States to intervene in foreign conflicts that concern the United States' self-defence or containment of a threat. Therefore, those responses should be read not as an overall realist foreign policy, but rather as actions taken to uphold the values of Wilsonian Idealism.[2] While any country's foreign policy will shift from administration to administration or when dealing with new types of conflict, US foreign policy has been largely Wilsonian in terms of how it frames foreign policy in moral terms, promotes democracy, and supports international organizations.

Figure 14: Effective Sample Student Introduction

The introduction in figure 14 is effective because it not only provides contextual information about the topic but also defines terms clearly so readers can follow the discussion. The argument occurs at the end of the introduction and answers the questions *what*, *why*, and *how*. Successful introductions provide readers with a clear sense of direction, allowing them to understand *what* the main argument is, *how* it will be supported with evidence in the body of the paper, and *why* it is important.

3.4   Writing the Thesis Statement

Most academic papers contain a thesis statement at the end of the introduction that expresses the writer's specific position on the topic. The thesis statement may be thought of as the main "controlling idea" in the paper. The supporting paragraphs and sentences within those paragraphs should relate to and support the thesis in some way.

Your purpose for writing as well as the audience you are writing for will influence the thesis statement. For instance, a thesis statement for a compare and contrast paper may be slightly different than a thesis used in an arguable research paper. See Chapter Two for more information about common academic writing assignments you may complete at Marine Corps University. Below are a few characteristics of effective thesis statements.

The thesis should take a stand. The word "thesis" comes from the Greek word meaning "position." Therefore, the thesis statement should do more than simply state your topic; it should express your stance on that topic. That is, it must present a position you can argue. Consider the following thesis statement:

> **Weak Thesis:** This paper evaluates the Army's reaction to nuclear-focused defense policies that emerged after World War Two.

Questions readers may have include the following: What was the Army's reaction to these nuclear-focused defense policies? What is the main argument the author will make regarding these policies? Is the author making a claim about the efficacy of these policies?

> **Revised Thesis:** Despite nuclear-focused defense policies and theories that marginalized the Army immediately following World War Two, the Army displayed resiliency and flexibility by leveraging doctrine, reorganization, and technology to remain relevant during the Atomic Age.

This thesis acknowledges the specific attributes that allowed the Army to meet the challenges these nuclear-focused defense policies introduced. Additionally, it presents this argument without explicitly stating what the paper will do, even though the thesis clearly articulates the author's intent.

The thesis should give the reader a sense of how the argument will be supported. The thesis frequently presents the criteria that the writer will address in the body of the paper. For instance, if you were to write, "The curriculum at the Command and Staff College requires students to develop strong critical thinking, critical reading, and writing skills," the reader would expect the body of the paper to address how the curriculum encourages the development of critical thinking, critical reading, and writing skills. If you decided to include a paragraph about research skills, you might confuse your reader.

As such, you may want to think of the thesis statement as providing a roadmap for your paper. It expresses your position on a topic and often introduces the main supporting points you will use to support your argument.

The thesis should answer the questions *what*, *how*, and *why*.
What is your argument? How will you develop the argument in the body of the paper? Why is the argument important? The thesis example below needs to be revised to show how the argument will be developed.

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

This sentence gives the writer a starting point and additionally gives a reason for this change. However, it does not tell the reader specifically how the Army should improve its training. An improved, polished thesis statement might read as follows:

> **Revised Thesis:** 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 thesis should contain clear language and avoid abstract terminology. The thesis should contain a clearly defined argument. Below is an example of an unclear thesis.

```
Unclear Thesis: Prohibiting military personnel from attending
political protests is unethical and goes against principles of
democracy.
```

The term "unethical" is rather subjective here. Specifically, readers may ask themselves, "What about preventing military personnel from attending political protests is unethical? How does it go against principles of democracy?" A more clearly worded thesis statement appears below.

```
Revised Thesis: 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 prevents opposing
viewpoints from being heard.
```

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

3.4.1 Writing Thesis Statements that Answer Assignment Questions

The process for developing a thesis statement might be slightly different when you are required to respond to a specific writing prompt. In this case, the thesis statement should specifically address the key components of the assignment question. See Chapter Two for more information about identifying key words and analyzing assignments. Table 4 presents an example of how you might develop a working thesis statement to answer an assignment question.

Table 4: How to Develop a Working Thesis Statement

Assignment Question	How did the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya differ from the French military's counterinsurgency strategy?
Student Thesis Statement	The counterinsurgency method the British used in Malaya was more successful than the counterinsurgency strategy employed by the French.
Critique of 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 needs to explain why this is the case.
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.

The process of developing a thesis statement is different when writing a research paper than it is when writing a paper that answers a specific prompt or question. The thesis in a research paper will often begin as a research question that helps to guide the focus of the research. After all, it is difficult to know exactly what your main point will be until you have considered other sources on your topic. Because your ideas about your topic may

shift as you continue to research, the thesis you present in your final draft may not reflect your initial stance on the issue. You can find more information about developing research questions and a working thesis statement for research papers in Part Two: Research and Documentation.

3.5   Writing the Body

The body comprises the fundamental components of the paper and provides specific evidence to support the paper's thesis statement or central argument. As discussed in the previous section, the thesis statement takes a position on the issue you will write about and often presents the main supporting points you will use to argue that position. Once you have written your concrete thesis statement, it is easier to draft and organize the body from those main supporting points. Consider the following sample thesis statement that was provided earlier in the chapter.

```
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 prevents opposing viewpoints from being heard.
```

From reading this thesis statement, we can assume the author's central argument is that barring military service members from going to these types of events is "dangerous to the future of the armed forces and to the United States in general" and that the author will support this argument by showing how prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests violates free speech and prevents opposing viewpoints from being heard. If you were to outline a paper on this topic, it might look like the outline in figure 15.

Thesis: 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 prevents opposing viewpoints from being heard.

    I.   Prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests is dangerous to the future of the armed forces because it violates an individual's right to free speech.
        A. Example #1
        B. Example #2
        C. Example #3
    II.   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 prevents opposing viewpoints from being heard.
        A. Example #1
        B. Example #2
        C. Example #3

Figure 15: Sample Outline Developing Paper Topic

Another way of conceptualizing a thesis and supporting points is by making a topic sentence outline in which the topic sentence supports one component of the thesis statement. Figure 16 presents an example of how you might use a mind map to diagram your thesis and supporting points.

Thesis:

While the Allied joint forces achieved their limited objectives for the Sicily campaign, the Allies did not capitalize on opportunities for farther-reaching, decisive actions due to the lack of overall grand strategy, disjointed and narrow planning efforts, and the lack of properly integrated joint capabilities throughout the campaign.

Supporting Point #1:
The Allies did not have an overall grand strategy.

Supporting Point #2:
The Allies used disjointed, narrow planning efforts.

Supporting Point #3:
The Allies did not have properly integrated joint capabilities.

Figure 16: Mind Map of Thesis and Supporting Points

These main supporting points might then form the topic sentences for the paper's supporting paragraphs. Figure 17 is an example of a topic sentence outline.

Example Topic Sentence Outline

Thesis: While the Allied joint forces achieved their limited objectives of the Sicily campaign, the Allies did not capitalize on opportunities for farther-reaching, decisive actions due to the lack of overall grand strategy, disjointed and narrow planning efforts, and poorly integrated joint capabilities throughout the campaign.

> **Topic Sentence 1**: The Allies did not capitalize on opportunities for farther-reaching decisive actions due to their lack of overall grand strategy.
> **Topic Sentence 2**: The Allies' narrow, disjointed planning efforts prevented them from achieving far-reaching decisive actions.
> **Topic Sentence 3**: The Allies did not have properly integrated joint capabilities, which prevented them from capitalizing on their victory during the Sicily campaign.

Figure 17: Example Topic Sentence Outline

The number of examples you use depends on the length and scope of the assignment. When given the choice, strive to develop a few examples fully rather than providing only a broad overview of many examples.

3.5.1 Body Paragraphs

Paragraphs are units of information. Writers use paragraphs to help their readers to process ideas as related chunks of information.

The internal organization of a body paragraph is quite similar to the organization of an essay or argument paper. Like the paper itself, individual paragraphs often move from general to specific information. Many writers find the MEAL plan to be a helpful model

of paragraph development. The MEAL plan consists of four main elements: Main idea, Evidence, Analysis, and Link. These four elements are described in more detail below.

1. **Main idea:** Presents the central claim the paragraph will address (think of this as the "thesis" of the paragraph). The first sentence of the paragraph often expresses the main idea and is frequently referred to as the **topic sentence**. The topic sentence sometimes includes a transition back to the ideas presented in the previous paragraph.
2. **Evidence:** These sentences present specific examples and arguments to demonstrate support for the claim presented in the **Main idea** or **topic sentence**. Sentences that provide evidence are also referred to as **supporting sentences**. In this section of the paragraph, it is customary to cite outside sources used in support of your argument. For more information on providing proper attribution for sources used as evidence in your essay, see Chapter Eight and Chapter Nine.
3. **Analysis:** These sentences explain how the supporting evidence applies to the topic of the paragraph; they "digest" the information for the reader. Sentences that provide analysis are another type of **supporting sentence**.
   Note: There may be times when it is difficult to distinguish evidence sentences from analysis sentences. If you find this is the case with your writing, do not panic. It is not essential to differentiate between these types of sentences as long as each body paragraph contains both evidence and analysis.

A paragraph will often begin with a topic sentence that provides the reader with a sense of the **Main idea (M)** or point the paragraph will cover. The supporting sentences then provide **Evidence (E)** to substantiate that topic sentence and **Analysis (A)** that tells the reader why each piece of evidence is relevant and how it supports the paragraph's main idea. These types of sentences are especially important in persuasive writing because they help to explain the rationale behind the claims the paragraph makes. Once the paragraph presents the supporting evidence and the analysis of that evidence, it may conclude with a **Linking (L)** sentence that helps to sum up the paragraph's central theme and connects it back to the paper's main argument.

In accordance with the paragraphing principles above, a body paragraph template might look like the example below.

> **Main idea** (introduces paragraph's central argument/connects to thesis). **Evidence** (provides specific examples and support for paragraph's main idea). **Analysis** (explains how the evidence supports the paragraph's main idea; makes connections for the reader). **Link** (sums up paragraph's main idea and transitions to the next point).

A redacted body paragraph that follows this paragraph may look something like this:

> [**Main Idea/Topic sentence**] The problem with implementing a military solution in Syria is …. [**Evidence #1**] Theorist Y furthers this point in her article "name of article" in which she states…. [**Evidence #2**] General Z has also observed these issues on the ground in Syria, reporting that…. [**Analysis**] General Z's

```
reports demonstrate Theorist Y's claims by …. [Link/conclusion]
Therefore, the US response to the Syrian Civil War must consider…
```

Figures 18 and 19 offer two examples of how these main components of a paragraph (topic sentence, supporting points, and clincher sentences/transitions) look in fully developed paragraphs.

[**Main idea/transition from previous paragraph**] US foreign policy continued to apply Wilsonian ideals throughout the Cold War. [**Evidence that supports the topic sentence**] The US President again relied on Wilsonian terms to describe the latest order of tyranny that threatened world peace, and the official US policy on Cold War strategy defined many national interests in idealistic language with undertones of the Founding Fathers' doctrine.[1] In 1947, the United States announced a significant economic relief package for Greece and Turkey, attempting to promote democracy and deny communist expansion in the region.[2] In the following year, the United States commenced the Marshall Plan, a grand initiative to support the reconstruction and economic outlook of Europe and to prevent socio-political conditions favorable to communist expansion.[3] In 1949, the United States signed the North Atlantic Treaty with the Wilsonian ideal of cooperative security in mind.[4] [**Analysis**] When the Cold War spread into Asia in 1950, the US entered into war in Korea, and later in Vietnam, foremost under Wilsonian rationale and ideas.[5] [**Link**] Finally, with the dissolution of the Soviet Bloc in 1991 marking the end of the Cold War, Wilsonian idealism succeeded into a new world.[6]

Figure 18: Sample Fully Developed Paragraph on Wilsonian Idealism

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[**Topic sentence**] The American Civil War saw the influence of mass politics on an unprecedented scale, which led to mass mobilization of armies, uncompromising political aims, and the increasingly political nature of military operations. [**Evidence that supports the topic sentence**] The same political force that drove the American Revolutionary War was in play during the Civil War—the idea of popular sovereignty where the people are the ultimate source of political legitimacy. [**Analysis of supporting evidence**] This meant that the people in the North and South identified strongly with the goals of the Union and the Confederacy, respectively,[1] allowing both sides to incorporate ideology to inspire their people: the Union with its democratic government, economic opportunity, and individual rights and the Confederacy with its states' rights and property rights—the right to own slaves. [**Link**] These passions were harnessed to mobilize huge armies from the population. Rapidly raised at the state level by local politicians,[2] the Union and the Confederacy fielded more than 2,000,000 and 900,000 troops respectively, with the majority of them volunteers.

Figure 19: Sample Fully Developed Paragraph on the Civil War

3.5.2   Transitions

The use of transitions is paramount to good organization. Transitional words and phrases connect sentences, ideas, and paragraphs to one another in order to indicate to readers how an idea will develop. We use transitions in written and spoken communication. It is important that the transitional words or phrases you use in your writing serve your intended purpose. Table 5 shows a list of common transitional words and phrases you

can use in your writing and speaking projects. See Podium Page: General Presentation Structure to view how to make proper transitions in a presentation.

Table 5: Transition Examples

To show cause and effect	Therefore, so, thus, hence, as a result, consequently, accordingly, since, then
To compare	Likewise, similarly, in the same way, in comparison, compared to, along the same lines
To contrast	However, in/by contrast, conversely, although, on the contrary, on the other hand (preceded by on one hand), yet, nevertheless, nonetheless, regardless, whereas, while, despite, even though, but
To add to an argument	In addition, furthermore, moreover, further, also, so too, in fact, besides, and, indeed
To give an example	For example, for instance, specifically, consider, to take a case in point, after all, as demonstrated by
To provide a counterargument	Admittedly, although, granted, one can concede that, to be sure, yet, of course
To conclude	In conclusion, consequently, in summary, as a result, hence, therefore, thus **Note: These are similar to those used to show cause and effect.**

Source: Adapted from Gerald Graff and Cathy Birkenstein, *They Say I Say: The Moves that Matter in Persuasive Writing,* 4th ed. (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2018), 321-322.

Transitions are also used to integrate quoted, summarized, or paraphrased material in the text of a paper. These transitions are called "signal phrases." It is important to use transitions to signal to readers that the idea you are presenting comes from an outside source and not from you, the author—as failing to indicate this may be considered plagiarism. For more information on quoting, summarizing, and paraphrasing, see Chapter Eight. Below is a list of common transitional words and phrases that can be used as signal phrases.

Common Signal Phrases

- Smith argues…
- According to Smith…
- Smith contends…
- Smith describes…
- In Smith's view…
- From Smith's perspective…

Failing to use transitions may result in disjointed writing—abrupt endings or jumps between sentences or paragraphs. The paragraph below is difficult to follow at times because the connections between ideas expressed in individual sentences are not clear. It is not always immediately apparent as to how one idea progresses to the next.

```
      Political and social transformation in mid-nineteenth
century Prussia was largely favorable to Moltke's quest for
reform.  Moltke's relationship with his political masters was at
times turbulent.  In 1866, King William I of Prussia authorized
```

Moltke to issue orders direct to operational commands. Moltke increased his influence in military affairs, after which King William appointed him the field commander of Prussian armies.[7] Improving upon earlier efforts to restructure its force in response to the French *levee en masse*, in 1859, Prussia further transformed its force from despotism to a national army that centered on universal conscription.[8] The transformation would have far-reaching consequences, fundamentally altering the balance of power in Europe. By the time the reforms were complete, Prussia had defeated both France and Austria in open war, unified Germany under Prussian hegemony, and changed the way western militaries plan for and conduct warfare.

Below is a revised version of the previous paragraph—this time with effective transitions that clearly demonstrate the relationships between ideas in the paragraph.

Political and social transformation in mid-nineteenth century Prussia was largely favorable to Moltke's quest for reform. Moltke's relationship with his political masters was at times turbulent, **but** in 1866, King William I of Prussia authorized Moltke to issue orders directly to operational commands, **thereby** increasing his influence in military affairs and effectively appointing him the field commander of Prussian armies.[9] Improving upon earlier efforts to restructure its force in response to the French levee en masse, Prussia further transformed its force from despotism to a national army that centered on universal conscription.[10] **This latest restructuring, coupled with** Moltke's increased influence over the military, fundamentally altered the balance of power in Europe. By the time Moltke's reforms were complete, Prussia had defeated both France and Austria in open war, unified Germany under Prussian hegemony, and changed the way western militaries plan for and conduct warfare.

Transitions are used not only to highlight relationships between ideas within paragraphs but also to show relationships between paragraphs and sections of a text. The text below highlights disjointedness between two paragraphs in a student paper about modern military theorists.

Che Guevara had a much more global view in spreading Marxism than Mao did. Mao wanted to unite China under communist rule, while Che wanted to spread his ideology across the globe. Both men knew that leading the peasant class was the way to generate their power, but Che was much more focused on the use of violent guerilla tactics to overthrow governments. ==While Mao used a multi-pronged approach with his choices of tactics, Che believed that high-profile attacks, with support of the masses, would spark large-scale revolution regardless of circumstance.==

> David Galula, a French officer, formed his opinions on insurgency and counterinsurgency from fighting in the Algerian War….

In this example, the author jumps from a comparison of Mao Zedong and Che Guevara to an idea about David Galula, a counterinsurgency theorist, without a clear transition. In the same way that an artist would take yellow paint and blue paint to make green paint, a writer can transition between paragraphs using a sentence or phrase that connects the two different ideas. The sentence that is highlighted in green uses a clear transition to connect the main ideas from the two paragraphs and to signal a contrast.

> Mao pursued political organization of the peasants with the goal of enhancing military power.[11] Mao successfully achieved his goal, and when the nationalists fled to the island of Taiwan in 1949, he declared the People's Republic of China.
> While Mao achieved his aim and carried out a successful War of Revolution (*Jiefang*), Ernesto "Che" Guevara was less successful as he was executed after being captured by Bolivian forces in 1967 in his quest to export the revolutionary thoughts.

3.5.3 Introducing Counterarguments

In addition to including supporting examples, academic research papers can also address counterarguments. **A counterargument presents an opposing view to your thesis or some part of it; counterarguments challenge the primary argument you present in the paper**.

Why Address a Counterargument? Addressing a counterargument allows you to strengthen your argument by demonstrating an understanding of opposing viewpoints and systematically debunking opposing claims. The checklist below presents strategies for analyzing arguments that opponents might use to counter your claims. By analyzing your opponent's argument and understanding how the argument is structured, you will be more equipped to respond to the argument.

Analyzing your Opponent's Argument

- ☐ Are there facts that your opponent has not considered?
- ☐ Is your opponent basing his or her conclusions on different premises (supporting pieces of evidence)?
- ☐ Has your opponent presented faulty or incorrect information?
- ☐ Does the problem stem from a difference in understanding of terms?
- ☐ Are you drawing different conclusions from the same premises (the same pieces of evidence)?
- ☐ Is your opponent's point of view a result of competing political, economic, or social interests?

Once you have analyzed the counterargument, you will need to develop a plan for addressing that argument in a way that strengthens your paper's central claim. This

might mean highlighting a flaw in the counterargument or demonstrating that the validity of the argument is limited (i.e., it may apply only in certain circumstances).

Addressing Counterarguments Effectively: Don't Contradict Your Main Point!

In order for counterarguments to be effective, they need to be addressed carefully.

✓ First, it needs to be clear to the reader that you are addressing an opposing point of view.
✓ After explaining the opposing point of view, you will need to either refute or accommodate that point of view. In other words, you need to show your initial stance is still valid despite these opposing views.
✓ When you refute a counterargument, you use evidence to argue the point is incorrect or misunderstood. When you accommodate a counterargument, you might acknowledge its legitimacy, but you may argue it is unimportant or irrelevant to the issue at hand.

Typically, a counterargument response will include three main parts: **1)** a restatement or summary of an opposing point of view, **2)** a response to the opponent's point of view (which typically addresses what you see as pitfalls in your opponent's argument), and **3)** evidence that supports your response to the counterargument. Figure 20 demonstrates how an author might incorporate a counterargument to bolster his or her central claim.

[**Counterargument**] William DePuy's 1976 version of FM 100-5 ignored lessons from Vietnam by preparing for a conflict similar to World War II or the Arab-Israeli War. This certainly could have hurt the Army in the case of another conflict against a guerilla force or an environment that was not conducive to armored forces. The result was a new field manual, introduced during an important transition period for the Army, which focused on conventional warfare while failing to acknowledge the role that unconventional conflicts would continue to play in future operations.[1]

[**Counterargument Response**] While DePuy's 1976 manual discounted many of the lessons the Army learned about waging a counterinsurgency, it paved the way for a post-Vietnam Army in dire need of a doctrine that would allow it to fight a conventional war. DePuy's FM 100-5 went through updates in 1982 and 1986 to account for some missing components such as the operational level of warfare and refinement of the AirLand battle concept with the Air Force, but the framework he introduced in his 1976 manual remained. Ultimately, DePuy's revised versions of the manual allowed the army to identify future challenges and incorporate updated doctrine, equipment, and training methods to meet those challenges. In fact, today's FM 3-0 can trace its roots to FM 100-5 as proof that DePuy effectively reformed the Army from a post-Vietnam haze into one of the most lethal forces across the globe.

Figure 20: Incorporating and Addressing Counterarguments

The example above effectively incorporates and addresses a counterargument: The first paragraph establishes a common criticism of DePuy's work (the counterargument). It then acknowledges that while some of this criticism is valid, FM 100-5 established an

effective framework for planning current Army operations (that is, it shows the overall worth of the document while acknowledging its limitations).

Where should I place my counterargument? Where you decide to place a counterargument may depend on your purpose and how likely your reader is to disagree with your thesis. Some common placements of counterarguments are as follows:

1. The counterargument may be part of the introduction, allowing you to place your thesis statement in contrast to the counterpoint.
2. The counterargument may be placed after the introduction but before the first supporting paragraph. This placement gives you the chance to acknowledge opposing points of view and to anticipate and debunk your opponents' objections before presenting your own argument. Beginning with a counterargument can be particularly useful when writing for an audience that might be hostile towards your point of view.
3. The counterargument may appear in the body of the paper. In this case, you might briefly address an opposing point of view before returning to your central argument.
4. The counterargument may appear before the conclusion, allowing you to acknowledge opposing viewpoints before moving into your concluding paragraph. This placement works well with a reader who is sympathetic to your point of view.

3.6   Writing the Conclusion

After reading the introduction and body of your paper, your reader should fully understand your argument and its supporting components. The conclusion then revisits that argument from an enlightened point of view—the view of a reader who is familiar with your claims. The conclusion should make connections between the main points the paper presents and draw broader implications. It may include a call to action or present an issue that is worthy of further study. The conclusion serves the following purposes:

1. Provides the "so what" factor or discusses implications
2. Gives the reader a sense of closure
3. Synthesizes material you have presented in the body of the paper

Below is a list of pitfalls to avoid when writing the conclusion.

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, restating the information you present in the introduction may insult the reader's intelligence or leave the reader asking, "So what?" Instead, focus the conclusion on the broader implications of your thesis and findings.
2. **Restating the thesis statement verbatim:** While you will want to revisit the paper's central argument (thesis), you likely will 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 new or additional 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. Figure 21 presents a sample introduction and conclusion.

Introduction: Nations seek to obtain nuclear weapons for many reasons; chief among them is the enhanced security posture that possession of nuclear weapons brings. India obtained nuclear weapons following a border dispute with the People's Republic of China (PRC), which left India defeated and vulnerable. Additionally, Israel's possession of nuclear arms is known to deter the widespread destruction of its cities by local belligerents. Finally, countries such as North Korea may use their nuclear status as a tool for extortion, obtaining diplomatic concessions through threats and intimidation. Unfortunately, as the number of nuclear-capable countries increases, so does global instability. Nations do not have an inherent right to nuclear weapons because only certain nations are trustworthy enough to use and maintain these types of weapons responsibly. While democratic regimes with free market economies such as the United States and the United Kingdom have proven to be adept at maintaining a nuclear arsenal, despotic countries that lack open markets and free elections such as Iran and North Korea are ill-equipped to do the same. Ideally, only nations that cultivate and preserve open markets, political transparency, and human rights should have the right to nuclear weapons because an adherence to these three fundamental principles ensures nuclear responsibility and restraint.

Conclusion: Only those countries that have incentives to use nuclear weapons responsibly should be able to maintain such an arsenal for self-defense. Free market economies, political democracy, and a commitment to human rights serve as key indicators as to the proper intentions of a nuclear power. These elements not only restrain the improper use of the weapons, but they also foster a stable domestic environment that inhibits the actual use of nuclear weapons. Nations that do not value free and open markets, political transparency, and human rights should not be allowed to attain nuclear arms, thus ensuring greater world stability.

Figure 21: Sample Introduction and Conclusion: "Preventing Chaos: Conditionality of Nuclear Proliferation"

This concluding paragraph is effective because it revisits some of the main themes discussed in the paper without directly restating the thesis statement. It broadens the discussion of nuclear weapons ("these elements not only restrain…") without introducing new information. Figure 22 showcases another example introduction and conclusion.

Introduction: Since President Woodrow Wilson left office in 1921, the US Government has navigated some of the most challenging times in world history. Indeed, events throughout the interwar period, World War II, the Cold War, the lead up to September 11th, and the years following September 11th have repeatedly tested and progressively shaped the US approach to foreign policy. Throughout these times, one approach has influenced the nation's foreign policy above all others: a liberal, internationalist approach that has sought to spread democracy, uphold peace, enhance collective security, and promote US leadership. It is Wilsonian idealism, above all, that has been the prominent and enduring influence on the US approach to foreign policy.

Conclusion: Since 1921, Wilsonian idealism has endured as a prominent influence on US foreign policy. Throughout World War II, the Cold War, the Global War on Terror, and the years between, Wilsonian ideals have shaped how US Presidents framed threats, made decisions, and justified policies. Wilsonian ideals have also provided the guiding principles that led to US peace negotiations, humanitarian interventions, and democratic expansion. Overall, it has persisted as the foremost influence on US foreign policy that shows no signs of disappearing anytime soon.

Figure 22: Sample Introduction and Conclusion: "Wilsonian Idealism: An American Tradition"

This concluding paragraph reiterates the paper's main idea ("Wilsonian idealism has endured as the prominent influence…") and briefly discusses how Wilsonian idealism might look in the future.

 Up to this point, Chapter Three has addressed methods for organizing and developing ideas in writing. The following Podium Pages will discuss how these concepts of organization and development apply to oral communication tasks.
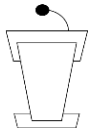
Podium Page - General Presentation Structure

Follow guidance in Chapter Three regarding how to develop content. Then, as you build your slides, use the big and general pieces designed in the invention process, and build upon them. Keep in mind that your slides should demonstrate your thought patterns to your audience. Browse through the Smart Art options in PowerPoint or online to find a graphic that best matches your mind map of main ideas. Use the graphic of your main ideas as your agenda slide. Audiences like visual representations of how ideas connect.

Using Your Agenda Slide as the Blueprint of your Presentation

There are good reasons to use your agenda slide to guide the drafting process. First, it keeps you focused on the central idea, and it helps you develop each main point equitably. Decide on an organizational strategy as you develop your presentation, and design your agenda slides to draw the audience's attention to where you are in the presentation. Revisit your agenda slide as you move through your main points in the presentation.
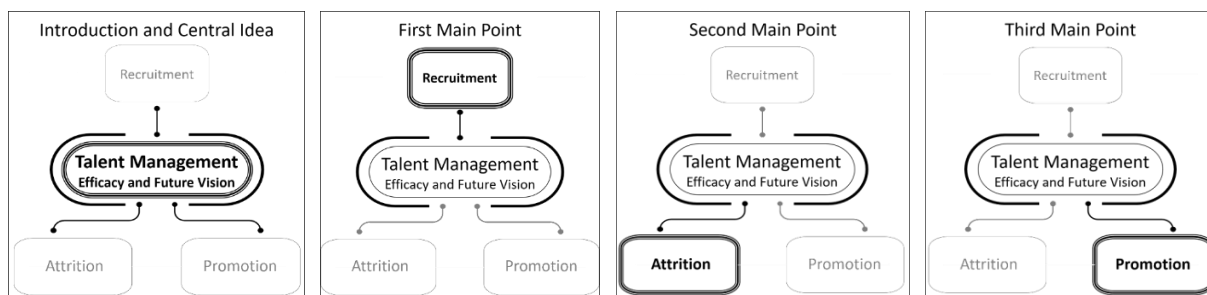
- Emphasize your thesis statement with a slide that draws audience attention to your *Introduction and Central Idea,* "Talent Management: Efficacy and Future Vision."
- Emphasize your transition into the *First Main Point* by drawing the audience's attention to the subject, "Recruitment."
- Emphasize your transition into the *Second Main Point* by drawing the audience's attention to the subject, "Attrition."
- Emphasize your transition into the *Third Main Point* by drawing the audience's attention to the subject, "Promotion."

Reintroducing your agenda slide as you transition from one topic to the next creates a purposeful interruption for your audience. It is clear where the presenter is in the presentation, which can improve the audience's attention span and their retention of the material.

Podium Page – Developing Main Points with Slides

An organized presentation is straightforward, which makes it easier for audiences to retain your message. Begin with the agenda slide and build slides to support each main point. Use invention strategies to develop the content of your main points and scribble them into visual explanations. Evidence is easier to retain with visual representation. Keep the content of your slides focused behind the main point emphasized on the agenda slide.

First Main Point
Recruitment
Talent Management — Efficacy and Future Vision
Attrition   Promotion

Recruitment Statistics from Last Year
(Bar chart: OFFICER, ENLISTED, DIVERSITY — FY GOALS, FY RESULT; y-axis 0 to 40)
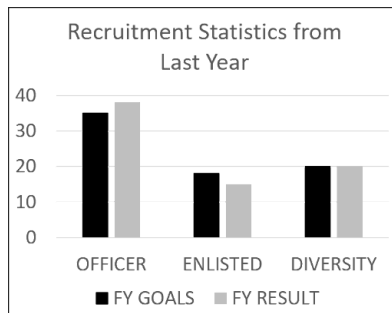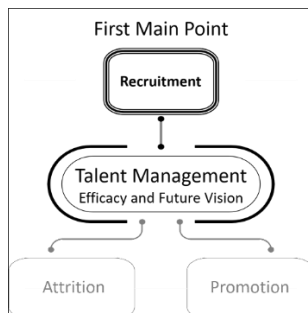
- **Efficacy** of current recruitment
- **Future vision** of recruitment

"Meeting our recruits face-to-face is our key to success."
~ MCRC Commanding General

Second Main Point
Recruitment
Talent Management — Efficacy and Future Vision
Attrition   Promotion

Attrition Rate Comparison
(Line chart: 3 Mos, 6 Mos, 1 Year, 3 Years — USMC, USA; y-axis 0 to 30)
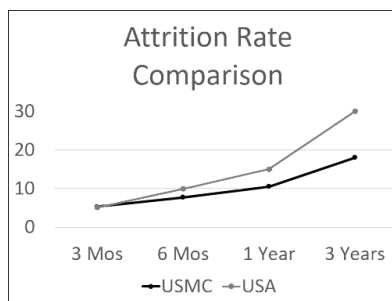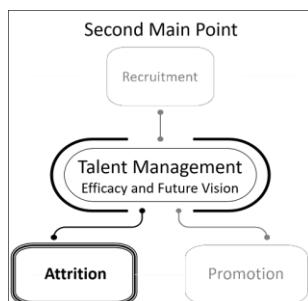
Strengthen Talent Management
- USMC recruitment is strained by high attrition rates in the first 36 months.
- USMC retention at 36 months is higher than other services.
- There is still room for improvement.

~ Honor
~ Courage
~ Commitment

Third Main Point
Recruitment
Talent Management — Efficacy and Future Vision
Attrition   **Promotion**
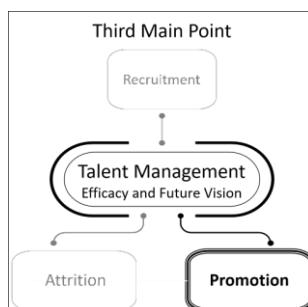
Status Quo: Promotion is Retention

Rank	TIS
E-2	6 Months
E-3	14 Months
E-4	26 Months
O-2	18 Months
O-3	48 Months

Consideration for Discussion: Retention without promotion as a possibility

Efficacy: Present and Future
(Pyramid: E-4, E-3, E-2 with gears E-4, E-3, E-2)
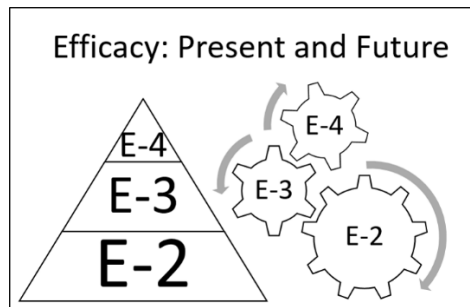
Display clarifying information on a slide – *do not type a document on the slide to read aloud.*
It is best practice to keep the slide content simple with minimal language and images. Be careful not to use the slide as a document for which to type every thought. Presentation software, like PowerPoint affords room on the *notes* page for details you plan to speak to on the slide. Slides should *enhance* your presentation, not act as the presentation. Remember that as the speaker, you are the vessel of your message and slides are best used to clarify the details conveyed to your audience.
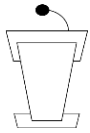
Podium Page - Using Notes in a Presentation

The professional approach to using notes in a presentation is much preferred to congesting too much text on a slide. Ignore the prolific tale that notes are unprofessional or make a speaker look unprepared. To the contrary, audiences appreciate speakers who move through a presentation smoothly with the help of notes.

Presenters misguidedly fill slides with text for reasons such as controlling public speaking anxiety or scheduling little time to rehearse. Reading directly from the slides harms audience engagement. Poor audience engagement breeds a short attention span and limits what they will retain from your presentation. PowerPoint features the "Notes Page" option, which is the proper space to develop content that benefits the speaker. Click on the "VIEW" tab and "Notes Page" to develop notes separately from the slide content as it provides the space to type complete thoughts.

There are several ways you can refer to your notes during the presentation. When inquiring about the technology in the presentation space, ask about a second screen that displays your notes in "Presenter View." This method displays your slide to the audience, while making your notes visible on a device near you. Video from LearnKey - Using Presenter Mode.

If this technology is not available, print your "Notes Pages" and keep them nearby as you speak.
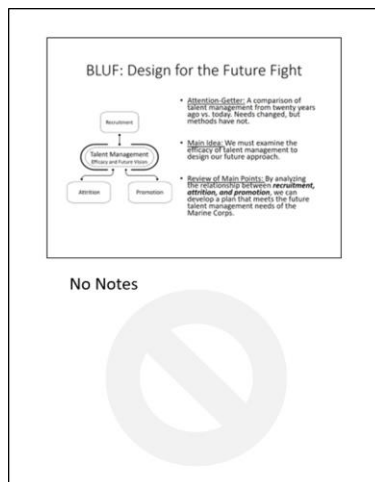
Refrain from typing your ⟵ notes on the slide.

Instead, use the ⟶ "Notes" field to write what you plan to say. During your presentation, you can easily refer to your notes if needed.
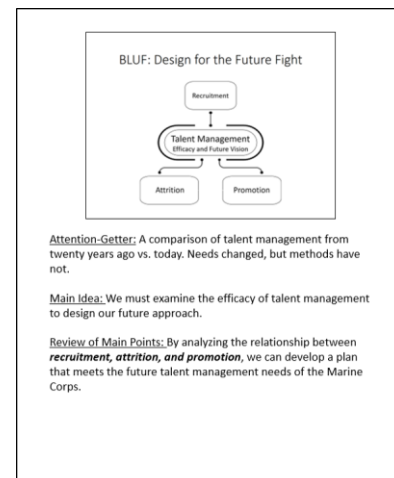
When developing notes, it is best practice to keep them brief, not a word-for-word script to follow. Scripts are not advised as a script pressures a speaker to memorize content rather than to speak extemporaneously. It is also tempting to read from a script rather than trusting your knowledge of the subject. Use notes simply as cues to jog your memory when needed.

When rehearsing your presentation, pay attention to places where you have difficulty remembering the content. It helps to add notes to cue your memory in places where you get stuck or if you convey information out of order.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE REVISION PROCESS

Revision refers to the process of systematically questioning the ideas, structure, and development of a piece of writing. During the revision process, you will evaluate your central argument, the ideas you use to support that argument, and the language you use to present your ideas. Though many writers may think of revision as proofreading or "line editing," it is first a process of evaluating ideas and structure and second a process of correcting grammar and formatting errors. The amount of time you spend revising depends on the type of document you are working with and your time constraints, but you should expect to spend almost as much time revising as drafting. This chapter is divided into the following sections:

4.1   Overview of the Revision Process

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.

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 and revising process may cause you to focus primarily on word choice and grammar, but revising the paper involves more than simply giving it one last read-through. Rather, the revision 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 (thesis), decide whether you still agree with that claim, and critically think about whether the information you include to support that claim is accurate, valid, and convincing to your target audience.

Surface-level issues refer mostly to sentence-level elements such as sentence structure, word choice, punctuation, and general formatting. Though most people think of the revision process as the act of correcting these surface-level issues, you will spend the majority of your time concentrating on global-level issues, since these may require you to adjust the content or focus of

your writing. For example, you will not want to focus on perfecting sentence-level grammar and mechanics only to delete those grammatically perfect sentences later in the revision process.

4.2   Global-Level Revisions

4.2.1   Evaluating Focus and Purpose

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 revision 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.

Strategies for Evaluating Focus

1. **Review your assignment question, concentrating on some of the key words** (See Chapter Two for more information about identifying key words).
   - ☐ Does your draft address your specific assignment prompt?
   - ☐ If your writing task is not necessarily academic (e.g., professional military writing), does it fulfill all of the requirements of the project?
   - ☐ Does your draft accomplish the task at hand? If you determine your paper does not meet the requirements of the assignment, it is likely you will need to make significant revisions, as you may need to adjust the paper's content, not just the presentation of that content.
2. **Review your draft, considering the audience's background, familiarity with the topic, and expectations.**
   - ☐ Does your paper approach the assignment or 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?
   - ☐ Will the evidence you present be convincing to your target audience?

4.2.2   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 that your initial thesis statement no longer reflects the argument you wish to present. Similarly, even when writing a shorter paper, you may find your ideas about your topic change as you begin to defend your argument and develop your rationale. As you finalize your draft, you will want to make sure that your thesis presents a clear argument and that the argument is sustained throughout the paper. Below is a checklist you might use to evaluate your central argument and supporting examples.

<div style="border: 1px solid black;">

Checklist: Evaluating the Central Argument

☐ The paper contains an arguable thesis statement or statement of purpose that accurately captures your perspective on the topic.
☐ The thesis uses clearly defined terms.
☐ The argument presented in the thesis is sustained throughout the paper.
☐ All of the paper's sub-arguments relate to the thesis in some way.

</div>

For more information on thesis development, consult Chapter Three; for more information on argument development, consult Chapter Seven.

4.2.3 Evaluating Structure and Organization

Organization refers to the order in which you present the ideas 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.

<div style="border: 1px solid black;">

Checklist: Evaluating Structure and Organization

☐ The introduction provides enough information for the reader to understand the argument that will be discussed in the body of the paper.
☐ The thesis statement appears in the paper's introduction.
☐ Each body paragraph supports the thesis in some way.
☐ Paragraphs are arranged in a logical order; paragraphs build upon one another.
☐ The paper includes transitions that provide readers with a sense of direction and carry readers from one idea to the next.
☐ Connections between paragraphs are clear.
☐ Connections between sentences within paragraphs are clear.
☐ The conclusion draws broader implications from the information and arguments that are presented in the body, rather than simply summarizing the main points.
☐ The conclusion is free from new information and/or evidence.

</div>

One technique for creating a reverse outline is to write a one or two-sentence summary of each body paragraph. You can then put all of those summary sentences in an outline, which will give you an overview of the document's organization and structure. Seeing your paper mapped out this way helps you determine if the information in the body of the paper is organized in accordance with the thesis or if the thesis needs to change. You might also be able to see whether or not the paper supports all aspects of the thesis. Based on the results of the reverse outlining exercise, you might decide to add, delete, or revise sections of your draft.

Note: If you are working with a longer document, you might consider writing a one or two-sentence summary of each main section.

Reverse Outlining of a Sample Paper: The following section demonstrates how you might reverse outline a short essay to evaluate its organizational structure. The paragraphs in this section are extracted from the body of a student essay that debates the degree to which United States foreign policy has been driven by Wilsonian idealism since Wilson's presidency. Each paragraph is followed by a summary sentence that will become part of the student's reverse outline.

Thesis: Wilsonian idealism has been a consistent theme throughout American foreign policy, as demonstrated by the United States' advocacy for national self-determination, its promotion of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system, and international support.

Main Idea: The United States showed its commitment to self-determination through the Atlantic Charter, the Truman Doctrine, and its involvement in the Korean and Vietnam Wars.

Body Paragraph 1: Over the course of the twentieth century, the United States consistently demonstrated its commitment to advocate national self-determination around the world. In 1941, President Franklin Roosevelt and the British Prime Minister Winston Churchill announced the Atlantic Charter, which was a joint declaration of common principles towards which the United Kingdom and the United States would strive. The principle of national self-determination was distinctly expressed in the charter, which committed both governments to seek the restoration of "sovereign rights and self-government" to nations that have been denied those rights.[12] In 1947, President Harry Truman reinforced this principle when he addressed a joint session of Congress and established the Truman Doctrine, which reoriented American foreign policy from its previous stance of isolationism. In his speech, Truman most notably declared that it must be "the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures."[13] Beyond rhetoric, the commitment to national self-determination had a significant bearing on US military interventions in far-flung conflicts such as the Korean War and Vietnam War.[14] It is evident that national self-determination is a central and underlying principle that has steered

American foreign policy for significant periods of the twentieth century.

Body Paragraph 2: The American foreign policy actively enhanced collective security through establishing international organizations and treaties. Echoing Roosevelt's Four Freedoms speech, the eighth and final principle in the Atlantic Charter asserted that "all of the Nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force."[15] This represented an important acknowledgement of collective security that eventually led to the establishment of the United Nations (UN) in 1945. The United States also demonstrated its resolve to enforce collective security in both the Korean War in 1950 and the Persian Gulf War in 1990. The United States took the lead to pass resolutions, rally international support, and convince member states to contribute to collective action as part of the UN.[16] The United States further enhanced collective security through the ratification of collective defense arrangements such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Southeast Asia Treaty, and the Rio Treaty.[17] These regional arrangements, legitimized by Articles 51 to 54 of the UN Charter, contributed to the preservation of international peace and security.[18]

Main Idea: American foreign policy actively enhanced collective security through establishing international organizations and treaties, particularly the United Nations.

Body Paragraph 3: Concomitant with the approach to collective security, the United States also promoted the Wilsonian ideal of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system. The United States played a key role in the establishment of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD, otherwise known as the World Bank) and International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1944. These international institutions engendered economic interdependencies by regulating world currencies and promoting global commerce.[19] At the onset of the Cold War era, the Truman administration enacted the Marshall Plan to catalyze economic recovery for Europe and Japan after the destruction caused by World War II. While the underlying purpose of the Marshall Plan was to thwart the spread of communism, the financial and economic aid promoted international free trade and integrated Western Europe into the

Main Idea: The United States has promoted the Wilsonian ideal of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system, which is evident through its establishment of and involvement with the World Bank, WTO, and IMF.

```
                    new global economy.²⁰  President Bill Clinton
                    further substantiated the desire to construct an
                    integrated global economy when he convened
                    Congress to ratify the General Agreement on
                    Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1994, thereby
                    establishing the World Trade Organization (WTO)
                    to facilitate international trade agreements.²¹
                    In line with Wilsonian ideals, the American
                    foreign policy championed several economic
                    reforms in the twentieth century, which led to
                    unprecedented levels of global economic
                    cooperation and interdependence.
```

When the summary sentences are combined, the student might produce a reverse outline similar to the one depicted below. Consider the author's thesis in the context of the outline: Do all of the points relate to and support the thesis? Does the thesis need to change to reflect the information the author presents in the body of the paper? **The supporting points of the thesis are enumerated in order to make the argument's structure more apparent for the reader.**

Outline of the paper's thesis:	Reverse Outline of the Paper's Body
Thesis: Wilsonian idealism has been a consistent theme throughout American foreign policy, as demonstrated by the United States'	
(1) advocacy for national self-determination,	**Paragraph 1 main point**: The United States showed its commitment to self-determination through the Atlantic Charter, the Truman Doctrine, and its involvement in the Korean and Vietnam Wars.
(2) promotion of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system, and	**Paragraph 2 main point**: American foreign policy actively enhanced collective security through establishing international organizations and treaties, particularly the United Nations.
(3) international support.	**Paragraph 3 main point**: The United States has promoted the Wilsonian ideal of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system, which is evident through its establishment of and involvement with the World Bank, WTO, and IMF.

Critique of reverse outline and thesis: In comparing the reverse outline with the thesis, we can see that the supporting points in the body of the paper are arranged differently than they are presented in the thesis. While the thesis addresses economic cooperation as the second supporting item and international support as the third supporting item, these supporting points are reversed in the body of the essay. In order for the thesis to match the organization of ideas in the body, the author has two choices:

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1. The author could reverse the order of the body paragraphs so the paragraph on economic cooperation precedes the paragraph on collective security through international organizations.
2. The author could revise the thesis to match the organization of ideas in the body of the paper (this is usually the easiest fix).

The thesis might also need to be a bit more specific and define what "international support" means in this case. Some of that language could be a bit more concrete.

New Outline with Revised Thesis

Revised Thesis: Wilsonian idealism has been a consistent theme throughout American foreign policy, as demonstrated by the United States' advocacy for national self-determination, its enhancement of collective security through international organizations and treaties, and its promotion of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system.

A. The United States showed its commitment to self-determination through the Atlantic Charter, the Truman Doctrine, and its involvement in the Korean and Vietnam Wars.

B. The American foreign policy actively enhanced collective security through establishing international organizations and treaties, particularly the United Nations.

C. The United States has promoted the Wilsonian ideal of economic cooperation through an open and interdependent world economic system, which is evident through its establishment of and involvement with the World Bank, WTO, and IMF.

Critique of revised thesis and outline: In this version of the outline, the supporting points in the body of the paper mirror the order in which they are addressed in the thesis statement. The wording of the thesis is also revised to clarify what is meant by "international support." This rewording helps to make the connection between the thesis and the information that appears in the body of the paper clearer for the reader.

Keep in mind that the purpose of reverse outlining is not to create a perfect outline but to create a cohesive, well-organized paper. You will need to make sure your draft reflects all of the changes you make as you revise your outline. For instance, the author of this outline would want to include the revised thesis statement in his or her introduction and would need to make sure that the body paragraphs appear in the correct order.

For more information on how to properly structure and organize an academic paper, consult Chapter Three.

4.2.4 Evaluating Evidence

After reviewing your draft's central argument and organization, you will want to ensure the evidence you use to support your thesis is credible, persuasive, and factually correct.

Supporting evidence refers to the specific examples and facts (often found through the research process) that you use to support your thesis statement or central argument. The following checklist provides some questions you can ask yourself to evaluate the evidence you use.

Checklist: Evaluating Evidence

☐ **Is the evidence accurate?**
- The information is factually correct.
- The information is up to date.

☐ **Is the evidence precise?**
- The information is specific (e.g., the F35 is expected to cost 1.7 trillion dollars over its lifecycle vs. the F35 is an extremely expensive project).

☐ **Is the evidence sufficient?**
- There is enough evidence to support the paper's argument.
- What qualifies as "enough" varies by discipline, but most papers require support from a variety of sources and researchers.

☐ **Is the evidence you provide in the paper authoritative?**
- The researchers you cite are experts in their respective fields.
- Other experts in the field would consider the source credible and reliable; other experts cite the source.

☐ **Is the evidence representative of the people or phenomenon you are studying?**
- According to *The Craft of Research*, "Data are representative when their variety reflects the variety of the population from which they are drawn and about which you make your claim."
- For example, if you are presenting data about Marine Corps attitudes towards EBO, you would need to ensure your sample included enlisted Marines and officers from a variety of MOSs.

Criteria loosely adapted from Booth, Colomb, and Williams, *The Craft of Research* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995), 100.

In addition to evaluating the credibility and accuracy of your claims, you will also want to consider the types of sources the paper uses and how you have used those sources to make your points. The following checklist provides guidelines for evaluating your use of sources.

<div style="border: 1px solid black">

Checklist: Evaluating Use of Sources

☐ **The paper's claims are backed up by supporting information from primary and/or secondary sources.** While you may draw from personal experience, most academic and professional writing should use examples and ideas from outside sources to provide sufficient support for the paper's claims.

☐ **The paper presents original thoughts (i.e., it is not merely a compilation of information from other sources).** If more than one third of the text is quoted and/or paraphrased information, you may want to reevaluate your use of source material, as you may be diminishing your own ideas by spending too much time discussing what others have said about your topic.

☐ **The paper analyzes the evidence it presents.** The paper interprets the evidence it presents and provides sufficient context for the reader to understand any quoted or paraphrased information, as well as statistics.

☐ **The reader can easily differentiate between your discussion of others' ideas and findings and your interpretation of those ideas.** See section 3.5.2 for more information about transitions and signal phrases that may help you to distinguish your voice from that of other writers and researchers.

☐ **The paper uses a variety of credible sources.** The paper should use both primary and secondary sources, and those sources should be written by a variety of authors (i.e., the paper should not be entirely made up of sources that are written by the same author or organization). Section 6.3 provides guidelines for evaluating source credibility.

</div>

4.2.5 Evaluating Documentation

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

<div style="border: 1px solid black">

Checklist: Evaluating Documentation

☐ An endnote follows all paraphrased and summarized information.

☐ All run-in direct quotes are placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote.

☐ All block quotes are indented five spaces (tabbed right), single spaced, and followed by an endnote.

☐ The paper is written in your own words. Sometimes it is easy to accidentally copy an author's phrasing, tone, or style. **Remember to reread your document to make sure that if you have borrowed words or ideas from an author, they are properly documented.**

☐ All of the direct quotes that you use in the paper are introduced with a signal phrase (e.g., "according to the author" or "as demonstrated by the author").

☐ The paper includes a bibliography, which is an alphabetized list of all the sources that are cited in the paper. See Chapter Eight for more information about quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing; see Chapter Nine for more information on how to format endnotes and bibliography entries.

</div>

If you are using Microsoft Word 2007 or a newer form of the Office tool (e.g., Microsoft Word 2019 or Microsoft 365), you will find a resource on the toolbar that will help you to format citations and bibliography entries in APA, MLA, and CMOS citation styles. However, the citations that these tools generate often contain minor errors in terms of sequencing of publication information and punctuation. For this reason, we advise students to use Microsoft Word's endnote numbering tool and to format the citation's publication information by hand (using the formats found in Chapter Nine of this guide). For specific information regarding how to use the automatic endnote tool in Microsoft Word, see Appendix C. For information about the format of *Chicago Manual of Style* citations, see Chapter Nine.

4.3 Surface-Level Revisions

Once you have made the global-level revisions needed to improve the paper's logic, organization, and structure, it is time to begin revising the document for surface-level issues. Some people find it easier to spot errors on a hard copy, so you may consider printing a copy of your paper for the final editing process. Below are some strategies you can use to revise your paper and improve tone, diction, word choice, clarity, concision, and correct use of grammar and punctuation.

4.3.1 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, your writing may have a grave, serious, sarcastic, impassioned, or plain-spoken tone. Remember, the tone of your writing may affect your credibility. While it may be appropriate to use a humorous or passionate tone if the purpose of your communication is to entertain or express an opinion, this type of tone may also cause readers to discredit the claims you make in a formal paper.

4.3.2 Diction

While the word *diction* often refers to pronunciation, this word can also refer to the types of lexical choices 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 different from the type of vocabulary used in a formal research paper. Below are some examples of word pairs used in different contexts.

Correspondence versus **Letter**
Oversight versus **Accident** or **Goof-up**
Improvement versus **a Step Up**

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 likely choose to use the word *accident* if you were conversing with a friend.

4.3.3 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. Express parallel ideas in sentences in parallel form. [Chapter Eleven](#) provides an in-depth explanation of parallel structure.
   a. **Incorrect Example:** I enjoy running, swimming, and I love to dance.
   b. **Correct Example:** I enjoy running, swimming, and dancing.
2. Keep verbs in active voice (the subject goes **before** the verb). Only use passive voice to soften criticism or keep a neutral tone to the piece, and avoid passive voice if your instructor does not prefer its use in formal writing.
3. Use words that are familiar to the audience and avoid unnecessary jargon or technical terminology and acronyms. When using acronyms, always spell them out and put the acronym in parentheses upon first use in your paper.
4. Use specific language as opposed to clichés or idioms, which readers may not understand. This type of language is often seen as too informal for academic or professional writing.
5. Rely on short words for clear, concise writing; however, make sure they are appropriate for the assignment and academic level.
   a. Use strong, active verbs, such as *illustrates* instead of *shows*.
   b. Use specific nouns, such as *Clausewitz* instead of *the strategist.*
   c. Avoid using intensifiers, such as *extremely, really,* and *importantly.*
   d. Begin sentences with specific words instead of ambiguous pronouns (e.g., *the submarine* versus *it* or *this*).
   e. Avoid changing verbs into nouns and adjectives with endings such as –ion, –ment, and –ency (e.g., make a payment → pay **OR** the production of → producing).
6. Vary the length of your sentences to make your writing interesting and to keep the audience's attention. Use a mix of sentence lengths and structures for variety, but select the type that best fits the thought.

4.3.4 Clarity

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. Below are strategies for writing clearly.

1. Make sure you select words that convey your exact intent.
   a. **Unclear Example:** It was a good meeting.
   b. **Clear Example:** The meeting resolved three questions.
2. Use concrete language as opposed to abstract language—words that do not represent anything in the physical world. Concepts and ideas (e.g., 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 example, cross-culturally and even within cultures, individuals may have different ideas regarding moral behavior.

3. Use inclusive language instead of clichés, euphemisms, idioms, and careless phrasing that may produce two or more interpretations of an idea.
    a. **Example Cliché:** It was raining cats and dogs. (This would be impossible to occur literally, so it may not make sense to someone unfamiliar with the expression.)
    b. **Example Euphemism:** She passed away last year. (Some readers may ask questions like "Where did she pass?" and "How far away?")
    c. **Example Idiom:** She is the apple of my eye. (This may or may not be familiar to your readers, who may come from a variety of different backgrounds and countries.)

4. Use jargon only when appropriate and necessary. Jargon is technical language used by a specific group of individuals as a form of "shorthand." While people within a specific group understand jargon, it is often meaningless and confusing to outsiders. Avoid using jargon when writing for or speaking to people outside of your group or when your paper may be read by a wider audience. Use jargon sparingly when you are writing formally.
    a. **Example:** *head* versus *bathroom*
    b. **Example:** *deliver the mail* versus *meet the goal*

5. Avoid using ambiguous acronyms and abbreviations. Although an acronym may have one meaning in the United States Marine Corps, it may mean something entirely different to a professional from another field. Abbreviations can be confusing because they vary across and even within fields of study. In addition, abbreviations like *prof* instead of *professor* are often seen as too informal for academic writing; spelling out these terms can improve formal voice.
    a. **Marine Corps Example**: PME stands for Professional Military Education.
    b. **Physician's Example**: PME stands for Progressive Myoclonus Epilepsies in regards to seizures caused by epilepsy and other genetic disorders.

4.3.5   Concision

Concise writing uses just enough words to state a point clearly and specifically, while verbose writing uses too many words to convey a point. If you can eliminate words within a sentence without changing the meaning or grammatical structure, it is often best to cut them out. Below are some strategies for making your writing more concise.

1. Eliminate filler words.
    a. **Verbose Example:** in light of the fact that
    b. **Concise Example:** because
2. Eliminate unnecessary prepositional phrases.
    a. **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.* (30 words, 5 prepositional phrases)
b. **Concise Example:** George Washington's motives *for joining* the Continental Army and the actions he performed *during the war* directly shaped the Continental Army's character and nature. (24 words, 2 prepositional phrases)
3. Look for sentences that begin with "there are" or "it is." Forms of the verb "to be" (am, are, is, was, were, been, be) can tend to make your sentences wordy and less active. If possible, try to replace these verbs with active verbs (argues, establishes).
    a. **Verbose Example:** There are many students who enjoy Socratic-style seminars.
    b. **Concise Example:** Many students enjoy Socratic-style seminars.

Try to vary your sentence length and construction in order to keep your writing interesting. Figure 23 is an example of a paragraph with repetitive sentence structures.

The **Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps** (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 US interests.

Figure 23: Sample Paragraph with Repetitive Sentence Structures

Note that all of the sentences in this paragraph begin with the Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps or the IRGC + a verb. This is causing the sentences to read almost like a collection of bulleted points rather than a coherent, flowing paragraph. Transitional words and phrases are added to this paragraph in figure 24, which allows for clearer connections between ideas.

The Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps (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.

Figure 24: Sample Paragraph with Varied Sentence Structures

4.3.6   Grammar and Punctuation

Checking your paper for correct grammar and punctuation is another aspect of revising for surface-level issues. You may find 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 words and punctuation marks that are missing from the text. In addition, you may rely on spell check to identify and correct many of these errors for you. Although spell check and other word processor grammatical tools are useful, they will not catch every error, nor will they always provide the best solution to correct errors. This is also true of digital writing assistance tools available online, such as Grammarly.

Therefore, you need to develop strategies to identify and correct errors without relying on these tools. The textbox below provides some of these proofreading strategies. Chapter Ten provides in-depth information regarding correct grammar and punctuation usage, as well as strategies for correcting common errors.

Proofreading Strategies

1. Place your finger under each word and read the word silently.
2. Make a slit in a sheet of paper that reveals only one line of type at a time; use the slit to read each page of text line by line.
3. Read the document out loud and pronounce each word slowly and carefully. Record yourself reading your paper (using an iPhone, tape recorder, or any software that allows for audio recording). Play the recording back to yourself and listen for discrepancies.
4. Have a spouse or friend read your paper.
5. If you are still having trouble with grammar and punctuation and need instruction on revising these types of issues, you can make an appointment with your respective school's writing center for feedback.

4.4   Ordering of Elements in a Research Paper

Because the research papers MCU students write are diverse in terms of topic and focus, the LCSC does not provide research paper templates. The LCSC faculty recommend students allow the paper's topic and purpose to drive its organization of ideas and methodology, as opposed to encouraging students to adapt their topic and purpose to a predetermined template.

Rather than offering a template, this section presents some general guidance and details regarding the front matter elements, main body sections, and back matter elements that will appear in most research papers. Please be advised that individual schoolhouses typically put out their own set of formatting guidance for MMS, Future War, and IRP papers.

Before turning in the final draft of your research paper, you may want to use worksheet 3 to ensure the elements of your paper are arranged in the correct order.

Worksheet 3: Ordering of Elements in a Research Paper

☑	Title Page
___	Executive Summary
___	Table of Contents
___	List of Figures
___	List of Tables
___	Preface and Acknowledgements
___	Main Text
___	Introduction
___	Thesis Statement
___	Body
___	Conclusion
___	Appendices
___	Endnotes
___	Bibliography

The following pages include descriptions of the primary elements you should include in an academic paper and the order in which they should appear. However, it is important to remember not all research papers will contain all of the components listed below. This section provides an overview of the elements you might be asked to include in a research paper and the order in which you should present those elements.

All information in this section is adapted directly from the *Chicago Manual of Style*.

4.4.1   Front Matter

The term *front matter* refers to the items that precede the main text. The front matter gives the reader a sense of the paper's organization and the author's intent for writing the paper. This section is where you may want to provide acknowledgements for individuals who assisted you in the development of your paper.

Title Page: The title page should contain the full title of your paper, your name, and the date. The place of publication or place where the paper was submitted (e.g., Marine Corps University and your professor's name) should appear on the title page as well. For an example of the title page that you will use when submitting your MMS, Future War, or Independent Research paper, please consult your schoolhouse.

Executive Summary: An executive summary presents the main points of a longer document and recommends action. The executive summary is generally written for someone who may be too busy to read the entire document (e.g., a general or Senior Executive Service member) 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 if you plan to write an MMS, IRP, Future War, or Contemporary Issues paper—the executive summary should include a condensed explanation of your findings and a recommendation based on those findings. This type of summary focuses on the conclusion you came to as a result of your research and should not discuss the method you used in order to conduct your research. Figure 25 is an example of an executive summary.

Figure 25: Sample Executive Summary

Abstract: Though the longer papers you write at Marine Corps University will typically require an executive summary, you will likely be required to develop an abstract if you are submitting work for publication. Much like an executive summary, an abstract will identify some of the points that are presented in a work, but the tone and focus of the abstract may be slightly different. In many cases, abstracts precede academic articles and help readers decide whether or not they want to read the entire article. Unlike the executive summary, which is usually written for a supervisor or a more general reader, the abstract may contain technical language that is unfamiliar to individuals who do not

have subject matter expertise. Below are descriptions of 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 study's findings or conclusions.
2. **Informative Abstract:** An informative abstract tends to be more specific in that it presents the argument 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 include the methodology you used to collect the data.

Table of Contents: The table of contents should precede most of the front matter, with the exception of the title page and epigraph (see Chapter Eight, section 8.5.6 for more information). The table of contents should list all subsequent parts of the front matter (e.g., list of illustrations, list of tables, foreword, preface, and acknowledgements) and the corresponding pages of these items. Additionally, the table of contents should list the main sections or subjects covered in the paper and their corresponding page numbers.

List of Figures: If you have included figures in the main text of your paper, you will want to include a list of figures. This list should include the name of each figure presented in the text and the page number on which it appears. For an example, see the List of Figures in this style guide. **Appendix C provides guidance on labeling and citing visuals (e.g., figures, tables, charts, and pictures).**

List of Tables: The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends separating visuals in the text into figures and tables. If you have included both figures and tables in your text, they should be labeled and listed separately. For instance, a paper might contain figure 1, figure 2, figure 3, and table 1.

Preface and Acknowledgements: The preface contains several key pieces of information, including your "reasons for undertaking the work, method of research (if this has some bearing on readers' understanding of the text), brief acknowledgments…, and sometimes permissions granted for the use of previously published material."[22] See the preface at the beginning of this style guide for an example of information to include.

4.4.2   Main Text

The main text refers to the introduction, body, and conclusion of your research paper. While the front matter typically contains Roman numeral-style page numbers (e.g., i, ii), the main text will be separated by a section break and will start on page one in Arabic numerals (e.g., 1, 2). For more information on page number format and section breaks, see Appendix C. **When writing shorter assignments, which may not necessarily contain front matter such as a table of contents or a preface, the main text should directly follow the title page.** Refer to Chapter Three for more information about drafting an introduction, body, and conclusion.

4.4.3   Back Matter

The back matter appears after the main text and includes information that amplifies the concepts and ideas expressed in the main text; it also includes documentation information, as the endnotes and bibliography are part of the back matter.

Note: The *Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th edition states a list of abbreviations may be included as a part of the front matter or in the back matter; however, this list—commonly referred to by military students as a list of acronyms—is typically placed in the back matter in research papers written by Marine Corps University students as more of a glossary or appendix defining unfamiliar terms. Consult with your faculty member, dean, or supervisor for individual guidance.

Appendices: Appendices may contain information that serves to augment facts, ideas, or concepts discussed in the main text; however, any information that is essential to the reader's understanding of the paper should be placed in the main text—not in an appendix. When you have only one appendix, refer to the material simply as the appendix. When you have more than one appendix, each one should be assigned a letter or number (e.g., Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix C).

Glossary: Texts containing foreign words and technical language may contain a glossary that provides definitions of terms that are likely to be unfamiliar to the reader. The entries in this glossary should be arranged in alphabetical order.

Notes: The *Chicago Manual of Style* allows writers to cite sources with either endnotes or footnotes, saying the "decision of where to place the notes is generally made by the publisher."[23] However, Marine Corps University advises all students to use endnotes unless otherwise specified by a faculty member. Endnotes should be placed after the appendices (if your document contains any) and before the bibliography. The font size of the endnotes is often determined by a publisher, though endnotes often appear in the same font size as the main text or may be one type size smaller. Chapter Nine provides specific guidance for formatting endnotes in Chicago style.

Microsoft Word's automatic endnote numbering tool makes it much easier to keep track of your endnotes, and the LCSC faculty members encourage you to use this function for your papers at MCU. See Appendix C for step-by-step directions for generating endnotes in Microsoft Word.

Bibliography: The bibliography is a list of the sources you cited and consulted throughout the course of your research. For more information about formatting bibliographic entries, see Chapter Nine. Bibliography entries should be placed after the endnotes, which will require you to insert a section break between the bibliography and endnotes. See Appendix C for more information about how to create section breaks.

The podium pages section on the following page will provide you with information on rehearsal and revision of your oral presentations.
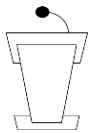
Podium Page - Rehearsing Your Presentation and Making Revisions

There is no substitute for good preparation in boosting confidence and reducing public speaking anxiety. You are the vessel of your message. Your notes are there to help you, and your slides are there to clarify your message. Refrain from depending entirely on your notes and your slides to achieve a smooth delivery. There must be more to the presentation than what you have written down.

It is important to practice your presentation standing up and directing your eye contact outward as if looking at an audience. Be wary of substituting sitting at your desk, looking through your slides, and thinking through the content as ample rehearsal. An actual on-your-feet rehearsal is particularly helpful in a number of ways:

- It reveals places to revise content. Expect to make minor adjustments after an on-your-feet rehearsal.
- Practicing the presentation without staring at the slides will help you commit content to memory.
- You will likely find places where you get stuck. Add cues on your notes page to jog your memory.
- It helps you recall and anticipate what is on the next slide. Speakers who look surprised when transitioning to the next slide appear unprepared.
- It helps you identify the annoying vocalized pauses: "uh, um, ok, so…" so you can smooth these out before your presentation.
- It reveals any glitches with animation, transitions, and audio/video.
- It measures how long your presentation actually is.

Q & A Preparation

Prepare for audience feedback in the form of questions, observations, and criticism. Keep in mind that audiences are generally supportive. A silent room, where the audience has no further questions usually means one of two things: the audience was sufficiently informed and they have no questions, or the audience was left so confused that no one can formulate a question. Insightful questions that pertain to your presented material should be valued. If your presentation was argumentative, you may field questions that challenge your standpoint. Here are some guidelines for fielding questions:

- Be more specific than asking, "Do you have any questions?" Instead try, "We have time for questions. I want two questions or take-aways before we adjourn." This will lift the audience's inhibitions, and they will be more likely to participate.
- If you do not know the answer to a question, do not make something up. Acknowledge the insight provided by the question and pledge to follow up with an answer.
- Keep responses concise and brief. Q & A time may be short, and it is important to give everyone who has a question the opportunity to ask.
- Watch the clock. If you are at the end of your allotted time, limit the questions. It is polite to announce, "I have time for one more question or take-away."

PART TWO: RESEARCH AND DOCUMENTATION

Research, like writing, is an iterative process. It typically begins with a problem, question, or broad topic; you then choose a specific angle of this topic that you can thoroughly investigate and write about within the time and page constraints of your assignment. Figure 26 depicts the connections between research and writing processes, as students often move back and forth among these different stages throughout the duration of their projects.
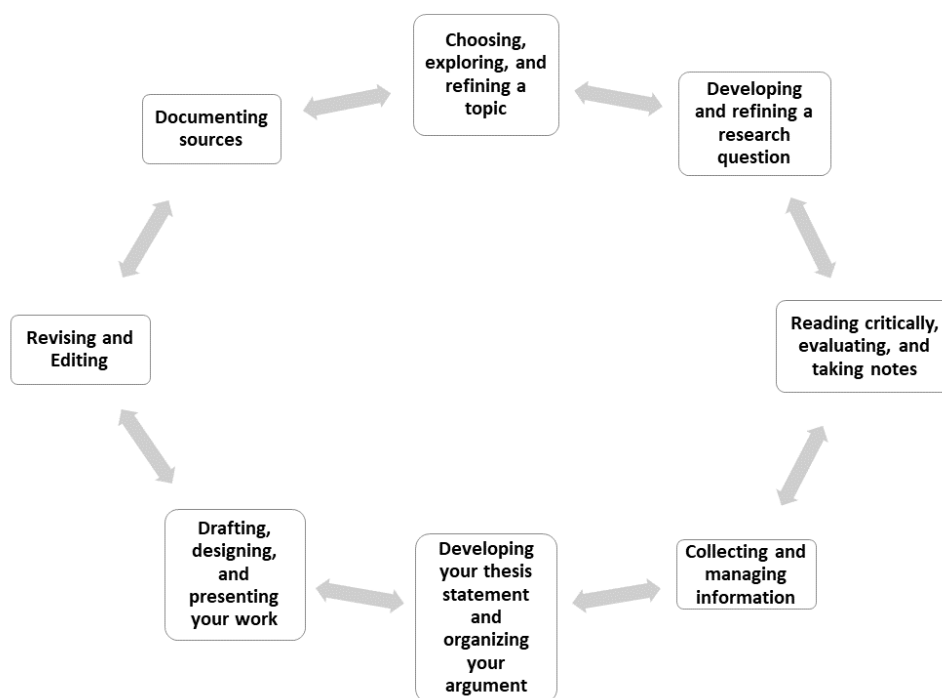
Figure 26. Research and Writing Processes
Source: Adapted from Mike Palmquist, *The Bedford Researcher* 6th ed. (Boston: Macmillan Learning, 2018), 13.

Part Two of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* offers you an overview of the research process, strategies, and heuristics to help you through different stages of your research, as well as a guide to citing and documenting your work using the *Chicago Manual of Style*. The chapters included in Part Two are as follows:

CHAPTER FIVE: THE RESEARCH PROCESS
CHAPTER SIX: DEVELOPING A RESEARCH QUESTION, WRITING A LITERATURE REVIEW, AND ORGANIZING RESEARCH
CHAPTER SEVEN: DEVELOPING A WORKING THESIS STATEMENT
CHAPTER EIGHT: WRITING WITH SOURCES
CHAPTER NINE: ENDNOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY FORMATS

CHAPTER FIVE: THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Research is fundamentally a problem-solving exercise. It is a search for evidence that will help you investigate and answer a research question in the way that best suits your particular context and purpose. You participate in research processes every day. When you need to decide what kind of car or computer to buy, for example, you typically conduct research—by talking to others or by searching online—to inform your decision. When you need to know whether a particular food has health benefits or health dangers, for example, you conduct research to find the answer. Decisions on the battlefield are also the result of an effective research process. While the tools you use to conduct that research may be different and the stakes are higher, the process you will go through to examine your assumptions, revise those assumptions, and come to a conclusion is largely the same. While a student, you collect information by searching databases, reading books, and interviewing subject matter experts. In the operating forces, this information might come in the form of reconnaissance, after action reports, and field observations. A skilled commander knows how to organize this information, make sense of it, and make a decision based on that information, even as the situation continues to evolve. Similarly, when you approach research as a student, you'll find that your conclusions will change as the information you collect begins to challenge the assumptions on which those initial conclusions are based. Just as you would adjust your battle plan in reaction to developing intelligence reports, you will fine tune your argument based on the new information you collect throughout the research process. Research, therefore, is not merely an academic exercise. The ability to sort through information, isolate facts from unfounded assumptions, and come to a decision, even when the situation is constantly evolving, is an invaluable skillset for a successful military leader. This chapter provides strategies for building those essential research skills and includes the following topics:

5.1   Overview of the Research Process

When you undertake a writing project that requires research, your goal is to find information, evidence, and resources that will broaden your own understanding of a subject and its context so you can gain perspective, reach insights, and ultimately solve a problem. The process of conducting research helps you to develop expertise about a subject, issue, or event. Writing about this research allows you to organize your ideas into a logical presentation or argument that your readers can follow and act upon.

As a process, research is messy. You might begin with a single question and find that in order to answer that single question, you must answer many other questions first. Research can be time consuming. Many researchers do not mind investing many hours into their research, however, because they are passionate about their topics. Prepare to spend a lot of time researching your topic when you undertake a research paper.

As an MCU student, you have access to a team of reference librarians to support you throughout the research process. You will find the Research Librarians in Room 121 of the Gray Research Center, or you can access them virtually at https://grc-usmcu.libguides.com/library.

The research process is both cyclical and recursive, as figure 27 illustrates.
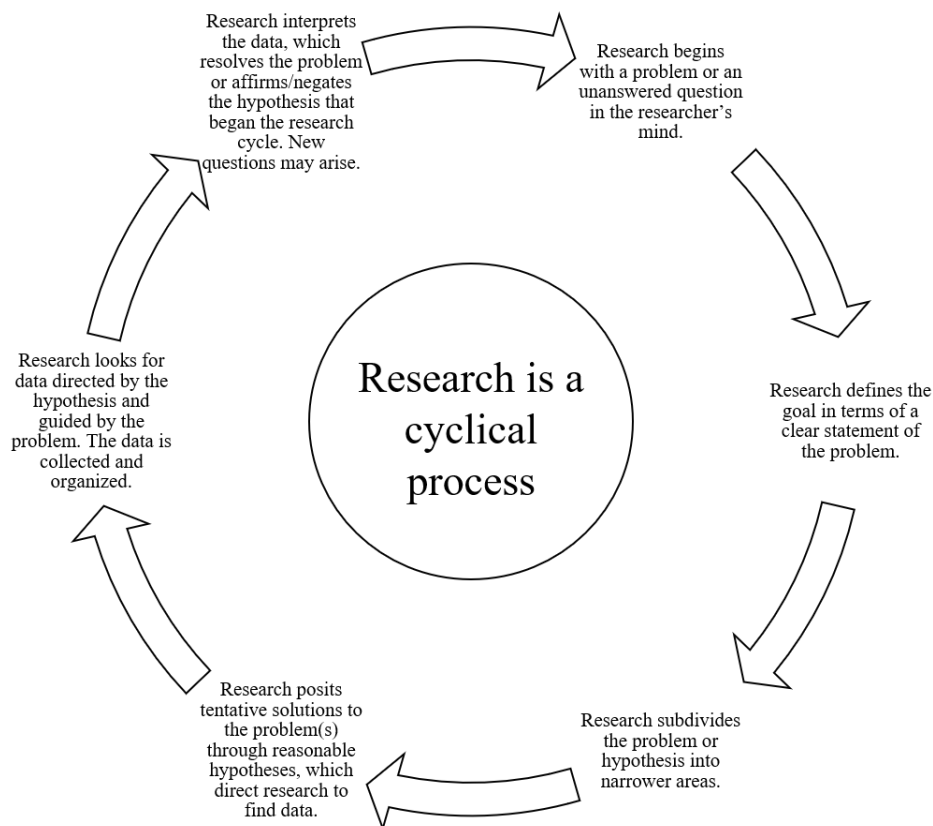
Figure 27: The Research Process
Source: Adapted from Paul D. Leedy and Jeanne E. Ormrod, *Practical Research: Planning and Design,* 8th ed. (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, 2005), 7.

Research typically begins with a problem, a question, or even a writer's simple curiosity about something. As you investigate the problem, you begin to articulate a research question (or a problem statement). The information you uncover leads you to articulate several additional questions or sub-problems related to your research question. As you conduct research, you develop and adopt (or discard) hypotheses to help you answer your questions. You collect and organize information that supports or refutes your hypotheses, and then you go through the cycle again: You re-articulate your research problem, restate your goal, re-examine your sub-problems, re-posit solutions, revise your hypotheses, and reorganize your data. At some point, you begin to draft a paper that presents your argument to specific readers who can act on your research. You can find more information about developing a research question and constructing an argument in Chapters Six and Seven.

> **Research is a process: Your initial hypothesis can and should shift.**
>
> If you are writing about a problem or issue that is familiar to you, you likely have a sense of what the answer to your research question might be. In fact, you might be tempted to jump directly into writing a thesis statement and collecting evidence to support that thesis. The research process, however, is not an exercise in proving your initial hypothesis. It should be a process of exploration and one that gives you the opportunity to challenge some of the beliefs you already have about a particular problem. Sometimes this process may lead to an affirmation of previously held beliefs, but it should allow for examination of other points of view.

When should I stop researching?

The point at which the research process ends and writing begins is not clear cut. In fact, many researchers find it helpful to complete some preliminary writing before conducting research. This may mean making a list of elements you find interesting about your topic, drafting a research question or hypothesis, or even freewriting. If you are undertaking a major research project, such as an MMS, Future War, or IRP paper, you will notice you may move back and forth between the research and writing processes as you compose your paper. For instance, you may sit down to write only to realize your thesis has shifted and you now need more evidence to support your specific claim. Similarly, you may feel overwhelmed by your sources and all of the sub-topics that are inherent in your main topic. In this case, you may need to do some outlining or mind mapping in order to determine which aspect of your paper you are most interested in presenting. Once you have sufficiently narrowed your focus, you can proceed with your research in a more focused manner. For more information about mind mapping, outlining, freewriting, and other types of invention strategies that may help you to develop ideas about your topic, refer to Chapter Two. Deciding when to stop researching and write your paper can be difficult. When writing about current topics such as North Korean nuclear proliferation or the COVID-19 pandemic, you will likely find new information that may change your perspective daily. It is important to remember that your research paper represents a snapshot in time, a jumping off point for future researchers to continue the conversation surrounding your topic. Your research paper should demonstrate that you consulted the existing literature on your research topic that was available at the time period in which you were writing.

5.2   Finding a Topic and Collecting Background Information

As you look for an area of research to meet the goals of your project or your writing task, you will begin by searching for background information on topics you find interesting. The goal of your background research should be to familiarize yourself with definitions and general issues associated with a subject that interests you.

While choosing a topic can be one of the most difficult aspects of writing an academic research paper, it can be rewarding—particularly when it allows you to satisfy your curiosity about something, or when it becomes an opportunity for professional development. As you begin brainstorming, you may want to think about your experience. 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 have relevant real-world applications.

Where to look for topics:

1. **MCU's military-specific research guides**: These guides are curated specifically by MCU reference librarians. Topics are updated every one to three years and are available here: https://grc-usmcu.libguides.com/research-topics/main. The reference librarians have also compiled a variety of resources and articles on the library's academic support pages.
2. **MCU course material**: As you complete your assigned readings, keep track of the problems, themes, and ideas you might like to investigate further. Keep in mind that your research topic does not need to be obscure, and some of the best papers find new ways of looking at old problems (e.g., using Clausewitz's trinity to understand how to address a modern crisis in Venezuela). As such, there are a wealth of potential research topics to be found in your regular course material.
3. **Articles published by other PME institutions**: Publications from the wider PME community are another window into current issues in national defense. Consider skimming journals such as *Parameters*, *Small Wars Journal*, or *Joint Force Quarterly* to familiarize yourself with some of the debates and critical perspectives in military studies. Reading these types of publications will also give you a sense of what a well-written research paper looks like. Researchers will often propose issues for further consideration or ideas for future research in the conclusion of an article. These conclusions and recommendations may provide a point of departure for your own research. In addition to reading research-based articles, watching or reading the news can give you ideas for further research. Once you start looking for research problems, you are likely to find them nearly everywhere.
4. **GRC reference librarians**: If you are feeling overwhelmed at any stage of the research process, you can always reach out to the GRC reference librarians, who have a wealth of knowledge about the topics students have researched in the past, the sources students have used in their writing, and the information available on certain topics.

Before you commit to a topic, you should ask yourself the following three questions:

1. Am I interested enough in this topic to commit myself to hours of research and writing on it?
2. Is this topic appropriate for my writing assignment (or for another writing goal, such as a publication)?
3. Can I find credible primary and secondary sources about this topic?

If you can answer these questions in the affirmative, you are ready to perform a background investigation of the topic. Keep in mind, though, your *topic* is not the same as your *central research question.* Your topic is a general area that you will become more knowledgeable about so you can articulate a specific research question to investigate and write about. The answer to your central research question will become a working thesis statement. Before you can develop that thesis statement, though, you must gather background information from both primary and secondary sources.

5.3 Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Sources

As you conduct your research, you will likely consult a variety of primary, secondary, and tertiary sources. Primary sources are original sources of information, such as original documents or artifacts. Secondary sources comment on primary sources—that is, they are interpretations of primary sources. Examples of secondary sources include critical reviews, journal articles, and dissertations. Most reference materials are considered tertiary sources, which include dictionaries, encyclopedias, and textbooks. Researchers will often consult tertiary sources first to gain background information. Then, they will move on to secondary sources to get a sense of the main critical debates in the field. Finally, they might consult primary sources to develop their own stance on the debates they find in tertiary and secondary sources. In other words, researchers tend to start with sources that are further from the original source and then move to more specific types of information (such as artifacts or original documents).

5.3.1 Tertiary Sources

Tertiary sources may combine information from both primary and secondary sources and include reference materials, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and handbooks. It is typical to consult tertiary sources to gather some background information or general knowledge on a topic before you begin conducting more focused research.

5.3.2 Secondary Sources

Secondary sources are the resources we often think of first when we think about writing a research paper. They are the published resources that comment on or analyze primary sources as well as other secondary sources. Secondary sources can help readers make connections between ideas or raise questions about issues and perspectives. Additionally, secondary sources further disciplinary understanding and can create new theoretical frameworks that readers use to attain insight. Secondary sources have been vetted by publishers and expert reviewers who have agreed that the information in a secondary source is important and that it represents a current view of a subject. It is important to differentiate between credible secondary sources and those that are questionable—for example, nearly anyone can edit or add content to a Wikipedia page, so you may not want to consult Wikipedia when providing evidence to support your claims. While secondary sources can provide useful and reliable information, this information has already been analyzed and filtered for you by the author. The work is subject to the secondary source author's personal biases or interpretation, as well as the ways in which the author views the field or the discipline.

Although it is important to read critically in order to be aware of the biases and inconsistencies that may be present in secondary sources, these sources are an essential 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. For more information about evaluating sources to determine bias and credibility, refer to Chapter Six, section 6.3.

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 and weaknesses of these multiple perspectives in order to create your own model. Then you will use primary sources—reports from the field and interviews with African culture experts, for example—to show why your model would be effective.

5.3.3   Primary Sources

Primary sources are original sources of information. In historical, military, and professional research, these primary sources of information typically include original documents such as letters, diaries, legislative bills, laboratory studies, corporate reports, field research reports, operational orders, after action reports, message traffic, unit diaries, map overlays, and eyewitness accounts. Primary sources include information researchers gather for themselves by means of interviews, surveys, or observations.

When you are searching for background information on a topic, your primary sources might include the people you consult who work in the field or who have become experts on the topic. These sources can provide you with definitions and describe for you some of the current issues associated with your topic. They can give you their opinion about additional sources available on the topic. Once you have developed a strong command of the subject matter and you have articulated your central research question, you can return to your primary sources with more specific inquiries into your main idea.

In order for a research 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. Your central research question will drive the framework and structure of your investigation.

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 you will fly to France to study the beaches in person. However, you may be able to find valuable correspondence in the Marine Corps Archives. When viewing primary sources, remember to place the object or document you are studying into its context; you can do this by studying the time period in which the source was written. Questions to ask include the following: How did the society, politics, and economics of the time period affect the object's significance?

Figure 28 offers examples of primary and secondary source research.

Primary Source Research

- Walking the battlefields at Gettysburg
- Interviewing people who were affected by Hurricane Florence
- Reading original correspondence George Washington wrote from Valley Forge

Secondary Source Research

- Reading an article written in 2010 describing the losses at the Battle of Gettysburg
- Reading about Hurricane Florence in reputable news sources written in 2018
- Reading a biography of George Washington that describes his time at Valley Forge

Figure 28: Examples of Primary and Secondary Research

Once you have collected your background information, you will develop an understanding of the issues and questions surrounding your research topic. From there, you can develop a working research question that will help direct further information-gathering.

5.4   Working with Sources: Reading Critically and Actively

Constructing a strong, well-reasoned paper is as much a thinking process as a composing process. Actively engaging printed sources and knowing how to read critically is an essential component of your writing process.

When you read critically, you attempt to not only understand another writer's argument but also to think about what biases and underlying assumptions might inform that argument. You will also want to think about how the argument is constructed: What are the premises upon which the author builds his or her conclusions? How does the text relate to others you have read on the subject? Critical reading should prepare you to respond to what you have read—it is the first step in any type of analysis, synthesis, or evaluation (see Chapter Two for more information about analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).

While readers may have their preferred critical reading process that allows them to prepare to interact with a text, if you are not sure where to start, you might consider using some of the strategies below. You will notice that the proposed critical reading method requires you to read the text three times.

Critical Reading Strategies
1. Skim the text or preview the material.
2. Slow down and read the full text using active reading strategies. These include questioning the text, annotating the text, taking notes, and mind mapping.
3. Review the text and the areas you have highlighted and annotated as well as your own notes and mind maps. Consider the relationships among the key ideas. Look for main patterns, themes, or ideas throughout the text. Review the concepts you do not understand.

In the rest of this section, you will find descriptions of a few strategies that can help you read actively and critically. They include the following:

1. Previewing
2. Questioning
3. Annotating
4. Taking Notes
5. Analyzing
6. Responding
7. Journaling

While you may not use every strategy each time you read, these approaches may help you to read more effectively so you can create new knowledge to draw on as you write. Using active reading strategies helps you avoid having to go back to relearn concepts you have previously read about.

5.4.1   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 do the main topics tell you about the writer's argument and organization? What are some of the main ideas? If you are reading a chapter in a textbook, what are some of the questions the author asks 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 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 analytical perspectives the author will incorporate or disprove throughout the book. The preface and table of contents will give you some insight into the author's purpose, framework, and possible biases.

5.4.2   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 argument with you over a cup of coffee, how would you respond? Would you agree with the author's main argument? Would you present an alternative point of view? Are there parts of the argument you agree with? Are parts of the argument unsupported or questionable? Are there any terms, concepts, or models you do not understand? Are there perspectives the author may be missing? You will want to keep these questions in mind as you read.

5.4.3   Annotating

Annotating is the process of marking important ideas, definitions, and concepts in the text. When you annotate, you highlight key phrases, indicate supporting points you agree or disagree with, and even ask important questions in the margins. If you are reading a digital copy of a text, your e-reader will probably have an annotation function. If you are reading a hard copy text that does not belong to you, you can take pictures of important pages or visuals on your phone or use post-it notes to indicate key ideas. You can even color code the post-it notes to trace main themes throughout the reading. For instance, if you are trying to determine how the United States applied the DIME principles in a particular conflict, you could assign a color to each element (e.g., yellow for diplomacy, green for information, red for military, and blue for economics). When you review the text before an 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 its reference information into a Microsoft Word document. This approach will allow you to highlight blocks of text and use Microsoft track changes and comments to note your questions and/or comments in the margin.

5.4.4   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. Figure 29 displays an example of the Cornell Note-taking method, which may help you think about these connections as you write down important concepts or facts.

Connect to other research or course material: "Universal overconfidence also resulted in the blind dissemination of antiquated, terribly inaccurate maps."[1]	**Quote or paraphrase from source:** The Soviet leadership failed to recognize that "German tactical doctrine had been tailored for very…central European conditions: familiar landscape with a network of modern roads."[2] The Soviets neglected to identify that the 800km stretch of territory from Lake Ladoga north to the Arctic Ocean "was quite impenetrable except for a handful of unpaved roads."[3]
Implications for further research: "Soviet intelligence preparation of the battlefield (IPB), and, specifically, their terrain analysis, was severely flawed."[4] [1]Trotter, *A Frozen Hell: The Russo-Finnish War of 1939-1940,* 123. [2]Trotter, 6-10. [3]Trotter, 6-7. [4]Trotter, 35.	

Figure 29: Cornell Note-taking Method

Source: Concept developed by Walter Pauk, *How to Study in College* (Boston: Houghton/Mifflin, 1962).

In the Cornell Note-taking method, you divide your page or screen into three sections. In one section, you summarize or quote an idea from an outside source. In another section, you make a connection between the new idea and a previous idea you have learned in class or have read about. In a third section of the page, you write about the implications of this idea: What does it mean in a particular context or for future study? This strategy is useful when reading about the central ideas of your research.

5.4.5   Analyzing

In regards to textual analysis, Mike Palmquist says in *The Bedford Researcher,* "Writers who use this form of analysis focus both on what is actually presented in the text and what is implied or conveyed 'between the lines.'"[24] You will ask yourself about the structure of the argument. You will want to examine the author's assumptions, the sources and evidence he or she uses to support those assumptions, and possible author biases. Below are some questions you will 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 types of evidence does the author use to support these assumptions (e.g., surveys, interviews, or 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?
   a. In which publications do these sources appear?
   b. Are these publications considered biased in any way?
4. How does the author make his or her point?
   a. Does the author rely on emotional appeals?
   b. Does the author include unsupported, sweeping generalizations?
5. Who is the author?
   a. Does he or she belong to an organization with known biases?
   b. What are the author's credentials?
6. What is the author's purpose for writing?

After analyzing the arguments others have made, you can use rhetorical analysis to determine where your argument fits into the academic conversation. In this way, you can point out gaps in logic of existing arguments and emphasize the strengths of your own use of appeals. For more information on understanding the rhetorical situation, see Chapter Two, section 2.1.

5.4.6   Responding

Generally, responding to a text involves taking a few minutes to write down your initial reaction to a text. A response does not need to be a polished, well-organized piece of writing. You may craft it in paragraph form or in a series of bulleted statements. When you respond to a text, you are thinking about its broader implications. 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 respond by discussing your reading with your colleagues. Such discourse may help you to recognize how the new information may be meaningful or applicable to your own life, thus helping you to internalize concepts. In this way, the text becomes a dialogue. Worksheet 4 will help you to ask critical questions of the texts you read.

Worksheet 4: Critical Reading

1. What does the text say?
   a. What is the author's bottom line/main argument?
   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 might the author have for writing?
   c. Who is the author's intended audience? What is the audience's agenda?
3. How does the author make his or her argument?
   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 real purpose different from the stated purpose?
   d. What types of evidence does the author use to support his or her point (e.g., statistics, experience, examples, theory)? Is the evidence effective?
4. What are the broader implications of the text?
   a. What are the main critical or analytical perspectives presented? How do they differ from other perspectives in the field?
   b. How does the text relate to other course materials 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?

5.4.7 Journaling: Keeping a Three-Column Journal

Another critical reading strategy is to keep a three-column journal. It is often helpful to do this in Microsoft Excel as a spreadsheet. In the first column, you would report a significant idea from the text. In the second column, you would analyze that idea or react to it in some way. Finally, in the third column you would connect the text to other ideas—research you have conducted or other texts you have read. Worksheet 5 is a template for how you might use this type of journal to take notes as you read.

Worksheet 5: Blank Three-Column Journal Template

Quote or Paraphrase from Text	Analysis	Connection to Other Research

Using these strategies will help you to read more critically. By encouraging you to focus on the meaning of the text and not merely the presentation of facts, these models may help you to connect complicated, recurring themes. While it seems as though using these strategies will take a lot of time, many readers find that using these strategies actually *saves* time: Active and engaged reading strategies help you assimilate concepts for the long term, so you will not have to spend so much time rereading. The next two chapters will help to simplify the complex—and sometimes overwhelming—process of conducting scholarly research and writing a research paper.

CHAPTER SIX: DEVELOPING A RESEARCH QUESTION, WRITING A LITERATURE REVIEW, AND ORGANIZING RESEARCH

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. The answer to this research question will become your thesis statement—something you may not arrive at until you are well into the process of conducting your research. This chapter covers the following topics:

Developing a research question is the first step in narrowing your topic; it helps you focus on one particular aspect of your subject because it allows you the flexibility to test out various hypotheses as you gather data and develop expertise on the topic. The research question may help you begin thinking about the key words you will need in order to find information that is relevant to your topic. For example, rather than researching "counterinsurgency" or "artificial intelligence"—topics that 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 like the one below.

> **Primary Research Question:** How was the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya different from the French military's counterinsurgency strategy?
> > **Sub-question 1:** What were the effects of these two strategies?
> > **Sub-question 2:** What aspects of the strategies might be relevant to current US military operations?

Below are a few examples of research questions you can use to direct and narrow the focus of a research paper.

1. What have current US operations against ISIS/IS/Daesh looked like? What effect have US operations had on the current fight against ISIS/IS/Daesh since 2012?
2. What technological tools can the Marine Corps take advantage of to counter China's growing cyber threat capability?

You are likely to develop sub-questions that will help you to answer your main research question and envision the scope of the paper. On the following page are a few examples.

```
1. Is China's growing influence dangerous to the United States'
   economic and security interests in the Asia Pacific region?
   a. What are China's primary interests in the Asia Pacific region?
   b. How should the United States address China's growing influence in
      the Asia Pacific region?
2. Should Americans view Edward Snowden as a patriot?
   a. What is patriotism?
   b. Did Snowden's actions exemplify American conceptions of
      patriotism?
```

6.1   Reviewing the Literature on Your Topic

After you have collected some background information and as you begin to develop 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 several main purposes, which are explained below.

1. It helps you establish a picture of the current knowledge about the topic as well as current ways of viewing or evaluating the topic.
2. It determines whether there is enough research to support your topic or to answer your research question.
3. 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.
4. It provides you with the opportunity to develop your research question and the thesis statement that will answer it within the context of the scholarly research that has already been published on the subject.

By examining the research others have done, you will gain a deeper, broader, and more contextualized 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. Understanding other viewpoints and conflicting theories will give you a deeper perspective, as doing so 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 important to keep opposing points of view in mind to 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 about the subject?
4. Is there debate or consensus on some aspect of the subject?
5. What implications or suggestions for future research do the authors offer?

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 an influential work on the topic and study that work's bibliography to ascertain what sources 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 the 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 your library's reference librarians. They can assist you with finding the best key words for your search, and they may have access to databases that you do not. Reference librarians can instruct you on the use of online databases in your article searches.

6.2 Writing a Literature Review

A literature review is a synthesized discussion of various authors' work within a particular subject area. That is, the literature review gives the reader a sense of what has already been written about the topic, the different methods researchers have used to investigate the topic in the past, and the prevailing schools of thought that inform the topic. Composing a literature review encourages students to think deeply about the connections between what other sources say about their topic. Typically, your research question will guide your literature review.

6.2.1 Purpose of Literature Reviews

A literature review may serve a variety of purposes, but it will be driven by the underlying aim of your research.

If you are writing about a frequently studied and researched topic, the purpose of the literature review might be to show how your research relates to what others have already written about your topic. What will your work add to the current body of literature? Which authors, researchers, and theorists do you agree with? Which authors, researchers, and theorists do you oppose?

If you are writing about a relatively new topic, the literature review may allow you to synthesize the small body of research that does exist on your topic and to connect your claims to existing theories and methods.

If you are conducting qualitative or quantitative research, a literature review may serve to evaluate the research methods used in previous studies that have been conducted on your topic. For instance, you may choose to model a method used in a frequently cited seminal work. Conversely, you might debunk claims previous researchers have made if those claims are based on unreliable, flawed, or biased research methods.

If you are attempting to fill a gap in current research, you will want to include a research methods section to inform your reader about the status of the research that has been conducted on your topic up to this point.

6.2.2 Structure and Organization of Literature Reviews

While all literature reviews will involve some degree of summary (since they require you to report on the findings of other researchers and writers), the primary purpose of a graduate-level literature review is to **synthesize** information from other sources. That is, you will discuss how the sources relate to one another within the context of your own research question. You may draw some overall conclusions about the status of the research on your topic.

Literature reviews are often organized by theme. This means that the literature review will discuss how each theme or subtopic is covered in a variety of sources on your topic. The literature review might also be arranged chronologically—particularly if there have been significant developments within your field of study over the years. In a literature review, a writer will often describe the merits of a particular source while summarizing the author's findings. For instance, you may comment on whether a particular claim has merit and whether it has been challenged by others in the field. If you have included quantitative and qualitative studies in your research, you might consider comparing the methodologies researchers have used to come to their conclusions.

The length of your literature review will vary depending on the length and type of paper you are writing.

6.2.3 Literature Review Invention Strategies

The steps in writing a literature review are similar to the steps in writing a research paper. You will need to organize your ideas (invention), write your ideas (drafting), and revise your ideas (revision). Below are a few steps you might take before you begin drafting.

Make a table. Organize the table in terms of trends and themes; place each article in the appropriate section. See table 6 for an example.

Table 6: Literature Review: Theories of Creativity Development

	Theme 1: Creativity can be cultivated.	Theme 2: Creativity is innate.
Theorist/Author	Guilford (1950) Cropley (2001) Beghetto (2007) Sannino and Ellis (2009) Mayer and Wittrock (2009)	Smith (1980) Jones (2012)

Make a timeline. Organize articles from oldest to most recent. Be sure to emphasize major shifts in trends, themes, and policies when organizing information chronologically.

Put your research away when summarizing articles. Put the text in your own words. Compare what you have written with the original text to ensure accuracy.

6.2.4 Literature Review Drafting Strategies: Structure of a Literature Review

Like an essay or a research paper, a literature review will typically include an introduction, body, and conclusion. Below is a description of the elements you might want to address in each component of the literature review.

The introduction should provide some basic context for your topic. What are the parameters of the topic (e.g., are you limiting the topic to a specific time period; are you focusing on a particular subset of the topic)? The introduction might discuss landmark studies or present some of the main perspectives on your topic. Finally, the introduction may end with a thesis statement that addresses central themes throughout the literature **or** places your stance on the topic in the context of what previous researchers have found.

The body of the literature review discusses sources using a clear organizational framework. It should synthesize common points of view and highlight points of disagreement. Below are a few methods you might use to organize your ideas in the body of the literature review.

1. **History (chronological)**: This method is most useful when showing how perspectives on the topic have evolved over time.
   Example: `literature review of evolving attitudes on women in the infantry`
2. **Trend**: This method is most useful when looking at cause and effect relationships.
   Example: `literature review examining the effects of the 2007-2008 troop surge in Iraq`
3. **Theme**: This method is most useful when examining different perspectives on a topic, as it helps the reader to understand the different "camps" of researchers.
   Example: `literature review examining common traits and behaviors associated with creativity`
4. **Methodology**: This method is most useful when the purpose of the review is to derive a new methodology for examining the same problem, to justify the use of a particular methodology, or to discredit certain articles/studies based on methodology (focuses on how the research is conducted as opposed to conclusions drawn).
   Example: `literature review examining/comparing the methodology of a variety of studies that investigate ideal body mass index for athletes, or examining different methodologies used to investigate the most cost-effective retirement system for career military personnel`

The literature review will typically conclude by summarizing the main perspectives discussed in the body. It might present some ideas for future research. If the literature review is part of a longer research paper, the conclusion might include a transition into the next segment of the paper.

6.2.5 Sample Literature Reviews

The following pages present a few literature review excerpts. **Note: Many of these literature reviews have been truncated in the interest of space.**

Literature reviews may note areas in which authors are in agreement.

Recent studies have focused on creativity as a collective endeavor. Sannino and Ellis recognize that "creativity has been primarily conceptualized as the quality of an innovative individual or as a novel outcome of individual action…such a view disregards the collective processes of creation, the learning involved in those processes, and their foundational role in cultivating creative minds as well as in producing creative outcomes of societal relevance."[25] Hasse echoes this argument, claiming that creativity is not an individual art and is largely based on an individual's community. For instance, learners will tend to develop the type of creativity that is supported and encouraged by the institution with which they associate.[26]

Literature reviews may note areas in which authors are in disagreement.

According to Yamagata-Lynch, Vygotsky's theory can be seen as rebelling against behaviorist learning models that focus specifically on quantifiable, observable behaviors.[27] According to B.F. Skinner, a prominent behaviorist, "Behavior is shaped and maintained by its consequences;"[28] thus, teaching methods focus on positive and negative reinforcement in order to yield a particular behavioral response. In rejecting the idea of this direct stimulus response relationship in learning, Vygotsky attempted to formulate a model that would take into account individuals' motivations for learning, as well as cultural and environmental factors that might influence learning.

Literature reviews may highlight debates among researchers.

There are several aspects of creativity that are still debated. For instance, scholars are divided as to what degree "ethicality" and benevolence should be considered a feature of creativity. In her book *The Creative Mind*, Margaret Boden views creativity as something that can be self-serving;[29] further, Gill, Horgan, Hunter, and Cashenbery investigated an even darker side of creativity when they developed a conceptual framework to investigate creativity and innovation within terrorist organizations.[30] Kaufman and Drown have furthered the concept of malevolent creativity in order to shed light on how societies might counter or disrupt terrorist organizations.[31] Though the field has increasingly acknowledged the possibility of using creativity for dishonorable purposes, scholars remain divided as to whether creative products only include those that are beneficial to society.

Literature reviews may be used to highlight gaps in research.

Boko Haram in Cameroon in general—and the recruitment of Boko Haram combatants from Cameroon in particular—has not

attracted the attention of many authors, despite the rich literature that exists on Boko Haram in Nigeria. However, a few publications have been of interest in the preparation of this research paper. An article by Corentin Cohen on political instability in Lake Chad gives a general picture of Cameroon's population and the old criminal habits of the people in the area where Boko Haram has been dominating socio-political life.[32] Christian Seignobos, who writes on the innovations of war in the Mandara mountains, highlights the changes in tactics and techniques used by Boko Haram both in Cameroon and Nigeria where the Mandara mountains stretch. His major concern is the change in logistics and tactics over time.[33] Writing on the operational activities in the fight against Boko Haram, Aziz Salatou investigates the lack of a coordinated action of Cameroonian forces against Boko Haram in his article "Cacophony au Front" (Confusion in the Battlefield).[34] Perhaps the best synopsis of the subject is a November 2016 article published by the International Crisis Group, which estimates that there are 3,500 to 4,000 Cameroonians currently serving as combatants for Boko Haram.[35] Although these authors have been elaborate in their analysis, they have failed to sufficiently address the crucial problem of the recruitment of terrorists. The space dedicated to recruitment of insurgents does not permit them to answer the following questions: who, where, why, how, and with whom was the recruitment of insurgents done in Cameroon? It is such a gap in academic research that this paper sets out to fill.

A literature review may trace the roots and influences of a theory.

Sun Tzu, an ancient Chinese philosopher of war, heavily influenced Boyd's concept of maneuver conflict with the ideas contained in his classic work *The Art of War*. Along with an explicit focus on the mind of the enemy, Sun Tzu's thoughts throughout *The Art of War* emphasize the importance of concepts Boyd distinctively considered central, such as variety, harmony, rapidity, and initiative. Sun Tzu's concepts of *cheng* and *ch'i* are essential to creating uncertainty and confusion in the mind of the adversary, by maximizing variety and harmony to seize the initiative. Sun Tzu defines *cheng* as the expected and *ch'i* as the unexpected.[36] *The Art of War* uses these concepts in tandem to create an advantageous situation, ideally allowing friendly forces to exploit an enemy's weakness by showing the enemy the expected and then executing the unexpected.

Boyd also took an interest in the concepts *Auftragstaktik*, *Schwerpunkt*, and *Nebenpunkt*, which are complementary to Sun Tzu's concepts of *cheng* and *ch'i*. *Auftragstaktik* is commonly interpreted as mission-type orders.[37] Although Boyd uses the term only once in the brief, he clearly defines and stresses the concept's importance. When utilizing mission-type orders, commanders provide clear guidance of what they want accomplished,

but they allow subordinates to determine how to accomplish their intent. In turn, each subordinate is obliged to conduct actions to achieve the commander's intent. This arrangement allows for the subordinate to exercise initiative in execution, which results in variety based on the subordinate's individual decisions, increased rapidity, and harmony of action toward a single commander's intent. However, Boyd argues that the harmony only extends between the specific commander and subordinates.[38]

Literature reviews might summarize attitudes about a particular event.

While many studies of the battle of Agincourt exist, most of them reach a similar conclusion: leadership and discipline on the part of King Henry V and his English army allowed for a smaller force to win against a larger French force while in France.[39] From these tenets of leadership and discipline, four qualities are germane to this analysis: control of the battlefield, tactical employment of forces, target selection and discrimination, and the integration of protection and fire support. While these four qualities do not explain England's victory at Agincourt completely, they are the most applicable concepts for the study of potential manned and unmanned teaming (MUM-T) in future warfare and are thus the most pertinent to this analysis.

Literature reviews might criticize aspects of methodology.

In her article "Enhancing Creativity in Older Adults," Kathy Goff discusses the shortcomings of the research on creativity and older adults, but she neglects current research on creativity in adulthood. While the author asserts that little is known about creativity in adulthood,[40] the publications used to support her argument date back nearly ten years. She also fails to fully address two older, relevant studies that are often considered foundational to the research on creativity development in adults: Engleman's six-week study of older adult women, which includes qualitative data to support the possibility of improved creativity in old age,[41] and Sylcox's 1983 study, which substantiates Engleman's findings. Furthermore, Goff's research methodology is of concern, as she does not discuss the validity or reliability of the tools she used to measure the development of creativity in her experimental group.

Literature reviews may highlight key themes in the research.

In reviewing teaching methods that tend to facilitate stronger decision-making skills, a few themes emerged. First, narrative and storytelling can improve individuals' decision-making skills by helping learners to broaden their frame of reference, which may be akin to "artificially" developing experience.[42] Further, decision-making is improved by

strengthening pattern recognition capabilities.[43] Finally,
decision-making is improved through mental practice.[44] Because
many of these qualities are inherent in case studies, the
majority of this section will focus on this particular teaching
technique and how it might be used to improve decision-making
skills. The paper will also address mental simulations, which
help to improve "mental practice."

A literature review may be used to show where you fit into the critical conversation.

On December 17, 2010, Tunisian municipal police in the town
of Sidi Bouzid assaulted 26-year-old fruit vendor Mohamed
Bouazizi and confiscated his fruit and electronic scale. He and
his family immediately logged an unsuccessful appeal to the
municipal authorities for the return of his property. In
reaction, Bouazizi "doused himself with paint thinner" and set
himself on fire in front of the local governorate building just
one hour after the assault.[45] The nationwide anti-government
riots and demonstrations that soon followed caused Tunisia's
autocratic President, Zine el-Abidine Ben Ali, to flee Tunisia on
January 14, 2011 after holding power for more than twenty-eight
years. Most critics agree that Bouazizi's death and the
subsequent overthrow of the Tunisian government signaled the
beginning of the Arab Spring.[46] Large protests soon erupted
across the Middle East. Autocratic presidents also stepped down
in Yemen and Egypt, while civil wars began in Libya and Syria.
Some observers in the West soon dubbed these "Twitter
Revolutions," crediting "New Media" tools—especially social media
like Facebook, Twitter, and websites like WikiLeaks—with creating
the revolutions.[47]

On January 13, 2011, the *Atlantic's* Andrew Sullivan
proposed that the unrest in Tunisia "might actually represent a
Twitter revolution as has been previously promised in Moldova and
in Iran."[48] In July 2011, critic Judy Bacharach stated that a
WikiLeaks document about Ben Ali and his family's corruption
provided "the rationale for the revolution," which "was devoured
by millions of Tunisians."[49] Despite these commonly held
theories, upon further examination, it is apparent that Western
observers overestimated the effect and importance of social media
during the Arab Spring. While the internet and social media were
important tools used by urban youth, the internet and platforms
like Facebook and Twitter lacked the required saturation; other
more traditional forms of communication including television and
simple word of mouth were more prevalent and played a more
significant role.

A literature review may highlight exemplary studies or works on a topic.

Daniel Kahneman is perhaps one of the most widely cited
researchers on the topic of decision-making. In his Nobel Prize-

winning text *Thinking, Fast and Slow,* Kahneman strives to
understand how decisions are made in order to improve
organizational decision-making.[50] Kahneman discusses decision-
making primarily in terms of what he calls "System 1" and "System
2" thinking. The System 1 thinking he describes in the text
refers primarily to what some of us might think of as "fast"
thinking while characterizing System 2 thinking as slower and
more deliberate.[51] Kahneman is wary of the benefits of intuitive
thinking, as he sees System 1 as fundamentally flawed. He claims
that most people do not use rational decision-making practices;
instead, they rely on what he terms "decision bias."[52]

     Gary Klein, another frequently cited author on the topic of
decision-making, is more optimistic about the benefits of
intuitive thinking and believes most experts use some form of
intuitive thinking when making decisions under pressure. In one
of his most well-known studies, Klein observes how a group of
experienced firefighters make decisions. During this experiment,
he noticed the firefighters did not weigh options in order to
select the best decision, as many of the researchers conducting
the study (including Klein himself) had hypothesized. Rather,
the firefighters selected the first feasible course of action.[53]
Klein has termed this theory on decision-making the Recognition
Primed Decision (RPD) model. The premise of this model is as
follows: "Proficient decision-makers are able to use their
experience to recognize a situation as familiar, which gives them
a sense of what goals are feasible, what cues are important, what
to expect next and what actions are typical in the moment."[54]
Klein further posits that the key to successful decision-making
in time-constrained environments is pattern recognition, not
analysis.

6.3   Evaluating Your Sources

Regardless of whether or not you are required to write a formal literature review, any paper you
write that requires outside research will also require source evaluation. 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.[55] There are four areas to consider
when you evaluate a source: reliability, credibility, objectivity, and neutrality. All of your
sources should be reliable and credible. Some of your sources may not be completely objective
or neutral, and that is okay: You will use your critical reading skills to discern how to use those
sources appropriately in your argument.

Reliability determines the extent to which a source's claims and presentation of the facts are
consistent and verifiable. If someone were to tell you their counterinsurgency strategy is
effective, reliability would be lowered if you were to find out a group of commanders had
employed that strategy in Vietnam with limited success. The source's reliability would increase
if other data (e.g., personal letters, orders, photographic evidence, and personal interviews)
validated the theory and demonstrated that the strategy had been consistently effective.

Credibility directly relates to your capacity to believe a source or a research conclusion. Reliability influences a source's credibility. For instance, if the unsuccessful theorist in the example above were to develop a new counterinsurgency theory, they would have little credibility because their previous claims were false; hence, they were not reliable. Likewise, an individual's position and experience may affect his or her credibility. If someone were to tell you their theory about Professional Military Education (PME) is effective, credibility would be lowered if you were to find out that individual had never taught at a PME institution or had never been exposed to military culture before. Credibility would increase if that individual could show you statistics proving the effectiveness of their 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. Additionally, it refers to an author's ability to present several sides of an issue (i.e., he or she must address counterarguments). For instance, if one were to argue 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 policies. Objectivity would increase if the author of the source could state the argument simply based on facts, statistics, and/or logical arguments gleaned from accurate statistics. The use of neutral sources may help to bolster objectivity. You can often tell when a source is not objective by examining the type of language and tone the author uses. Texts that use hostile language when referring to a particular group of individuals or a particular philosophy are not objective.

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 a writer were to argue the United States military needs to pull all troops out of a certain location, and you find out this individual's brother was set to embark on a dangerous mission to that location, the neutrality of this text might be questionable. Likewise, if someone were to argue our current president cannot 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 increase if the individual was not affiliated with 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 process may help you to determine to what degree the text may be considered neutral. **However, few texts are 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.** Suggestions for strategies you can use to evaluate sources are found in Table 7.

Table 7: Determining the Relevance and Veracity of a Source

	Determine Relevance	Evaluate Veracity
Book	1. Use the index to look up words that are related to your topic. 2. Review the table of contents to determine whether smaller sections within the book pertain to your topic. 3. Read the opening and closing paragraphs of relevant chapters; skim headings. 4. Determine whether the book is too specialized or not specialized enough. 5. Check the publication date. If significant advances have been made in the field since the book's publication, the text may no longer be relevant.	1. Keep the author's style and approach in mind. Is the book scholarly enough to be considered credible? 2. Do the ideas seem biased? 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?
Journal Article	1. Look for an abstract or statement of purpose at the beginning of the article. 2. Read the last few paragraphs, as these often will provide a summary or conclusion of the article's main points.	1. Is the publication peer-reviewed? 2. Who publishes the journal? Is it an organization with a particular agenda? 3. Are the authors scholars, journalists, politicians, or professionals? 4. Are the conclusions drawn from original research?
Newspaper Article	1. Focus on the headline and the opening paragraph. 2. Skim the headings and look at visuals that may indicate the article's focus.	1. Does the newspaper have a nationally recognized reputation? 2. What type of newspaper article are you reading? Editorial opinion pieces may have a different level of bias than more factual pieces, for example.
Website	1. Look at the home page. Is the information relevant to your research question? 2. Find out when the website was last updated. Is the information current enough for your purpose? 3. What are the motives/interests of the sponsor/organization that maintains the website?	1. What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to sell a particular product/idea? 2. Check the name and credentials of the author or webmaster. If you have trouble finding the author's name or information about the sponsors, be wary of the information.

6.4 Varying (Triangulating) Your Sources

As you think about evaluating sources and checking for potential bias, keep in mind the more sources and different types of analysis you can use to support 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.[56] 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 support your thesis. Consider the following thesis statement:

```
The surge of American troops, coupled with local and militia
uprisings, formed the catalyst for the Iraqi Army's (IA) progress
in critical areas, such as logistics, personnel recruitment and
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retention, and pay administration, which contributed to building
the confidence and performance of the IA in 2007.
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In this study, the researcher used multiple sources in order to highlight the patterns and trends that resulted from the troop surge in Iraq. The researcher traced these trends—logistics, recruitment, personnel, and pay—in all of the sources consulted. Figure 30 is a visual representation of how the researcher triangulated the data to support the central claim.

Government documents: recruitment, pay, personnel, and logistics

Personal interviews with subject matter experts: recruitment, pay, personnel, and logistics

First person experience and observations: recruitment, pay, personnel, and logistics

Confidence grew within the Iraqi Army.
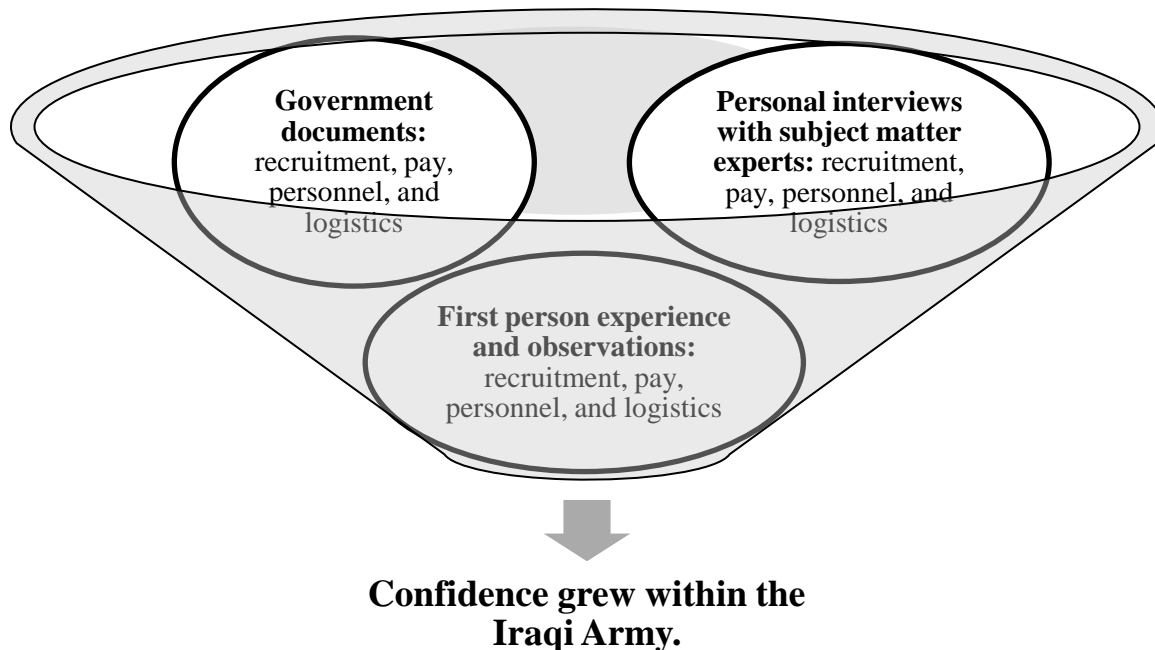
Figure 30: Triangulation of Data to Support a Claim

Whether you use an historical approach or an experimental approach to collect data, you must 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 collect your own primary data by using interviews and surveys of your own. **Note: Before interviewing or surveying human subjects, you will want to read your institution's rules on conducting original research.**

6.5   Primary Research

As you conduct your research, you may find a need to gather your own primary data. This can involve interviewing experts, holding focus groups, observing activities in the field, or surveying a representative group of individuals who have shared experience or knowledge that might be relevant to your research. You may also want to access "secondary data sets" that have already gathered such data but may contain private identifiable information or may not be publicly available. Primary research allows you to collect information directly connected to your research topic from a specialized audience.

While offering many benefits, these research activities do require additional preparation and planning. If your research:

- involves interviews, focus groups, surveys, questionnaires, or observations with any number of people or use of personnel data, review by the USMC Institutional Review Board (IRB) is required.
- involves gathering data from ten or more individuals, approval by the USMC Survey Program is required.

If you are considering a research plan involving gathering information from/about people (e.g., interviews, focus groups, surveys, or questionnaires) or access to private or identifiable data (e.g., personnel data), reach out to MCU's Director of Institutional Research, Assessment, and Planning and IRB Vice Chair, Dr. Kate Kuehn at kathleen.kuehn@usmcu.edu early in the research design process.

According to USMC policy, researchers **cannot** make determinations about the applicability of research policy on their own—review is required.

Additional information about research policies, review processes, and opportunities for data sharing is available on MCU's HSR and Survey Program Review site.

6.5.1 Deciding to Conduct Primary Research

With purposeful design, primary source data can provide unique insights into a research topic. Students considering whether to invest time and resources into primary source research should first determine whether the information they propose to gather is available via secondary sources. If it is not, consider the following questions as you consider whether and how to pursue primary source research:

1. What sort of information do you want to find? Try to articulate the purpose of your data gathering in a single sentence.
2. Are you seeking to identify numerical trends and/or measure perceptions (quantitative) or to delve more deeply into meaning and experiences (qualitative)?
3. How might this information connect with your research question(s)/thesis statement?
4. What types of analyses will you need to conduct? What skills or technical resources would be needed to support your project? Are they readily available?
5. Whom will you interview or survey? Which specific group(s) of people will have the knowledge or experience that is relevant to your interests? Do you have access to this population?

Many students also consider the usability of their results in this cost-benefit analysis–will your research connect to practice? For this reason, some students seek out a sponsor through professional networking or the Marine Corps and Joint Topics Research Lists (available at: https://www.usmcu.edu/Students/Student-Research-Topics/). Connecting

with these practitioners in the field presents another avenue for discovering existing data or literature that you can leverage in your research.

Considering these questions will give you insights into your research design and approach, as well as into the feasibility of your primary research. The complexity of the research question and proposed analyses, availability of resources for those analyses, and the size and location(s) of the target population are all factors that can constrain or prolong research design, data gathering, and analysis. These considerations will also impact whether your research will be subject to the reviews described above and how long those reviews will take.

6.5.2 USMC IRB and USMC Survey Program Review Processes

All student submissions to the USMC IRB and USMC Survey Program are made via the MCU IRB Vice Chair (Director of Institutional Research, Assessment, and Planning). The Vice Chair will do the following:

- advise the student on elements of research design that could reduce or increase review timelines.
- advise the student on drafts of their submission to smooth review processes.
- inform the student of IRB and Survey Program whether further reviews are required.
- inform the student and faculty mentor/advisor when the student is authorized to start the research.

USMC IRB: The initial step in this process is an applicability review, which involves completing a short form describing your research plans. The IRB determines whether the proposed project meets the federal definitions of human subject and research (32 CFR 219). If the determination is that the project is not human subjects research, no further IRB review is required. The majority of MCU student projects receive a "not human subjects research" determination.

If the project is human subjects research, the researcher completes a full research protocol, which is reviewed by the IRB. **Students often underestimate the time involved in completing an IRB protocol package, which requires thorough descriptions of the research plan and tools.** A full protocol requires you to describe the background and objectives of your research, as well as details of the methodology (target participant characteristics, data gathering, and analysis plan), and your plan for data access and security. If applicable, final data collection instruments (survey questions, interview protocol, etc.) are required. It also requires an online research ethics training module.

USMC Survey Program: Regardless of the human subjects research determination, if the research involves a survey, focus groups, or interviews with ten or more Marines or Marine Corps civilians or if the research will be conducted by a Marine or Marine Corps

civilian, a Marine Corps Survey Office review is required (MCO 5300.18). This involves uploading your materials and IRB determination or approved protocol to a portal.

Completeness of information and audience awareness is critical to speedy reviews. Follow the guidelines you receive from the MCU Vice Chair (Director of Institutional Research, Assessment, and Planning) and, if in doubt, ask for help.

6.5.3   Timelines for USMC IRB and USMC Survey Program Reviews

NOTE: In most cases, planning and implementing primary research is manageable within the school year. However, because review timelines vary based on project details, researchers should begin the process at least sixty to ninety days before they plan to recruit participants or request data.

MCU does not control the timelines of the USMC IRB or USMC Survey Program. The majority of MCU student projects receive a "not human subjects research" determination from the USMC IRB within one to two weeks. For projects that are determined to be human subjects research, the USMC IRB completes most student protocol reviews within thirty days. Most student projects make it through the USMC Survey Program review within thirty days. However, certain research design choices can complicate and extend reviews.

Factors that can significantly extend review timelines are complex, but a few of the ones commonly seen in initial student proposals are listed below. There are sometimes exemptions or alternatives available. Students should ask for help rather than assuming a factor will make their project impossible.

- Interview, focus group, or survey research with ten or more participants that:
    - addresses topics specified in MARADMIN 314/214. The USMC Survey Program will require a higher-level review that can take an additional six to nine months.
    - includes Marine Corps participants from outside MCU. The USMC Survey Program sends multi-command projects to DMCS for review, which can take an additional one to three months.
    - includes participants from services or agencies other than those assigned to MCU. The USMC Survey Program will require approval from the Office of People Analytics (OPA) for cross-component research. Currently, OPA will not approve student projects.
    - includes members of the public, including military retirees and DoD contractors. The USMC Survey Program will require higher-level reviews that can take six-nine months.
- International research or research involving participants who are not US citizens. Such projects will trigger additional reviews in both the USMC IRB and USMC Survey Program processes.

For access to current forms and more information, visit MCU's Research and Sponsored Projects Portal.

For information about how to reference Human Research Protection Program (HRPP/IRB) and Survey Program Reviews in your paper, see section 6.5.10.

6.5.4   Ethical Research

Whether or not a project is considered human subjects research, there are professional expectations and ethical best practices that should be reflected in research design, administration, and analysis. All research activities should adhere to the ethical practices of informed consent (ensuring participants understand how their information will be used and the risks involved), voluntary and fair participant selection, and cognizance of minimizing harm while maximizing benefits to participants. For more information, contact MCU's Director of Institutional Research, Assessment, and Planning, Kate Kuehn at kathleen.kuehn@usmcu.edu.

6.5.5   Designing Primary Research and Data-Gathering Tools

Design of your research instruments, such as surveys or interview questions, is critical to getting the right information to inform your study. The remaining sections provide some strategies and tips for designing, testing, and planning surveys and interviews.

For students with specialized research design needs, MCU will make an effort to link them to internal and external Marine Corps scholars/scientists who can assist them on an individual basis. This support is provided through a network of scholars/scientists in the LCSC, Academic Affairs, IRAP, and the schoolhouses. For more information, contact MCU_ResearchResources@usmcu.edu.

6.5.6   Survey and Interview Questions

When you conduct a survey or prepare for an interview, you will want to be sure your questions are clear, specific, and unbiased. You want to be sure your questions will actually yield the information you are seeking.

Open-ended questions and closed-ended questions are two basic types of questions you can use to gather data. Closed-ended questions require a respondent to select an answer from a finite number of responses, while open-ended questions allow respondents to offer original information that best answers the question. Below are examples of the two question types.

> **Closed-ended Question:** Did the ethics training you received pre-deployment prepare you adequately to make difficult decisions in combat situations? (Yes/No)
> **Open-ended Question:** In what ways, if any, could the Marine Corps improve its pre-deployment ethics training to better prepare Marines for making difficult decisions in combat situations?

As you construct an interview or a survey instrument, your sample size will drive the type of questions you choose to include. For example, if you are interviewing a single individual, it is a good idea to have a list of open-ended questions designed to allow that individual free range in response, thus providing you with rich information. In an interview situation, you can ask follow-up questions to get more information from your subject. However, if you are planning to survey a number of people, closed-ended questions make it easier to tabulate and interpret responses. These questions tend to yield more consistent data, making the responses easier to collect and interpret. Closed-ended questions are less time-consuming for respondents, thus making it more likely they will answer. However, closed-ended questions can be limiting, so 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 original responses that vary from one another.

When constructing interview and survey questions, you will want to avoid using leading questions, double-barreled questions, and ambiguous quantifying words.

Leading questions contain some of the interviewer's own biases or views. See the following example:

> "It seems to me the pushing down of intelligence assets (i.e. company intelligence cell) is a natural evolution paralleling the changing character of warfare. What are your thoughts?"

This interviewer is first telling you his or her own perceptions and does not orient the question to what you, the responder, perceive to be the case. A better way to solicit this information might be as follows:

> "In your opinion, what kind of effect would providing a battalion-level intelligence cell have on the battalion?"

Double-barreled questions often have a question embedded within a question; they ask two questions at once. Frequently, the words *and* and *or* may signal a double-barreled question. An example would 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 military officers should receive language training but not culture training or vice versa. A suggested revision would clarify the ambiguity with one of the options listed below.

1. Should military officers receive both culture training and language training?
2. Should military officers receive culture training? Should military officers receive language training?

Ambiguous quantifying words are vague ways of describing something and can confuse meaning. See the example below.

> "How well did your organic intelligence capability support planning?"

In the above example, 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, consider using a Likert scale instead of using vague descriptors. A suggested rewrite might be as follows:

> "On a scale of 1-5—with 1 representing 'not at all' and 5 representing 'extensively'—how would you describe the extent to which your organic intelligence capability supported planning?"

6.5.7 Pilot Testing

If time allows, you may want to pilot test your survey before administering it to your sample population. To pilot test your interview/survey questions, try having a person who matches the demographic of the sample group answer your questions. You should not use the responses you obtain from this person in your actual study; however, the responses will give you some insight into whether or not the questions you have developed are effective.

By asking the questions, you may 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 be interpreted in multiple ways, or the questions you ask may not yield the answers you are seeking. Once you have conducted the pilot test, you should know whether or not some of the questions need tweaking.

6.5.8 Conducting Surveys

Once you have designed your survey instrument, you should consider how it will be administered. Will you administer the survey yourself, will you email the survey to potential respondents, or will you enlist others to assist you in administering the survey? While it may be efficient to administer the survey yourself to a group of people who are all in a room at the same time, this situation reduces anonymity and may affect the way in which individuals respond to the survey. If you email the survey to potential respondents via a link (e.g., to Survey Monkey or some other survey tool) you risk not having everyone finish the survey, even if they had agreed to complete it ahead of time. Allow yourself plenty of time to collect, tally, and interpret the data on your returned surveys.

6.5.9 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 interview notes. The best place to conduct an interview is in a quiet environment, away from the individual's office, and without personal or electronic interruptions. In addition, make sure you have permission to record the

person's answers. Let the person know you will maintain confidentiality and anonymity, if he or she desires. Furthermore, tell the interviewee you will send him or her a copy of your completed study. This arrangement enhances your credibility with the interviewee and puts him or her at ease.

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

6.5.10 Referencing Human Research Protection Program (HRPP/IRB) and Survey Program Reviews in Research Outcomes

This section provides templates for referencing data obtained through the Human Research Protection Program and Survey Program in the text of your paper. You will want to select the template that best matches the circumstances under which you collected the data.

1. <u>If the project received a "NOT human subjects research" determination</u> and a. involved a data request (e.g., manpower data).

> The portion of this project using **[data source]** data was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]**and received a determination that it was not human subjects research. Review by the Marine Corps Survey Program was not required.

b. involved interviews, focus groups, surveys, or observations and Survey Program review was NOT required.

> The **[interview, focus group, survey, observational]** portion of this project was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]** and received a determination that it was not human subjects research. Review by the Marine Corps Survey Program was not required.

c. involved interviews, focus groups, surveys, or observations and Survey Program review was required.

> The **[interview, focus group, survey, observational]** portion of this project was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]** and received a determination that it was not human subjects research. It was approved by the Marine Corps Survey Program on **[review date]** (Survey Control Number **XXXX**).

2. If the project received a determination that it was human subjects research and

a. involved a data request (e.g., manpower data).

> The portion of this project using **[data source]** data was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]** and conducted under Protocol # **[protocol number]**. Review by the Marine Corps Survey Program was not required.

b. involved interviews, focus groups, surveys, or observations and Survey Program review was NOT required.

> The **[interview, focus group, survey, observational]** portion of this project was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]** and conducted under Protocol # **[protocol number]**. Review by the Marine Corps Survey Program was not required.

c. involved interviews, focus groups, surveys, or observations and Survey Program review was required.

> The **[interview, focus group, survey, observational]** portion of this project was reviewed by the Marine Corps's Human Research Protection Program on **[review date]** and conducted under Protocol # **[protocol number]**. It was approved by the Marine Corps Survey Program on **[review date]** (Survey Control Number **XXXX).**

6.6   Organizing Your Research Data

As you collect your research data, you will need to develop a system to keep your information organized and accessible to you for when you are ready to write. Most researchers find maintaining a working bibliography can help them organize their research.

As you select sources to use for your project—for your background reading, for your literature review, and for your argument—compile a working bibliography. Write down the bibliographic information about each source, and then annotate each entry. That is, write a paragraph with key information about the source you have cited. The annotation should contain a brief summary of the information in the source as well as how that information relates to your research question or your thesis statement. Finally, you will want to annotate how each source relates to the other sources in your bibliography. Figure 31 is a brief example of an annotated bibliography entry.

Freedman, Lawrence and Efraim Karsh. *The Gulf Conflict, 1990-1991: Diplomacy and War in the New World Order.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1993.

This book describes in detail all of the actions that the US policy makers took to prevent war in the Gulf. The first four sections of the book document the simultaneous acts of the diplomatic, political, information, and military actions the Bush administration used to develop the comprehensive solution that led to Operation Desert Shield and ultimately Desert Storm. It is useful for those researching the DIME principle in relation to the aforementioned operations.

Figure 31: Annotated Bibliography Entry Example

*Note that all lines of the source discussion are tabbed right.

As you begin to take more detailed notes about your sources, you should develop a system that works for you. Many of your sources will be in digital form, so you should store files of those sources for easy retrieval. As you review and read your sources carefully, you may use a note-taking tool to highlight and make notes directly on your digital copies.

Before researchers came to rely on word processors and other software to organize their notes and writing products, many took notes on traditional paper note cards. These researchers may have used different colored note cards to represent the various topics they intended to discuss in their papers, or they may have assigned each notecard a number that would indicate the topic area it was meant to discuss.

A more contemporary approach to the note card strategy is to outline your ideas on PowerPoint slides. You may devote each slide to a particular topic or to a particular portion of your paper. Make sure to only include one topic and one source per note card or slide. This approach will make it easier to organize your ideas when you have to write your paper. Additionally, you will want to indicate whether the information on the note card or slide is a paraphrase or a direct quotation. If the quotation is long or complex, you may want to include your own paraphrase to simplify the information.

Another approach is to use a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to break down your research data into searchable cells. You can organize this spreadsheet by topic, author, page numbers, or any other organizational structure that works best for you.

Another way to organize your research is to create a matrix, much like those used in Chapter Two for brainstorming and prewriting. Table 8 is an example of a type of matrix, referred to as a "scorecard." The researcher used this scorecard to demonstrate the level of alignment that exists between UNESCO's (2015) Global Citizenship Education key learning outcomes and the strategic plans of five graduate-level JPME institutions in the United States. A matrix like the one depicted in Table 8 is one way to organize and analyze secondary data in a qualitative research study.

Table 8: Balanced Scorecard Matrix Example

Scorecard

GCED Key Learning Outcomes (KLOs)	Naval War College	Marine Corps University	Air University	Naval Postgraduate School	National Defense University
Cognitive KLO #1: to understand local, national, and global issues and the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations.	DA	IA	DA	DA	DA
Cognitive KLO #2: to demonstrate critical thinking/analytical skills	DA	DA	DA	IA	DA
Socio-Emotional KLO #1: to understand human rights, cross-cultural solidarity/belonging to common humanity, and shared values and responsibilities	IA	NA	IA	IA	IA
Socio-Emotional KLO #2: to demonstrate empathy, solidarity, and respect for diversity	IA	NA	DA	DA	DA
Behavioral KLO #1: to demonstrate ethical responsibility at local, national, and global levels for global peace and sustainability	DA	DA	DA	DA	DA
Behavioral KLO #2: to demonstrate motivation and willingness to take necessary action for common good	DA	IA	IA	DA	IA

Note. Direct demonstration of alignment is denoted with DA. Indirect demonstration of alignment is denoted with IA. No demonstration of alignment is denoted with NA.

Regardless of the format you use to take notes, be sure you use your own language to summarize ideas. While it is very easy to use the language in the source for your notes, that practice can lead to plagiarism. Some researchers prefer to take notes without looking at the source so as to avoid unintentional plagiarism. You can find more information about plagiarism in Chapter Eight.

When taking notes, carefully distinguish your own ideas from quoted or paraphrased material. This distinction will help you to avoid plagiarism, especially if you are going to take notes electronically. Likewise, if you are going to cut and paste information from a digital source, make sure you immediately differentiate the quote from the rest of the text. You will want to place all directly quoted material in quotation marks, and you may even want to bold or highlight this text in order to distinguish it from the original ideas and analysis you include in your notes.

6.7   Connecting Your Research Data to Your Research Question

When you develop your research question, you may 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 reach 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 demonstrate that commercial travel to the moon is economically sustainable; however, after conducting research, he or she may find data that disproves this hypothesis. As long as the researcher can supply adequate information to support the idea that moon travel is not economically sustainable, the study will still have validity. This constant evaluation and reevaluation of assumptions is part of the cyclical nature of research.

Additionally, remember you started out with a research question that you may answer in more than one way. If your data does not support your initial hypothesis, you can draft a new hypothesis—which is based on the data you have collected—to answer the research question.

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 another researcher already answered the question? Is the question too broad? You should revise your question on the basis of your research and then begin to formulate the answer to that question in what is commonly called a working thesis statement, which will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

This chapter provided a general overview of the research process, but the information is by no means exhaustive. We have only just scratched the surface of what can be an intimidating topic for many students. If the last two chapters have left you wanting to know more about the research process, below is a bibliography of sources you might consider consulting:

Booth, Wayne, Gregory G. Colomb, Joseph M. Williams, Joseph Bizup, and William T. Fitzgerald. *The Craft of Research*. 4th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2016.

Creswell, John, and J. David Creswell. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches.* 5th ed. Los Angeles: SAGE, 2018.

Leedy, Paul, and Jeanne Ellis Ormrod. *Practical Research*. 8th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2004.

Swales, John, and Christine Feak. *Academic Writing for Graduate Students: Essential Tasks and Skills.* 3rd ed. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press, 2012.

Yin, Robert K. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd., 1994.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DEVELOPING A WORKING THESIS STATEMENT

> **This chapter focuses specifically on how to draft a working thesis for a research paper. For more general guidance on writing thesis statements, consult Chapter Three.**

What is the difference between a thesis statement and a working thesis statement?
As discussed in Chapter Three, the thesis statement establishes the author's position on the topic at hand. It presents the paper's central argument and gives the reader a sense of how the writer will support that argument. A working thesis fulfills this same function; however, this thesis is a work in progress and will likely shift as you progress through the research process.

> **Note**: The working thesis is sometimes referred to as a *hypothesis* because it can be seen as a prediction about how the research will conclude. Just as scientists' hypotheses about their research shift as they collect data, your hypothesis may also change as you collect more information about your topic.

The working thesis statement should tell readers what you are trying to argue through your research. It should articulate your main idea as well as your plan for writing about this idea. This statement can and will shift as you progress through the research process; however, you must have a clear vision of the point you wish to make as you conduct your research. The purpose of the working thesis statement is to keep your research focused. This chapter includes the following sections:

7.1	**Characteristics of Effective Thesis Statements**
7.2	**How to Begin Constructing a Working Thesis Statement**

7.1 Characteristics of Effective Thesis Statements

As discussed in Chapter Three, the thesis statement is often only one sentence long in short papers; however, it is acceptable to have a two-sentence thesis statement for longer papers, such as your Master of Military Studies paper, Future War paper, or Independent Research Project. In terms of placement, the thesis statement usually appears near the end of the introduction. Check with your faculty grading your written project to determine his or her preference for the placement of your thesis statement.

In its most basic terms, a thesis-driven research paper is a sustained and logical argument that clearly demonstrates your ability to successfully perform research and analysis while contributing to the existing body of knowledge in a particular discipline.[57] An effective thesis statement should answer three questions:

1. What is my argument?
2. How will I develop my argument (i.e., what factors will I consider)?
3. What is my argument's significance (i.e., why is it important to the existing body of research and to my readers)?

To be arguable, a thesis statement must make a claim with a level of controversy. Therefore, you will want to avoid writing about something that has already been accepted as a fact. Whether or not a thesis is considered arguable may depend on its social context. For example, the thesis statement, "Women should be permitted to join the military," is not a valid argument in the United States, since women in the United States can currently serve in the military. However, the statement, "Women in the United States between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five should be required to register with the Selective Service System for the draft alongside eligible men," could be considered a thesis statement because it is a controversial topic debated today in the United States.

Although another writer or researcher has likely covered your topic at some point in time, your unique analysis 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 topic or event? Are there any research gaps? Does this event provide any lessons learned that my service or agency might apply on the modern or future 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. Below are additional issues to consider when building an argument.

1. **Audience:** Your audience will determine your process for providing an argument. *Questions for consideration*: What sort of evidence will the audience find convincing? What biases and beliefs do the readers already hold? How will you counter these beliefs? For more information about how your audience may shape your approach to writing, consult Chapter Two.
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. *Questions for consideration*: What are the main disagreements in this field? Who are some of the most credible people in this field of study? What stances do these people take on your topic? For more information about critical reading strategies, consult Chapters Three and Five.
3. **Evidence:** The types of evidence you supply will depend on your topic and your approach. *Questions for consideration:* What types 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., correspondence, diaries, and original documents)? Will you conduct interviews and surveys? For more information about source types, consult Chapter Six.

7.2   How to Begin Constructing a 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 another researcher already answered the question? Is the question too broad? Specifically, what aspect(s) of the question still need to be examined?

While many different strategies exist for narrowing and developing thesis statements, most students prefer to use the research question as a jumping off point. A research question tells the reader what the focus of the paper is; however, effective thesis statements include not only an answer to the question "what" but also answers to the questions "how" and "why." The section below provides some examples of how you might use research questions to form working thesis statements. You may further revise these working thesis statements to form final, polished thesis statements.

Research Questions: 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 United States must counter Hugo Chavez's influence in Latin America to maintain its credibility in the region.
Critique of the Working Thesis Statement: This thesis is vague and incomplete because it does not answer "how" the United States must counter Hugo Chavez's influence.
Final Thesis Statement: In an effort to maintain its regional credibility in Latin America and to preserve its national interests, the United States 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.

Research Questions: With the Pentagon's recent lifting of the ban on women in direct combat jobs, should the Marine Corps open all infantry positions to women? If so, how should the Marine Corps integrate women into these positions?
Working Thesis Statement: The Marine Corps should open all infantry positions to women but should keep the physical fitness standards for all infantry in place, regardless of gender.
Critique of the Working Thesis Statement: As the researcher collects data, he/she may want to further refine this thesis statement to tell the reader why women should occupy these roles.

Research Question: What was the effect of the troop surge in Iraq?
Working Thesis Statement: The surge of American troops, coupled with local and militia uprisings, was successful in improving personnel recruitment and retention and administration of pay.
Critique of the Working Thesis Statement: This working thesis begins to answer the question the researcher posed, but the researcher may want to state the ultimate effect of these changes—that is, how did personnel recruitment, retention, and administration of pay help to improve operations in Iraq?

The working thesis helps you to focus and direct the course of your research. For instance, instead of researching the history of women in the military, the working thesis might limit you to researching specifically how the lifting of the ban on women in direct combat jobs will affect the Marine Corps and some possible approaches to this new organizational structure. Remember to

keep compiling a working bibliography as you research; this approach will help you to keep your sources organized as you progress through the research process.

Once you have a working thesis, you may begin thinking about the specific examples and arguments you will use to support this thesis statement. You may even want to construct an outline or mind map to begin thinking about the direction the paper might take and to organize some of the research you have already done on your topic. Refer to Chapter Two for more information about outlining and mind mapping. As stated in the introduction to this section, research is a recursive process, and you may continue to mine sources as you narrow your topic and further define your argument.

CHAPTER EIGHT: WRITING WITH SOURCES

When writing an academic paper, you typically will include outside source material to add detail or support to your argument or position. Chances are that you are not the first person to write about your topic, even if your argument itself is original. Incorporating sources into your writing helps your reader to understand how other researchers have addressed the topic, whether there have been substantial breakthroughs or changes in thinking about the topic, what points scholars tend to accept as undisputed, and which aspects of the topic are still up for debate. Citing other authors reinforces your credibility as a writer by demonstrating how your ideas fit into the body of research surrounding your topic. Research is essentially a conversation with all of the scholars who have come before you and those who may want to build on your work once you have finished it.

Writing with sources also means needing to provide attribution for others' ideas. When you use someone else's words, ideas, visuals, or data, you need to make sure you give proper credit to the original source by using a correctly formatted citation. The citation serves two purposes: First, it shows the reader that you are presenting someone else's ideas, thus preventing any accidental plagiarism. Second, it provides readers with the information they need to track down the cited source. Skeptical readers who want to challenge your claims will want to see what types of sources you are using to arrive at your conclusions. Conversely, readers who find themselves agreeing with your conclusions might want to consult the sources you cite to learn more about the topic or to further their own research.

This chapter provides strategies for incorporating outside source material in your writing and includes an overview of *Chicago Manual of Style* methods of documenting quoted, paraphrased, and summarized information. It also includes an explanation of the university's academic integrity policy and strategies for avoiding plagiarism. **Note: Chapter Nine provides guidance regarding *Chicago Manual of Style* endnote and bibliography formats, but students should review Chapter Eight to ensure understanding of basic citation practices before consulting Chapter Nine.**

8.1   Why Use Sources in Your Writing?

Using sources in your writing may enrich your draft in a variety of ways. The term "source" may refer to a variety of objects, writings, or experiences that provide information about or comment on your topic. Sources include personal interviews and correspondence, maps, newspaper articles, personal observations of a situation or object, journal articles, books, government documents, websites, or any other item that may inform your subject. Writing with sources enriches your work because it helps to provide a context for the reader. Sources may substantiate a point you make in the paper, present alternative points of view, elaborate on the type of research that has preceded your discussion of the topic, or provide data to inform your topic. Though you may choose to incorporate sources in your work for a variety of reasons, below are the four most common uses of outside sources.

1. **Sources are used to provide evidence that supports the paper's claims.**
   Example: During the lead-up to the invasion, the French government led by President Macron attempted a frenzied diplomatic full-court press on Russian leadership to de-escalate tensions. Macron and Putin's responses characterize those responses post-invasion as a betrayal by the Russian leader. With each face-to-face meeting or phone call, Putin always provided Macron with some thread of hope for averting a crisis. One such example was on 7 February, with Putin telling Macron in Moscow across the now infamous five-hour-long white table chat, "As far as we are concerned, we will do everything to find compromises that suit everyone,"[58] and Macron later stated that "President Putin assured me of his readiness to engage in this sense and his desire to maintain stability and the territorial integrity of Ukraine."[59] On the day of the invasion, Macron was asked during a press conference about Putin leading him on, "Yes, there was duplicity."[60] This unsuccessful effort by President Macron in attempting to find a diplomatic way out is important to note against the wider perception that he was convinced the Russians were not going to execute hostilities on the scale and scope of what occurred on 24 February.

2. **Sources are used to provide expert opinion that supports the paper's claims.**
   Example: Repeated and prolonged ingestion of carbohydrates, particularly high-GI foods such as wheat, causes fat storage in the worst places—around the organs—which can result in Type II diabetes. William Davis, MD, states when fat accumulates due to insulin, fat is stored on the liver, kidneys, pancreas, intestines, and the heart.[61] Further, in his article "Establishment of a Concept of Visceral Fat Syndrome and Discovery of Adiponectin," Yuji Matsuzawa, Director of Sumitomo Hospital and Professor Emeritus of Osaka University, demonstrates that excess fat around the organs releases abnormal inflammatory signals into the bloodstream, resulting in abnormal hormone responses. Visceral fat reduces the body's ability to fight against inflammation, which can result in diabetes, heart disease, and other inflammatory diseases such as dementia, rheumatoid arthritis, and colon cancer.[62]

3. **Sources are used to explore other researchers' arguments and perspectives on the same topic.**
   Example: Grand strategy has been repeatedly defined since Basil Henry Liddell Hart first popularized the term in 1954,[63] with the varied descriptions sharing much common ground. Definitions of grand strategy include "general theories of how states create security for themselves"[64] and "a road map for how to match means with ends."[65] Rebecca Lissner contends that the most often cited definitions describe grand strategy as policy that brings "together all of the elements, both military and nonmilitary, for the preservation and enhancement of the nation's long-term … best interests" and as "a state's theory about how it can best 'cause' security for itself."[66] Tami Davis Biddle reinforces the importance of the relationship between ends and means, arguing that grand strategy "identifies and articulates a given political actor's security objectives at a particular point in time and describes how they will be achieved using a combination of instruments of power—including military, diplomatic, and economic instruments."[67] The consistent emphasis authors have placed on the alignment of ends, ways, and means to pursue national interests provides an effective framework to scrutinize the concept of great power competition.

4. **Sources are used to provide counterarguments. (See Chapter Three for more information about crafting effective counterarguments.)**
   Example: According to General Lloyd J. Austin III, Commander US CENTCOM, the military campaign against DAESH in Iraq and Syria is "having the desired effects," forcing it into a defensive crouch…unable to achieve decisive effects."[68] Despite this positive assessment, DAESH remains active in Iraq and Syria, and the United States appears some way from achieving its objective to defeat DAESH.

When writing with sources, remember **your own ideas and insights must drive your text**. Although other researchers and authors may offer credible additions to your argument, your voice and your opinions should be the focus of any argument or persuasive piece of writing.

8.2   Recognizing Common Knowledge: When is Citation Unnecessary?

As a general guideline, you should use a citation any time you borrow someone else's language or ideas. But when do you need to cite factual information? For many students, the line between information that requires citation and common knowledge, which does not need to be cited, is hazy at best.

One way to think about whether something is common knowledge is whether the claim can be contested. For example, if you state in your paper that the Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, you 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 an accepted fact (e.g., the Declaration of Independence was not actually signed until 1780), a citation is necessary. Keep in mind that just because information is new to you does not necessarily mean that it requires a

citation. For instance, maybe you were not aware of where and when the Declaration of Independence was signed until reading David McCullough's *1776*; however, because the time and place of the signing are generally seen as uncontested (you can open nearly any historical text or encyclopedia and find the same information), there is no need for a citation.

What qualifies as common knowledge depends on your audience. For instance, if you are writing an article in a peer-reviewed journal, you can assume that most of your readers have had extensive exposure to your topic; thus, fewer citations may be necessary. However, if you are writing for a more general audience, you might need to include citations to reference specialized knowledge. For instance, if you are writing an MOS-specific paper for the wider DOD community, you might need to cite claims that you would not ordinarily reference when writing solely for your own community. Likewise, if you are providing a very specific historical or scientific fact, you will likely want to provide a reference. Table 9 below contrasts common and specialized knowledge about the Big Bang theory.

Table 9: Distinguishing Common Knowledge from Specialized Knowledge

Common knowledge	Specialized knowledge
The Big Bang hypothesis states that all of the current and past matter in the Universe came into existence roughly 13.8 billion years ago. • This claim is relatively generic and is the type of information you would find in nearly any encyclopedia entry on the Big Bang theory. • **NO CITATION** is needed.	According to the Big Bang hypothesis, 10^{-36} to 10^{-32} seconds after the Big Bang, the temperature of the universe was low enough that electromagnetic and weak nuclear forces separated.[69] • This claim provides extremely specific information about the time period during which these events were hypothesized to have occurred. This theory about how the universe formed might be familiar to scholars who have studied the Big Bang but would likely not appear in a general article about the theory. • This is specialized knowledge and **requires a citation.**

8.3 Types of Plagiarism

Regardless of how you incorporate others' research and ideas into your writing, it is essential to provide proper attribution for all outside source material in order to avoid **plagiarism—the practice of presenting 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 the personal property of the author(s). Using someone else's work or ideas without giving proper credit is treated as theft.

Acts of plagiarism—regardless of whether or not they are intentional—are of great concern to the MCU community. The Academic Integrity policy at MCU says the following about use of previous student work in your own writing: "Student learning requires effort. Simply utilizing the solutions devised by students from previous academic years – gleaned from archived school

files, library databases, or the internet – as the solution to a problem, exercise, or assignment for credit in the current academic year is academically dishonest."[70] Marine Corps University students—as members of the armed services and government agencies—must uphold values of academic integrity, which include the "belief in academic honesty and an intolerance of acts of falsification, misrepresentation, or deception."[71] Acts of plagiarism are not tolerated at the university, and they carry penalties that may include "…disenrollment, suspension, denial or revocation of degrees or diplomas, a grade of 'no credit' with a transcript notation of 'academic dishonesty,' rejection of the work submitted for credit, and a letter of admonishment or other administrative measures."[72] Students can find MCU's complete Academic Integrity policy in the *MCU Student Handbook.*

In order to ensure proper treatment of outside source material, students should familiarize themselves with Chapters Eight and Nine of the *MCU Communications Style Guide.* These chapters include guidance for writing with sources and providing proper attribution for all borrowed words and ideas. If you are unsure about whether your use of sources complies with the university's expectations of academic integrity, you should consult your faculty advisor or an LCSC faculty member before submitting your work for a grade. Non-resident students should consult the CDET Writing Center for similar guidance.

The following sections discuss types of plagiarism, as well as strategies for recognizing and avoiding different types of plagiarism.

1. **Plagiarism of language**: Plagiarism of language refers to the copying of an entire phrase or passage (four or more words) without enclosing the borrowed words in quotation marks. It is important to use a signal phrase, quotation marks, and a proper citation to indicate that you have borrowed a particular phrase or passage from another author. Plagiarism of language often manifests as patchwriting, which is the practice of "Copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym-substitutes."[73]

   Compare the following quotation from David Bartholomae's "Inventing the University" with the patchwritten student sample that attempts to work these ideas into a draft. Notice that while the patchwritten text includes a citation at the end, the language is too close to the original text to be considered a paraphrase or summary.

   Original text: "Writers who can successfully manipulate an audience (or, to use a less pointed language, writers who can accommodate their motives to their readers' expectations) are writers who can both imagine and write from a position of privilege. They must, that is, see themselves within a privileged discourse, one that already includes and excludes groups of readers. They must be either equal to or more powerful than those they would address. The writing, then, must somehow transform the political and social relationships between basic writing students and their teachers."[74]

   Patchwritten text: Writers who can effectively inspire readers by tailoring their message to their audience are those who can think

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    and write from a privileged position.  This means they view
    themselves as part of a privileged community that may feel
    exclusive to some readers.  Writers need to imagine themselves as
    powerful to be a part of this community.  This means that writing
    requires changing the social and political expectations for how
    pupils and instructors interact.75
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Table 10 compares specific phrases in the original and paraphrased texts to make their similarities more apparent. Notice that the student version mainly changes the text by plugging in synonyms rather than changing structures or putting the text into the student's own voice.

Table 10: Patchwriting Examples

Original Text	Patchwritten text
Writers who can successfully manipulate an audience	Writers who can effectively inspire readers
Who can accommodate their motives to their readers' expectations	By tailoring their message to their audience
Who can both imagine and write from a position of privilege	Who can think and write from a privileged position
They must, that is, see themselves within a privileged discourse	They view themselves as part of a privileged community
One that includes and excludes groups of readers	That may feel exclusive to some readers
They must be either equal to or more powerful than those they would address	Writers need to imagine themselves as powerful
Writing…must somehow transform political and social relationships between basic writing students and their teachers	This means that writing requires changing the social and political expectations for how pupils and instructors interact

Notice that the patchwritten text is nearly identical to the original text in terms of syntax. The author of the patchwritten text mostly plugged in synonyms to change a few words without changing the sentence's structure or putting the idea into the author's own words.

Figure 32 demonstrates what an effectively paraphrased passage might look like. Notice that the paraphrased text includes a signal phrase that identifies the original author of the idea and is significantly different from the original in terms of syntax and word choice, though some key phrases (bolded) are repeated in the paraphrased text. The text puts Bartholomae's concepts into the student's own voice instead of mirroring his sentence structure and plugging in synonyms. You will also notice that that paraphrased text is significantly shorter than the original.

Original Passage: "Writers who can successfully manipulate an audience (or, to use a less pointed language, writers who can accommodate their motives to their readers' expectations) are writers who can both imagine and write from a position of privilege. They must, that is, see themselves within a privileged discourse, one that already includes and excludes groups of readers. They must be either equal to or more powerful than those they would address. The writing, then, must somehow transform the political and social relationships between basic writing students and their teachers."[1]

Effective Paraphrase: In his article, "Inventing the University," David Bartholomae argues that successful writing requires some degree of imagination and ability to negotiate power structures. As such, students need to write as though they are equally as powerful as their teachers, renegotiating the relationship between teacher and student.[1]

Original Text: "Writers who can successfully manipulate an audience (or, to use a less pointed language, writers who can accommodate their motives to their readers' expectations) are writers who can both imagine and write from a position of privilege. They must, that is, see themselves within a privileged discourse, one that already includes and excludes groups of readers.	**Paraphrased Text**: Successful **writing** requires some degree of **imagination** and ability to negotiate power structures.
Original Text: "They must be either equal to or more powerful than those they would address. The writing, then, must somehow transform the political and social relationships between basic writing students and their teachers."[1]	**Paraphrased Text**: As such, students need to write as though they are **equally as powerful** as their teachers, renegotiating the **relationship between teacher and student**.[1]

Figure 32: Effective Paraphrasing Example

Section 8.6 provides more strategies on avoiding inadvertent plagiarism when paraphrasing.

2. **Plagiarism of ideas**: Presenting an individual's idea, concept, or line of reasoning without giving due credit is considered plagiarism. You can paraphrase the main idea of a paragraph or even an entire paper, but you must use an endnote and corresponding bibliographic citation to reference the original source.

Consider the following two paragraphs and how they present ideas. The first paragraph signals where the ideas come from. However, the second paragraph treats all of the ideas as the author's own, as it does not include signal phrases or citations for any of the information.

> **Paragraph providing proper attribution for others' ideas:** The latest academic discourse indicates consensus that bias and noise negatively impact planning and decision-making; however, tools and processes can mitigate their effects. Kahneman and Klein agree that the anchoring and availability biases and framing effects can influence decisions. Specifically, people tend to over-value the first information they hear and answer questions differently depending on how someone presents the data.[76] Consequently, decision-makers can become overconfident in their assessments if nothing challenges their initial information or

```
frame, which could lead to sub-optimal decisions.  Cohen, Klein,
and Kahneman recommend that planners challenge these biases using
critical thinking tools that promote decision-making, such as the
crystal ball method.⁷⁷  Additionally, Kaner, Greener, Stouffer,
and Kahneman recommend using critical thinking to generate
divergent thought, decreasing noise and improving a plan's
effectiveness.⁷⁸
```

This paragraph is properly cited and, through appropriate use of signal phrases, acknowledges when other ideas are being presented. It is important to note that the authors' ideas are not placed in quotation marks here because they are paraphrased as opposed to directly quoted from another source. Endnote citations are used, however, for paraphrased material.

```
Paragraph Demonstrating Plagiarism of ideas: Bias and noise
negatively impact planning and decision-making; however, tools
and processes can mitigate their effects.  In particular,
anchoring and availability biases and framing effects can
influence decisions, as people tend to over-value the first
information they hear and answer questions differently depending
on how someone presents the data.  Consequently, decision-makers
can become overconfident in their assessments if nothing
challenges their initial information or frame, which could lead
to sub-optimal decisions.  Planners should challenge these biases
using critical thinking tools that promote decision-making, such
as the crystal ball method.  Further, planners should engage in
critical thinking to generate divergent thought, decreasing noise
and improving a plan's effectiveness.
```

This paragraph presents the ideas as the author's own, but we know from reading the previous paragraph that these ideas are actually derived from other authors and researchers. As such, the above paragraph is an example of plagiarism of ideas because it fails to acknowledge that these ideas come from other authors and researchers.

How to prevent plagiarism of ideas:

1. Use signal phrases to credit the author or researcher who had the original idea.
2. Provide an endnote and corresponding citation each time you present someone else's idea.
3. Distinguish between your own ideas and those you are paraphrasing or summarizing from outside sources. You can do this through effective use of transitions. Below are some sample transitions that might help you to think about the relationship between your own ideas and those expressed by other authors.

   − X is correct in his/her/their assertion that….
   − X's theory of….presents a model for understanding…..
   − Although X's conclusions are valid, his/her/their assertion that__ requires more support.

- While X argues___, the problem is actually___
- X claims___; however,___
- X's argument that…..fails to account for….

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 submitting the same paper (or portions of it) for two different course assignments.

   Avoiding self-plagiarism:

   1. Make sure you are submitting original products for each course deliverable. That is, do not submit the same paper for more than one assignment.
   2. Do not cut and paste portions of a paper from a previous assignment and turn them in to fulfill a new assignment.

   When is it ok to use portions of my previous work?

   Cutting and pasting or reusing portions of a previous draft is permissible when working on a long-term research project. These projects often include shorter deliverables, such as prospectuses, annotated bibliographies, literature reviews, outlines, and partial drafts that will be incorporated into the final version. Integrating your literature review or segments of your prospectus into a draft is **not** considered self-plagiarism, as it is understood that these products are process products intended to help you develop your full draft.

8.4   Ways to Use Sources in Writing and Strategies for Preventing Plagiarism

As a general guideline, 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 (see section 8.2 for more information). As you check to ensure 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 only 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 a general claim or when discussing the main points of short passages.
3. **You can summarize the source**: You should summarize when explaining basic concepts or when discussing main points of longer texts.

The following three sections—8.5, 8.6, and 8.7 present strategies for quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing effectively.

8.5   Using Direct Quotations

A direct quotation "records the exact language used by someone in speech or in writing."[79] Any borrowed language must be placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote. There are two types of quotations you may use in your writing: run-in quotes and block quotes.

8.5.1   When to Use Quotations

Many writers have the tendency to overuse direct quotations—often because they feel they do not have the writing skills to paraphrase another researcher's ideas into their own words. While direct quotes can enrich your writing, they should be used sparingly. Concepts, background information, and central themes should typically be paraphrased or summarized; quotes should be used only when the specific language of the quote is essential to your argument. Below are some instances in which direct quotes would likely be more effective than a paraphrase or summary.

1. **Use direct quotes when providing established definitions for terms.**
   Example: Most people assume the words "soul" and "spiritual" have religious connotations; however, the Army has identified them quite differently. The Army defines one's spiritual dimension in this way: "identifying one's purpose, core values, beliefs, identity, and life vision define the spiritual dimension. These elements, which define the essence of a person, enable one to build inner strength, make meaning of experiences, behave ethically, persevere through challenges, and be resilient when faced with adversity."[80]
2. **Use direct quotes when the original source contains memorable language that cannot be paraphrased.**
   Example: The general described the inception of MARSOC as "painting a car while driving 50 miles per hour."[81]
3. **Use direct quotes when presenting another author or researcher's specific position on a topic.**
   Example: Tokatlian asserts Latin America has not yet established a "solid, sustainable, and coordinated energy policy that provides the region a fluid, reliable, and secure energy supply."[82]

8.5.2   Run-in Quotes

Shorter quotes (quotes of fewer than one hundred words or six to eight lines of text) are typically enclosed in quotation marks and run into the text. Run-in quotes have three main components (detailed in figure 33) listed below.

1. A signal phrase that introduces the quoted information
2. Quotation marks that are placed around the borrowed language
3. A superscript ([1]) and corresponding endnote that follows the citation

Signal phrase provides context for the quote.	In 2003, scholars Linn Van Dyne and Soon Ang introduced the concept of CQ, which they define "as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity."[1]	Quotation marks show these words are borrowed from another source.
Superscript endnote directs readers to citation.	[1]Soon Ang and Linn Van Dyne, *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe, 2008), 3.	

Figure 33: Example of Run-in Quote

8.5.3   Block Quotes

Block quotes are offset from the text and are typically used when quoting longer pieces of text—though you may choose to use a block quote to call attention to a shorter piece of quoted information. Block quotations should be used **sparingly**—do not overuse long quotations in your writing. Below are guidelines for using block quotes.

1. Block quotes are used when quoting **at least one hundred words**, or if the quoted material takes up **at least six to eight lines of text**.
2. A quotation comprising **two or more paragraphs** in the original source should be set off as a block quote.
3. Quoted letters or other forms of correspondence, bulleted lists, and specifically formatted text should be set off in a block quotation.
4. Block quotes are **indented five spaces (tabbed right)**. If continuing the paragraph after the block quote ends, the line would start flush with the left margin. If starting a new paragraph after the block quote ends, you would indent the following line five spaces or flush with the block quote.
5. Block quotes are **not placed in quotation marks** (since the indent signals to the reader that the information is directly quoted from another source).
6. Block quotes are **followed by a superscript endnote and corresponding citation**.
7. Typically, a publisher will specify the desired font size and spacing of block quotes; however, **LCSC faculty members recommend single spacing the quote and keeping the font of a block quote consistent with the rest of the text**.
8. Block quotes, like run-in quotes, should be **introduced by a signal phrase** and contextualized. Figure 34 provides an example of a block quote.

↓

David Kilcullen contrasts revolutionary war and conventional warfare as follows:

> In most wars, the same laws and principles hold equally true for both contending sides. What varies is the way each opponent uses them, according to his ability, his particular situation, his relative strength. Conventional war belongs to this general case. Revolutionary war, on the other hand, represents an exceptional case not only because, as we suspect, it has its special rules, different from those of the conventional war, but also because most of the rules applicable to one side do not work for the other. In a fight between a fly and a lion, the fly cannot deliver a knockout blow and the lion cannot fly. It is the same war for both camps in terms of space and time, yet there are two distinct warfares—the revolutionary's and, shall we say, the counterrevolutionary's.[1]

Kilcullen's description can be useful in understanding why large modern armies frequently fail in revolutionary wars.

[1]David Kilcullen, "Counterinsurgency Redux," *Small Wars Journal* (Winter 2006), 2, http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf.

Quotation marks are omitted, but the quote is still followed by an endnote superscript and corresponding citation. The quote is also followed by a clincher sentence that connects Kilcullen's ideas back to the writer's central purpose.

Figure 34: Example of Block Quote

8.5.4   Quoting a Secondary Source (Quote within a Quote)

Peer-reviewed articles will often reference others' works, either in the form of a paraphrase or a quotation. In some cases, you may wish to reference a particular article, quote, or idea that is paraphrased or quoted in another work. For instance, you may wish to quote David Galula's ideas about counterinsurgency that are referenced in a secondary source. While scholarly articles will occasionally quote sources within sources, 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.

Citing a Secondary Source (Quote within a Quote)

If you cannot consult the original source, your endnote should reference the original source in which the quote is found (in order to credit the original author) followed by the phrase "quoted in" and the full citation for the work you actually consulted. This practice should be used sparingly, as it is always best to consult the original source when possible. Below is an example of how to cite a source cited within another source.

Format for citing a secondary source:

```
Example: David Galula 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."⁸³
Example Note:
³⁰David 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.
```

Notice the endnote first credits the original author or speaker; the source that contains the original author's work follows the citation of the original source.

8.5.5 Modifying Quoted Material

Sometimes you may 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. Below are some guidelines for editing direct quotes.

1. **Editing the format of the text**: 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.

2. **Omitting 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. Below is an example of an 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."⁸⁴
   Edited Quotation: David Kilcullen defines counterinsurgency
   as follows: "[T]his is a form of 'counter-warfare' that
   applies all elements of national power against
   insurrection."⁸⁵
   ```

   As you can see, brackets enclose the first letter of the word *this* because the preceding words have been omitted. Brackets might also be used to insert an aside or to add context that might have been omitted by altering the original quote. 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."[86]

Edited Quotation: According to the Center for Defense Information, "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."[87]

If the quote becomes a dependent clause after omitting the additional words, you can combine the quotation with an introductory clause in order to make the sentence complete. 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."[88]

Edited Quotation: Israel's militia system is favorable to "the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats."[89]

3. **Omitting 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 begins in the middle of a sentence and omits words in the middle of a 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."[90]

Edited Quotation: According to Kingdon, the Founders were "suspicious of government…and impressed with the virtue of limiting government."[91]

You can see here that even though the writer left some details out of the edited quotation, the original author's meaning does not truly change. The example below 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.'"[92]
> **Edited Quotation:** According to Kilcullen, "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.'"[93]

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. Additional guidelines demonstrate how to effectively incorporate sources into your paper. For example, if you want to denote typographic errors in an original source, you would use the Latin abbreviation [*sic*], meaning "thus" or "such as" to indicate a misspelling in the source. 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 for editing quotations, see the *Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th edition.

8.5.6   Epigraphs

You may see a book, paper, or chapter open with a quote that is relevant to the text, otherwise known as an epigraph. Though rare, section titles may begin with epigraphs. Below are a few guidelines for using epigraphs.

1. The *Chicago Manual of Style* allows for some flexibility with regard to the text formatting of an epigraph (e.g., font size, italics, bolding). However, all epigraphs should use the same formatting throughout the paper or document.
2. If you plan to discuss your quote extensively in the main text, the quote itself should be placed in the text as opposed to being formatted as an epigraph.
3. Typically, only the author's name and title of the quoted document are included on the line following the epigraph. The name and work are sometimes preceded by a dash. The source of the epigraph should be flush right.

4. Epigraphs are not placed in quotation marks unless the quotation itself contains other quoted material (a quote within a quote).

Below is an example epigraph.

```
The movements which work revolutions in the world are born out of
    the dreams and visions in a peasant's heart on the hillside.
                                            -- James Joyce, Ulysses
```

8.5.7   Common Problems with Direct Quotes

The four most common quotation problems the LCSC faculty members find in student papers are listed below.

1. **Failure to use quotation marks**: The most frequent problem students tend to have with direct quotes is failing to enclose the borrowed language in quotation marks. Remember, **any information that is borrowed word for word from another source must be enclosed in quotation marks.** You must use an endnote to cite your source. Below is an example of an improperly cited quotation.

   > **Original Source:** "Today, many parts of the Al Anbar Province resemble feudalist Europe in the 16th century. When one speaks to tribal leaders there is no perception or understanding of a system where tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state. There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments."[94]
   > **Improperly Cited Version:** In today's society, many parts of the Al Anbar Province resemble feudalist Europe in the 16th century. When one speaks to tribal leaders there is no perception or understanding of a system where tribes and families are subordinate to the needs of the nation-state.[95]

   The writer provides a citation, but without the quotation marks, this citation indicates to the reader only that the **ideas** in the sentences are borrowed from another text—it does not tell the reader the actual **words** are borrowed from another text. **Therefore, the writer's use of the information is considered plagiarism of language (see section 8.3 for more information about plagiarism of language)**. See the properly cited version below.

   > **Properly Cited Version:** According to Edwin O. Rueda in his discussion of similarities between the Al Anbar Province and feudalism in 16th century Europe, "There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments."[96]

   The borrowed text is cited correctly in this case because directly borrowed words from the original source are in quotation marks and are cited with an endnote. Notice

the student includes a signal phrase ("According to Edwin O. Rueda") in the discussion of similarities between the Al Anbar Province and feudalism in 16th century Europe to introduce the quote. This signal phrase serves to place the quote in context and allows the writer to connect the quoted information back to the other ideas that are expressed in the writing. When you directly quote outside material, make sure that what you have quoted is accurately stated word for word in your paper, and that both spelling and punctuation match that of the original source.

2. **Dropped quotations**: The term "dropped quote" refers to a quotation that is dropped into a text without contextualization or introduction. Below is an example.

> **Example:** Russia sees the world as changed. "International relations are in the process of transition, the essence of which is the creation of a polycentric system of international relations."[97]

In this example, the author does not introduce or contextualize the quoted information. It is not clear as to whether the quoted information aims to present Russia's perspective or if it is making a general statement about international relations. Writers can repair dropped quotes by using a signal phrase.

> **Example quote with signal phrase**: Russia sees the world as changed. As such, the 2013 Concept of the Foreign Policy of the Russian Federation states, "International relations are in the process of transition, the essence of which is the creation of a polycentric system of international relations."[98]

3. **Overuse of quotations**: Overusing quotes can be distracting to your reader and may add unnecessary text to your paper.

> **Example:** In acknowledging that deep strike operations were to become the main tenet of future war, the relevance of uninterrupted logistics sustainment throughout the entire operation was dependent on two things. N. E. Varfolomeev, the first Chair of Operational Art at the Soviet Military Academy, recognized that first, deep and rapid pursuit required the use of "successive deep operations," which Varfolomeev called "the zig-zags of a whole series of operations successively developed one upon the other, logically connected and linked together by the common final objective."[99] Second, that zig-zagging process in turn depended on, as Varfolomeev envisioned, the "successful struggle against the consequences of the attendant operational exhaustion."[100] Kipp then states, "Logistics, the unity of front and rear as an organizational problem, thus assumed critical importance as an aspect of operational art."[101] In acknowledging the criticality of logistics planning as a mainstay in operational art, the

```
Soviet Military Academy insisted that its officers plan and
apply the tenets of operational art through "actual
operational-scale wargaming" as opposed to formal lectures
and specialized studies.¹⁰²  Additionally, Kipp explains,
"Each student was expected to apply norms and do
calculations that the members of front and army staffs had
to do in preparing for an operation."¹⁰³
```

While this writer has clearly collected a lot of research, he or she likely needs to rewrite the paragraph to include more analysis. Revising the paragraph will mean putting that analysis and some of the facts that are cited into the author's own words. While integrating the ideas from these sources is important, using the exact language from all of the sources could be confusing and distracting to the reader. This paragraph would be more effective in conveying the author's ideas if it included paraphrases and summaries of the sources' main points instead of presenting so many direct quotations.

4. **Incorrect punctuation to introduce a quotation:** When integrating quoted material into a sentence, the sentence must read grammatically correct. A common student challenge is understanding when to use a comma to signal a quotation. In the case of the example below, when the quoted material is introduced in the middle of the sentence and forms a complete sentence, you do not need a comma or other punctuation mark to signal the quotation.

```
Example: Whitman and Kelleher argue that one's
"intelligence does not reside in one spot in the brain, nor
does creativity, but rather involves networks of parts of
the brain, all working together."¹

¹Glenn Whitman and Ian Kelleher, NeuroTeach: Brain Science
and the Future of Education (Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield,
2016), 16.
```

8.6   Paraphrasing

A paraphrase captures the main idea or focus of a particular section or paragraph, but it 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.

When your paraphrase of another author's work is several sentences long, make sure you use signal phrases and transitions to show you are continuing your discussion of that author's work (i.e., use these phrases to show the ideas you are presenting are not your own).

8.6.1   Common Problems with Paraphrasing

When paraphrasing, some writers have the tendency to change only a few of the original

source's words as opposed to putting the original text entirely into their own words. This practice can lead to charges of plagiarism. Below is an example of an improperly paraphrased text followed by a corrected version of the paraphrase.

> **Original Source**: "In most wars, the same laws and principles hold equally true for both contending sides. What varies is the way each opponent uses them, according to his ability, his particular situation, his relative strength. Conventional war belongs to this general case. Revolutionary war, on the other hand, represents an exceptional case not only because, as we suspect, it has its special rules, different from those of the conventional war, but also because most of the rules applicable to one side do not work for the other. In a fight between a fly and a lion, the fly cannot deliver a knockout blow and the lion cannot fly. It is the same war for both camps in terms of space and time, yet there are two distinct warfares—the revolutionary's and, shall we say, the counterrevolutionary's."[104]

> **Incorrectly Paraphrased Source**: Most of the time, the same laws and principles are true for both contending sides. What varies is the way each opponent uses them, according to his ability, situation, or relative strength. This is the case with conventional war. On the other hand, revolutionary war is an exceptional case whose rules are different from those of the conventional war. The rules that apply to one side may not necessarily work for the other.[105]

The paraphrase above copies much of the wording from the original text and **is considered plagiarized**, even though the writer provides an endnote to cite the original source. This type of plagiarism, which is often unintentional, is characterized as patchwriting (discussed in section 8.3). Patchwriting occurs when an attempted paraphrase is too similar, in terms of syntax and word choice, to the original text. Students who use patchwriting in their drafts typically start by cutting and pasting a quotation and then replacing words with synonyms. The LCSC does not recommend this approach to paraphrasing. Instead, students should consider using the process described in Worksheet 6 avoid unintentional plagiarism when paraphrasing. The following is an example of how the student writer might revise the passage.

> **Correctly Paraphrased Source**: According to David Galula, most wars are conventional wars in which both sides adhere to the same laws and principles; however, both sides will differ in the way they use these laws and principles. In contrast, revolutionary war presents its own special set of rules. Galula further states that while the rules and principles of war may apply to one side, they do not necessarily apply to the other. In revolutionary war, the two sides may experience the war the same, but they will

```
       fight differently in order to capitalize on their
       individual strengths.106
```

When comparing the original source with the paraphrase, you can see the word choice, order, and sentence structure are quite different. Notice, however, an endnote is still used to give credit to the original author for 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 quotations and concepts from an outside source can strengthen your argument and give you credibility. Worksheet 6 provides a process for paraphrasing that will help you to avoid plagiarism.

Worksheet 6: Four Rs of Paraphrasing Technique

<u>**Four Rs of Paraphrasing Technique**</u>

1. **Read**: Fully digest the passage/article you want to paraphrase or summarize.
2. **Rephrase**: Put the text away. Attempt to put the author's ideas into your own words.
3. **Recheck**: Check the original source for accuracy. Look for clusters of words or similar sentence structures in the original and paraphrased passages. Identify key words that cannot be changed or omitted without losing the author's original intent.
4. **Repair**: Rephrase the sentence/flip it around; reword any sections that contain strings of words that are the same as in the original; make sure you have kept the key words; add signal phrases (when necessary); and place the paraphrase in context with the surrounding text.

Source: Adapted from National University's 4 Rs of paraphrasing:
https://resources.nu.edu/writingresources/paraphrase.

8.7   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 source 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 book or article. 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 twenty-page research article. Below is an example of a summary of a book.

```
       Example: In 2003, scholars P. Christopher Early and Soon Ang
       introduced the concept of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which they
       and author Linn Van Dyne define "as the capability of an
       individual to function effectively in situations characterized by
```

cultural diversity."[107] Early and Ang developed CQ to answer the
question of why some people are more effective in cross-cultural
environments than others, and to provide a model through which to
train people in cross-cultural competencies.[108] At the time of
introduction, globalization, greater levels of
interconnectedness, and ongoing ideological conflicts made
understanding culture and improving cross-cultural interaction
all the more important.[109]

In this example, the author uses a combination of directly quoted information and summarized information to present only the main points of the text. Overall, summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting are good ways to effectively incorporate outside sources into your paper. Worksheet 7 provides a checklist for using these different types of sources effectively. Worksheet 8 provides a checklist for avoiding plagiarism.

Worksheet 7: Checklist for Using Your Sources Effectively

☐ **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 evidence and specific examples to support that argument.

☐ **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. You do not need to quote well-known facts, truths, and adages, 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. Remember, your instructors want to know what you think, and they want to hear your voice.

☐ **Make sure to place all quotations into the context of your paper and main argument.** Introduce each quotation and explain its significance (e.g., who said it, how it relates to your research, and why it is important).

☐ **Avoid back-to-back quotations.** Placing one quotation directly after another does not give you the chance to fully explain the first quotation before moving on to the next statement. Adding details, explaining concepts, and relating quoted ideas back to your main argument shows you have original ideas and have done enough reading on the topic to discuss it fully.

☐ **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 thinks Distributed Operations should be used in current and future conflicts," you may want to say, "According to Generals X and Y, future operations should employ the concept of Distributed Operations." Section 8.8 provides guidance for citing a single claim that is substantiated by multiple sources.

☐ **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 use a block quotation format.** You should set off multiple paragraphs, quoted letters or other forms of correspondence, bulleted lists, and specially formatted information in block quotation format as well. Block quotations do not need quotation marks; instead, indent the entire quotation five spaces or one TAB space from the left margin. If the quoted material is more than one paragraph long, the beginning of each paragraph should have an additional first-line indent (one more TAB right). Additionally, you need to provide an endnote to cite the quotation.

☐ **Take detailed notes.** Make sure that you differentiate between your own ideas and the ideas presented in your supporting research. Additionally, it is important to set off any direct quotations in quotation marks.

☐ **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.

☐ **Always double-check your draft**. Make sure you have used a properly formatted endnote to credit any outside sources you have quoted, summarized, or paraphrased. Additionally, make sure your research paper includes a bibliography in which you will cite all the sources you have compiled to support your ideas. For more information about formatting endnotes and bibliography entries, see Chapter Nine.

☐ **Use plagiarism detection software (e.g., Moodle Turnitin) to check your draft.** 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.

8.8   Overview of CMOS Citation and Documentation

When you incorporate outside source material into your paper, the *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends that you use endnotes to provide attribution for any quoted, paraphrased, or summarized information. All quoted, paraphrased, and summarized information in the text should be followed by an Arabic numeral in superscript ([1]), and the publication information for the corresponding source is then placed on the notes page at the end of the document. The easiest way to ensure endnote superscripts match up with the notes at the end of your document is to use Microsoft Word's automatic endnote function. Appendix C provides a visual chart with step-by-step instructions for generating endnotes.

Below is an example of what an endnote citation looks like in the document's main text:

> **Example:** *MCDP-1* defines war as "a violent clash of interests between or among organized groups characterized by the use of military force."[1]

The example above presents the way in which quoted material is treated in the main text of the paper. Below is the endnote that provides all of the publication information for the cited source. The endnote citations will appear at the end of your document prior to the bibliography.

> [1]US Marine Corps, *Warfighting*, MCDP-1 (Washington, DC: US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 3.

If quoting two separate sources within one sentence, each quotation should be immediately followed by its own numeric superscript, as shown in the example below.

> **Example:** Similar to how MCDP-1 defines war as "a violent clash of interests between or among organized groups characterized by the use of military force,"[1] Clausewitz characterizes war as "an act of violence intended to compel our opponent to fulfill our will."[2]

```
¹ US Marine Corps, Warfighting, MCDP-1 (Washington, DC: US Marine
Corps, June 30, 1991), 3.
²Carl von Clausewitz, On War, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret,
trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton University
Press, 1984), 75.
```

When paraphrasing or summarizing material from an outside source, the note numbers should directly follow the paraphrased or summarized material. Note that a signal phrase (e.g., According to Wolf and Lefevre) is used to introduce the material below. Signal phrases often indicate where a particular piece of information is coming from (who said or wrote it) and connect the quoted information back to the paragraph's central theme.

```
Example: According to Wolf and Lefevre, the Arab Spring had
several negative side effects.  Using post-revolution Tunisia as
an example, the authors highlight the country's serious economic
recession, increase in unemployment, rise in housing and food
costs, reduction in tourism, and increase in inflation.  They
further claim these factors had a particularly damaging effect on
Tunisia's youth population.¹
Example Note: ¹Anne Wolf and Raphael Lefevre, "Revolution under
threat: The Challenges of the Tunisian model," The Journal of
North African Studies 17, no. 3 (June 2012), 560.
```

While the CMOS does have an author-date citation style that is used in the physical, natural, and social sciences, the papers students write at Marine Corps University will typically use endnotes and a bibliography unless students are otherwise instructed by a faculty member.

The endnote format you follow will depend on the type of source you are citing; each type of source has its own format. You will find examples of these endnote formats in Chapter Nine.

8.9   Endnotes versus Footnotes

Occasionally, texts that contain a great deal of discursive notes will use both endnotes and footnotes. In this case, endnotes are typically used when a standard citation (publication information only) is included, while footnotes may be used when you write discursive notes—information that you wish to include in addition to the text. If you choose to use the dual system of notes, you will want to include two different sets of note numbers. In this case, the endnotes are frequently numbered using Arabic numerals (1, 2, and 3), while the footnotes use Roman numerals (i, ii, and iii).

8.10   Shortened Citations vs Ibid

8.10.1 Using Ibid

Previously, when referring to a work that is cited in the note immediately preceding, the abbreviation *ibid.* was used. In the most current version of the CMOS, however, the use of *ibid.* is discouraged in favor of the shortened citation version described in section 8.10.2. The reason for this, according to the CMOS 17ᵗʰ edition, is (1) *ibid.* does not save

a significant enough amount of space to warrant its use, and (2) it could potentially confuse readers. Consult your individual instructor to determine his or her preferences.

8.10.2 Using Shortened Citations

After you first reference a work in an endnote, it is acceptable to 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 as well. Typically, a shortened citation form includes the author's last name, a shortened form of the title (if the title contains more than four words), and the page number, if applicable. Below is an example of a shortened citation.

First Note: Joseph D. Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), 198-199.
Shortened Version: Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy,* 202.

Below is an example of a shortened citation for a work with three authors.

First Note: Waldemar Erfuth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing, 1943), 18.
Shortened Version: Erfuth, Possony, and Vilfroy, *Surprise*, 22.

When citing a source with four or more authors, provide only the last name of the first author, followed by et al. (just as you would do for the long version of the citation).

First Note: Doug Suisman, et al., *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007), 16.
Shortened Version: Suisman, et al., *The Arc*, 32.

8.11   Substantiating a Claim with Multiple Citations

The placement and formatting of the note is different when two sources are substantiating a similar idea. Substantiating a claim with multiple sources typically occurs when you are presenting a literature review of your topic in which you are required to summarize or paraphrase some of the main perspectives in your field of study. In order to show that the perspectives you present are prevalent throughout the research community, you may decide you need to include more than one source to substantiate some of the claims you are summarizing or paraphrasing. In the following example, the author has two sources that substantiate the same claim. As such, both sources are cited within one single endnote. The two sources cited in the endnote are separated by a semicolon (;).

Example: Built on current coalitions, Alexander and Zakheim agree the United States should use diplomatic and military power to influence Sunni-dominated states; this will help to foster regional responsibility and Sunni inclusiveness in the containment against ISIS.[1]
Example Note: [1]John B. Alexander, "Defeating ISIS without American Ground Forces," *Huffington Post* (February 23, 2015),

http://www.huffingtonpost.com/john-b-alexander-phd/defeating-isis-american-forces_b_6739138.html; Dov S. Zakheim, "The Best Strategy to Handle ISIS: Good Old Containment," *The National Interest* (September 24, 2014), http://nationalinterest.org/feature/the-best-strategy-handle-isis-good-old-containment-11341.

8.12   Substantive (Discursive) Notes and Notes with Commentary

When you want to add extra material (your own discussion) into an endnote to give readers more information, you do so **after** you write the citation. A period separates the citation from the additional material. This type of citation is often referred to as a discursive or substantive endnote. Discursive endnotes can enrich your writing by adding details you might not necessarily want to include in the main text of your paper; however, information that is essential to your argument should still be placed in the main text of your paper as opposed to in the endnotes. Keep in mind that adding too many discursive endnotes might be distracting to your reader, so you should use them sparingly. Below is an example where only discursive material is added in the citation (e.g., if the author has knowledge of the topic that he did not obtain from an outside source).

> **Example:** The current number of deployed US advisers, Peshmerga brigades, and ISF may not be sufficient to recapture key terrain, such as the symbolic city of Mosul.[1]
> **Example Discursive Note:** [1]The city of Mosul is a key objective for an offensive against entrenched ISIL fighters that will require a major effort for the coalition. In comparison, about 9,000 US Marines recaptured the city of Fallujah, which is a tenth the size of Mosul. While not always possible to base current strategy on historical examples, it is clear the coalition needs a larger force to recapture Mosul.

There may be times when the discussion within the discursive note includes a reference to another published work or a quotation. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style*, "When a note contains not only the source of a fact or quotation in the text but related substantive material as well, the source comes first."[110] The endnote presented in the example below includes a source citation ending with a period and followed by a summary of the source. You might use this type of note if you wish to include more detailed information about your topic, but you have a limited amount of space within which to discuss your topic.

> **Example:** [1]"Strategic Airlift: Giving Alliance Forces Global Reach," North Atlantic Treaty Organization, July 11, 2014, http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/topics_50107.htm. Despite the fact that some of these partner nations can access Boeing C-17 transport aircrafts within the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC), Germany competes with its partners over the An-124-100 in the case of a crisis.

In some cases, you may wish to directly quote information that substantiates ideas you present in the main text of the paper. Below is an example of how you might treat a discursive endnote that includes a direct quote.

> **Example:** Graduate-level writing prompts are complex and often require a writer to perform multiple cognitive tasks at once.[1]
> **Example Note:** [1]Andrea Hamlen, Stase Rodebaugh, and Linda Di Desidero, *The Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide*, 7th ed. (Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University, 2013), 83. Students at MCU "will often have to perform more than one cognitive task (i.e. evaluating, synthesizing, analyzing) when answering a test question or writing prompt."

8.13   Bibliography

The bibliography is an alphabetical listing of the sources you consulted and cited in the writing of your paper. Typically, the bibliography is the last item in an academic paper; it should begin on its own page following the endnotes. Be aware that some source types are included only in the notes section of the paper and do not need to appear in the bibliography. Some of these source types include personal interviews, websites, and certain legal citations. Chapter Nine provides more guidance with regard to whether or not a source type requires a bibliography entry.

While the purpose of your endnotes is to provide attribution for quoted, paraphrased, and summarized information you include in the body of the paper, the bibliography provides the reader with an **alphabetical list of all the sources** you used. A reader may review your bibliography to determine whether or not he or she wants to read the full text of your paper. You may examine other authors' bibliographies during the research process in order to determine whether a piece of writing is scholarly, current, and relevant. For instance, if you notice all of a work's citations are five years old and you are writing about an emerging technology, it is likely the work is not current enough for your intended purpose. Similarly, if you notice a work does not cite any of the key theorists in your field of research, then you may decide the text does not have sufficient academic rigor. Chapter Nine contains more specific information regarding the formatting of bibliographic entries.

While this chapter focuses primarily on strategies for integrating sources in your writing and guidelines for avoiding plagiarism, Chapter Nine provides more information about the specific formatting of citations (both endnotes and bibliographic information). You might consider working through worksheet 9 to test your understanding of citation and documentation practices before moving on to the next chapter.

Worksheet 9: **Now You Try It! Citation Basics Quiz**

1. What types of claims should be cited? There may be more than one correct response.
    a.   Information that is quoted word-for-word from another source
    b.   Information that is paraphrased or summarized from another source
    c.   Information that is not common knowledge
    d.   Any information you learned by reading another source

2. Which of the following claims require a citation? There may be more than one correct response.
    a.   There are currently 471,990 active duty personnel in the US Army.
    b.   From 10^{-36} to 10^{-32} seconds after the Big Bang, the temperature of the universe was low enough (10^{28} K) that the forces of electromagnetism (strong force) and weak nuclear forces (weak interaction) were able to separate as well, forming two distinct forces.
    c.   The Big Bang hypothesis states that all of the current and past matter in the Universe came into existence roughly 13.8 billion years ago.
    d.   Abraham Lincoln was assassinated in Ford's Theatre in Washington, DC, as he sat watching a play.
    e.   Most Americans prefer Pepsi to Coke.
    f.   The army is the oldest military service in the United States.

3. True or False: Anything you learned in high school should be considered common knowledge.
    a.   True
    b.   False

4. Which of the following are forms of plagiarism? There may be more than one correct answer.
    a.   Self-plagiarism
    b.   Not placing borrowed words in quotation marks
    c.   Failing to read and cite all available literature on your topic
    d.   Not citing quoted or paraphrased information
    e.   Using a dropped quote

Check your answers here!

CHAPTER NINE: ENDNOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY FORMATS

While Chapter Eight discussed strategies for integrating outside source material into your writing, this chapter covers the mechanics of *Chicago Manual of Style* endnote and bibliography citation formats. **Students are advised to consult Chapter Eight to develop an understanding of basic citation practices before attempting to format CMOS endnote and bibliography entries.**

In academic writing, footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical documentation indicate the original sources of words or ideas you borrow from other authors. These forms of documentation are unique to the different style manual formats. The Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS) is used mainly in historical and military writing, while the Modern Language Association (MLA) style is used mainly in the disciplines of English and other related humanities. The American Psychological Association (APA) style is used largely in social science and business writing. The main differences you will find among the three citation styles reside in the use of in-text citations or notes, the references page, block quotation length, and page format.

The *Chicago Manual of Style* allows for two different methods of citation: notes-bibliography style and author-date style. The citation formats provided in this chapter follow the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMOS) notes-bibliography system, as MCWAR, SAW, and CSC schoolhouses all use the notes-bibliography method. However, the College of Enlisted Professional Military Education (CEME) follows Chicago's author-date system, which uses parenthetical documentation as opposed to notes and a bibliography to cite sources. Below is an example of the differences between the author-date and notes-bibliography systems.

> **Author-Date Example**: In *First to Fight,* Victor Krulak (1984) concludes by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (227).
> **Author-Date Example without a signal phrase**: It is important to remember that "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (Krulak 1984, 227).
>
> **Notes-Bibliography Example**: In *First to Fight,* Victor Krulak concludes by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself."[1]
> [1] Victor Krulak, *First to Fight* (Annapolis, MD: Naval Institute Press, 1984), 227.

> **Note that the citation does not include Krulak's rank. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style*, an author's degrees and affiliations are not included in endnote or bibliography formats.**

Students attending CEME's continuing education program can visit the CMOS website to obtain accurate author-date citation formats. They may also contact the College of Distance Education and Training (CDET) Writing Center for author-date citation resources. Table 11 summarizes the key differences between MLA, APA, Chicago author-date style, and Chicago notes-bibliography style.

Table 11: Differences between CMOS, APA, and MLA Citation Styles

	Field Used	Source Lists	Notes/Citations
MLA	Humanities fields	Works Cited	In-text parenthetical citations emphasizing author name **Example:** In *First to Fight,* Victor Krulak concludes by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (227). **Example without signal phrase:** (Krulak 227)
APA	Social sciences fields	References	In-text parenthetical citations emphasizing date published **Example:** V. Krulak (1984) concludes *First to Fight* by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (p. 227). **Example without signal phrase:** (Krulak, 1984, p. 227)
CMOS Notes-Bibliography	History fields	Bibliography	Material borrowed in text preceded with signal phrase and cited by a superscript note, which corresponds with citation at the end of the document or the foot of the page (e.g., endnote or footnote, respectively) **Example:** Victor Krulak concludes *First to Fight* by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself."[1] [1]Victor Krulak, *First to Fight* (Annapolis, MD: Naval Institute Press, 1984), 227.
CMOS Author-Date	History fields	Bibliography	**Example:** In *First to Fight,* Victor Krulak (1984) concludes by saying "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (227). **Example without signal phrase:** It is important to remember that "the future of the Corps lies within itself" (Krulak 1984, 227).

The remainder of this chapter will provide you with CMOS endnote and bibliographic examples for a variety of sources you may include in your writing. Endnotes can be found at the end of the text preceding the bibliography; they are labeled with a superscript number in the text (e.g., [1]), and this number matches up with a citation to show readers where the information was obtained (and where they can find those sources to further their knowledge of your topic). The bibliography is found at the very end of the document; it contains a list of references used in the research and writing of an academic paper or other document. If you would like to test your knowledge of endnote and bibliography citation format, you can take the Now You Try It! Quiz found at the end of the chapter.

In most cases, you will find a note and bibliography format for each source. Some sources are not placed in the bibliography, so these formatting examples are omitted. Further, because the *MCU Communications Style Guide* attempts to present a condensed, user-friendly resource for CMOS citation guidelines, not all CMOS formats are included in this guide; in some cases, you may need to consult the original CMOS in order to find the correct format. In the chapter sections listed on the following page you will find information on how to cite each type of source.

Note: There are a number of programs available (e.g., Microsoft Word, BibMe, and Refworks) that writers may use to format notes and bibliography entries. While these programs will certainly help you to keep track of your sources, the source citations they generate may contain minor formatting errors. If you decide to use source citation software, it is recommended that you always double-check your citations against the *MCU Communications Style Guide* or the *Chicago Manual of Style* to ensure accuracy.

9.1   Books

To cite a book, include these basic components: the author's name, the title of the book, the place of publication, the name of the publisher, and the year of publication.

Generally, you do not need to include the day of publication in the citation, even if it appears on the copyright page. Only the publication year is needed. Some books may contain more than one publication date on the copyright page if there are earlier editions or versions of the text. If the book contains multiple publication dates, use only the most recent date of publication. When a printed work does not include a publication date, include the abbreviation *n.d.* (no date) in place of the publication date.

You may find some older texts and more recent self-published books do not include a publication location. If this is the case, include the abbreviation *n.p.* before the publisher's name. At times, the name of the city should be followed by the state name if the city of publication "may be unknown to readers or may be confused with another city of the same name."[111] For instance, if the city of publication were Portland, you would want to specify which Portland you are referring to, as you could be referring to Portland, Maine or Portland, Oregon. When writing the state name, use two letter postal codes (e.g., ME, OR). When referring to a major city (e.g., New York, San Diego), you do not need to follow the city name with the two-letter postal code, as it will be clear to your reader which city you are referring to. Occasionally, you will notice the copyright page includes more than one place of publication. If this is the case, only the first listed place of publication should be included in the citation. As you cite different types of books in your paper, you can reference table 12.

Basic bibliography entries are essentially three "sentences" separated by periods. Basic note entries are each a single "sentence" wherein information is separated by commas. Here are the templates for a basic book citation.

Bibliography
Last Name, First Name. *Title*. City, State: Publisher, year.
Note
First Name Last Name, *Title* (City, State: Publisher, year), page number.

Table 12: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Books

9.1.1 Book with One Author	In the bibliographic reference, the author's name is inverted (the last name is listed first). A comma separates the last name from the first name. In the note, however, the author's name is not inverted; the first name precedes the last name. Another unique feature of the note (and not typically the bibliography) is it generally 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. **Note: If an author's name is the same as the title (e.g., an autobiographical work), then the author's name is not needed in the endnote.**] **Bibliography** Millet, Allan Reed. *Semper Fidelis: The History of the United States Marine Corps*. New York: Free Press, 1991. **Note** [1]Allan Reed Millet, *Semper Fidelis: The History of the United States Marine Corps* (New York: Free Press, 1991), 26.
9.1.2 Book with Two Authors	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 (&). **Bibliography** Sideman, Belle Becker, and Lillian Friedman. *Europe Looks at the Civil War: An Anthology*. New York: Orion Press, 1960. **Note** [2]Belle Becker Sideman and Lillian Friedman, *Europe Looks at the Civil War: An Anthology* (New York: Orion Press, 1960), 21.
9.1.3 Book with Three 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 name). **Bibliography** Erfurth, Waldemar, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy. *Surprise.* Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing Company, 1943. **Note** [3]Waldemar Erfurth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing Company, 1943), 18, 21-22.

9.1.4 Book with Four to Ten Authors	If a work has four to ten authors or editors, include all names in the bibliography, but not in the note. In the note, cite only the first author followed by "et al." (Latin for *et alia*, "and others") in place of the remaining authors. A period follows only "al" and not "et" (e.g., et al.). If a work has more than ten authors, cite only the first seven authors in the bibliography followed by the phrase "et al." **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** [4]Doug Suisman et al., *The Arc: A Formal Structure for a Palestinian State* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2007), 16.
9.1.5 Book with a Corporate Author	When citing a book provided by an organization that does not have a personal author's name on the title page, list the organization as the author in the bibliography and in the note. **Bibliography** University of Chicago Press. *The Chicago Manual of Style*. 17th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2017. **Note** [5]University of Chicago Press, *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2017), 33.
9.1.6 Book with an Editor	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. **Bibliography** Gokay, Bulent, ed. *The Politics of Oil: A Survey.* London: Routledge, 2006. **Note** [6]Bulent Gokay, ed., *The Politics of Oil: A Survey* (London: Routledge, 2006), 55.

9.1.7 Book with an Author and Editor	Normally, when a book has an author and an editor, the author's name precedes the title, and the title precedes the editor's name.
	
	Bibliography
	Bonnefoy, Yves. *New and Selected Poems*. Edited by John Naughton and Anthony Rudolf. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995.
	Note
	   [7]Yves Bonnefoy, *New and Selected Poems*, ed. John Naughton and Anthony Rudolf (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995), 5.
	
	That said, the CMS states, "when an editor or a translator is more important to a discussion than the original author, a book may be listed under the editor's name."[112]
	
	Bibliography
	Naughton, John, and Anthony Rudolf, eds. *New and Selected Poems.* By Yves Bonnefoy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995.
	Note
	   [8]John Naughton and Anthony Rudolf, eds., *New and Selected Poems*, by Yves Bonnefoy (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995).

9.1.8 Book with an Author and Translator	**Bibliography** Feydeau, Georges. *Four Farces by Georges Feydeau*. Translated by Norman R. Shapiro. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970. **Note** [9]Georges Feydeau, *Four Farces by Georges Feydeau,* trans. Norman R. Shapiro (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970), 27. According to the CMS, "when an editor or a translator is more important to a discussion than the original author, a book may be listed under the editor's name."[113] **Bibliography** Shapiro, Norman R, trans. *Four Farces by Georges Feydeau*. By Georges Feydeau. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970. **Note** [10]Norman R. Shapiro, trans., *Four Farces by Georges Feydeau*, by Georges Feydeau (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970), 27.
9.1.9 Book with an Author, Editor, and Translator	In the note, the word "edited" is abbreviated to "ed." Only use the singular form "ed." if there is one editor. Use the abbreviation eds. if there are two or more editors. If there are four or more editors, cite the first one and add "et al." When adding the name of a translator or translators, separate this information with a comma in the note. **Bibliography** Adorno, Theodor W., and Walter Benjamin. *The Complete Correspondence, 1928–1940*. Edited by Henri Lonitz. Translated by Nicholas Walker. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1999. **Note** [11]Theodor W. Adorno and Walter Benjamin, *The Complete Correspondence, 1928–1940*, ed. Henri Lonitz, trans. Nicholas Walker (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1999), 5.
9.1.10 Author known only by his/her given name	**Bibliography** Augustine. *On Christian Doctrine*. Translated by D. W. Robertson Jr. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1958. **Note** [12]Augustine, *On Christian Doctrine*, trans. D. W. Robertson Jr. (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1958), 4.
9.1.11 Non-English Language Source	According to the [*Chicago Manual of Style*], when works written in English cite sources written in a foreign language, bibliographic terms (e.g., volume, edition) may be translated if the author or editor is familiar with common bibliographic terms in the foreign language. However, Chicago style recommends leaving the terms in their original language. **Bibliography** Bourdieu, Pierre. *Raison Pratique: Sur la théorie de l'action.* Paris: Seuil, 2014. **Note** [13]Pierre Bourdieu, *Raison Pratique: Sur la théorie de l'action* (Paris: Seuil, 2014), 153.

9.1.12 Book with Edition	The edition follows the title, and in the note it is preceded by a comma. If you are citing a revised version, you would abbreviate the phrase and place it after the title in the same way (e.g., rev. ed.). The word "revised" should be in lowercase. **Bibliography** Hacker, Diana, Nancy Sommers, Tom Jehn, Jane Rosenzweig, and Marcy Carbajal van Horn. *A Writer's Reference*. 6th ed. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007. **Note** [14]Diana Hacker et al., *A Writer's Reference*, 6th ed. (Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2007), 43.
9.1.13 Article in an Edited Book	In both the bibliographic reference and the note, the word "in" precedes the title of the book; however, in the bibliographic reference the first letter of the word is capitalized. Additionally, in the bibliography, the page numbers of the article precede the publication information. **Bibliography** Bloom, Mia, and John Horgan. "Missing Their Mark: The IRA Proxy Bomb Campaign." In *Making Sense of Proxy Wars: States, Surrogates & the Use of Force,* edited by Michael A. Innes, 31-59. Washington, DC: Potomac Books, 2012. **Note** [15]Mia Bloom and John Horgan, "Missing Their Mark: The IRA Proxy Bomb Campaign," in *Making Sense of Proxy Wars: States, Surrogates & the Use of Force*, ed. Michael A. Innes (Washington, DC: Potomac Books, 2012), 34.
9.1.14 Chapter in a Book	When you cite only a chapter from an author's book, include the chapter title as well as the title of the book. **Bibliography** Zetter, Kim. "A New Fighting Domain." In *Countdown to Zero Day: Stuxnet and the Launch of the World's First Digital Weapon,* 205-226. New York: Crown, 2014. **Note** [16]Kim Zetter, "A New Fighting Domain," in *Countdown to Zero Day: Stuxnet and the Launch of the World's First Digital Weapon* (New York: Crown, 2014), 205-226.
9.1.15 Book Introduction, Preface, Afterword, or Abstract	When citing a foreword or other piece of front matter in a book, the author of the foreword goes first, followed by the names of the authors or editors of the book. **Bibliography** Gardner, Donald R. Foreword to *Applications in Operational Culture: Perspectives from the Field.* Edited by Paula Holmes-Eber, Patrice M. Scanlon, and Andrea L. Hamlen, ix. Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University Press, 2009. **Note** [17]Donald R. Gardner, foreword to *Applications in Operational Culture: Perspectives from the Field,* ed. Paula Holmes-Eber, Patrice M. Scanlon, and Andrea L. Hamlen (Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University Press, 2009), ix.

9.1.16 Book with Multiple Volumes	The *Chicago Manual of Style* stipulates, "When a multivolume work is cited as a whole, the total number of volumes is given after the title of the work."[114] If the book has an editor and an author, the volume should be placed after the editor's name. The volume number should be in Arabic numerals even if it is given in Roman numerals in the original. Additionally, if a page number immediately follows the volume number, take out the abbreviation "vol." and use a colon to separate the two numbers. **Bibliography** Asprey, Robert B. *War in the Shadows: The Guerrilla in History*. Vol. 2. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975. **Note** [18]Robert B. Asprey, *War in the Shadows: The Guerrilla in History*, vol. 2 (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975), 243.
9.1.17 Reprint	In a reprint edition, if the original information is important (e.g., original publication date) it can be included. Make sure to include the publication date of the edition you are using; this is especially important if the page numbers change as a result of the reprint. You can use this citation to show that a book is now declassified and/or now has a digital version with a phrase such as "now declassified and available online." **Bibliography** Callwell, C. E. *Small Wars: Their Principles and Practice*. 3rd ed. London: His Majesty's Stationary Office, 1906. Reprinted with introduction by Douglas Porch. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 1996. **Note** [19]C. E. Callwell, *Small Wars: Their Principles and Practice,* 3rd ed. (London: H.M.'s Stationary Office, 1906), 13. Citations refer to the Nebraska edition.
9.1.18 Contribution to a Multi-Author Book	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 not italicized, and the title of the book (italicized) follow the title of the contribution. In the bibliography and in the endnote, list the page numbers of the contribution after the last editor. In the endnote only, place the page used at the end. **Bibliography** Kanet, Roger E. "Limitations on the Soviet Union's Role in Protracted Warfare in the Third World." In *Guerrilla Warfare and Counterinsurgency: U.S.-Soviet Policy in the Third World*. Edited by Richard H. Schultz, Jr., Robert L. Pfaltzgraff, Jr., Uri Ra'anan, William J. Olsen, and Igor Lukes, 81-98. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1989. **Note** [20]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. Schultz, Jr., et al., 81-98 (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1989), 96.

9.1.19 One Volume of a Multi-Volume Work with Different Authors	The name of the volume follows the authors' names. After listing the volume number, write the title of the entire work in italics. **Bibliography** Garand, George W., and Truman R. Strobridge. *Western Pacific Operations.* Vol. 4, *History of U.S. Marine Operations in World War II.* Washington, DC: Historical Division, Headquarters, US Marine Corps, 1971. **Note** [21]George W. Garand and Truman R. Strobridge, *Western Pacific Operations,* vol. 4, *History of U.S. Marine Operations in World War II* (Washington, DC: Historical Division, Headquarters, US Marine Corps, 1971), 125.
9.1.20 Sacred or Religious Books	When citing a sacred book such as the Bible or the Koran (Qu'ran), it is important to name the version or translator. When shortening a citation in the endnotes, make sure to fully spell out the version you are using the first time you cite. You do not need to include sacred or religious books in the bibliography. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style,* "Any writer or editor working extensively with biblical material should consult the latest edition of *The SBL Handbook of Style.*"[115] **Note** [22]Romans 8: 35-38 (Saint Joseph New Catholic edition). [23]The Holy Qu'ran 28:56 (English, Arabic, and Urdu edition). [24]Deuteronomy 24:19-21 (JPS Tanakh 1917 edition).
9.1.21 Publisher's Imprint	An imprint is a subdivision or brand of a publication company. In the example below, Longman is an imprint under the umbrella of the Pearson publication company. If a book was published by an imprint of a publishing company, it is usually sufficient to include the imprint's name and to omit the name of the parent company.[116] If it is unclear as to which name refers to the imprint and which refers to the parent company, both names may be included, and a slash would be placed between the two names (e.g., Pearson/Longman). In this case, we know that Longman is an imprint of Pearson, so only Longman is included in the citation. **Bibliography** Behrens, Laurence, and Leonard J. Rosen. *A Sequence for Academic Writing.* New York: Longman, 2010. **Note** [25]Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Longman, 2010), 225.
9.1.22 Books Available Online	To show a book was found online, add the URL to the end of the citation. The pagination of online texts might vary from original printed versions. If you are working with an online text that does not include pagination, use a chapter or section title. **Bibliography** Steinbeck, John. *Grapes of Wrath.* Reprint of the 1917 New York edition, Project Gutenberg, 2014. https://www.gutenberg.org/files/46787-h/46787-h.htm. **Note** [26]John Steinbeck, *Grapes of Wrath* (1917; Project Gutenberg, 2014), chap. 3, https://www.gutenberg.org/files/46787-h/46787-h.htm.

9.1.23 E-Books	Even if an e-book is available in print, it is best that you cite the book as an e-book if you access it online, as there may be differences between the versions. Phrases like "Kindle edition" and "PDF e-book" follow the year of publication. Many electronic books do not have fixed pages but rather scrollable text; thus, the CMOS advises citing the chapter number section heading, or even paragraph number if they are numbered in lieu of a page number. **Bibliography** Clausewitz, Carl von. *On War.* Edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Translated by Michael Howard and Peter Paret. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984. Kindle edition. **Note** [27]Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), Kindle edition, chap 3.
9.1.24 Audio Book	**Bibliography** Chernow, Ron. *Alexander Hamilton.* Read by Scott Brick. New York: Penguin Audio, 2004. Audiobook, 36 hrs. 2 mins. **Note** [28]Ron Chernow, *Alexander Hamilton,* read by Scott Brick, 2004, audiobook, 10:13.

* For information about citing an online-only supplement to a book, see section 9.10.8.

9.2   Periodicals

Journals, popular magazines, and newspapers are classified as periodicals. The citation for the print version of a periodical is quite similar to the citation for the digital version; the main difference is that citations of non-print sources typically include a URL or DOI. When citing journal, magazine, or newspaper articles, make sure you cite the specific source type you accessed. That is, if you consulted the source online, make sure you are following the format for an online journal article as opposed to treating it as a print version. Almost all journal articles will include a volume number; this number typically follows the title of the journal. Magazines and newspapers, however, will often include a specific month, season, or date of publication in lieu of a volume number.

Some journals will contain both a volume and issue number. The issue number typically follows the volume number and is preceded by the abbreviation "no." Some journals will include both volume/issue numbers and specific seasons/months of publication. If the journal you are citing includes an issue number, the specific month and/or season of publication is unnecessary but not incorrect. For this reason, both of the citations below are correct.

> **Bibliography Example Including the Issue Number and Month/Season:**
> Spangler, Michael. "Preparing for North Korea's Collapse: Key Stabilization Tasks."
> *Parameters* 46, no. 2 (Summer 2016), 37-51.
> **Bibliography Example Omitting the Month/Season:**
> Spangler, Michael. "Preparing for North Korea's Collapse: Key Stabilization Tasks."
> *Parameters* 46, no. 2 (2016), 37-51.

When a particular month of publication is used, it may be either spelled out or abbreviated if the month is one that has an abbreviation (e.g., Jan., Feb., Mar., Apr., Aug., Sept., Oct., Nov., Dec.). Seasons, however, are capitalized and written out in full (e.g., Spring, Summer, Fall, Winter).

When referring to a newspaper or other publication title in text, the title itself is italicized, but the word preceding the title is made lowercase and not italicized. Exceptions are periodical titles like *Forbes* and *TIME*, which are not preceded by an article. As you cite different types of periodicals in your paper, you can reference table 13.

Table 13: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Periodicals

9.2.1 Journal Articles in Print	To cite a journal article, put the title of the article 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 number as an Arabic numeral, even if it appears as a Roman numeral in the original text. 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 permissible.
	
	Bibliography
	Dowell, Steven. "Policing in America: How DOD Helped Undermine Posse Comitatus." *Joint Force Quarterly* 85, no. 2 (April 2017), 58-65.
	Note
	  [1]Steven Dowell, "Policing in America: How DOD Helped Undermine Posse Comitatus," *Joint Force Quarterly* 85, no. 2 (April 2017), 60.
	
	Note: Generally, full names are not supplied when citing authors who always use initials in their publications.
	
	Bibliography
	Hammes, T. X. "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare." *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (May-June 2007), 14-23.
	Note
	  [2]T. X. Hammes, "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare," *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (May-June 2007), 15.

9.2.2 Journal Articles from Digital Databases	Access dates are not required to cite sources published in digital databases; however, if directed to use an access date, place it before the URL and separate it with commas in a note or periods in a bibliography reference. Include the full URL only if the database has a recommended stable form of the document. If a stable URL is not included, the citation should include the database name in addition to any identification number. Identification numbers should be placed in parentheses.[117] **Bibliography** Bittner, Donald. "Foreign Military Officer Training in Reverse: U.S. Marine Corps Officers in the French Professional Military Education System in the Interwar Years." *Journal of Military History* 57, no. 3 (July 1993), 481-510, http://www.jstor.org/stable/2943989. **Note** [3]Donald Bittner, "Foreign Military Officer Training in Reverse: U.S. Marine Corps Officers in the French Professional Military Education System in the Interwar Years,"

	Journal of Military History 57, no. 3 (July 1993), 490, http://www.jstor.org/stable/2943989. **Bibliography** 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. Ebscohost (25069433). **Note** [4]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, Ebscohost (25069433).
9.2.3 Journal Articles Accessed Online	While you may use digital databases to collect most of the journal articles you will cite in your work, you may locate and cite journal articles that are not housed in a database. For instance, you might use Google Scholar to locate free online journal articles. **Bibliography** Travis, Jon, and Joyce Scott. "The Courage to Lead: Cases in American Higher Education." *Journal of Case Studies in Education* 5 (2014), http://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/131610.pdf. **Note** [5]Jon Travis and Joyce Scott, "The Courage to Lead: Cases in American Higher Education," *Journal of Case Studies in Education* 5 (2014), 3, http://www/aabri.com/manuscripts/131610.pdf.
9.2.4 Digital Enhance- ments to Journal Articles	According to the *Chicago Manual of Style* (from where the below examples have been obtained), digital-only enhancements to journal articles—including sound or video files and appendixes—can be cited in notes as follows: **Note** [6]"RNA/DNA Quantitation Methods," appendix A (online only), Daniel I. Bolnick and On Lee Lau, "Predictable Patterns of Disruptive Selection in Stickleback in Postglacial Lakes," *American Naturalist* 172 (July 2008), doi:10.1086/587805.
9.2.5 Foreign Language Journal Articles	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 rules of the particular language. **Bibliography** Foucault, Michael. "Des espaces autres." *Architecture, Mouvement, Continuite* 5 (October 1984), 46-49. **Note** [7]Michael Foucault, "Des espaces autres," *Architecture, Mouvement, Continuite* 5 (October 1984), 49.
9.2.6 Translated Journal Articles	When you translate a journal article title, the English translation follows the original title and appears in brackets with no quotation marks. If the citation uses only the English translation, the original language needs to follow the title in brackets. **Bibliography** Foucault, Michael. "Des espaces autres." [Of other spaces.] Translated by Jay Miskowiec. *Diacritics* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1986), 22-27.

	Note [8]Michael Foucault, "Des espaces autres" [Of other spaces], trans. Jay Miskowiec, *Diacritics* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1986), 23. **Bibliography** Vygotsky, Lev. "Play and its role in the mental development of the child." [in Russian.] Translated by Nikolai Veresov and Myra Barrs. *International Research in Early Child Education* 7, no. 2 (2016), 3-25. **Note** [9]Lev Vygotsky, "Play and its role in the mental development of the child" [in Russian], trans. Nikolai Veresov and Myra Barrs, *International Research in Early Child Education* 7, no. 2 (2016), 6.
9.2.7 Magazine Articles in Print	You do not need to include the volume or issue number for weekly or monthly magazines. If the magazine includes the specific day and month of publication, the full date may be included in the citation. However, many magazines include only a publication month. The CMOS states that even magazines "numbered by volume and issue are usually cited by date only."[118] 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 endnote, separate the date and page numbers with a comma. **Bibliography** McGirk, Tim. "In the Shadow of 1967." *Time,* June 11, 2007. **Note** [10]Tim McGirk, "In the Shadow of 1967," *Time*, June 11, 2007, 43.
9.2.8 Magazine Articles from an Online Magazine	When citing an article from an online magazine, the URL follows the page number(s). Note that some online magazines do not contain page numbers. **Bibliography** Bamford, James. "Edward Snowden: The Untold Story." *Wired,* March 2017. https://www.wired.com/magazine/press-on/. **Note** [11]James Bamford, "Edward Snowden: The Untold Story," *Wired*, March 2017, https://www.wired.com/magazine/press-on/.
9.2.9 Newspaper Articles in Print	Because an article can be moved to different pages in different editions of a newspaper, it is not necessary to include page numbers in your citation. The month, day, and year are the most important elements. Additionally, you do not need to add the word "the" before the title of the newspaper. Newspaper articles are typically included only in the endnotes. **Note** [12]Ernesto Londoño, "Before Pullout, A Scrap Project: Gear Disposal in Afghanistan," *Washington Post,* June 20, 2013. Newspaper articles are typically included only in the endnotes, but if a bibliography entry were needed it would follow this format: **Bibliography** Londoño, Ernesto. "Before Pullout, A Scrap Project: Gear Disposal in Afghanistan." *Washington Post,* June 20, 2013.

9.2.10 Unsigned Newspaper Articles	If citing an unsigned newspaper article, the note should begin with the article title (see generic format below): **Note** [13]"Article Title," *Periodical Title*, publication date. As mentioned earlier, newspaper articles typically do not appear in the bibliography; however, if a bibliography entry were needed it would follow this format: **Bibliography** *Periodical Title*. "Article Title." publication date.
9.2.11 Newspaper Articles from Digital Databases	It is not necessary to include the date a newspaper article was accessed from a digital database. Simply add the main URL to show readers how to access the database. Additionally, if an author is not listed, you can use the name of the news service instead. Capitalize the title of the news service, but do not italicize it as you would the newspaper title. **Note** [14]Associated Press, "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians," *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007, http://library.pressdisplay.com/.
9.2.12 Newspaper Articles Accessed Online and Newspapers from a News Site	Online newspapers and news sites such as CNN.com are treated as print newspaper sources with the addition of a URL. 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. **Note** [15]Hilary Whiteman, "Scenarios for Snowden: Escape, Arrest, Asylum," *CNN.com,* June 20, 2013, http://www.cnn.com/2013/06/20/world/asia/snowden-scenarios-hong-kong/index.html?hpt=hp_c4.
9.2.13 News Releases	**Note** [16]US Department of Labor, "US Department of Labor's OSHA Cites Roofing Contractor Woodbridge Enterprises for Lack of Fall Protection at 2 Illinois Job Sites," news release, June 5, 2012, http://www.osha.gov/pls/oshaweb/owadisp.show_document?p_table=NEWS_RELEASES&P_id=22470.
9.2.14 Resources from Jane's Information Group	Jane's—known as Jane's Information Group or IHS Jane's—is a British publishing company that produces several different types of publications on topics of interest to military writers. These publications include periodicals in online and print form as well as several specialized online resources. Authors are sometimes not listed in Jane's resources; in this case, LCSC faculty members recommend that you begin your citation with the name of the publication in which the article is found. **Bibliography** *Jane's World Insurgency and Terrorism.* "Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula," February 25, 2014. Jane's Information Group. **Note** [17]*Jane's World Insurgency and Terrorism,* "Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula," February 25, 2014, Jane's Information Group.

9.3   Book Reviews

Another type of often-cited source is a book review. Table 14 contains an example of book review citations.

Table 14: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Book Reviews

9.3.1 Book Reviews	**Bibliography**
	Drumming, Neil. Review of *All Involved,* by Ryan Gattis. *New York Times* (June 19, 2015). http://www.nytimes.com/2015/06/21/books/review/all-involved-by-ryan-gattis.html?ref=review.
	Note
	  [1]Neil Drumming, review of *All Involved,* by Ryan Gattis, *New York Times* (June 19, 2015), http://www.nytimes.com/2015/06/21/books/review/all-involved-by-ryan-gattis.html?ref=review.
	
	Bibliography
	Keddie, Nikki. Review of *Nationalism in Iran*, by Richard Cottam. *Political Science Quarterly* 40, no. 4 (December 1966), 665-666. http://www.jstor.org/stable/2146928.
	Note
	  [2]Nikki Keddie, review of *Nationalism in Iran,* by Richard Cottam, *Political Science Quarterly* 60, no. 4 (December 1966), 665, http://www.jstor.org/stable/2146928.

9.4   Interviews and Personal Communications

If you plan to include information that you obtained from an interview, via email with an individual, or through another form of personal communication, a citation is needed. In table 15, you will find examples of bibliography and endnote references for these types of sources.

Table 15: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Interviews and Personal Communications

9.4.1 Published or Broadcast Interviews	Unlike book and journal citations where the author's name goes first, in a citation of an interview, the name of the person being interviewed goes first, followed by the title and the name of the interviewer. **Bibliography** Bremmer, Ian. "An Interview with Ian Bremmer." By David Doktori and Rebecca Leicht. *Journal of International Affairs* 60, no. 2 (Spring 2007), 113-122. **Note** [1]Ian Bremmer, "An Interview with Ian Bremmer," interview by David Doktori and Rebecca Leicht, *Journal of International Affairs* 60, no. 2 (Spring 2007), 114.
9.4.2 Published or Broadcast Interviews Retrieved from Digital Databases	When citing published or broadcast interviews that are found on a digital database, the full URL is included only if the database has a recommended stable form of the document. If a stable URL is not included, the citation should include the database name in addition to any identification number. In the absence of an identification number, the database name is sufficient (see below). **Bibliography** Gallagher, Gary. "Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview." By Peter S. Carmichael. *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 20-27. Proquest.

	Note [2]Gary Gallagher, "Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview," interview by Peter S. Carmichael, *Civil War Times Illustrated,* July 2007, 23, Proquest.
9.4.3 Published or Broadcast Interviews Available Online	See examples above for more information on the basic elements to include, as they are the same for this type of interview. Add the URL to show where readers can find the interview online. **Bibliography** Nakasone, Paul M. "An Interview with Paul M. Nakasone." By William T. Eliason. *Joint Force Quarterly* 92, January 2019. https://ndupress.ndu.edu/Media/ News/News-Article-View/Article/1734461/an-interview-with-paul-m-nakasone/. **Note** [3]Paul M. Nakasone, "An Interview with Paul M. Nakasone," interview by William T. Eliason, *Joint Force Quarterly* 92*,* January 2019, https://ndupress.ndu.edu/Media/News/News-Article-View/Article/1734461/an-interview-with-paul-m-nakasone/.
9.4.4 Unpublished Interviews	It is not necessary to include unpublished interviews and personal communications (phone conversations, emails, letters, and face-to-face interactions) in the bibliography; however, you must include them in an endnote. The note should include the names of the interviewer and the person being interviewed, the interviewee's professional title or qualifications when appropriate, and the place and time of the interview. If a transcript or recording is available, the note should include where this information can be located. Make sure to get permission from the interviewee to cite his or her name in your paper. **Note** [4]Miles Price (education specialist at iParadigms), discussion with author, May 3, 2019.
9.4.5 Unattributed (Anonymous) Interviews	There is a bit more flexibility given to the researcher when citing an interview with a person who chooses or is forced to remain anonymous. Provide whatever material is appropriate given the particular context, and explain the reason for omitting the interviewee's name. It is not necessary to include unattributed interviews in the bibliography. **Note** [5]Interview with Senior Executive Servant, June 10, 2019.
9.4.6 Personal Communications	At times, you may choose to reference informal face-to-face or telephone conversations. You may also cite emails or text messages. Below are some examples of how you might format notes to reference these personal communications; **you should not include personal communications in the bibliography.** If you are citing a letter or other personal communication that is housed in an archival collection, refer to 9.5.5. **Main Text Example:** In a telephone conversation with the author on June 23, 2019, Director of the Leadership Communication Skills Center Linda Di Desidero stated… **Note** [6]Linda Di Desidero, telephone conversation with the author, June 23, 2019.

	Main Text Example: In an email message to the author on August 25, 2017, Marie Calendar provided the recipe for her chicken pot pie**.** **Note** [7] Marie Calendar, email message to author, August 25, 2017.
9.4.7 Email Attachments	At times, personal communications may contain attached documents (Word documents, PowerPoints, or PDFs) that you need to cite. Below is an example of how you might cite information obtained through an email attachment. **Bibliography** Commandant's Strategic Initiative Group. "South China Sea Strategy 2017." Unpublished manuscript received as email attachment from Colonel Audrey Lee. June 1, 2017. Microsoft Word file. **Note** [8] Commandant's Strategic Initiative Group (June 1, 2017), unpublished manuscript received as email attachment from Colonel Audrey Lee, Microsoft Word file.
9.4.8 Electronic mailing lists and forums	The main components of digital mailing list citations are the name of the list, the date of the posting, and the URL associated with the posting. If the posting includes a title or file name/issue number, you should include that information as well. Do not include digital mailing list postings in the bibliography. **Note** [9] Jason DePaulo to MCU@listserv.usmcu.edu, July 8, 2014, no. 22, http://mcu.studentforum/archives.php.

9.5   Student Theses and Other Unofficially Published Material

Another source type you might use in your writing is unpublished material, such as previous student papers on a similar topic (to include MMS papers published through DTIC). You may also want to cite an unpublished work or paper that you have written previously (e.g., citing yourself to avoid self-plagiarism). Table 16 presents example formats for citing unpublished and informally published material.

Table 16: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Unofficially Published Material

9.5.1 Student Theses in Print	When citing a student thesis, enclose the title of the thesis in quotation marks. Include the type of thesis, academic institution, and year. **Bibliography** Culbertson, Matthew C. "A Study of the Soviet Conflict in Afghanistan and its Implications." Master's thesis, Marine Corps University, 2005. **Note** [1] Matthew C. Culbertson, "A Study of the Soviet Conflict in Afghanistan and its Implications" (master's thesis, Marine Corps University, 2005), 23-24.
9.5.2 Student Theses Retrieved from Digital Databases or Websites	For this type of reference, it is necessary to include the URL of the digital database or website where the student thesis can be found. **Bibliography** 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. Defense Technical Information

	Center. http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/. **Note** ²Haile 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, Defense Technical Information Center, http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/.
9.5.3 Unpublished Papers	When citing unpublished papers, include the author, the 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). For unpublished papers received as email attachments, see 9.4.7. **Bibliography** Lee, Audrey. "Thesis Drafting Strategies." Unpublished manuscript, last modified June 1, 2012. Microsoft Word file. **Note** ³Audrey Lee, "Thesis Drafting Strategies" (unpublished manuscript, June 1, 2012), Microsoft Word file.
9.5.4 Working Papers and Drafts	Think of these types of sources in much the same way as theses or unpublished presentations; however, use the title "working paper" in place of "master's thesis" or "unpublished manuscript." **Bibliography** Cordesman, Anthony. "One Year On: Nation Building in Iraq: A Status Report." Revised. Working Paper. CSIS Press. Center for Strategic and International Studies, April 16, 2004. Also available online at: http://www.csis.org/. **Note** ⁴Anthony Cordesman, "One Year On: Nation Building in Iraq: A Status Report," rev. (working paper, CSIS Press, Center for Strategic and International Studies, 2004), 21, also available online at: http://www.csis.org/features/iraq_oneyearon.pdf.
9.5.5 Archival Information	Follow the format below when citing information that is housed in an archival collection. Some collections contain identifying series or file numbers, which should be included in the citation. Notice that the note format begins with the specific item (e.g., letter, memorandum, recording, or photograph) that is being cited. The bibliography format, however, begins with the collection that houses the specific item you are citing or the author(s) of the items in the collection. **Bibliography** Smedley D. Butler Collection. Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, VA. **Note** ⁵Specific item (e.g., letter, memorandum, recording, photograph), Collection Name, [Folder Heading], Collection Number, name and location of institution. **Note** ⁶General Butler, memorandum, 1913, Smedley D. Butler Collection [Folder heading], COLL 1202, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico VA. **See 9.9.28 and 9.9.29 for examples of letters from an archived collection and archived reports.**

9.6   Lectures, Speeches, Reports, and Papers Presented at Meetings

When citing a lecture or paper presented at a meeting, you need to include the title of the lecture or presentation as well as the organization hosting the meeting/lecture, the place where the meeting/lecture was held, and the date of the meeting/lecture. Keep in mind that lectures provided in Breckinridge or Warner Hall do not necessarily need to be cited due to Marine Corps University's non-attribution policy. Consult with your faculty member for more specific guidance. Table 17 provides bibliography and note reference formats for these types of sources.

Table 17: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Lectures, Speeches, Reports, and Papers Presented at Meetings

9.6.1 Lectures and Speeches	**Bibliography** Trump, Donald. "Address before the Joint Session of Congress on the State of the Union." Speech. United States Congress, Washington, DC, February 5, 2019. **Note** [1]Donald Trump, "Address before the Joint Session of Congress on the State of the Union" (speech, United States Congress, Washington, DC, February 5, 2019).
9.6.2 Speech Transcripts	**Bibliography** King, Martin Luther, Jr. "I Have a Dream." Speech. Washington, DC, August 28, 1963. American Rhetoric, http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/ mlkihaveadream.htm. **Note** [2]Martin Luther King, Jr., "I Have a Dream," (speech, Washington, DC, August 28, 1963), American Rhetoric, http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/ mlkihaveadream.htm.
9.6.3 Video Recording of Speech	**Bibliography** Trump, Donald. "State of the Union Address." The White House video, February 5, 2019. https://www.whitehouse.gov/sotu/. **Note** [3]Donald Trump, "State of the Union Address," video, 42:20, address to Congress and the nation on February 5, 2019, https://www.whitehouse.gov/sotu/.
9.6.4 Published Conference Proceedings	Published proceedings of a conference or meeting are treated as book chapters. **Bibliography** Huntjens, Patrick. "A Legal and Institutional Perspective." In *Water Security and Peace Conference*, 20-37. Amsterdam: The Hague, November 2013. http://www.upeace.nl/cp/uploads/downloadsprojecten/Water_and_Peace_ Conference_-LR_-_Final_1405085225.pdf. **Note** [4]Patrick Huntjens, "A Legal and Institutional Perspective," in *Water Security and Peace Conference* (Amsterdam: The Hague, November 2013), http://www.upeace.nl/cp/uploads/downloadsprojecten/Water_and_Peace_Conference_-LR_-_Final_1405085225.pdf.
9.6.5 Conference Proceedings Published in Journals	Proceedings from a conference that are published in journals are treated as periodical articles. **Bibliography** Reid, Shelley. "Preparing Writing Teachers: A Case Study for CCCC and NCTE." *College Composition and Communication* 62, no. 4 (June 2011), 687-703.

	Note [5]Shelley Reid, "Preparing Writing Teachers: A Case Study for CCCC and NCTE," *College Composition and Communication* 62, no. 4 (June 2011), 700.
9.6.6 Handouts	Handouts typically need to be included in the endnotes, but not in the bibliography unless otherwise instructed. Here is an example of how you would cite a course card or presentation. **Note: For more information on citing PowerPoint slides, see section 9.8.3.** **Note** [6]Lewis Miller, "Iraqi Culture and Politics" (course card, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 2012), 2. **Note** [7]Jacob Lopez, *MCPP* (Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, June 25, 2012), PowerPoint presentation.
9.6.7 Letters in a Published Collection	When citing a letter, put the name of the person who wrote the letter first, followed by the person to whom the letter was addressed, the year the letter was written, the name of the collection or book in which the letter was published, and the place the letter was written (if applicable). Section 9.5.5 provides formats for citing letters obtained from an archive. **Bibliography** Adams, Abigail. Abigail Adams to John Adams, 1801. In *My Dearest Friend: Letters of Abigail and John Adams,* edited by Margaret A. Hogan and C. James Taylor. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001. **Note** [8]Abigail Adams to John Adams, 1801, in *My Dearest Friend: Letters of Abigail and John Adams,* ed. Margaret A. Hogan and C. James Taylor (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001), 15.
9.6.8 Archived Manuscript Collections	The citation for a letter in a collection begins with the name of the writer, followed by the word "to" and the name of the recipient. According to the CMOS, "the word letter is usually omitted—that is, understood—but other forms of communication (telegram, memorandum) are specified."[119] **Bibliography:** Grant, Ulysses S., and Robert E. Lee. Correspondence. April 9, 1865. Papers of the Lee Family. The Archives of the Robert E. Lee Memorial Foundation. Jessie Ball duPont Library, Stratford Hall. **Note** [9]Ulysses S. Grant to Robert E. Lee, April 9, 1865, The Archives of the Robert E. Lee Memorial Foundation, Papers of the Lee Family, Jessie Ball duPont Library, Stratford Hall.
9.6.9 Pamphlets and Reports	Pamphlets and reports are treated much as books are; however, it is acceptable to be a bit more flexible on author and publication information if these items do not fit the standard book citation format. **Bibliography** Sustainable Defense Task Force. *Debt, Deficits, and Defense: A Way Forward.* Washington, DC: Center for Defense Information, 2010.

	Note [10]Sustainable Defense Task Force, *Debt, Deficits, and Defense: A Way Forward* (Washington, DC: Center for Defense Information, 2010).
9.6.10 Think Tank Reports	A report in this sense is a document created by an organization (e.g., think tank, policy organization like the UN, or an NGO). **Bibliography** Felbab-Brown, Vanda. *The Hellish Road to Good Intentions: How to Break Political-Criminal Alliances in Contexts of Transition.* Crime-Conflict Nexus Series, no. 7. Shibuya, Japan: United Nations University Centre for Policy Research, April 2017. https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/the-hellish-road-to-good-intentions-how-to-break-political-criminal-alliances-in-contexts-of-transition.pdf. **Note** [11]Vanda Felbab-Brown, *The Hellish Road to Good Intentions: How to Break Political-Criminal Alliances in Contexts of Transition,* Crime-Conflict Nexus Series, no. 7 (Shibuya, Japan: United Nations University Centre for Policy Research, April 2017), 4, https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/the-hellish-road-to-good-intentions-how-to-break-political-criminal-alliances-in-contexts-of-transition.pdf.
9.6.11 After Action Reports	**Note** [12] "Combined After Action Report" (CAAR), Operation HICKORY IIth ACR, S3D I B I, 26 October 1966, 5-14213. **Bibliography** "Combined After Action Report" (CAAR). 11th ACR, Operation HICKORY. S3DIBl. 26 October 1966. **Note**: After action reports that are not obtained from an archive may look quite different from the example above, especially with regard to the information that follows the report's title. Depending on how you accessed an after action report, it might more closely follow the format for pamphlets and reports (see example below): **Note** [13]Andrea Hamlen-Ridgely, *MMS Pilot Program After Action Report*, 1 August 2019-1 June 2020. (Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University, 2020), 3. **Bibliography** Hamlen-Ridgely, Andrea. *MMS Pilot Program After Action Report*. 1 August 2019-1 June 2020. Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University, 2020.

9.7   Encyclopedias and Dictionaries

Encyclopedias, dictionaries, and other reference sources can be useful to cite when defining specific terms in your paper. Using sources like these can add credibility to the background section of your paper; be sure, however, that you are using a variety of different source types to support original arguments. Table 18 depicts example citations for reference materials.

Table 18: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Encyclopedias and Dictionaries

9.7.1 Reference Materials in Print (Encyclopedias and Dictionaries)	It is not necessary to cite well-known reference sources, such as the *Webster* dictionaries and *Encyclopedia Britannica* in the bibliography; however, they must be included in the endnotes. If the reference material is not well known, include it in the bibliography. It is not necessary to include the publication information, volume number, or page number. Instead, include the edition and the name of the article or entry after the abbreviated phrase "s.v." This is Latin for *sub voce,* "under the word."
	
	 Bibliography
	 Langer, Howard J. *The Vietnam War: An Encyclopedia of Quotations.* Westport,
	     CT: Greenwood Press, 2005.
	 Note
	   [1]*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, 11th ed., s.v. "history."

9.7.2 Reference Materials Available Online	Most dictionaries and encyclopedias found online are digital versions of well-known sources. As in the print version, well-known online dictionaries and encyclopedias do not have to be cited in the bibliography unless the entry is authored by a particular person. Additionally, if the publication does not contain a publication or revision date, add an access date. **Note** [2]*Encyclopedia Britannica Online*, s.v. "strategy," accessed June 18, 2013, http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/568259/strategy.

9.8   Audiovisual Materials

DVDs, audio recordings, photographs, maps, charts, and even PowerPoint presentations can be useful sources to reference, but they must be cited in your paper. You can find examples of these types of citations in table 19.

Table 19: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Audiovisual Materials

9.8.1 DVDs or Videos	When citing a DVD or video, it is best to include as much information as you can regarding the title, director, year of production, place of production, and organization sponsoring the production. If you want to cite a particular scene from the DVD or video, put this information in quotation marks as you would the chapter of a book.
	
	 Bibliography
	 American Experience: The Battle of Chosin. Directed by Randall MacLowry.
	     United States: PBS, 2016. DVD, 120 min.
	 Note
	   [1]*American Experience: The Battle of Chosin*, directed by Randall MacLowry
	 (United States: PBS, 2016), DVD.

9.8.2 Sound Recordings	When citing a sound recording, include the performer, title, publisher/producer, year of production, and type of recording. **Bibliography** US Marine Corps. *Marching Cadences of the U.S. Marines*. Documentary Recordings, 1998. Audio Compact Disc.

	Note [2]US Marine Corps, *Marching Cadences of the U.S. Marines*, performed by US Marine Corps, Documentary Recordings, 1998, Audio Compact Disc.
9.8.3 PowerPoint Slides	**Bibliography** Lopez, Jacob. *Marine Corps Planning Process*. PowerPoint presentation. Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, June 25, 2012. **Note** [3]Jacob Lopez, *Marine Corps Planning Process* (Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, June 25, 2012), PowerPoint presentation.
9.8.4 Photographs	Images are generally only cited as notes and are not cited in the bibliography, though CMOS provides a bibliography format for images. A brief description of the image may be provided in place of a title if the image does not have a specific title. Provide as much information as possible regarding how the image was accessed. If the image was accessed online, make sure to provide the appropriate URL and page where the image is published. If the image was found in a book, make sure to include the book title, page number, and image or figure number (if applicable). **Bibliography** O'Sullivan, Timothy. "A Harvest of Death, Gettysburg, Pennsylvania." Paul J. Getty Museum Online Catalog. http://www.getty.edu/art/collection/objects/58082/timothy-h-o'sullivan-print-by-alexander-gardner-a-harvest-of-death-american-negative-july-4-1863-print-1866/?dz=0.3275,0.6117,1.53. **Note** [4]Timothy O'Sullivan, "A Harvest of Death, Gettysburg, Pennsylvania," Paul J. Getty Museum Online Catalog, http://www.getty.edu/art/collection/objects/58082/timothy-h-o'sullivan-print-by-alexander-gardner-a-harvest-of-death-american-negative-july-4-1863-print-1866/?dz=0.3275,0.6117,1.53.
9.8.5 Maps	To cite a map from a book, journal article, or website, include the author's name, title of the document, format, city of publication, publishing company, copyright date, and URL (if applicable). If the map and the publication in which the map appears are authored by two separate individuals or organizations, then you will need to first credit the individual who developed the map and then provide a citation for the source in which the map appears (see first example below). **Bibliography** Chindea, Irina, Elina Treyger, Raphael Cohen, Christian Curriden, Kurt Klein, Carlos Anchez, Holly Gramkow, and Khrystyna Holynsk. *Information Competition Potential in Latin America. Map.* In *Great Power Conflict and Competition in Latin America.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2023. https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RRA969-4.html. **Note** [5] Irina Chindea et al., *Information Competition Potential in Latin America*, map, in *Great Power Conflict and Competition in Latin America* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 2023), 37, https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RRA969-4.html. To cite a map from an archived collection, include the author's name, title of the document, format, city of publication, publishing company, copyright date, source, and collection number/name.

	Bibliography
	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
	[6]United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey, *Topographic Map of the Island of Saipan. Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands,* map (Reston, VA: US Geological Survey, 1983), Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Map Collection.

9.9   Government and Military Documents

Government and military documents are among some of the more common sources you will find yourself using at Marine Corps University. Although in professional military writing these are sometimes considered collective property and not necessary to cite, in academic writing it is necessary to cite these types of references so your readers know where to find the information should they plan on researching your topic further. In regards to legal sources, the *Chicago Manual of Style* states, "Legal publications use notes for documentation and few include bibliographies."[120] **The CMOS recommends using *The Bluebook* if working extensively with legal and public documents.** Table 20 provides examples of bibliographic and endnote reference formats for a wide variety of government and military sources.

Table 20: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Government and Military Documents

9.9.1 CRS Reports Retrieved from Digital Databases	**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
	[33]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/.
9.9.2 CRS Reports Available Online	**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
	[34]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.
9.9.3 Government Documents Available Online	When citing government documents accessed online, "online versions authenticated by a government entity or considered to be the official version (or an exact copy thereof) can be treated as if they were print."[121] The URL, if required, would be the last element of the citation, as shown in the example.
	Bibliography
	US Government Accountability Office. *Defense Contracting: Use of Undefinitized Contracts Understated and Definitization Time Frame often Not Met.* Washington, DC: Government Accountability Office, 2007. http://www.gao.gov/new.items/d07559.pdf.

	Note [2]Government Accountability Office, *Defense Contracting: Use of Undefinitized Contracts Understated and Definitization Time Frame often Not Met* (Washington, DC: Government Accountability Office, 2007), 16, http://www.gao.gov/new.items/d07559.pdf.
9.9.4 Government Documents Available in Digital Databases	According to CMOS guidelines, "Citations of sources consulted through commercial databases such as Westlaw or LexisNexis should include the database name and any applicable identification number (or, in the case of constitutions and statutes, information about the currency of the database)."[122] **Bibliography** US Congress. Senate. Committee on Indian Affairs. *Combatting Terrorism.* 108th Cong., 2003. Committee Print 37. http://www.lexis-nexis.com/. **Note** [1]Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, *Combatting Terrorism*, 108th Cong., 2003, Committee Print 37, 11, http://www.lexis-nexis.com/.
9.9.5 Strategy Documents	**Bibliography** US Department of Defense. *Defense Manpower Requirements Report.* Washington, DC: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, April 2012. **Note** [6]US Department of Defense, *Defense Manpower Requirements Report* (Washington, DC: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, April 2012), 15. **Bibliography** The White House. *The National Security Strategy of the United States of America.* Washington, DC, 2006. http://www.whitehouse.gov/nsc/nss/2006/. **Note** [7]The White House, *The National Security Strategy of the United States of America* (Washington, DC, 2006), http://www.whitehouse.gov/nsc/nss/2006/. **Bibliography** Mattis, Jim. *Summary of the 2018 National Defense Strategy of the United States of America: Sharpening the American Military's Competitive Edge.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Defense, 2018. https://dod.defense.gov/Portals/1/Documents/pubs/2018-National-Defense-Strategy-Summary.pdf. **Note** [8]Jim Mattis, *Summary of the 2018 National Defense Strategy of the United States of America: Sharpening the American Military's Competitive Edge* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Defense, 2018), 5, https://dod.defense.gov/Portals/1/Documents/pubs/2018-National-Defense-Strategy-Summary.pdf.
9.9.6 Quadrennial Defense Report	**Bibliography** US Department of Defense. *2014 Quadrennial Defense Review*. Washington, DC, March 4, 2014. **Note** [9]US Department of Defense, *2014 Quadrennial Defense Review* (Washington, DC, March 4, 2014).

9.9.7 Testimony and Hearings	List and italicize the relevant committee as part of the title. Session numbers are not required for citations of House Reports "published as of 1907."[123] **Note** [10]*Thinkers and Practitioners: Do Senior Professional Military Education Schools Produce Strategists?: Hearing before the House Armed Services Subcommittee,* 111th Cong., 10 (2009) (statement of Rear Admiral James P. Wisecup, President, US Naval War College).
9.9.8 Congressional Bills and Resolutions	Known as public laws or statutes, bills and resolutions first appear in the Congressional Record, then in United States Statutes at Large, often in the United States Code Annotated, and finally in the United States Code. **Bibliography** US Congress. House. *Food Security Act of 1985.* HR 2100. 99th Cong., Congressional Record 131, no. 132, daily ed. (October 8, 1985), H 8461-66. **Note** [11]*Food Security Act of 1985,* HR 2100, 99th Cong., Congressional Record 131, no. 132, daily ed. (October 8, 1985), H 8461-66.
9.9.9 Committee Prints	**Bibliography** US Congress. House. Committee on Veterans' Affairs. *Report to the Committee on the Budget from the Committee on Veterans' Affairs Submitted Pursuant to Section 301 of the Congressional Budget Act of 1974 on the Budget Proposed for Fiscal Year 2008.* 110th Cong., 2007. Committee Print 2. **Note** [12]House Committee on Veterans' Affairs, *Report to the Committee on the Budget from the Committee on Veterans' Affairs Submitted Pursuant to Section 301 of the Congressional Budget Act of 1974 on the Budget Proposed for Fiscal Year 2008,* 110th Cong., 2007, Committee Print 2, 15-16.
9.9.10 Commission Reports	**Bibliography** 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. **Note** [13]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.
9.9.11 Statutes	**Note** [14]Atomic Energy Act of 1954, 42 U.S.C. §§ 2011-2021, 2022-2286i, 2296a-2297h-13 (1954).
9.9.12 US Code	**Note** [15]Declaratory Judgment Act, 28 U.S.C. § 2201 (1949).
9.9.13 Supreme Court Decisions	Cite court decisions only in notes, not in the bibliography. The *[Chicago Manual of Style](#)* advises you to include the name of the case, "the volume number (Arabic), abbreviated name of the reporter(s), 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." It also states, "A single page number designates the opening page of a decision; the second number designates an actual page cited."[124] **Note** [16]Brown v. Board of Education, 347 US 483, 380 (1954).

9.9.14 Constitutions	Cite constitutions only in notes, not in the bibliography. 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). Articles are abbreviated "art." Amendments are abbreviated "amend." Clauses are abbreviated "cl." **Note** [17]US Const. art. II, § 2, cl. 2.
9.9.15 Treaties and International Agreements	**Bibliography** "Mastricht Treaty." February 1, 1992. *International Legal Materials* 33, I.L.M. 395 (1994), 20-44. **Note** [18]"Mastricht Treaty," February 1, 1952, *International Legal Materials* 33, I.L.M. 395 (1994), 22.
9.9.16 Memoranda	**Bibliography** James, Col. Richard, Policy and Operations, Marine Corps University. Col. Richard James to Col Joseph A. Wright, Policy and Operations. Memorandum, September 2, 2011. **Note** [19]Col. Richard James, Policy and Operations, Marine Corps University, to Col. Joseph A. Wright, Policy and Operations, memorandum, September 2, 2011.
9.9.17 Draft Memoranda	**Bibliography** Director of the Marine Corps Museum. Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College. Draft Memorandum, July 15, 2010. **Note** [20]Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College, draft memorandum, July 15, 2010.
9.9.18 Memoranda of Understanding	**Bibliography** Director of the Marine Corps Museum. Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College. Memorandum of Understanding, August 10, 2010. **Note** [21]Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College, memorandum of understanding, August 10, 2010.
9.9.19 Memoranda for Record	**Bibliography** Twining, Gen Nation F., vice-chief of staff, U.S. Air Force. Memorandum for Record, November 17, 1950. **Note** [22]Gen Nathan F. Twining, vice-chief of staff, U.S. Air Force, memorandum for record, November 17, 1950.
9.9.20 Letters and Endorsements	**Bibliography** Green, Col. S.W., executive, Commandant's Strategic Initiatives Group. Col. S.W. Green to Commanding General, Marine Corps Training and Education Command, February 10, 2001. **Note** [23]Col. S.W. Green, executive, Commandant's Strategic Initiatives Group, to Commanding General, Marine Corps Training and Education Command, February 10, 2001.

9.9.21 Doctrinal Publications	**Bibliography** US Marine Corps. *Warfighting*. MCDP 1. Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991. **Note** [24]US Marine Corps, *Warfighting*, MCDP 1 (Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 52.
9.9.22 MSTP Documents	**Bibliography** MAGTF Staff Training Program (MSTP) Center. Pamphlet 5-0.1. *Marine Corps Design Methodology*. Quantico: MSTP Center, 2017. **Note** [25]MAFTF Staff Training Program (MSTP) Center, Pamphlet 5-0.1, *Marine Corps Design Methodology* (Quantico, VA: MSTP Center, 2017), 4.
9.9.23 Directives	**Bibliography** US Department of Defense. *Joint Improvised Explosive Device Defeat Organization JIEDDO)*. Directive 2000. 19E, February 14, 2006. **Note** [26]US Department of Defense, *Joint Improvised Explosive Device Defeat Organization (JIEDDO),* Directive 2000, 19E, February 14, 2006, 2.
9.9.24 Instructions	**Bibliography** US 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** [27]US 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/120513p.pdf.
9.9.25 Orders	**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** [28]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.
9.9.26 Marine Corps Bulletins	**Bibliography** Commandant of the Marine Corps. *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances.* MCBul10120, October 1, 2006. http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/ 4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/ $FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf. **Note** [29]Commandant of the Marine Corps, *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances,* MCBul10120, October 1, 2006, http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/ 4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/$FILE/ MCBUL%2010120.pdf.

9.9.27 Staff Studies	**Bibliography** US Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review.* Staff Study, 1980. **Note** [30]US Marine Corps, *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review,* staff study, 1980, 2.
9.9.28 Correspondence	This example refers directly to correspondence that is archived in a collection. **Bibliography** McCutcheon, Keith B. Papers, Archives and Special Collections Branch. Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, VA. Coll. 3040. **Note** [31]Keith B. McCutcheon 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.

9.9.29 Archived Reports	**Bibliography**
	United States Marine Corps. *Composition and Functions of Marine
	    Aviation.* Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine
	    Corps. Coll. 3746.
	Note
	[32]*Composition and Functions of Marine Aviation*, 1955, Headquarters, United
	States Marine Corps, Studies and Reports Collection, Archives and Special
	Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, VA, Coll. 3746.

9.10   Digital Sources

While the term "digital sources" applies to a variety of source types, including e-books and online periodicals, **this section focuses primarily on sources that are available only online (such as websites, blogs, and social media).** Sections 9.1.22 and 9.1.23 in table 12 provide more information about citing books accessed online and e-books, while section 9.2 includes information about citing periodicals (journals, magazines, and newspapers) that are accessed online. According to the CMOS 17, "Authors should note that *anything* posted on the internet is 'published' in the sense of copyright and must be treated as such for the purposes of complete citation and clearance of permissions, if relevant."[125] Digital sources available on the internet should nearly always include a URL in addition to other source information elements like the author, title, and date of publication or access. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th edition, it is preferred to find a shorter version of the URL if available (e.g., a DOI or domain link for formally published digital sources); however, bit.ly links and shortened versions of web links used by social media sites and third-party services should not be used in endnotes and bibliography references. Database information is preferred over a URL when citing information retrieved from an online database, as not all readers may have the same level of access to online databases.

In most cases, writers should be careful to cite the specific medium through which a source was accessed. For instance, citations for online journal articles should be followed by a URL or DOI to indicate to the reader that the source was consulted online as opposed to in print. Though

unlikely, the print version may be slightly different from the online version of the text in terms of content, pagination, or other features.

In digital source citations, URLs should be presented as complete, and the "http" should not be capitalized. Further, if a URL is too long to fit on one line, it should only be broken "*after* a colon or a double slash (//); *before* a single slash (/), a tilde (~), a period, a comma, a hyphen, an underline (_), a question mark, a number sign, or a percent symbol; or *before or after* an equals sign or an ampersand."[126] Avoid adding hard returns or other formatting to break URLs, and do not add hyphens or dashes to indicate a break in the URL. Following is an example of a bibliography reference for a military document accessed online.

Bibliography Example:
Commandant of the Marine Corps. *Expeditionary Force 21*. March 4, 2014.
       http://www.mccdc.marines.mil/Portals/172/Docs/MCCDC/EF21/
       EF21_Capstone_Concept.pdf.

The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends including an access date only if the digital source does not include a publication or revision date. Page numbers may need to be included, if applicable. If you are citing a digital source that does not use page numbers, use a chapter title or section title instead. Below is an example of a section title used in place of a page number.

Note Example:
  [1]University of Chicago, *The Chicago Manual of Style Online,* 17th ed.
(Chicago: Chicago University Press, 2017), section 14.18, https://www-chicagomanualofstyle-org.lomc.idm.oclc.org/book/ed17/part3/ch14/psec018.html.

The citation format for websites is relatively flexible, as not all websites will include detailed publication information. You should be aware, however, that if you are unable to identify the author or sponsor of the site, the information the site contains may not be considered credible. Below are the basic components of website citations.

1. Title or a description of the page
2. Name of organization or individual who authored the content
3. Owner or sponsor of the site
4. Publication date or modification date; access date may be used in the absence of a publication or modification date
5. Site URL

Specific titles of blogs and websites should be put in italics if there is a print version of the work. If there is not a print version of the website (e.g., Wikipedia), the title should be capitalized headline-style and not put in quotation marks or italics. Blog titles are, however, typically italicized. The titles of the specific pages or parts of the larger sites should appear in quotation marks and are not italicized. Sometimes, the author's name may not be listed directly on the page you consult. If this is the case, you may try visiting the site's homepage to find out who published the information. However, websites will often have corporate or organizational authors (e.g., the CIA, the World Wildlife Foundation) rather than individual authors (e.g., John

Smith). You may be able to locate the individual or corporate author's name at the bottom of the web page.

Examples of websites and other digital source citation formats can be found in <u>table 21</u>.

Table 21: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Digital Sources

9.10.1 Websites	Websites are cited in the notes section but typically do not need to appear in the bibliography unless adding a bibliography in a paper with no endnotes or footnotes. Try to include as much information as possible: the site or page title; the author; the site or page sponsor/organization in charge; the date of publication/modification or the access date (date you found this resource) if no publication date can be found; and the URL. You can also add the word website in parentheses after the title of the web page if the type of source could be unclear to readers. For sources that are updated frequently, you can include a time stamp (e.g., 14:59).
	
	Note
	  [1]Mignon Fogerty, "How to Write Numbers," Grammar Girl*,* last modified May 31, 2012, http://www.quickanddirtytips.com/education/grammar/how-to-write-numbers-0.
	Note
	  [2]Marine Corps University, "Command and Staff College," accessed June 6, 2017, https://www.usmcu.edu/csc.
	
	Wikipedia and other websites that have never had a print version should be treated like general website titles and not italicized. This differs from online sources like the *<u>Chicago Manual of Style Online</u>*, which has a version in print and should thus be italicized (see example below).
	
	Note
	  [3]*The Chicago Manual of Style Online,* 17th ed., section 14.117, https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/home.html.

9.10.2 Blogs	If the word "blog" is not found in the title of the website, include the word "blog" after the blog title. Blog entries generally do not appear in the bibliography unless they are cited multiple times throughout the paper. Additionally, someone writing a blog may have a pseudonym or alias, so you do not need to make any special note of that; however, if you do know the name of the original author, you can put it in brackets or include the real name in the body of your paper. 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 the phrase "comment on" and the citation information for the posting that is being commented on. **Note** [4]William J. Tucker, "The Manchester Attack," *Blogs of War* (blog), May 29, 2017, http://blogsofwar.com/the-manchester-attack/.

9.10.3 Comment on Blog	If referencing a comment on a blog or other social media post in the text of your paper, the commenter's name, date of comment, and information about the comment are necessary pieces of information to include. **Note** ⁵Scooby, May 14, 2018, comment on Rachel Rizzo and Gene Germanovich, "The US Should Embrace the EU's New Defense-Cooperation Plan," https://www.defenseone.com/ideas/2018/05/us-should-embrace-eus-new-defense-cooperation-plan/148158/#comment-3900017685.
9.10.4 Online Multimedia (e.g., YouTube Videos)	When citing online multimedia sources that are not a product of any particular publisher (e.g., YouTube videos), you may use the original capitalization, spelling, and spacing so readers can easily find the source. Online multimedia sources are not included in the bibliography. **Note** ⁶"President Trump Speech in Saudi Arabia at Arab Islamic-American Summit," YouTube video, May 21, 2017, 34:45, https://youtu.be/LEnvulC3X-I.
9.10.5 Podcast	When citing a podcast or other audiovisual source type, list the type of medium being cited in addition to the other elements. In this case, use the phrase "podcast audio." **Note** ⁷Jack Hopke, "Foreign Artists Visit Louisiana and the Times-Picayune Slowly Dissolves," *All Things New Orleans*, NPR, podcast audio, June 14, 2012, http://npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast_detail.php?siteId=113308984.
9.10.6 Facebook and other Social Media Sites	The prevalence of social media in society and the vast information sharing that occurs on these sites prior to more established news and print sources have made it necessary to include such resources in this citations chapter. These types of sources typically only need to be included in the endnotes, although according to the CMOS 17, "A frequently cited account or an extensive thread related to a single subject or post may be included in a bibliography."[127] When citing social media content, include the author of the post, screen name of the author in parentheses, the first 160 characters of text in the post if no title is available, the type of post (e.g., Facebook video, Twitter post, Instagram photo), the date of the post, a time stamp only if differentiating between different posts or comments on the same date, and a URL. **Note** ⁸John Dwayne Fucci, "Our nation owes a debt to its fallen heroes that we can never fully repay, but we can honor their sacrifice. Rest in peace mentor 'semper fidelis,'" Facebook comment, May 29, 2019, 12:05, https://www.facebook.com/marines/.
9.10.7 Multimedia app content and video games	This source citation example can be used to cite "video games, interactive books and encyclopedias, and other content designed to function as a stand-alone application for use on a computer or other device."[128] Note citations should include the version number and information about the device or operating system used to run the app or game. Below is a sample citation for the Marine Corps Marathon Historic Half app. **Note** ⁹*Marine Corps Historic Half*, iPhone ed., v. 1.2.12 (Xact, LLC, 2018).

9.10.8 Online only supplement to a book	Note [10]Author first name last name, "title of online-only supplement to book" (file format, e.g., PDF), online supplement to chap. # of *Book Title,* ed.

9.11   Sample Bibliography

On the following page, you will find a sample bibliography, which appears in the same format you will be expected to use in your papers at Marine Corps University. Typically, a CMOS bibliography is completely double spaced—though your professor may ask you to single space your bibliography entries with a double space in between entries. Both formats are acceptable in the CMOS. Note that the Sample Bibliography provides models of different types of sources—books, journal articles, book chapters, a translated book, USMC publications, digital sources, etc.—that you will be using in your own writing.

At the end of the chapter, you will find a podium pages section on citing sources in your oral presentations. You will also have the opportunity to test your knowledge with the Now You Try It! Citations Quiz in worksheet 10.

.

Bibliography (Sample)

Allison, Graham T. "Conceptual Models and the Cuban Missile Crisis." *The American Political Science Review* 63, no. 3 (Sept. 1969), 689-718, http://www.jstor.org/stable/1954423.

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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.

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Guevara, Ernesto Che. *Guerrilla Warfare: A Method*. Peking, People's Republic of China: Foreign Languages Press, 1964.

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Krulak, Victor. *First to Fight: An Inside View of the U.S. Marine Corps.* Annapolis, MD: Naval Institute Press, 1984.

McFarland, Stephen L. "The Air Force in the Cold War, 1945-60: Birth of a New Defense Paradigm." *Airpower Journal* X, no. 3 (Fall 1996): 4-15.

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Trinquier, Roger. *Modern Warfare: A French View of Counterinsurgency*. New York: Praeger, 1964. http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/cgsc/carl/download/csipubs/ModernWarfare.pdf.

US Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Operating Concept (MOC). How an Expeditionary Force Operates in the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, September 2016.

US Marine Corps. *Warfighting*. MCDP 1. Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 20, 1997.

Podium Page - Citing Sources in a Presentation

Presenters are as susceptible to unintended plagiarism in presentations as they are in writing. To maintain academic integrity, it is as important to give credit to sources in a presentation. While the *Chicago Manual of Style* has guidelines for citing reproduced visuals, it does not specify how to verbally cite sources. There are three approaches to citing sources in a presentation listed below.

1. display the source on the slide
2. verbally credit the source as you speak
3. offer a CMOS bibliography to audience members

Approach One: Display the source on the slide
When you speak about factual information, display the source on the slide. Do not type an entire bibliography entry, just a brief note of where you obtained the information. Where you place the source on the slide is a personal choice. Consider how pronounced you want the source to be as you speak to the content on a slide. The audience will notice the prominence of the citation if used as the slide's title or the subtle nature of a citation at the bottom of a slide. If the source has a link, consider adding a hyperlink. You have the prerogative to click on the link during the presentation if it is crucial to your message. If you choose to share your slides online with the audience, they can access the link to your information.
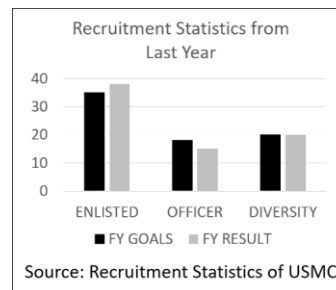
Approach Two: Verbally cite the source as you speak
Audiences appreciate a brief verbal cue when referencing a source they see on a slide. If not using slides, this is best practice in crediting your sources:

- "According to the latest report from Marine Corps Recruiting Command…"
- "A recent *Marine Corps Times* article reported…"
- "Major General Smith remarked in a featured article on militarytimes.com that…"
- "The most recent Census Bureau statistics indicate that…"

Verbally cite only what is necessary to give credit to the source. Inundating an audience with source citations will not meet the goal of maintaining the audience's attention. Audiences will not retain lengthy verbal source citations and will benefit more if you provide complete sources in writing.

Approach Three: Build a CMOS bibliography to offer to the audience
It is best practice to build a bibliography of sources used in the presentation in document or .pdf format. Hang the document online in tandem with your presentation slides. Additionally, it is customary to paste your bibliography on your final slide to acknowledge your sources. A bibliography format is preferred because endnotes may repeat themselves, which takes up limited space on the slide.

Worksheet 10: Now You Try It! Citations Quiz

Choose the correctly formatted book endnote citation from the choices below.
   A. [1] *Uncommon Sense Teaching: Practical Insights in Brain Science to Help Students Learn,* by Barbara Oakley, Beth Rogowsky, and Terrence Sejnowski (New York: TarcherPerigree, 2021), 95.
   B. [1] Barbara Oakley, Beth Rogowsky, and Terrence Sejnowski, *Uncommon Sense Teaching: Practical Insights in Brain Science to Help Students Learn* (New York: TarcherPerigree, 2021), 95.

Choose the correctly formatted journal article bibliography reference citation from the choices below.
   A. Buikema, R. J. "Cooperative Engagement: Ramifications for today's Marine Corps." *Marine Corps Gazette 84*, no. 4 (2000), 58-61.
   B. Buikema, R. J. (2000). Cooperative engagement: Ramifications for today's Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Gazette, 84*(4), 58-61.

Choose the correctly formatted government document endnote citation from the choices below.
   A. [2]US Marine Corps, *Training and Education 2030* (Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, January 2023), 14.
   B. [2]General David H. Berger, *Training and Education 2030* (US Marine Corps, January 2023), 14.

Choose the correctly formatted YouTube video bibliography reference citation from the choices below.
   A. U.S. Marine Corps. "247th Marine Corps Birthday Message." YouTube video. November 7, 2022. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qAsCoJj_YfY.
   B. You do not need to include online multimedia sources in the bibliography.

Choose the correctly formatted shortened citation from the choices below.
Original citation:
[1]Allan Reed Millet, *Semper Fidelis: The History of the United States Marine Corps* (New York: Free Press, 1991), 26.
   A. [2] Ibid.
   B. [2] Millet, *Semper Fidelis,* 26.

Check your answers here!

PART THREE: GRAMMAR, MECHANICS, AND STYLE

Part Three explains American English conventions for sentence-level grammar, mechanics, usage, and style. These include sophisticated use of commas and semicolons as well as writing in active voice. If you would like to test your knowledge of grammar and mechanics, you can take the **Now You Try It! Quizzes** found at the end of each section. These exercises provide good practice for all writers, and they can be a teaching and learning tool for students and faculty to use.

This section has two parts:

CHAPTER TEN: GRAMMAR, PUNCTUATION, AND MECHANICS

"Grammar" is another word for structure. We think of grammar as a set of rules that direct the ways in which we structure sentences in Standard American English. While usage rules and conventions certainly differ across English-speaking cultures around the globe, they tend to be fairly consistent across US academic institutions and disciplines. 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 the *Chicago Manual of Style* guidelines for implementing principles of grammar and punctuation. Chapter Ten covers the following topics:

10.1   Grammar Basics: Parts of Speech and Sentence Components

When we express ourselves in language, our goal is typically to be understood by our audiences, whether they are listening to what we say or reading what we have written. To be clearly understood, we want to follow the conventions of the language.

Specialized contexts—the military, the government, organizational workplaces, and academia—typically have specialized language (jargon) as well as usage conventions (specialized grammars) that direct the ways in which language is used in those contexts. Many of our readers are familiar with military jargon, and they struggle to mitigate its effects in their writing. The *MCU Communications Style Guide* offers guidance about using language effectively in academic contexts.

Language is structured according to usage conventions at the level of the word and the sentence; additional conventions govern use at the level of the paragraph and the document. These conventions—or rules—are what we think of as the grammar of a language. When we refer to grammar, though, we are usually referring only to the structure of sentences.

Sentences are composed of words and phrases. The structure of sentences in a particular language is controlled by practices or rules that speakers of that language follow when they speak or write. We combine words to make phrases, and we combine phrases to make sentences. You know the grammar rules of your language because you know what "sounds right" to you and what does not.

Words and phrases are sentence constituents or units. Our native speaker rules of English tell us how to combine words and phrases to create sentences. For example, the grammar rules inside

your head tell you that sentences 1 and 2 are correct, but that sentence 3 is incorrect. We would never express an idea that way in English.

```
1. The active-duty Marine deployed to Afghanistan in the spring.
2. In the spring, the active-duty Marine deployed to Afghanistan.
3. Deployed to Afghanistan in the spring the active-duty Marine.
```

English is a Subject-Verb-Object language, which means that speakers begin sentences with subjects, which are followed by verbs, which are followed by objects. Writing in subject-verb-object (SVO) order results in a clear and direct sentence structure; namely, it allows you to write in active voice, where the subject performs the action. You can thus eliminate passive voice, a common stylistic challenge, from your written products by using this structural order in your sentences.

We know that the heart of a subject is a noun phrase, and the heart of a predicate is a verb phrase. If you are a native English speaker, you have internalized these rules, even if you do not know how to articulate them. Nouns and verbs are the two essential parts of speech that you use to create sentences. Other parts of speech are listed in table 22.

Table 22: Parts of Speech

Part of Speech	Definition	Example
Noun	person, place, thing, idea, or entity	The **Marine** took **classes** at **Marine Corps University.**
Pronoun	takes the place of nouns or other pronouns; often used to avoid excessive repetition and to build cohesion in writing	**She** had previously taken classes online. *Note: Pronouns have many different cases, and there are over seventy pronouns used in the English language.*
Verb	action word or word that indicates a state of being	The Marine **took** classes at Marine Corps University.
Adverb	word or phrase that modifies or qualifies an adjective, verb, or other adverb in relation to a given place, time, situation, or degree	She studied **hard** and kept up with her reading assignments **diligently**.
Adjective	word or phrase that acts to modify or qualify a noun	The Marine's **favorite** part of the year was February, when she took an **interesting** elective.
Preposition	a word (almost always a part of a phrase) that links nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other words in a sentence	The Marine's favorite part **of** the year was the elective session.
Conjunction	a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses	She studied hard, **and** she kept up with her reading.

Interjection	an exclamation made as a remark to something	**Wow**! The Marine received honors as a distinguished graduate in June.

Nouns are persons, places, things, ideas, and entities. They can do things, and they can have things done to them. A **noun phrase** often begins with a determiner (e.g., the) and contains words that modify the noun (words that give you more information about it, such as adjectives). A noun phrase usually serves as the subject of a sentence; it is who or what the sentence is about. Subject noun phrases are bolded in the sentences below.

1. **The active-duty Marine** deployed to Afghanistan in the spring.
2. **Continued development of missiles capable of delivering nuclear warheads** threatens security for the United States and its allies.

Verbs are action words or words that indicate states of being. **Verb phrases** typically follow subject noun phrases and precede object noun phrases. They may be modified by adverbs that provide information about manner or degree. Where a noun phrase serves as the subject of a sentence, a verb phrase serves as its predicate, providing information about what the subject did or what happened to the subject. Verb phrases typically mark the time of an event (e.g., past, present, or future). provides examples of the different verb tenses used to denote these time periods.

Table 23: Verb Tenses

Present	Past	Future
used when referring to something currently happening, state of being **I study**	used when referring to something that happened prior to the present **I studied**	used when referring to something anticipated that has not happened **I will study**
Present Perfect used when referring to something that started in the past and continues into the present **I have studied**	**Past Perfect** used when referring to something that started and ended at a point in the past; used when referring to the earlier of two events in the past **I had studied before I ate dinner.**	**Future Perfect** used when referring to something that will have occurred by a particular point in the future **I will have studied for two hours by 1600**
Present Continuous used when referring to an ongoing action **I am studying**	**Past Continuous** used when referring to something that was ongoing at a time in the past **I was studying when he called**	**Future Continuous** used when referring to an ongoing action that will be occurring at a point in the future something that will occur for a period of time **I will be studying when she arrives**
Present Perfect Continuous used when referring to an ongoing action that began in the past and continues in the present **I have been studying**	**Past Perfect Continuous** used when referring to something that continued until a particular time in the past but is now over **I had been studying when she called**	**Future Perfect Continuous** used when referring to an ongoing action expected to occur in the future **I will have been studying**

Predicate verb phrases are bolded in the sentences below.

1. The active-duty Marine **deployed to Afghanistan in the spring.**
2. Continued development of missiles capable of delivering nuclear warheads **threatens security for the United States and its allies.**

Worksheet 11: Now You Try It! Verb Tense Quiz

1. As the Littoral Combat Ship (LCS) **sailed** through the South China Sea, the commander **receives** a call for help from one of the Americans on the oil rig.
   In the above sentence, are the verbs correctly or incorrectly used?
2. Since 1948, Sri Lanka **is** independent from the British.
   In the above sentence, is the verb correctly or incorrectly used?
3. The Marine Corps **capitalize** on this concept by **maintain** the Marine Corps Center for Lessons Learned (MCCLL).
   In the above sentence, are the verbs correctly or incorrectly used?

Check your answers here!

Our grammar rules tell us how to combine words into noun phrases and verb phrases to communicate ideas in sentences. When we read or listen to someone else, we use those same grammar rules to understand (to interpret, decode, or parse) the message that person is communicating. Our usage rules of punctuation and mechanics give us tools to clarify the relationships between and among sentence constituents such as noun phrases and verb phrases.

The most basic sentence pattern in English is Subject-Verb-Object (with the Verb-Object sometimes referred to as the verb phrase or as a predicate).

> **Example:** The Marine wrote a paper.

"The Marine" is the subject of the sentence that performs the action of the verb "wrote." "Paper" is the direct object and receives the action of "writing." Such a Subject-Predicate forms an "independent clause," which simply means a grammatically complete thought or a sentence that can stand on its own. The independent clause is the basis for almost all sentences. Conventional punctuation will help your readers understand when you are deviating from this pattern and how the other parts of your sentence relate to the core idea of who is doing what in your writing.

10.2   Punctuation Marks: Commas, Semicolons, Colons, Question Marks, Hyphens, Dashes, Parentheses, Ellipses, and Apostrophes

You can think of each punctuation mark as a sort of traffic signal: punctuation works with the structure and content of your sentence to help the reader understand your message. At Marine Corps University, in other PME institutions, and throughout the US military, clear communication is essential. The way in which you use punctuation in your writing may change the entire meaning of a specific command, request, response, or persuasive effort. Following are several guidelines for using punctuation marks.

10.2.1 Commas

Commas separate sentence constituents or sentence parts from each other so that readers can more easily understand meaning. Simple separations use one comma, and complex separations use a pair of commas. See the following example:

```
The student wrote an excellent paper, and the instructor
gave it an "A."
```

In this case, two independent clauses are joined by the coordinating conjunction "and." Therefore, a comma appears before the "and" to tell the reader that the first thought is finished and a new but closely related thought is beginning. Consider the following example:

```
The colonel, said the general, has tremendous integrity.
```

In this case, "said the general" interrupts the relationship between the subject of the sentence "colonel" and the verb "has." Therefore, the interrupting element "said the general" is set off by a pair of commas to indicate to the reader that the normal order of the sentence (Subject-Verb-Object) is being interrupted with additional information. In terms of content, this sentence indicates that the general said the colonel has integrity. Now, consider how the lack of commas changes the meaning in the following example:

```
The colonel said the general has tremendous integrity.
```

With no commas, the sentence indicates that the colonel referred to the general as someone who has tremendous integrity. By contrasting these two sentences, which are identical except for the commas, you can easily see that punctuation plays a vital role in conveying your meaning accurately. Table 24 lists some of the most common simple and complex comma usages.

Table 24: Comma Usage

Rule	Example
Simple Separations (one comma)	
Commas separate two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction (e.g., *and*, *but*, *for*, *so*, *yet*, *or*).	These obstacles were often self-imposed**, and** they created unnecessary confusion in planning that continued into the operation.
Commas separate parallel adjectives. **Note: If the order of adjectives can be reversed or if the word "and" can stand between them, the adjectives are considered parallel.**	The Command and Staff College student found an **old, dusty** copy of a Civil War soldier's journal to use in his research.
Commas separate a series of phrases, letters, or numbers. The last of these commas is referred to as the serial comma or Oxford comma. While some stylesheets view this comma as optional, CMOS recommends using the serial comma for clarity.	Faculty members will review papers for conference groups **1, 10, and 11** today**.**
Commas separate quoted material in the text of an academic paper from the rest of the sentence, unless a quotation is introduced by a word such as "that," "whether," or other similar words/conjunctions. **For more information on when not to use a comma to introduce a quotation, see section 8.5.7.**	In the foreword to *MCDP 1*, General Krulak writes**, "**Our philosophy of warfighting, as described in the manual, is in consonance with joint doctrine, contributing to our ability to operate harmoniously with the other Services."
Introductory words and phrases that begin a sentence are usually separated from the main clause by a comma.	**In General Pratt's first month as President of MCU,** the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* was revised.
Commas are used to separate city and state names from each other and from the rest of the sentence.	The train stops in **Quantico, Virginia,** where Marine Corps University is located.
Commas separate words or phrases that are missing easily understood contextual information.	In the United States Marine Corps, there are 195,129 service members; in the Navy**,** 317,464; and in the Air Force**,** 334,157.
Complex Separations: Using Commas to "Set Information Off"	
Commas usually set off transitional words or interjections.	Members of the United Nations disagreed**, however,** on how to define terrorism.
Commas set off parenthetical or nonrestrictive elements—words, clauses, and phrases that are not essential to the sentence's structure and meaning. These include adjectives that follow nouns and adjective noun phrases that follow nouns (appositives).	The new commanding officer, **articulate and passionate,** had solid plans to make the unit more effective in achieving its mission.

While this list does not cover every rule for using a comma, it does provide you with a basic set of usage conventions that you can use to keep your writing clear. On the following page are a few common errors that you should avoid when using commas in your writing.

1. **Do not link two independent clauses (sentences) with only a comma.** This 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. **OR** The professor was disappointed **because** the student turned in his thesis late.

2. **Do not fuse two sentences together.** A fused sentence, also known as a run-on sentence, occurs when a writer connects two sentences and neglects to add punctuation to clarify meaning or separate unconnected phrases. The sentences run together, forcing the reader to figure out what they mean. You can repair a fused sentence with a conjunction or with a semicolon.

   Incorrect Example: The Air Force needed a more significant portion of the defense budget the Navy's aircraft carrier request was denied.
   Correct Example: The Air Force needed a more significant portion of the defense budget, **so** the Navy's aircraft carrier request was denied.
   OR The Air Force needed a more significant portion of the defense budget; the Navy's aircraft carrier request was denied.

3. **Do not separate a subject noun phrase and verb with a comma.** Sometimes students think that if they have a very long subject noun phrase, they should insert a comma to give the reader a little pause before the verb. That is not correct. We never separate subject noun phrases from verb phrase predicates. Note the sophisticated subject noun phrases below.

   Incorrect Example: The history of North Korea's nuclear weapons development and the response by the United States, is a roller coaster of brinkmanship and negotiation.
   Correct Example: The history of North Korea's nuclear weapons development and the response by the United States is a roller coaster of brinkmanship and negotiation.

Worksheet 12: Now You Try It! Commas Quiz

1. Global responsibilities drive the United States to maintain maritime power to protect its trade interests, ensure its access to natural resources, and support its treaty obligations.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of commas?*
2. A challenge from a potential adversary would necessitate a robust capable amphibious assault capability.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of commas?*
3. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways but it will be costly.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of commas?*
4. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways, however it will be costly.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of commas?*

Check your answers here!

⬤　**10.2.2　Semicolons**

The semicolon is a stronger mark of separation than the comma, but it is not as strong as the period. Where the period denotes a complete separation of two ideas, the semicolon indicates that, while the two ideas could technically stand alone as complete thoughts (independent clauses), they are being joined because they are related. Table 25 describes semicolon usage guidelines.

Table 25: Semicolon Usage

Rule	Example
A semicolon may be used to connect two complete, related sentences.	A sergeant ran twelve marathons in the last five years**;** he was running in memory of his twelve fallen comrades.
A semicolon is used before a conjunctive adverb (e.g., *therefore, however, thus, hence, besides, nevertheless*) when it connects two complete, related thoughts. The conjunctive adverb is followed by a comma.	The writing assignment deadline is January 5**;** **therefore,** I should have time to revise the paper over my holiday break.
A semicolon is used to separate multi-word items in a series if at least one item contains internal punctuation.	The awards ceremony was attended by Dr. Jones**,** the company's CEO**;** Mr. Davis**,** the project engineer**;** and Mrs. Beck**,** the project manager.

Worksheet 13: Now You Try It! Semicolons Quiz

1. Students at the School of Advanced Warfighting arrive and begin classes in early July; Command and Staff College students arrive later in the summer.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of semicolons?*
2. Small wars are defined as; "operations undertaken under executive authority."
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of semicolons?*
3. It is safe to state that even humanitarian assistance; disaster relief; and peace support operations are covered by the term *small wars*.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of semicolons?*
4. Armies have become smaller, and in most cases fully professional; however, their weapons and equipment remain largely the same.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of semicolons?*

Check your answers here!

- **10.2.3 Colons**
  ○

The colon is generally used to call attention to an idea or to signal a list of items. While both colons and semicolons can separate independent clauses, a colon is used to indicate that the second clause exemplifies or highlights the preceding clause. You should not use more than one space to separate a word or phrase from the colon. Table 26 describes guidelines for colon usage.

Table 26: Colon Usage

Rule	Example
A colon is used after an independent clause to signal a list, an appositive (related/defining word or phrase), or a quotation.	The desired candidate for the position should possess the following qualifications**:** advanced computer skills, the ability to communicate clearly, and a strong work ethic.
A colon is used between independent clauses if the second clause summarizes or explains the first.	The Falkland Islanders had an interest in this situation**:** they identified with the British and did not want to fall under Argentine rule.
Colons can sometimes be used to set off a series of complete, related sentences.	The Marine faced a challenge**:** he could marry his high school sweetheart before deploying to Afghanistan; he could wait until returning to wed; or he could petition leadership for a later start to his deployment.
A colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.	To whom it may concern**:**

A colon is not always necessary to precede a series of items or a list. 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: Montego Bay, Ocho Rios, and Negril.
   Correct Example: Last year I visited Montego Bay, Ocho Rios, and Negril.

2. **Do not use a colon between a preposition and its object.**
   Incorrect Example: I have been stationed in: Afghanistan, Iraq, and North Carolina.
   Correct Example: I have been stationed in Afghanistan, Iraq, and North Carolina.

Worksheet 14: Now You Try It! Colons Quiz

1. LCSC instructors provide the following instructional services to Marine Corps University students: formal classes, writing workshops, and one-on-one writing sessions.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of colons?*   2. US Marines may be asked to PCS to: Okinawa, Japan; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; and Quantico, Virginia.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of colons?*   3. To whom it may concern: The Gray Research Center's power has been fully restored as of 10 July 2016 at 0900.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of colons?*   Check your answers here!

10.2.4 Question Marks

The question mark indicates a direct, interrogative statement; a form of doubt about something, such as publication information; or an expression of surprise. Table 27 describes appropriate usage for the question mark.

Table 27: Question Mark Usage

Rule	Example
A question mark is used at the end of a direct, interrogative statement.	What is the topic of your MMS research**?**
A question mark is used to show where a direct question ends in the middle of a sentence.	"Is this the right strategy**?**" General Smith asked.
A question mark is used to indicate uncertainty about a fact or piece of information.	The Trojan War (1200 BCE**?**) will form the historical background for the student's case study.

Below are common question mark errors to avoid in your 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 Examples: The men wondered when the battle would end.
   OR The men wondered: when would the battle end?
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.

Worksheet 15: Now You Try It! Question Marks Quiz

Add the appropriate punctuation mark(s) to the following sentences. *Hint: Not all missing punctuation marks are question marks.*
1. When does the groundbreaking for the new academic building take place
2. Has it been that long Colonel Morris wondered
3. The following items must be listed on the inventory tablets laptops and monitors

Check your answers here!

▭ 10.2.5 Hyphens

Two- and three-word modifiers that express a single thought are often 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 unity or to clarify ambiguity. Table 28 outlines correct hyphen usage.

Table 28: Hyphen Usage

Rule	Example
Modifiers that precede the noun they modify should be hyphenated.	The battle lasted for three days. What was the outcome of the three-day battle?
A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.	Weapons were not as advanced pre-World War I.
A hyphen is used when a letter would be doubled or tripled to create a compound word.	The senators reviewed the anti-immigration proposals.
A hyphen is used when the modifier is a letter or number.	The M-16 was used on the battlefield with great success.
A hyphen is used to separate non-inclusive numbers.	The colonel's telephone number is 555-444-3333. Please give him a call if you have any questions.
The CMOS 17 advises you to hyphenate decision-making **both as a compound adjective and as a noun.**	The major's decision-making process was sound. The situation demanded rapid decision-making.
Email is no longer to include a hyphen between e and mail, according to the CMOS 17.	Send me the details via email.

Below are a few common hyphen errors to avoid in your writing.

1. **Do not use a hyphen if a modifier follows the noun it modifies.**
   Incorrect Example: In the Navy seaman's opinion, the ship was not well-designed.
   Correct Example: In the Navy seaman's opinion, the ship was not well designed.
2. **Do not use a hyphen after an adverb ending in –ly.**
   Incorrect Example: At Mess Night, guests enjoyed freshly-prepared roast beef.
   Correct Example: At Mess Night, guests enjoyed freshly prepared roast beef.

Worksheet 16: Now You Try It! Hyphens Quiz

1. The MCWAR student looked to written records pre-Vietnam for his research.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of hyphens?*   2. The man's favorite weapon to shoot was his AK-47.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of hyphens?*   3. The captain made sure the memo was well-written, as he knew it would be distributed throughout the battalion.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of hyphens?*   Check your answers here!

▭▭ 10.2.6 Dashes

There are four types of dashes—the en dash (a single hyphen), the em dash (a double hyphen), the 2-em dash, and the 3-em dash—and all vary in length and usage. (You will note an em dash was used in the previous sentence.) The en dash is used to stand for the phrase "up through" or "to" if the word "for" is not used to start the phrase (e.g., 1995-2005). The em dash is used to separate sentence constituents.

For the purposes of our intended readership, 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 academic writing if another punctuation mark (such as a comma) can be used in its place. This type of dash may be used for emphasis, explanation, or a sudden break in thought.

Table 29 outlines em dash usage. For more information on these other three types, see the *Chicago Manual of Style,* 17th edition.

Table 29: Em Dash Usage

Rule	Example
An em dash can point out a sudden break in thought, or it can set off a parenthetical element in a sentence.	*On War*—which was written by Clausewitz—is still considered an important military and political text today.
An em dash can be used to emphasize the second independent clause of a compound sentence or to emphasize a single word or series.	Rain, snow, a tireless opponent—nothing would stop the Marine from completing his mission.
An em dash may be used before summarizing words that set off a group of ideas or details.	Two students—Major Jones and Captain Hawkins—received an "A" on the assignment.
An em dash may be used for repetition or to give the appearance of an afterthought.	The opposing forces lost morale when 1,000 troops died in battle—they were ready to surrender.

Worksheet 17: Now You Try It! Dashes Quiz

1. In his last week of school, the Captain tried his best to stay focused on his priorities—preparing his family for the upcoming move, practicing for graduation, and getting his arguable research paper published.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of the em dash?*
2. Four Marines—Major Smith, Captain Swanson, SgtMaj Ruiz, and Cpl Kirk all met for dinner with their wives at the Potomac Point winery Saturday night.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of the em dash?*
3. The upcoming storm—which was predicted to severely hinder visibility—delayed the flight several hours.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of the em dash?*

Check your answers here!

10.2.7 Parentheses

Parentheses enclose explanatory words, phrases, or sentences. The text within the parentheses often clarifies or supplements 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. Parenthetical information simply provides readers with additional information. Table 30 displays rules of parentheses usage.

Table 30: Parentheses Usage

Rule	Example
Parentheses may enclose definitions or translations of unfamiliar terms.	Clausewitz's paradoxical trinity (primordial violence, hatred, and enmity) is a key concept in professional military education.
An entire sentence may be enclosed in parentheses; in this case, the closing punctuation mark appears inside the second parenthesis.	The president vetoed the bill last week. (Still, the veto can be overturned by Congress.)
If parentheses occur at the end of a sentence, the closing punctuation mark should appear after the second parenthesis.	New equipment was found in the Marine HMMWV (though it is unknown who ordered it or how it had gotten there).
In CMOS Author-Date style, the reference citation is enclosed in parentheses followed by a period to indicate that the citation is part of the sentence.	When General Washington retired at age 27, he was not on good terms with the Virginia Assemblies (Higginbotham, 1985, p.35).
Parentheses are used to enclose numbers or letters that indicate sequence.	The Marine's narrative (see Appendix A) described the Battle of Fallujah.
Brackets are used to enclose parenthetical information that is already in parentheses.	(The Commandant [General Neller] appealed to Congress for funding, but sequestration made such requests difficult to grant.)

Worksheet 18: Now You Try It! Parentheses Quiz

1. All after action reports should be completed by this Tuesday. (The after action report will not be reviewed until next week).
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of parentheses?*
2. My sister (who served in the Marine Corps for twenty years) is going to spend Thanksgiving in Detroit, Michigan this year.
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of parentheses?*
3. (According to General Gray (a former president of Marine Corps University), "Every Marine is, first and foremost, a rifleman. All other conditions are secondary.")
   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of parentheses?*

Check your answers here!

○ ○ ○ **10.2.8 Ellipses**

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 neither 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 integrating his or her ideas into your own academic paper. An ellipsis should always be placed on a single line of text. Table 31 details ellipses usage conventions.

Table 31: Ellipses Usage

Rule	Example
Ellipses are used to indicate words that are omitted from the middle or end of a quotation. **Note: When omitting words after the end of a sentence, you will use four periods—one to mark the period at the end of the previous sentence, and three to mark the ellipses.**	According to the author, "The LCSC is a valuable resource**…**and many MCU students appreciate the services offered by LCSC faculty members."
Ellipses are used to indicate a pause in dialogue or to indicate that an idea is uncertain.	I…well…I am not quite sure what to say about sequestration.
Ellipses mark the end of a quoted sentence that is purposely left incomplete.	My favorite paragraph of the Declaration of Independence begins with "we hold these truths..."

Worksheet 19: Now You Try It! Ellipses Quiz

"As a consequence, the DADT repeal implementation has the potential to disrupt unit cohesion and affect the perception of combat readiness in the Corps, particularly within the combat arms, unless the Commandant initiates a cultural change establishing a Marine warrior concept that is inclusive of gender, race, age, religion, and sexual orientation."
Use ellipses to integrate the above quotation into a sentence, cutting out the following portion of the quotation: **"**particularly within the combat arms,**"**

According to Huffman and Shultz_____
_____
_____
_____

Check your answer here!

9

10.2.9 Apostrophes

The apostrophe is a punctuation mark that looks like a single quotation mark. It typically signals one of two ideas: contraction or possession.

Apostrophes are used to take the place of omitted letters in contractions, that is, in words joined together in a single word called a contraction. The most commonly used contractions are listed below.

<div align="center">

It is → it's
There is → there's
Is not → isn't
Are not → aren't
Do not → don't
Does not → doesn't
Has not → hasn't
Had not → hadn't
Will not → won't
Were not → weren't
Was not → wasn't
Am not/are not/is not → ain't (not recommended in academic/professional writing)

</div>

Note that the apostrophe is placed at the point in the joined words where the missing letter would be found (it **is** → it's). **As a general rule, using contractions characterizes your language as more informal, so contractions are rarely used in academic writing or other types of formal writing.**

The possessive form of a noun or pronoun indicates ownership, either real ownership or metaphorical ownership. Below are some examples.

1. The cover of Captain Stevenson → Captain Stevenson's cover
2. The commander of Major Smith → Major Smith's commander
3. The tenets of structuralism → structuralism's tenets
4. The principles of manifest destiny → manifest destiny's principles
5. The work of a day → a day's work
6. The wages of a week → a week's wages

In most cases, singular nouns are made possessive by adding an apostrophe –s ('s) to the end of a word. Plural possessives are usually formed by adding an apostrophe after the "s." For example, if Captain Stevenson and Sergeant Stevenson are brothers who both wear covers, you could use plural possession to say that the hats are "the brothers' covers." Table 32 summarizes CMOS guidelines for using the apostrophe to signal possession.

Table 32: Rules for Forming Singular and Plural Possessive Nouns

Rule	Example
Possessive forms of acronyms and numbers are formed by adding an apostrophe –s.	The 2013 budget cuts affected NATO**'s** members.
For plural nouns ending in –s, add only an apostrophe following the –s.	Countries' populations, horses' stables
The possessive form of a compound word always forms on the last word of a compound word. **Note: The creation of these possessives may not always sound correct.**	The District Attorney**'s** jurisdiction (singular possessive) District Attorney**s'** jurisdictions (plural possessive)
The general rules for possessive nouns apply to proper nouns, letters, and numbers, to include nouns ending in s, x, or z.	Valdez**'s** army Mars**'s** atmosphere
Possessive forms of words and names ending in an unpronounced "s" add an apostrophe –s.	Illinois**'s** two senators The Marine Corps**'s** best leaders
When a noun ending in "s" is singular in meaning and plural in form, add an apostrophe only. This rule applies to singular places, organizations, and publications that take on plural forms.	The United States' position on Jerusalem The trousers' pockets
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.	Sergeant Ruiz and Corporal McArtor**'s** comrade Strunk and White**'s** rules for possessive nouns
Do not add an apostrophe –s to possessive pronouns (as they are inherently possessive).	His, hers, theirs, ours, yours, its
If a noun and a pronoun are both used together in joint possession, both must show possession.	My husband**'s** and **my** house flooded last weekend.
When denoting attribution or group ownership of proper names that do not officially include an apostrophe, the CMOS does not require you to use an apostrophe.	Department of Veterans Affairs

Note that proper or corporate names such as "Marine Corps" may be used as attributive adjectives in noun phrases (rather than possessive adjectives), thus negating the need for apostrophes at all, as in the following: Marine Corps leadership, Marine Corps monuments, and Marine Corps Planning Process. (Compare these similar attributive adjectives: Army leadership, Air Force monuments, and Navy planning process.) **You might also notice that Microsoft Word occasionally marks a correctly formed possessive noun as a spelling error or typo.** Below are rules for avoiding common apostrophe errors. Test your knowledge with the quiz on the following page.

1. **Do not use an apostrophe to make a plural (unless you are pluralizing a lowercase letter).**
   Incorrect Example: The Jackson**'s** live here.
   Correct Example: The Jackson**s** live here.
2. **Do not confuse possessive pronouns such as "its" and "your" with contractions such as "it's" and "you're."** (Remember that you do not use an apostrophe on "his", so you would not use one on "its" or "your.")
   Incorrect Example: His unit made it**'s** last pass at the target.
   Correct Example: His unit made it**s** last pass at the target.

10.3   Italics, Abbreviations, Capitalization, Quotation Marks, and Numerals

Mechanics refers to the technical aspects of a given subject. In a broad sense, you can think of the mechanics of writing in a similar way to the mechanics of a car: As an auto mechanic must understand how the parts of a car work together to form a functioning vehicle, a writer must understand how writing mechanics can help sentences work structurally to improve organization and style in a paper. The following are several guidelines for using italics, abbreviations, capitalization, and numerals.

10.3.1 Italics

Italic type is simply slanted type. You can put words and phrases in italics by clicking on the slanted capital letter *I* at the top left of the banner that runs across a Microsoft Word document. Italics are most often used to indicate titles of longer works such as books and films and to indicate foreign expressions. Italics can add emphasis to a word or phrase. If adding emphasis to a word or phrase in academic writing, italics should be used sparingly instead of putting the word or phrase in quotation marks. Table 33 describes use of italics in writing.

Table 33: Italics Usage

Rule	Example
Use italics to indicate titles of longer works such as books, films, websites, and long reports. (Use quotation marks for titles of shorter works.)	The "Marines Hymn" was first published in *The Quantico Leatherneck*.
Italics are used when referring to key words, letters, or figures, particularly on first use in your paper.	Students often misinterpret the word *strategic*.
Unfamiliar foreign words and phrases should be italicized, particularly on first use in your paper.	In the Czech organization, members interact by using the greeting *nazdar*.
Ship names should be italicized.	The homeport of *USS Abraham Lincoln* is Norfolk, Virginia.
Italics may be used to emphasize a particular word or phrase, as CMOS 17 advises against using single or double quotation marks to signal emphasis. **Note: This should be done sparingly in academic writing.**	The Marine would *never* leave his post unattended.

10.3.2 Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase, and it should be used only if the context is clear to the reader. Though the term may refer to a variety of shortened word forms, acronyms and initialisms are the most frequently used type of abbreviation in military and government writing. When using an acronym or other type of abbreviation, remember to spell out the shortened term completely the first time you use it. Try to avoid abbreviations in academic writing as much as possible, as this may be confusing to unfamiliar readers. If you find yourself using abbreviations heavily throughout your paper, you may want to include a list of abbreviations in the front matter or in an appendix. Table 34 summarizes rules for using abbreviations in your writing.

Table 34: Rules for Using Abbreviations

Rule	Example
If you are abbreviating a term that your readers may find unfamiliar, write out the term the first time you use it. **Note: Do not use an apostrophe to pluralize an abbreviation; simply add an –s.**	This paper will focus on the negative effects that the aircraft upgrades will have on **M**arine **E**xpeditionary **U**nits (**MEUs**).
When abbreviating in all capital letters, do not use periods to separate each letter. This rule can be applied to acronyms and initialisms as well.	The **U**nited **S**tates **M**arine **C**orps (**USMC**) is an important asset to the United States military as a whole.
Abbreviate names of agencies and organizations in full capital letters; do not use periods.	Members of the **N**orth **A**tlantic **T**reaty **O**rganization (**NATO**) met to discuss an issue.
You should typically spell out names of states and territories. When you abbreviate them, however, do not use periods between letters. In your paper or document, the CMOS 17 has changed to allow US to be used as a noun in addition to as an adjective, so long as the surrounding context makes it clear what the abbreviation refers to.	The **United States** is made up of fifty separate states; Virginia (**VA**) is one such **US** state. The **US** comprises fifty states, a federal district, and five additional territories.
After a person has been identified by 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.	**The Reverend** Samson gave an inspirational sermon yesterday. **Rev.** Samson spoke to **Colonel** Diaz afterwards to get feedback on the sermon's message, and **Col.** Diaz praised him warmly for his passionate words.
Do not begin a sentence with an abbreviation, with the exception of address terms (e.g., Mrs., Mr., and Ms.).	**M**arine **E**xpeditionary **U**nit commanders need to fully leverage their assigned capabilities against the physical and fiscal constraints that define today's Amphibious Ready Groups (**ARG**s).
Abbreviate months and days of the week by spelling out words with four or fewer letters; 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).	Jan., Feb., Mar., Apr., May, June, July, Aug., Sept., Oct., Nov., and Dec. Sun., Mon., Tues., Wed., Thurs., Fri., and Sat.

The most important principle of using abbreviations is to be consistent in your writing. For instance, if you are going to use the Marine Corps abbreviation for colonel (Col.),

then you should use the same abbreviation style throughout your document. You risk confusing your reader if you alternate the USMC version (Col.) with the Army's version (COL) of the abbreviation throughout the paper.

10.3.3 Capitalization

Capitalization is the practice of using capital letters as opposed to lowercase letters (e.g., A versus a). Capitalization is important because it can change the way a reader thinks of a word's meaning. One example of this is the phrase "burger king." When lowercase, you may think of the phrase as a term of endearment for someone who cooks hamburgers well. When capitalized, however, Burger King becomes a popular fast food chain in the United States. Typically, proper nouns are capitalized, while common nouns are made lowercase unless they start a sentence or appear in a title. Table 35 describes Chicago style capitalization practices.

Table 35: Capitalization Guidelines

Rule	Example
Capitalize the first word of every sentence.	**T**he student turned in his paper yesterday.
Capitalize the first word of every expression used as a sentence.	**T**hat's too bad! **H**ow come?
For paper titles, capitalize the first and last words as well as all nouns, verbs, and modifiers (but not prepositions or articles).	**R**eunification of the **K**orean **P**eninsula: **I**mplications for **E**conomic **R**eform
Capitalize the salutation and the closing of a personal letter. (In business letters, use a colon in the salutation.)	**D**ear Lisa, **S**incerely, Jane **T**o Whom it May Concern:
Capitalize the first word after a colon when the word is a proper noun.	Civil War battles occurred in the following cities: **A**tlanta, Fredericksburg, and Gettysburg.
Capitalize the first word after a colon when it is the first word of a quoted sentence.	Winston Churchill was quoted as saying the following: "**H**e is a modest little man who has a good deal to be modest about."
Capitalize the first word after a colon if it introduces two or more sentences.	There are two tasks I need to complete today: **F**irst, I need to submit a quarterly report to my supervisor. Second, I will plan tomorrow's writing workshop.
Capitalize the first word after a colon only when it introduces a direct question.	I have only one question: **H**ow will the Marine Corps fund this new program?
Capitalize the first word of a sentence even when introduced mid-sentence.	LtCol Smith asked herself, **C**an I assign ninety pages to my students instead of eighty tonight?
Capitalize all proper nouns (nouns referring to a specific person, place, or thing).	**A**tlantic **O**cean, **G**eneral **A**mos, **U**nited **S**tates **A**rmy.
Capitalize a common noun or adjective that forms an essential part of a proper noun. **Note: If a common noun is used to stand for a proper noun, do not capitalize the word.**	The **P**otomac **R**iver is about 400 miles long. The **r**iver flows to the Chesapeake Bay.

Rules for Capitalization, continued	
Capitalize all names of national or international government and military organizations, documents, and regions. **Note: Do not capitalize common nouns that are used to replace these organizations, documents, or regions.**	The **US B**ill of **R**ights encompasses the first ten amendments to the **C**onstitution of the **U**nited **S**tates. The **b**ill was ratified in 1791.
Capitalize names of departments within organizations.	**D**epartment of **A**griculture
Capitalize proper names of colleges, organizations, committees, and agencies.	**M**arine **C**orps **U**niversity
Capitalize military ranks when used with proper names, but not when the rank stands alone.	**M**ajor Diaz is a student at SAW; the major wrote an insightful paper.
Capitalize billet titles when used with proper names, but not when standing alone as a common noun. **Note: Capitalize all letters of an acronym like MAGTF, MEF, or MEU.**	Colonel **F**arrell **J. S**ullivan, the **MAGTF** commander; **L**ieutenant **C**olonel Ramirez, my commanding officer, the colonel; **S**ergeant **M**ajor **K**ent, the highest-ranking noncommissioned officer; **G**eneral **M**cKenzie, **U**nited **S**tates **C**entral **C**ommand commander

Note: In formal military writing (routing sheets, correspondence orders, etc.), an individual's title (e.g., commander, chairman) would be titled; however, this is not the case in academic writing. |
| "Titles of armies, navies, air forces, fleets, regiments, battalions, companies, corps, and so forth are capitalized. Unofficial but well-known names, such as Green Berets, are also capitalized. Words such as *army* and *navy* are lowercased when standing alone, when used collectively in the plural, or when not part of an official title."[129] | the **U**nited **S**tates **A**rmy, the army; the **U**nited **S**tates **N**avy, the navy; the **U**nited **S**tates **M**arine **C**orps, the **M**arine **C**orps *or* the marine corps; the **US M**arines, a marine; an airman; a soldier

Note: This is another case in which it is important to consider your audience and the context of your communication. For instance, it may be appropriate to capitalize Marine, Airman, Army, etc. when writing internal service documents. |
Capitalize official degree names only when they are spelled out; do not capitalize the degree name when it is referred to in general as a common noun.	**M**aster of **M**ilitary **S**tudies, a master's degree
Capitalize the names of specific medals and awards.	**P**urple **H**eart, **B**ronze **S**tar
Capitalize the names of official documents, acts, regulations, directives, laws, bills, and treaties, but not the common nouns that refer to them.	**T**he **D**eclaration of **I**ndependence, a declaration
Capitalize the names of major battles and campaigns.	**T**he **B**attle of **B**unker **H**ill, the battle
Capitalize the names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as proper nouns.	**T**he **W**omen's **S**uffrage **M**ovement
Capitalize the names of specific types of aircraft, vehicle model types, trains and train stations, and space programs.	**V**irginia **R**ailway **E**xpress

Rules for Capitalization, continued	
Capitalize and italicize the proper names of ships and spacecraft.	*Discovery* (the space shuttle) *USS Saratoga* became one of the first US aircraft carriers.
Capitalize compass directions when referring to a specific region, or if the direction is a part of a proper name. **Note: Do not capitalize directions when used to indicate a general location.**	We are from **S**outhern **C**alifornia, so we just drove **s**outh to Baja for our vacation. My Alabama friend joined us, noting how different California is from the **S**outh.
Capitalize days of the week, months, events, races, languages, holidays, and religions.	**M**onday, **F**rench, **L**abor **D**ay, **I**slam, **C**hristianity
Capitalize seasons **only** when they are a part of a proper noun or denote an issue of a journal.	Courses start in the fall. The librarian told the student to look in the Spring edition of JFQ.
Capitalize brand names, but not the common nouns that refer to them.	**D**ove **s**oap, soap
Capitalize specific course names, but not courses of study. **Note: Foreign languages are an exception to this rule, as languages are proper nouns (e.g., English, French, and Arabic).**	**B**iology 101, biology
Capitalize both the word Generation and the letter following when referring to a specific generation.	**G**eneration **Y, G**eneration **X**
Do **not capitalize** internet—the CMOS 17 advises it to always be made lowercase.	the **i**nternet
Capitalize days of the week, months, events, races, languages, holidays, and religions.	**M**onday, **F**rench, **L**abor **D**ay, **I**slam, **C**hristianity

Capitalization of Titles

Capitalization rules differ when a title is used as a descriptive phrase (e.g., former president Obama). CMOS 17 advises you to lowercase a title "used in apposition before a personal name--that is, not alone and as part of the name but as an equivalent to it, usually preceded by *the* or by a modifier."[130] This rule is also true when a descriptive title like military historian precedes a person's name. You would, however, capitalize descriptive words or phrases used instead of a person's name--for example, using Stonewall Jackson in place of Thomas Jonathan Jackson.

Capitalization of Ethnic and National Groups

CMOS 17 advises you to capitalize names of ethnic groups and national groups, including when using them as adjectives (e.g., Asian American influence). Conversely, terms referring to socio-economic classes, sexual orientations, identities, and/or abilities should be made lowercase (e.g., the middle class, transgender man, a wheelchair user).

Capitalization of Names

Although rules differ for capitalization of proper names in other countries and military organizations around the world, students are advised to capitalize only the first letter of an individual's name in all forms—as a surname, family name, given name, and etc.

> **Incorrect Example:** Amare James WILSON
> **Correct Example:** Amare James Wilson

Worksheet 21: Now You Try It! Capitalization Quiz

1. Major Smith applied to George Mason university, as she wanted to pursue a Master's degree.
   Is the above sentence a correct or incorrect use of capitalization?
2. In May 1967, president Gamal Abdel NASSER began to close the straits of Tiran.
   Is the above sentence a correct or incorrect use of capitalization?

Check your answers here!

10.3.4 Quotation Marks

Quotation marks are used when presenting a dialogue to demonstrate that a particular phrase or passage is borrowed directly from another author's text.

> **Example:** The *Chicago Manual of Style* states "Periods and commas precede closing marks, whether double or single."[131]

There are two types of quotation marks: single quotation marks (' ') and double quotation marks (" "). According to the CMOS, single quotation marks are only to be used for quotations within quotations. See section 8.5.4 for more information on formatting quotes within quotes. See Chapters Eight and Nine for more specific guidelines about properly attributing quoted material.

Placement of quotation marks

1. Periods and commas are typically placed inside of quotation marks.
   Example: According to Edwin O. Rueda in his discussion of similarities between the Al Anbar Province and feudalism in 16th century Europe, "There is no real discourse about national elections, the Iraqi Army, or any other subject that deals with the bureaucracy of the provincial and national governments."[132]
2. Question marks, exclamation points, and em dashes can be placed inside or outside of the quotation marks.
   Example: "How much further to the airport?" she asked the driver.
   Example: "How much further to the airport"? she asked the driver.

3. Semicolons and colons are placed outside of the quotation marks.
   Example: John Kingdon claims the founding fathers were "suspicious of government, skeptical about the benefits of government authority, and impressed with the virtue of limiting government"; these are principles that have endured throughout American history.
4. Single quotes are sometimes used to indicate quotes within quotes.
   Example: According to Robert Collins, "Only hours after U.S. President Barack H. Obama asked PRC President Hu Jin-tao to take a stronger stance against North Korea on the *Cheonan* sinking incident, Pyongyang announced that it would 'bolster its nuclear deterrent.' "[133]
5. Quotation marks should not typically be used to show emphasis. For more information on using italics (sparingly) for emphasis, see section 10.3.1.
   Incorrect Example: The general needed "exact" battlefield coordinates to plan the attack.
   Correct Example: The general needed *exact* battlefield coordinates to plan the attack.

10.3.5 Numerals

It can be challenging to determine whether to spell out a number or use a numeral to refer to its value, particularly when writing academically. Table 36 summarizes the proper uses of numerals, while Table 37 outlines when to spell out numbers in your writing.

Chicago's general rule for numerals: In non-technical contexts, CMOS recommends spelling out whole numbers from zero through one hundred. However, there are several exceptions to this rule, which are outlined in the tables below.

Table 36: Using Numerals in Academic Writing

Rule	Example
Use numerals when referring to money.	The student paid **$100** for his textbooks.
Use numerals when referring to measurements, dimensions, or temperature.	The troops walked **50** miles in temperatures upwards of **83** degrees Fahrenheit.
Use numerals when referring to percentages, ratios, proportions, or scores.	The Orioles were **6-3** in the bottom of the sixth inning. They had a **75%** chance of winning the game, according to experts.
Use numerals when referring to numbers named specifically as numbers.	Prime numbers include the following: **5**, **3**, and **2**.
Use numerals when referring to math expressions.	**4 x 6 = 24**
Use numerals when referring to abbreviations, symbols, and serial numbers.	The woman grabbed her **AR-15** rifle and headed to the range to practice her shooting.
Use numerals when referring to unit modifiers and hyphenations.	**M-16**
Use numerals when referring to dates.	Graduation will commence on June **3, 2015**.
Use numerals when referring to military time.	The meeting will begin at **1500**.
Use numerals when referring to state, federal, and interstate highways.	Traffic on **I-95** will always be a struggle for commuters.

Chicago's alternative rule for numerals: Note that publications dealing with scientific content might spell out whole numbers between zero and nine; numbers 10 and over may appear as numerals in these contexts. For more information about CMOS rules for maintaining consistency and flexibility with numerals, see section 9.7 of the *Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th Edition.

Table 37: When to Spell Out Numbers in Academic Writing

Rule	Example
The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends that you write out numbers from zero to one hundred. For numbers greater than one hundred, you should use numerals.	The students saw **four** Ospreys on their field trip to the national park. More than **200** Marines attended the conference.
Ordinal numbers follow the general rule for numbers.	The office is on the **132nd** floor; the Smiths took their **first** trip to Washington. *Note that the letters in ordinal numbers do not appear as superscripts.
Centuries are spelled out and made lowercase.	The Air Force officer found an **eighteenth**-century document while researching.
Whole numbers used in conjunction with millions, billions, and other large sums follow the CMOS's general rule for numerals.	There are over **eight million** people in New York City; there are over **325 million** people living in the United States.
Decades are spelled out and made lowercase, as long as it is clear what century you are referring to.	The Coast Guard recruit was born in the **nineties**.
Times of day should be spelled out if not followed by a.m. or p.m., even if you are referring to a half hour or quarter hour.	Cocktail hour at the Marine Corps Birthday Ball starts at **six thirty**.
Numbers designating military units are spelled out if they are one hundred or less in value.	**Second** Battalion headed out to complete the mission.
Names of numbered streets are spelled out if one hundred or lower in value.	The parade will start on **Forty-Second** Street.
Numbers are spelled out when they begin a sentence.	**Two hundred** students got on the bus early for the staff ride to Gettysburg.
Numbers are spelled out when used with formal subjects.	Originally, our great nation began with the **thirteen** colonies.
Numbers are spelled out when preceding a compound modifier with a figure.	The General Manager bought **seven** 12-inch subs for her associates.

Using Decimal Places with Numerals

Across the world, differences exist about how to denote a separation between thousands and between dollars and cents. According to Cornell University's Office of the Treasurer, some countries use a comma to separate dollars from cents and a period to separate thousands (e.g., $100.000,00), while other countries including the United States use a period to separate dollars from cents and a comma to separate thousands (e.g., $100,000.00).[134] At Marine Corps University, the CMOS advises you to use commas "between groups of three digits, counting from the right" and to use decimal points, not commas, "for figures to the right of the decimal marker."[135]

10.4   Pronoun Usage

Pronouns take the place of nouns or other pronouns and are often used to avoid excessive repetition and to build cohesion in writing. For example, instead of writing, "James reads the *Wall Street Journal* every day; James is interested in becoming a journalist," readers might expect you to write, "James reads the *Wall Street Journal* every day; he is interested in becoming a journalist."

The person, place, or thing that a pronoun replaces is called an antecedent. The antecedent must agree with the pronoun that replaces it in number and person; it must be clear to the reader which person, place, or thing the pronoun is replacing. Table 38 summarizes pronoun usage guidelines.

Table 38: Pronoun Usage

Rule	Example
Pronouns need to have clear antecedents.	**Sarah** gave me a signed copy of **her** book.
Pronouns need to agree in number with their antecedents.	**Each Marine** must keep **his or her** own room tidy.
Pronouns need to agree in person.	When **Marines** are on the rifle range, **they** are always alert.
Pronouns need to agree in gender.	For **Jeff** to attain a perfect score on the PFT, **he** has to train.
Pronouns need to agree in case.	
Objective case pronouns are pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions (e.g., me, him, her, it, us, them, whom).	Though the **professors** enjoy watching Civil War movies, the film's portrayal of General Lee was historically inaccurate according to **them**.
Subjective case pronouns are pronouns used as subjects (e.g., I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who**).	**I** went for a walk.
Possessive case pronouns are pronouns that express ownership (e.g., my, mine, your, yours, her, hers, it, its, our, ours, their, theirs, whose).	**Our** house is full of antiques.
Demonstrative pronouns need to have clear antecedents; these pronouns substitute nouns when the nouns they replace can be understood from the context (e.g., this, that, those, none, neither).	**I** bought **these** cakes, but **Sam** baked **those**.
Reflexive pronouns are to be used when you are referring back to the subject of the sentence (e.g., myself, himself, herself, themselves, ourselves, itself, yourself, yourselves).	**We** blame **ourselves** for that particular oversight. **He** thought to **himself** about the issue.

On the following page, you will find explanations of some of the pronoun usage guidelines that challenge our students.

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 or ambiguous. 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. While it is clear that the writer means to refer to "Filipinos," there is no referent in the text. Substituting "Filipinos" for "their" would remedy this. This issue is subtle but common in student writing.

2. **Pronouns need to agree in number with their antecedents.**

   > **Incorrect Example**: Every Marine must field day their own room.
   > **Correct Examples**: Every Marine must field day his or her own
   > room. **OR** All Marines must field day their own rooms.

   In the case above, the pronoun "their" is technically incorrect because it is a plural possessive pronoun that does not agree with its singular antecedent. While using "they" in this way is becoming gradually more acceptable in speech and in informal writing, CMOS does not recommend its use in formal writing. See Chapter Eleven on "Singular-*They* Usage."

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

   > **Incorrect Example**: When Marines are on the rifle range, we are
   > always alert.
   > **Correct Examples**: When Marines are on the rifle range, they are
   > always alert. **OR** 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 stem from 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**. 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 temporarily to check your pronoun use. This action will help you decide which case pronoun you need to use in the sentence.

> **Example:** Andy and me went to the store.
> **Check Yourself:** 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 to use in this instance because *I* is the subject case of the first person pronoun while *me* is the object case. Problems with pronoun case may 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 for nouns when the nouns they replace can be understood from the context. They replace singular or plural words and indicate or clarify the location of the object.

<div align="center">

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

</div>

10.5   Prepositions

The word *preposition* can be broken into two components: "pre" is a prefix with Latin roots meaning "before," and "position" refers to something's location or arrangement. This etymology makes sense when we consider a preposition's role in a sentence. A preposition often comes before a noun or pronoun and defines the relationship between words or clauses in a sentence. Table 39 provides a list of commonly used prepositions, which comprise both single words and multi-word phrases.

Table 39: Prepositions

Single-word prepositions					
About	Above	Across	After	Against	Along
Among	Around	At	Before	Behind	Below
Beneath	Beside	Besides	Between	Beyond	By
Despite	Down	During	Except	For	From
In	Into	Inside	Like	Near	Of
Off	On	Out	Outside	Over	Past
Since	Through	Throughout	To	Toward	Under
Underneath	Until	Up	With	Within	Without
Multi-word prepositions					
Along with	In place of	Because of	In spite of	Due to	Instead of
Except for	On account of	In addition to	Out of	In case of	Up to
In front of	With the exception of				

Source: Adapted from Nova Southeastern University Tutoring and Testing Center, "Prepositions," accessed June 4, 2020, https://www.nova.edu/tutoring-testing/study-resources/forms/prepositions.pdf; Purdue University Online Writing Lab, "Prepositions for Time, Place, and Introducing Objects," last modified 2020, https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/grammar/prepositions/index.html.

According to the Purdue OWL, when a preposition forms a phrase with its respective object, the combined prepositional phrase acts as an adverb or adjective modifying verbs, adverbs, or adjectives. The prepositions are bolded in the below example, and the prepositional phrases are italicized.

> **Example:** The United Nations formally came ***into*** *existence* ***after*** *WWII.*

When using prepositional phrases in your writing, it is important to understand how different prepositions are used to show different relationships. For example, prepositions can describe a time or place (e.g., **in** 1989; **on** June 14, 1989; **on** base, **at** the research library, think **inside/outside** the box). In addition, prepositions can introduce the object of a verb (the student's research paper consists **of** several elements). Common writing challenges occur when writers choose a preposition that does not represent the intended relationship accurately. For more information on appropriate preposition use, consult the Purdue OWL website: https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/grammar/prepositions. An additional practice opportunity can be found in worksheet 22 below.

Worksheet 22: Now You Try It! Prepositions Quiz

Choose the preposition from the chart above that best fits in each blank space. The nuclear bomb that had been advertised _____ the Strategic Air Command (SAC) _____ WWII revealed inefficient to address the small war requirements _____ the Vietnam era. Check your answers here!

10.6   Adjective Order

As mentioned previously, an adjective is a word or phrase that acts to modify or qualify a noun. Sometimes, you may find a need to use multiple adjectives before a noun. In these cases, there is a process at work that governs how adjective order works in American English. This process is instinctive for native speakers of English, yet adjective order issues remain a challenge for many student writers, particularly non-native speakers of English. Table 40 provides the common order for adjectives and examples of each type.

Table 40: Adjective Order

What the adjective expresses	Examples
1. Quantity	five, 500, a couple, many
2. Value/Opinion	unique, creative, sensible, difficult
3. Size	large, small
4. Temperature	cold, hot, lukewarm
5. Age	young, old, thirty-year-old
6. Shape	round, square, octagonal
7. Color	green, brown, tan, red, gold
8. Origin	American, Taiwanese, Canadian, Ukrainian
9. Material	metal, glass, wooden
10. Purpose	writing, running, shopping, racing, cooking

Source: Adapted from Education First, "Ordering Multiple Adjectives," Resources for Learning English, last modified 2020, https://www.ef.edu/english-resources/english-grammar/ordering-multiple-adjectives/; Cambridge University Press, "Order of Adjectives," *Cambridge Dictionary,* last modified 2020, https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/grammar/british-grammar/adjectives-order.

> **Incorrect Example:** The general lived in a yellow (7), huge (3), old (5) house.
> **Correct Example:** The general lived in a huge (3), old (5), yellow (7) house.
> *The numbers following the adjectives coincide with the adjective order in table 40.
>
> **Incorrect example:** American (8) five (1) new (2) aircraft carriers were produced this year.
> **Correct example:** Five (1) new (2) American (8) aircraft carriers were produced this year.

Commas with multiple adjectives

Whether or not you use a comma to separate multiple adjectives preceding a noun depends on whether those adjectives are **coordinate** or **cumulative**. Coordinate adjectives require commas, while cumulative adjectives do not.

Coordinate Adjectives: Commas separate the adjectives

Adjectives in a row that all modify the noun that follows are **coordinate adjectives**.

> **Example**: She published a succinct, insightful, and poetic essay in *The Atlantic*.

All of the adjectives in this series (succinct, insightful, poetic) modify the noun "essay." We can also tell the adjectives are coordinate because the sentence would still make sense if the author were to place the coordinating conjunction "and" between the adjectives.

> **Example**: She published a succinct and insightful and poetic essay in *The Atlantic*.

Another trick to check whether adjectives are coordinate is to rearrange the adjectives in the series. If the adjectives can be rearranged and the sentence still makes sense, then they are coordinate.

> **Example**: She published a poetic, succinct, and insightful essay in *The Atlantic*.

Cumulative Adjectives: No commas needed

In a cumulative listing of adjectives, the adjective that immediately precedes the noun is the one that actually describes the noun; the other adjectives in the series modify one another as opposed to modifying the noun. For example, in the series "fifteen determined American Marines" the word "determined" modifies the adjective "American," while the word "American" modifies the noun "Marines." Cumulative adjectives are not separated by commas. A test to determine whether adjectives are cumulative or coordinate is to place the coordinating conjunction "and" between the adjectives.

> **Example**: Fifteen [and] determined [and] American Marines ran the marathon together.

Because the conjunction does not fit between the adjectives, you would not use commas to separate the adjectives.

> **Incorrect Example**: Five, American-made, 97,000-ton aircraft carriers were produced this year.

> **Note:** This example is incorrect because you would not say five and American-made and 97,000-ton aircraft carriers were produced this year.

> **Correct Example**: Five 97,000-ton American-made aircraft carriers were produced this year.

The next chapter will discuss additional stylistic elements that work to either hinder or promote clear writing at the sentence level.

CHAPTER ELEVEN: SENTENCE STYLE

Marine Corps University students typically receive two types of feedback on their academic writing assignments: global-level feedback and surface-level feedback. Global-level feedback refers mainly to larger issues affecting the content, organizational structure, and development of ideas. Surface-level feedback, on the other hand, refers mostly to elements at the sentence level, such as concision, word choice, grammar, punctuation, and general formatting. For more information on global-level and surface-level revision, see Chapter Four.

Clarity at the sentence level is important not only in academic contexts but also in professional writing contexts. Clear, easy-to-follow sentences help you to convey your intended message in a position paper to your commanding officer, or to clearly articulate course goals in a course syllabus. In academic and professional military writing contexts, then, clarity at the sentence level is both useful and important.

This chapter aims to help you understand how different elements work to hinder or promote clear writing at the sentence level. It contains the following components:

11.1   Parallel Construction

Parallel lines are located in the same plane or two-dimensional area; they are similar to each other in that they are the same distance apart for as long as the lines continue. In a similar way, parallel items in a series or in a sentence are always balanced: 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 belong to the same grammatical category and should "serve the same grammatical function in the sentence (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb)."[136] A sentence is more easily understood when it reflects the principle of parallel construction. Table 41 offers examples of parallel construction.

Table 41: Parallel Construction

Incorrect Example	Correct Example
The general enjoys golfing, sailing, and reads in his spare time.	The general enjoys golfing, sailing, and reading in his spare time.
Today, I will edit my paper for grammar, sentence structure, and re-organize my thesis statement.	Today, I will edit my paper for grammatical issues, proper sentence structure, and thesis development. **OR** Today, I will edit my paper for grammatical issues, revise it for proper sentence structure, and reorganize my thesis statement.

Parallel construction is used to great effect in the memorable words of writers and leaders. See the examples below.

> **First Example:** "I chose 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

The first example displays parallel items in a series. The second sentence has two independent clauses that are parallel in construction. Additionally, parallel structure is called for with prepositional phrases. According to *Grammarly*, an English grammar and style blog, "When prepositional phrases are used in a parallel series, prepositions should be repeated with every element of the series unless all elements use the same preposition. A common error is to repeat prepositions unnecessarily."[137] See more examples of this below.

> **Third Example:** The professor has been published in *The New Yorker, The Atlantic,* and *Time Magazine.*
> **Fourth Example:** To reach Marine Corps University, drive under the railroad bridge, around the circle, and into the parking garage.

The third example uses parallel construction effectively because each series item refers to the preposition "in." In this case, the preposition "in" does not need to be repeated because it applies to each element in the series. In this way, the sentence flows nicely, and readers can see all three

publications are those in which his work has been published. The fourth example uses a series of prepositional phrases that are parallel in structure, all beginning with a different preposition.

11.2   Active Voice and Passive Voice

Grammatical "voice" is meaning that is encoded in the grammatical structure of a verb phrase. When you create a sentence with some sort of action in it, the way in which you structure the verb tells the reader whether you are emphasizing the actor who performed the action (active voice) or what happened to the object or receiver of the action (passive voice). See the below example.

```
The Marine fired the rifle.
```

This sentence is in active voice because the agent or actor—the doer of the action—is in the subject position: It was the Marine who performed the action of firing the rifle. Active voice sentences often describe someone doing something, as indicated in the below example.

```
The commanders designed a strategy.
```

Sentences in passive voice reverse this pattern—that is, they begin with what happened to the object or receiver of the action, and they can end with who performed the action. See the example below.

```
The rifle was fired by the Marine.
```

As you can see, "the rifle" now starts the sentence, and "the Marine" now ends it. In addition, the action has gone from being one word (fired) to two words (was fired). Finally, the second sentence now includes the preposition "by," which is often an indicator of passive voice. Passive verb constructions always include a form of the verb "to be" and a past participle. "To be" verbs include "am," "is," "are," "were," "was," "be," "being," and "been." Additionally, passive voice sentences do not always include who performed the action, as evidenced in the example below.

```
The rifle was fired.
```

The example above indicates the first of three basic problems with use of passive voice:

1. It allows the writer to avoid naming the agent or the doer of the action, which can cause ambiguity and may be especially problematic in professional writing.
2. It reverses the basic English sentence structure, which can confuse the reader, especially in longer, more complex sentences.
3. It uses more words to convey the same content as that written in active voice.

However, passive voice is a valid, grammatically correct structure that does have specific purposes:

1. It allows the writer to deemphasize the agent or doer of the action when it is less important to the meaning of a sentence, or when the writer wants to avoid mentioning who has responsibility for a particular action.
2. It allows the writer additional options for sentence variety.

When used as a conscious choice for a specific reason, passive voice can be effective. However, when passive voice becomes a habit, it leads to wordy, confusing writing and allows the writer to avoid thinking specifically about the actor or agent. Passive voice is used frequently (some would say too frequently) in military, government, and academic writing. Writers in these contexts should be aware of this tendency, and they should try to make their writing as clear as possible. **Note: Although the examples above show passive verb construction in the main clause, remember that passive verbs can occur anywhere in a sentence, as in the example below.**

> **Passive Sentence:** An apology was issued, which was considered unnecessary by the staff.

In the above example, "was issued" is passive, so the reader does not know who issued the apology. In the nonessential subordinate clause "which was considered unnecessary by the staff," the verb construction "was considered" is passive.

> **Revised, Active Sentence:** The manager issued an apology, which the staff considered unnecessary.

Table 42 contains more guidance on using active and passive voice.

Table 42: Active and Passive Voice

Active Voice	Passive Voice
The general **issued** the command.	The command **was issued** by the general.
A MCWAR student at Marine Corps University **wrote** the winning contest entry.	The winning contest entry **was written** by a MCWAR student at Marine Corps University.
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.	As a result of cooperative lessons learned at Joint Helicopter Forces Iraq (JHF-1), the request **was made** by MND-SE to shift the HH-60s to an armed escort role for convoy protection.
Active Voice Template The Marine—fired—the rifle. Actor—Action—Object.	**Passive Voice Template** The rifle—was fired—by the Marine. Object—was + Action—by Actor.

11.3   Point of View

Another component of effective writing style is point of view. Using the correct perspective in your writing is the key to your readers understanding who you are referring to and what your message is. 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.

There are three common points of view: first person, second person, and third person. The first person point of view is when the author writes from his or her point of view, and it is indicated by the first person pronouns *I, me, my, we, our,* or *us.* Generally, you should reserve the first person point of view for informal writing (emails and personal correspondence), though you may find it used in more formal contexts such as autobiographies, memoirs, and some social science research reports. You may use first person in the more informal and conversational preface or acknowledgements section of a long research report such as the MMS paper.

The second person point of view is when "you" is the subject of the sentence. Commands (in which the implied subject is "you") are always written in the second person. Sometimes authors use the second person point of view when they want to address the reader directly. For instance, most of this guide is written from a second person point of view, which gives it a more conversational, informal tone. Though the second person point of view makes a dense text seem more approachable, you will typically want to avoid it in academic writing.

The third person point of view allows for distance between the author and the subject. You will generally use the third person point of view in formal writing. Table 43 presents examples of the three points of view.

Table 43: Point of View Examples

First Person	Second Person	Third Person
I observed the participants in their natural habitat.	**Observe** the participants in their natural habitat (command). **You** can observe the participants in their natural habitat.	**They** observed the participants in their natural habitat.

Regardless of the point of view you choose to use, it is best to be consistent—that is, do not switch between first, second, and third person points of view in your writing, particularly when you are writing about the same topic or referring to the same subject. See the examples below.

> **Incorrect Example:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize culture training. You need to provide this training at the unit level.
> **Correct Example:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize culture training. It needs to provide this training at the unit level.

In the incorrect example above, the first sentence is written in third person point of view, while the second sentence is written in second person point of view. Switching between points of view within a paper can be confusing to your readers, and it can make your paragraph structure seem disjointed.

11.4   Singular *They*

The use of *they* as a gender-neutral pronoun is spreading. While acknowledging the increasing usage of singular *they*, the *Chicago Manual of Style* advises writers against using singular *they* in formal writing. Consider these sentences:

> **Every UN member** agreed to present **his** proposal.
> **Each commander** argued for **his** strategic vision.

The problem with the sentences above is they pair the pronoun "his" with the singular nouns "every UN member" and "each commander," implying that both sentences are about only men. In efforts to be gender-neutral—that is, to acknowledge some of these UN members and some of these commanders are, in fact, women—we might revise these sentences using singular *they*, as shown below.

> **Every UN member** agreed to present **their** proposal.
> **Each commander** argued for **their** strategic vision.

Pairing a singular noun with the pronoun "they" is both widespread and perfectly acceptable in our speech and in our casual writing. In our formal writing, however, use of singular *they* is not universally accepted. In fact, most professional style manuals advise against using it. This is because the pair creates a number agreement problem: it pairs a singular subject with a plural pronoun. In order to revise this usage, writers have two choices: use "he or she," or make nouns in the sentences plural. These solutions are displayed below.

> **Every UN member** agreed to present **his or her** proposal.
> **All UN members** agreed to present **their** proposals.
> **Each commander** argued for **his or her** strategic vision.
> **All of the commanders** argued for **their** strategic visions.

The Leadership Communication Skills Center faculty recommend the second solution—pluralizing nouns in the sentences—as opposed to using the clunkier "his or her" phrase.

11.5   Split Infinitives and Misplaced Modifiers

The LCSC faculty added this section to the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* at the request of select members of the MCU faculty. While not all of the items in this section can be classified as writing errors (for instance, there are times when it might be permissible to split an infinitive), it is important for you to be able to understand how these stylistic conventions can affect meaning in your writing. Awareness is the key to effectively conveying your message.

11.5.1 Avoid Split Infinitives

The infinitive form of a verb comprises two elements: the word "to" followed by the stem or the base form of the verb. Examples of infinitives are as follows: *to read*, *to write*, and *to reconstruct*.

Much like splitting two connecting pieces of wood with an axe, you can split an infinitive by "wedging" a word in between "to" and the verb stem, as in the following: *to quickly read*, *to hastily write*, and *to carefully reconstruct*. Below are two split infinitives in a sentence.

> **Example:** A dominant narrative regarding the indefensibility of strategic bombing led Britain **to quickly discover** that, in order **to unequivocally triumph** in war, it would need to strike first and strike big.

In order to repair these split infinitives, the writer would remove the adverbs that split the infinitive verbs and connect the adverbs to the words and phrases they modify. The adverb "quickly" is more accurately attached to the verb "led." The adverb "unequivocally" actually modifies the entire phrase "to triumph," which it can more easily do if the adverb were to follow the infinitive phrase. With repaired split infinitives, the sentence would read as follows:

> **Example:** A dominant narrative regarding the indefensibility of strategic bombing developed, and it **quickly** led Britain **to discover** that, in order **to triumph** in war **unequivocally**, it would need to strike first and strike big.

As with passive voice usage, there are times when it makes more sense to split an infinitive. Below are some phrases that actually need to split the infinitives to communicate their meaning accurately.

1. The US envoy didn't feel pressure **to actually respond** to the email.
2. The firm expected its stock price **to more than triple** within the coming year.
3. Students engaged in a practical application **to more clearly understand** the issue.

For these sentences, repairing the split infinitives would not create a more effective way to express their meanings. In fact, attempts to revise these sentences would only lead to confusion. While grammarians tend to have mixed opinions about split infinitives, more formal writing—such as academic and professional writing—does not include many split infinitives. The guiding principle seems to be that when a split infinitive is awkward to read or when it interferes with conveying your meaning to your reader, you should edit it. If you have a supervisor who prefers that you not write with split infinitives at all, you should try to acknowledge that preference.

11.5.2 Avoid Dangling or Misplaced Modifiers

A modifier in a sentence gives the reader additional information about a person, place, thing, or event. Modifiers should typically be placed as closely as possible to the word they are modifying. In the examples below, the modifiers are bolded.

> Trenchard **strongly** argued that **strategic** bombing should become the **central** mission of the Royal Air Force.

In this example, the adverb "strongly" gives the reader more information about how and in what manner Trenchard made the argument. The adjective "strategic" tells the reader what kind of bombing he was arguing about, and the adjective "central" tells the reader what kind of mission the writing is referring to.

In addition to these simple adjectival and adverbial modifiers, writers can use participial phrases to give readers extra information about the ideas in a sentence. In the sentence below, the bolded participial phrase tells the reader more about the manner and motivation of the subject's actions.

> **Fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy,** Trenchard strongly argued that strategic bombing should become the central mission of the RAF.

It is these participial modifiers that can become misplaced; sometimes they are called "dangling participles." The sentence below offers an example of a misplaced modifier. The problem in this sentence is that the underlined participial phrase has nothing to attach to—the reader does not know **who** is doing the fighting—so the participle "dangles." The structure of the sentence below leads the reader to infer that "the mission" did the fighting, but that was not the writer's intent.

> **Dangling Modifier Example:** Fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy, the mission of the RAF changed to that of strategic bombing.
> **Misplaced Modifier Example:** Trenchard strongly argued that the mission of the RAF should become strategic bombing, fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy.

Whenever you use a participial phrase as a modifier such as those in the sentences above, you will want to ensure the subject of the participle (e.g., the actor who performs the

action of "fighting") is placed as closely to the participial modifier as grammatically possible, as in the examples below.

> **First Example:** Fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy, Trenchard strongly argued that strategic bombing should become the central mission of the RAF.
> **Second Example:** Trenchard, fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy, strongly argued that strategic bombing should become the central mission of the RAF.

In these sentences, there is a clear structural tie between "fighting" and the individual doing the fighting, Trenchard. This tie is missing in the dangling modifier example below. Another common problematic structure for dangling modifiers is when they are placed at the end of a sentence, without a clearly connected noun phrase, as in the below example.

> **Dangling Modifier Example:** Strategic bombing is its central mission, ultimately saving the organization from the aspirations of the Army and Royal Navy.

In the sentence above, the reader does not understand who or what did the "saving." If the writer were to review the sentence to connect the modifier with an actor, the meaning would become clear, as shown below.

> **Correct Example:** The RAF leadership made strategic bombing its central and independent mission, ultimately saving the organization from the aspirations of the Army and Royal Navy.

In the revision, we see that the RAF leadership acted, providing a subject for "saving."

11.6 Articles

Articles modify nouns in much the same way that adjectives modify nouns. The rules governing article use often depend on whether the noun being modified is a count noun or not. You can tell when a noun is countable because it can almost always be made plural, while noncount nouns cannot be made plural.

Count Nouns
Marine → Marines
House → Houses
Noncount Nouns
Luck → ~~Lucks~~
Information → ~~Informations~~

There are two types of articles: definite and indefinite. Table 44 provides more information on article use.

Table 44: Article Use

Definite Articles	Indefinite Articles
Used to modify specific nouns (one particular person, place, or thing)	Used to modify general nouns (could be one of many people, places, or things)
The	**A, An**
I bought **the** cheapest car at the dealership. **The** professor assigned a paper.	I bought **a** Honda Civic. He is **an** honorable man. I bought **an** Audi A6. She is applying to **a** university nearby.

Source: Loosely adapted from "Using Articles," Purdue Online Writing Lab, 2017, https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/540/01/.

As shown in Table 44, **the** is used to modify a specific count noun (e.g., **the** Commandant of the Marine Corps), while **a** and **an** are used to modify non-specific count nouns (**a** Marine, **an** Airman). When deciding whether to use **a** or **an**, you would look at the noun and determine whether the noun begins with a vowel sound or a consonant sound. If the noun begins with a vowel sound, you would use **an** (e.g., **an** apple, **an** hour). If the noun begins with a consonant sound, you would use **a** (e.g., **a** sandwich, **a** house).

Worksheet 23: Now You Try It! Article Use Quiz

1. President of United States met with group of CEOs to discuss American manufacturing issues.
   Put articles where needed in the above sentence.
2. I got you room on second floor of hotel.
   Put articles where needed in the above sentence.
3. We need time to think about solution to problem posed in seminar yesterday.
   Put articles where needed in the above sentence.

Check your answers here!

11.7 Frequently Asked Grammar Questions

When do I use *that*, and when do I use *which*?

In order to understand *that* and *which*, you need to understand restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses. A restrictive clause does what its name suggests—it is a clause that acts to restrict another part of the sentence; without it, the meaning of the sentence would change. When you use a **restrictive clause**, you would use *that,* and you would **not** use a comma to set off the clause.

A nonrestrictive clause contains information that adds detail to a sentence but does not change the meaning of the sentence if left out. When using a **nonrestrictive clause**, you would use *which*, and in this case you **would** use a comma to separate. Below is an example.

> **Restrictive clause example:** The findings **that Major Broadway uncovered** during his research caused him to change his thesis statement.
> **Nonrestrictive clause example:** Marine Corps University, **which has three degree-granting programs,** will confer master's degrees at the graduation ceremony in June.

When do I use *who*, and when do I use *whom*?

In order to decide whether to use *who* or *whom*, you first need to determine whether you are referring to or replacing the subject of the sentence or the object of the sentence. The subject is the actor in the sentence who performs the stated action. See the example below.

> **He** conducted research on human rights abuses in sub-Saharan Africa.

The object of the sentence is having something done to him, her, or it, as shown below.

> The author conducted research through an interview with **him.**

When forming a question and unsure whether to use who or whom, restructure the question as a statement. If you would use *he* in the statement as a subject, use *who* in the question. If you would use *him* in the statement as an object, use *whom* in the question.

> **Who** conducted research on human rights abuses in sub-Saharan Africa?
> With **whom** did the author conduct an interview?

Can I start a sentence with a coordinating conjunction?

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses—*and*, *but*, *or*, *so*, and *yet* are examples of coordinating conjunctions. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style* and several other writing guides, there is nothing wrong with using a coordinating conjunction to start a sentence. That said, some faculty members do not approve this usage because it creates an informal tone. Use your best judgment, and defer to your faculty member's guidance if unsure.

When should I use i.e. and e.g.?

The abbreviations i.e. and e.g. are derived from Latin and typically precede an example, a phrase that is used to clarify another assertion in the text, or a list. The CMOS prefers that the abbreviations i.e. and e.g. are placed in parenthesis and notes; the abbreviations should also be followed by a comma (per the examples below).

i.e. The abbreviation i.e. is often used to mean "in other words."

```
Example 1: My brother is a vegetarian (i.e., he does not eat
meat).
Example 2: I enjoy hiking, mountain biking, and surfing (i.e.,
outdoor activities).
```

e.g. The abbreviation e.g. is often used to present a specific example of a concept or idea discussed in a sentence.

```
Example 1: Many people who live in major cities (e.g., New York,
Chicago, and Philadelphia) do not own cars.
```
*Notice that e.g. does not necessarily need to introduce a complete list. In this case, the author presents a few examples of major cities, but there are several major cities that are not acknowledged in this list.

```
Example 2: The sergeant major is allergic to shellfish (e.g.,
mussels, shrimp, and clams).
```

APPENDIX A: ANSWERS TO NOW YOU TRY IT! QUIZZES

Worksheet 9: Now you Try It! Citation Basics Quiz Answer Key

1. What types of claims should be cited? There may be more than one correct response.

a**.** Information that is borrowed word-for-word from another source. Correct! All language that is borrowed from another source must be cited AND placed in quotation marks.

b**.** Information that is paraphrased or summarized from another source. Correct! All paraphrased and summarized information must be cited.

c**.** Information that is not common knowledge. Correct! All information that is not considered common knowledge must be cited.

d**.** Any information you learned by reading another source. Incorrect! Information that is new to you or that you learned from reading a source can still be considered common knowledge and thus does not necessarily need to be cited.

2. Which of the following claims require a citation? There may be more than one correct response.

a. There are currently 471,990 active duty personnel in the US Army. Yes, a citation is needed here because this claim presents an exact number rather than a rough estimate. It is possible that these numbers could vary a bit from source to source.

b. Then, from 10^{-36} to 10^{-32} seconds after the Big Bang, the temperature of the universe was low enough (10^{28} K) that the forces of electromagnetism and weak nuclear forces were able to separate as well, forming two distinct forces. Yes, a citation is needed here because this claim presents specialized knowledge.

c. The Big Bang hypothesis states that all of the current and past matter in the Universe came into existence roughly 13.8 billion years ago. No citation is needed here. This information is relatively generic and should be considered common knowledge.

d. Abraham Lincoln was assassinated in Ford's Theatre in Washington, DC, as he sat watching a play. No citation is needed here. This is a historical fact (it cannot be contested) and would generally be considered common knowledge.

e. Most Americans prefer Pepsi to Coke. A citation is needed here. Without having conducted a poll or study of some sort, it is impossible to draw conclusions about Americans' preferences; therefore, the source of the information needs to be cited.

f. The army is the oldest military service in the United States. No citation is needed here because this is a fact that cannot be contested.

3. True or False: Anything you learned in high school should be considered common knowledge.

a. True. Incorrect! It is possible to have learned specialized knowledge in high school, and specialized knowledge requires a citation.

b. False

4. Which of the following are forms of plagiarism? There may be more than one correct answer.

a. Self-plagiarism. Correct. Turning in the same paper (or portions of that paper) for two different courses, or submitting the same paper (or portion of a paper) to two different publications without appropriate citation could be considered self-plagiarism.

b. Not placing borrowed words in quotation marks. Correct! Failing to place borrowed words in quotation marks is considered a form of plagiarism, even if those borrowed words are followed by a citation.

c. Failing to read and cite all available literature on your topic. Incorrect! While a good scholar will make an attempt to read the seminal works on a topic, it is not possible to consult every book or article.

d. Not citing quoted or paraphrased information. Correct. All quoted and paraphrased information should be cited to avoid plagiarism.

e. Using a dropped quote. Incorrect! While dropped quotes present a stylistic issue, they are not considered plagiarism as long as they are cited.

Worksheet 10: Now You Try It! Citations Quiz Answer Key

1. **Choose the correctly formatted book endnote citation from the choices below.**

    a. [1] *Uncommon Sense Teaching: Practical Insights in Brain Science to Help Students Learn,* by Barbara Oakley, Beth Rogowsky, and Terrence Sejnowski (New York: TarcherPerigree, 2021), 95. Incorrect. The author name(s) should precede the title of work.

    b. [1] Barbara Oakley, Beth Rogowsky, and Terrence Sejnowski, *Uncommon Sense Teaching: Practical Insights in Brain Science to Help Students Learn* (New York: TarcherPerigree, 2021), 95. Correct.

2. **Choose the correctly formatted journal article bibliography reference citation from the choices below.**

    a. Buikema, R. J. "Cooperative Engagement: Ramifications for today's Marine Corps." *Marine Corps Gazette 84*, no. 4 (2000), 58-61. Correct.

    b. Buikema, R. J. (2000). Cooperative engagement: Ramifications for today's Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Gazette, 84*(4), 58-61. Incorrect. The placement of the publication date is incorrect—CMOS style includes the publication date after the volume and issue number.

3. **Choose the correctly formatted government document endnote citation from the choices below.**

    a. [2] US Marine Corps, *Training and Education 2030* (Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, January 2023), 14. Correct.

    b. [2] General David H. Berger, *Training and Education 2030* (US Marine Corps, January 2023), 14. Incorrect. We would use an organization as the author, not a single author for this source type. The place of publication is also missing.

4. **Choose the correctly formatted YouTube video bibliography reference citation from the choices below.**

    a. U.S. Marine Corps. "247th Marine Corps Birthday Message." YouTube video. November 7, 2022. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qAsCoJj_YfY. Incorrect. Online multimedia sources are not included in the bibliography.

    b. You do not need to include online multimedia sources in the bibliography. Correct.

5. **Choose the correctly formatted shortened citation from the choices below.**

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

    a. [2] Ibid. Incorrect. CMOS 17th edition advises students to use a shortened version of the citation instead of Ibid.

    b. [2] Millet, *Semper Fidelis,* 26. Correct.

Worksheet 11: Now You Try It! Verb Tense Quiz Answer Key

1. As the Littoral Combat Ship (LCS) **sailed** through the South China Sea, the commander **receives** a call for help from one of the Americans on the oil rig.
   The verb *receives* is incorrect. It should match the past tense verb *sailed*, as the two verbs should be parallel in this sentence since both occur in the same time period.
   Corrected version: As the Littoral Combat Ship sailed through the South China Sea, the commander received a call for help from one of the Americans on the rig.
2. Since 1948, Sri Lanka **is** independent from the British.
   The verb *is* is used incorrectly, as Sri Lanka's period of independence started in the past and continues into the present.
   Corrected Version: Since 1948, Sri Lanka has been independent from the British.
3. The Marine Corps **capitalize** on this concept by **maintain** the Marine Corps Center for Lessons Learned (MCCLL).
   Marine Corps is a singular subject, so the verb should be *capitalizes* to match in correct subject/verb agreement. *Maintain* is also incorrect, as it should be in continuous verb tense (e.g., by *maintaining*).
   Corrected Version: The Marine Corps capitalizes on this concept by maintaining the Marine Corps Center for Lessons Learned.

Worksheet 12: Now You Try It! Commas Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is a correct use of the serial comma.** Global responsibilities drive the United States to maintain maritime power to protect its trade interests, ensure its access to natural resources, and support its treaty obligations.
2. **This is incorrect. A comma is needed to separate the parallel adjectives**. **Corrected version**: A challenge from a potential adversary would necessitate a robust**,** capable amphibious assault capability.
3. **This is incorrect. A comma is needed to separate the two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction in between**. **Corrected version**: Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways**,** but it will be costly.
4. **This is incorrect. A semicolon is needed to separate the two independent clauses with a conjunctive adverb in between. A comma follows the conjunctive adverb.** **Corrected version**: Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways**,;** however**,** it will be costly.

Worksheet 13: Now You Try It! Semicolons Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is a correct use of the semicolon. A semicolon is used to separate two complete, related sentences.** Students at the School of Advanced Warfighting arrive and begin classes in early July; Command and Staff College students arrive later in the summer.
2. **This is incorrect. Neither the material preceding nor the material following the semicolon can stand alone as a complete thought; therefore, a semicolon is not needed.** **Corrected version**: Small wars are defined as**;** "operations undertaken under executive authority."
3. **This is incorrect. None of the series items contains internal punctuation, so commas would more appropriately separate the series items. Corrected version:** It is safe to state

that even humanitarian assistance; disaster relief; and peace support operations are covered by the term *small wars*.

4. **This is a correct use of the semicolon, as it separates two independent clauses with a conjunctive adverb in between.** Armies have become smaller, and in most cases fully professional; however, their weapons and equipment largely remain the same.

Worksheet 14: Now You Try It! Colons Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is a correct use of the colon. A colon is used after an independent clause to call attention to a list.** LCSC instructors provide the following services to Marine Corps University students: formal classes, writing workshops, and one-on-one writing sessions.
2. **This is incorrect. A colon is not used to separate a preposition from its direct object. Corrected version:** US Marines may be asked to PCS to: Okinawa, Japan; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; and Quantico, Virginia.
3. **This is a correct use of the colon, as a colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.** To Whom it May Concern: The Gray Research Center's power has been fully restored as of 10 July 2016 at 0900.

Worksheet 15: Now You Try It! Question Marks Quiz Answer Key

1. When does the groundbreaking for the new academic building take place**?**
2. Has it been that long**?** Colonel Morris wondered**.**
3. The following items must be listed on the inventory**:** tablets**,** laptops**,** and monitors**.**

Worksheet 16: Now You Try It! Hyphens Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is a correct use of the hyphen. A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.** The MCWAR student looked to written records pre-Vietnam for his research.
2. **This is a correct use of the hyphen. A hyphen is used when the modifier is a letter or a number.** The man's favorite weapon to shoot was his AK-47.
3. **This is incorrect. A hyphen should not be used if a modifier follows the noun it modifies (e.g., well read or properly educated).** **Corrected version:** The captain made sure the memo was well-written, as he knew it would be distributed throughout the battalion.

Worksheet 17: Now You Try It! Dashes Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is a correct use of the em dash. An em dash can be used to emphasize a series.** In his last week of school, the captain tried his best to stay focused on his priorities—preparing his family for the upcoming move, practicing for graduation, and getting his research paper published.
2. **This is incorrect. Dashes are needed before and after parenthetical elements. Corrected version:** Four Marines—Major Smith, Captain Swanson, SgtMaj Ruiz, and Cpl Kirk—all met for dinner with their wives at the Potomac Point winery Saturday night.
3. **This is a correct use of the em dash. An em dash can set off a parenthetical element.** The upcoming storm—which was predicted to severely hinder visibility—delayed the flight several hours.

Worksheet 18: Now You Try It! Parentheses Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is incorrect. In the case that an entire sentence is enclosed in parentheses, the closing punctuation mark should go inside the second parenthesis, not outside.**

Corrected version: All after action reports should be completed by this Tuesday. (The after action report will not be reviewed until next week**.)**~~.~~

2. **This is a correct use of parentheses. Parentheses enclose explanatory phrases that clarify the meaning of a sentence or passage without changing its message.** My sister (who served in the Marine Corps for twenty years) is going to spend Thanksgiving in Detroit, Michigan this year.

3. **This is incorrect. Brackets are preferred to enclose parenthetical information that is already in parentheses.** **Corrected version:** (According to General Gray **([**a former president of Marine Corps University**])**, "Every Marine is, first and foremost, a rifleman. All other conditions are secondary.")

Worksheet 19: Now You Try It! Ellipses Quiz Answer Key

According to Huffman and Schultz**, "As a consequence, the DADT repeal implementation has the potential to disrupt unit cohesion and affect the perception of combat readiness in the Corps…unless the Commandant initiates a cultural change establishing a Marine warrior concept that is inclusive of gender, race, age, religion, and sexual orientation."**
Note: This is just one example of how you might use ellipses to shorten a long quotation. There are other possible solutions.

Worksheet 20: Now You Try It! Apostrophes Quiz Answer Key

1. **This is incorrect. You're is a contraction abbreviating the words "you are." Your is the correct possessive pronoun to use here.** **Corrected version:** What did ~~you're~~ **your** unit accomplish this quarter?

2. **This is correct. These are plural, not possessive, so no apostrophe is needed.** **Corrected version:** How many xs and ys are on the page?

3. **This is correct. The CMOS recommends you add an apostrophe –s on the end of singular nouns ending in –s, -z, or –x.** **Corrected version:** Degas's paintings are beautiful.

Worksheet 21: Now You Try It! Capitalization Quiz Answer Key

1. Major Smith applied to George Mason **U**niversity, as she wanted to pursue a **m**aster's degree.

2. In May 1967, **P**resident Gamal Abdel **Nasser** began to close the **S**traits of Tiran.

Worksheet 22: Now You Try It! Prepositions Quiz Answer Key

1. The nuclear bomb that had been advertised **by** the Strategic Air Command (SAC) **in/during** WWII revealed inefficient to address the small war requirements **of** the Vietnam era.

Worksheet 23: Now You Try It! Article Use Quiz Answer Key

1. **The** President of **the** United States met with **a** group of CEOs to discuss American manufacturing issues.

2. I got you **a** room on **the** second floor of **the** hotel.

3. We need time to think about **a** solution to **the/a** problem posed in seminar yesterday.

APPENDIX B: GLOSSARY OF COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS AND WORD PAIRS

accept/except:

> *accept:* to agree to take or receive. I *accepted* the proposal.
> *except:* with the exclusion of. They all received A's, *except* for Lieutenant Smith.

adverse/averse:

> *adverse:* unfavorable, undesirable. The medication had no *adverse* effects.
> *averse:* having strong opposition towards. He is *averse* to launching a preemptive war.

affect/effect:

> *affect:* (verb) to have an influence on something. Rainy weather *affects* my mood.
> *effect:*
> 1. (noun) a change that results when something is done, or an emotion or state brought about by something. The documentary had a profound *effect* on me.
> 2. (verb) rare form of effect meaning to cause something or to accomplish something. The workers' strike *effected* change within the hierarchical structure of the organization.

affective/effective:

> *affective:* (adjective) a way to describe something causing or expressing emotion. The general delivered a passionate, *affective* speech.
> *effective:* (adjective or adverb) a way to describe something that produces a desired result. The training was *effective* in preparing Marines for their upcoming deployment.

allusion/illusion:

> *allusion*: an indirect reference to something. The text includes many *allusions* to British Gothic literature.
> *illusion:* something that is not real but appears to be. The magician's show was full of optical *illusions* to make things appear different than they really are.

anyway/any way:

> *anyway*: (one word) in any case. I was going to go to the store *anyway*.
> *any way*: (two words) in any manner. You can order your food *any way* that you like it.

appraise/apprise:

> *appraise*: to determine the value of something. I need to have my jewelry *appraised* for insurance purposes.
> *apprise*: to inform or notify. I told him I would keep him *apprised* of the situation.

bear/bare:

 bear:
1. (noun) wild animal. The *bear* was wandering around our campsite.
2. (verb) to carry or support someone or something physically or emotionally. I could not *bear* the pain.

 bare: uncovered, minimal. The hot asphalt burned my *bare* feet.

capital/capitol:

 capital:
1. the seat of a country or state's government. Richmond is the *capital* of Virginia.
2. an uppercase letter (capital letter). Proper nouns begin with a *capital* letter.
3. accumulated wealth. The firm has enough liquid *capital* to sustain significant losses.

 capitol: the building in which the legislative government meets. Congress meets in the US *Capitol.*

climactic/climatic:

 climactic: the most intense moment of an event. The song's *climactic* moment was when the music became very fast and loud.

 climatic: (adjective) form of climate referring to weather patterns over time. *Climatic* changes have resulted in rising seas.

complement/compliment:

 complement: a part/thing that completes something else. The flavor of the wine was a good *complement* to the meal.

 compliment: something said to express praise or approval. My friend paid me a *compliment* when she told me she liked my outfit.

desert/dessert

 desert: an arid region. Phoenix, Arizona is known for its hot, dry *desert* climate.

 dessert: a dish you have after a meal, usually something sweet. I would like chocolate cheesecake for *dessert.*

device/devise

 device: (noun) a technique or tool of some kind. My iPhone is a handy *device* for making phone calls and answering emails.

 devise: (verb) to invent or plan. We need to *devise* a plan to solve the puzzle.

elicit/illicit:

 elicit: to evoke or draw out. I had hoped that my direct question would *elicit* a prompt response.

 illicit: illegal, prohibited for moral or ethical reasons. Travel to Mexico has been banned due to *illicit* activity and dangerous situations.

emigrate/immigrate:

 emigrate: the act of leaving one's country or region to live in another. Miguel *emigrated* from Spain to America.

immigrate: arrival and settling in a new country or region. Miguel emigrated from Spain, but he *immigrated* to America.

eminent/imminent

>*eminent:* someone or something that stands out above others. The judge was known to be an *eminent* figure in the town.
>*imminent:* likely to occur at any moment. The attack is *imminent.*

ensure/insure/assure:

>*ensure*: to make sure something happens, to guarantee it. I can *ensure* that the answer is correct.
>*insure*: to cover something with an insurance policy. The policy will *insure* my car against damages in an accident.
>*assure*: to remove someone's doubts. I *assure* you that everything will be okay.

farther/further:

>*farther*: pertaining to physical differences. The more I trained, the *farther* I could run.
>*further:* pertaining to figurative distances. I would like more information so that we can discuss the issue *further.*

fewer/less:

>*fewer:* used when referring to things you count individually. There were *fewer* soldiers in Iraq last year.
>*less:* used when referring to something that is measured. Next time you make the coffee, use *less* water.

forth/fourth:

>*forth*: forward in time. Go *forth* and conquer.
>*fourth*: adjective form of the number four. He placed *fourth* in the race and did not receive a medal.

imitate/intimate:

>*imitate*: (verb) to copy. He always tried to *imitate* everything his big brother was doing because he wanted to be just like him.
>*intimate:* (verb) **when pronounced as rhyming with imitate means** to hint at something, to suggest or declare something. Winking as he spoke, he *intimated* that there was much more to the story.

its/it's:

>*its:* possessive pronoun. The dog chased *its* tail.
>*it's*: contraction meaning "it is." *It's* time to wake up.

lay/lie:

>*lay:* to place something. Objects *lay*, but people do not. The verb *lay* must have an object. He always l*ays* his paperwork on my desk.
>*lie:* to recline. People *lie* in bed. After a long day's work all I want to do is *lie* down.

loose/lose:

> *loose*: (adjective) not tight. The lug nut on the tire was *loose* and needed to be tightened.
> *lose*: (verb) to fail to win, or to misplace something. I did not want to *lose* the game.
> Hang on to your umbrella so you do not *lose* it.

moral/morale:

> *moral*:

1. (adjective) used to describe someone who acts according to values and principles that are perceived to be good. The Marine was a *moral* individual who acted with honor in all circumstances.
2. (noun) refers to the principles of what is good and bad. The *moral* of the story is to treat others as you would like to be treated.

> *morale:* (noun) refers to the moral or mental state or condition of spirits of a person or group. Offering extra time off before the federal holiday increased the *morale* of the entire staff.

past/passed:

> *past*:

1. (adjective) used in an earlier time. I saw my friend this *past* weekend.
2. (noun) referring to an earlier time. My grandfather shared stories from his *past*.
3. (preposition) referring to an action occurring beyond a certain point or time or beyond a particular place. I drove a mile *past* my exit.

> *passed:* (past tense verb) having moved through or into a place or a time. I *passed* the professor on my way to the train.

personal/personnel:

> *personal:* relating to the person. I do not wish to give out my *personal* information (e.g., my phone number and my home address) to the sales representative.
> *personnel:* a collection of people employed by a particular organization. The office needs to increase its *personnel* by at least twenty percent.

preposition/proposition:

> *preposition*:

1. a word (almost always a part of a phrase) that links nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other words in a sentence. An example of a *preposition* is the word *over* in the phrase *over the rainbow.*
2. (verb) meaning to position in advance. We must *preposition* the troops before advancing on the enemy.

> *proposition*: a plan offered for acceptance, a matter to be dealt with, or the proposal of a private bargain. The university rejected the company's *proposition,* as the offer was not ultimately in the university's best interest.

quiet/quite:

> *quiet*: very little noise. Be *quiet* so as not to wake the sleeping baby.
> *quite*: to the utmost degree. Winter in Alaska is *quite* cold.

role/roll:

role: a part played by an actor or an individual holding an assigned position. I've been given the *role* of Hamlet in the Shakespearean play.

roll:

1. (verb) to revolve by turning over. *Roll* the ball to me, please.
2. (noun) a small loaf or round portion of bread. The *rolls* on the table with butter are a delicious start to the meal.

sit/set:

sit: action meaning to be seated. Don't *sit* on your gun.

set: to place something. *Set* and lay are used similarly, as both require an object. *Set* the money on the counter.

than/then:

than: indicates a comparison. My plan is better *than* yours.

then: represents sequence. We will eat dinner, *then* go to the movies.

there/their/they're:

there: refers to a place. Washington, DC has many monuments and museums. I would like to visit *there.*

their: a plural possessive pronoun. The individuals responsible for the crash will pay for the damages to my vehicle, as it was *their* error.

they're: a contraction meaning they are. *They're* going to employ guerilla war tactics.

to/too/two:

to: (preposition) a word used before a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase that indicates direction, time, place, or special relationships. We are going *to* the concert this weekend.

too: in addition, also, or very/extremely. I have *too* much yard work ahead of me this weekend, so I will not be able to attend the party.

two: refers to the number two (2). I have *two* extra tickets to the show tonight.

weather/whether:

weather: refers to the state of the atmosphere. The *weather* forecast for tomorrow is sunny and warm.

whether: expresses doubt or a choice between possibilities. I'm trying to decide *whether* or not to go to the store.

whose/who's:

who's: a contraction meaning who is. *Who's* the president of MCU?

whose: indicates possession, used to ask a question regarding which person owns or bears responsibility for something. *Whose* idea was this?

your/you're:

your: a possessive pronoun in the second person. *Your* uniform is neat, and *your* room is tidy.

you're: a contraction meaning you are. *You're* winning the chess game.

APPENDIX C: FORMATTING AND PAGE DESIGN

Formatting and page design refers to the way the text is arranged on the page and includes specifications for font, spacing, use of visuals, and the ordering of elements in the paper. This appendix provides guidelines for formatting MCU academic assignments; additionally, it contains several Microsoft Word tutorials that show you how to locate the specific functions that will allow you to properly format your document. All guidelines presented are adapted from the *Chicago Manual of Style*, 17th edition.

C.1   Document Setup and Microsoft Word Formatting
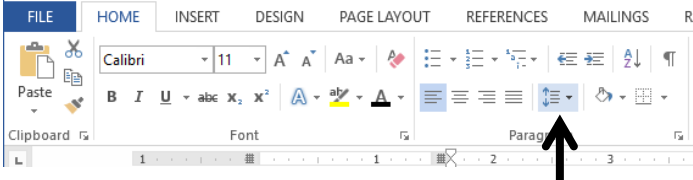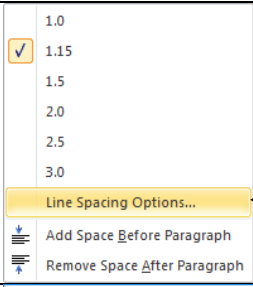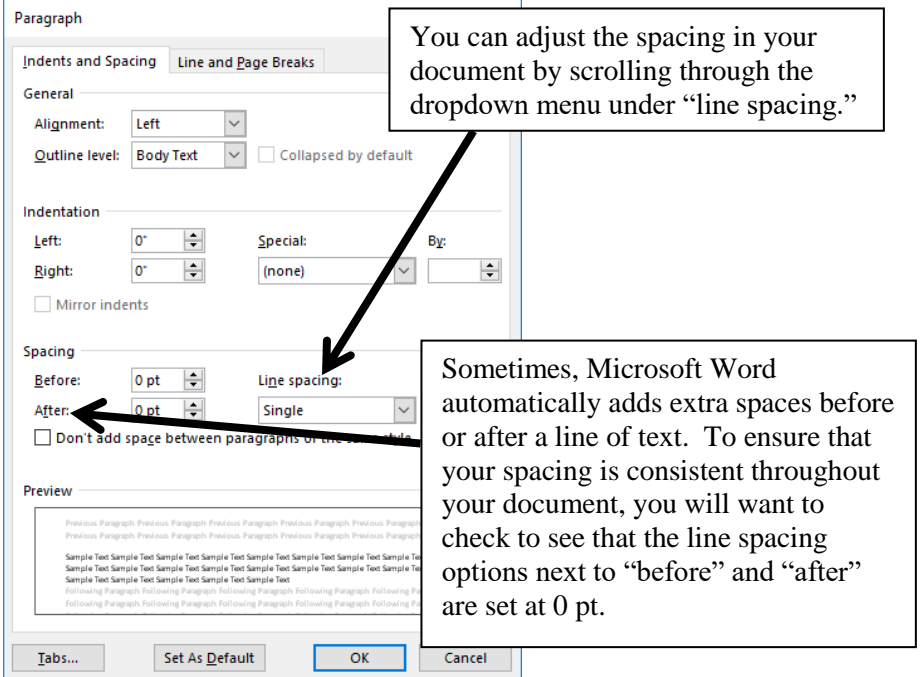
C.1.1   Font

The *Chicago Manual of Style* does not make any specific recommendations regarding the type of font documents should use, as font may vary based on the type of document you are writing. The assignments you produce at MCU will typically use Times New Roman, 12 point font unless otherwise specified. Be aware, however, that many of the papers you write using military formats (e.g., point papers, position papers, and official correspondence) will use Courier New (e.g., `Courier New`).

C.1.2   Spacing

The *Chicago Manual of Style* specifies that texts should always be double spaced when sent for publication review, as this allows editors to make comments between lines of text. The assignments you submit to your faculty members at MCU should be double spaced to allow for instructor feedback. This includes your bibliography page, though Chicago also allows single spacing for the bibliography with double spacing in between entries. Table 45 provides directions for changing the spacing in your document in Microsoft Word.

Table 45: How to Adjust Line Spacing
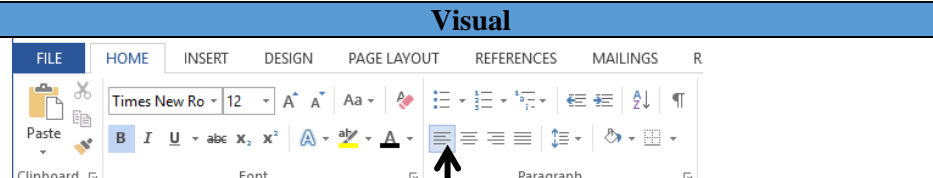
Step	Visual
Click on the line spacing icon on the toolbar.	
Select *Line Spacing Options* from the dropdown menu.	
When you click on *Line Spacing Options*, you should see this menu.	You can adjust the spacing in your document by scrolling through the dropdown menu under "line spacing." Sometimes, Microsoft Word automatically adds extra spaces before or after a line of text. To ensure that your spacing is consistent throughout your document, you will want to check to see that the line spacing options next to "before" and "after" are set at 0 pt.

It is also important to use correct spacing when separating sentences and clauses. The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends using only one space after a period or colon, though you may find your supervisor or faculty advisor has a different preference (this guide, for example, uses two spaces after the period and one space after a colon).

C.1.3   Justification and Margins

All text should be flush left. The text should not be justified. Table 46 shows you how to adjust the text alignment of your document.
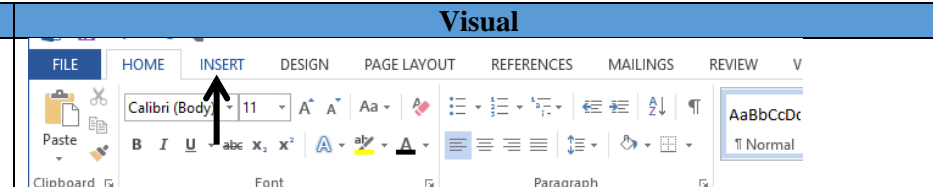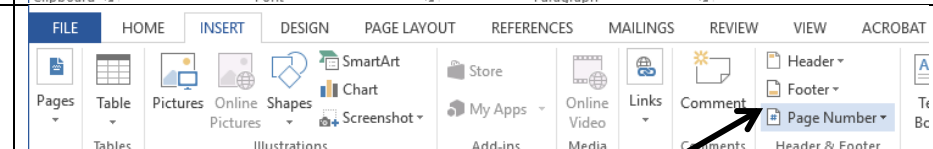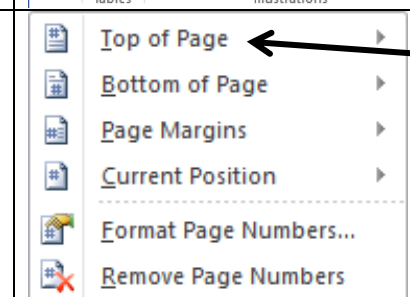
Table 46: Text Alignment
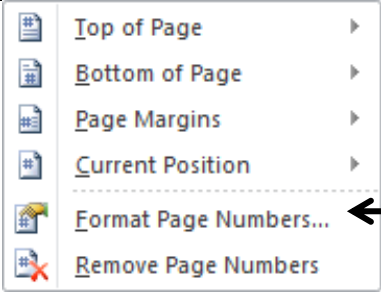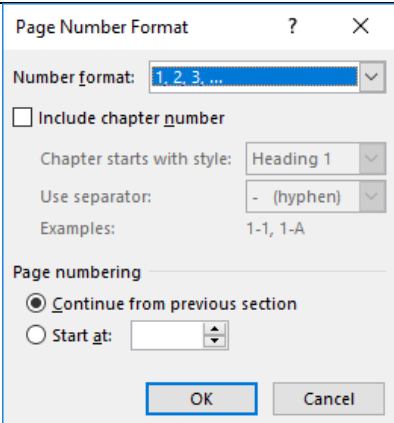
Step	Visual
Click on the box marked by the arrow to align your text correctly.	

C.1.4 Page Numbering

The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends placing page numbers at the top of the page with page numbers alternating on the left and right sides. This advice is mainly aimed at the publication of books where you would want the page numbers to appear on both outside corners of the text. When writing an academic paper for Marine Corps University or another PME institution, consult your individual faculty member to determine his or her preference for page numbering. The title page (which is typically the first page of the text), for example, is not typically numbered in either books or academic papers. If the text contains front matter, then the front matter should be numbered using lowercase Roman numerals (e.g., i, ii, and iii). The pages in the main text and back matter should use Arabic numerals (e.g., 1, 2, and 3). Table 47 provides guidance for formatting page numbers in Microsoft Word.
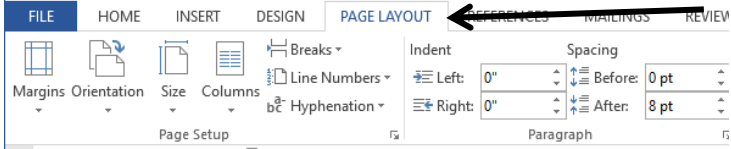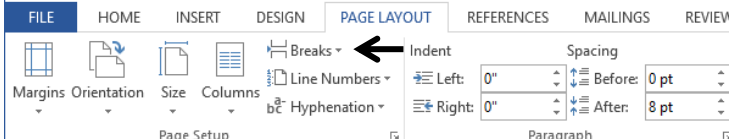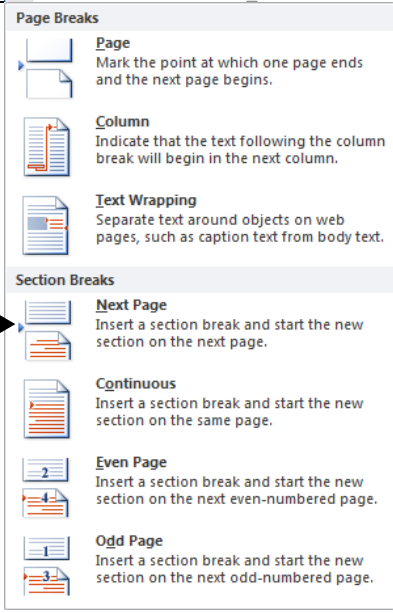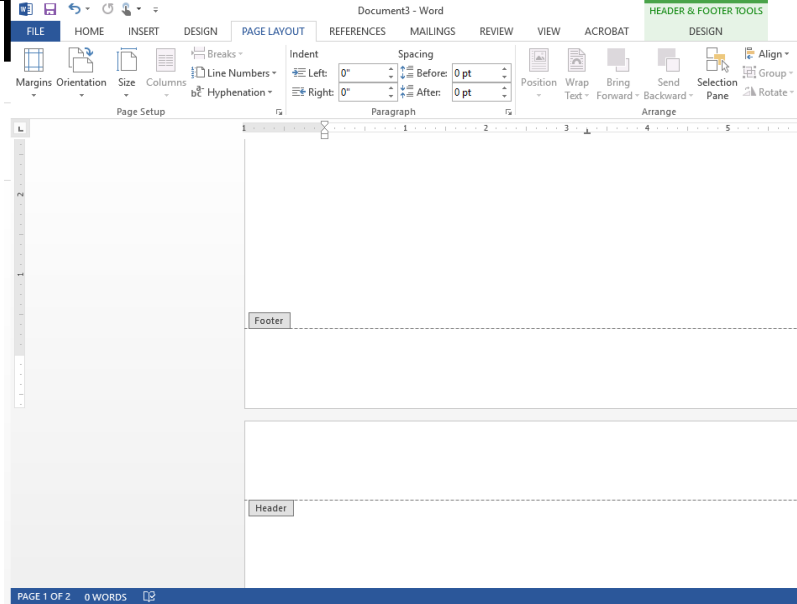
Table 47: Formatting Page Numbers
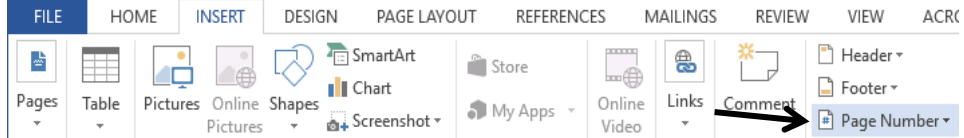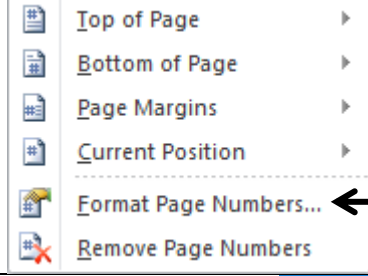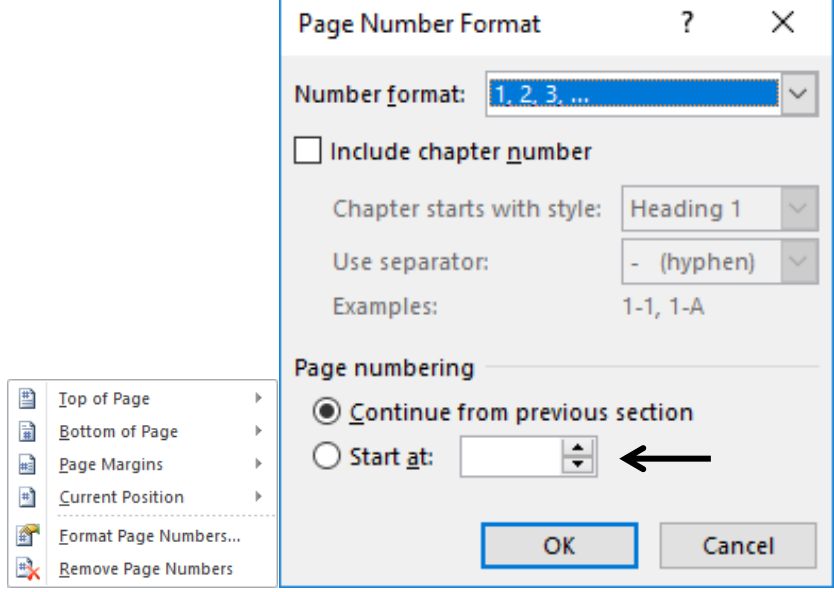
Step	Visual
Click *Insert* on the toolbar.	
Click *Page Number.*	
When you click on *Page Number,* you will see several options that will allow you to place the page number at various places on the page. You will want to select *Top of Page* unless your faculty member or the publication you are writing for has instructed otherwise.	CMOS recommends placing page numbers at the top of the page.

To change the numbers on the page from Arabic numerals to Roman numerals or vice versa, select *Format Page Numbers* from the dropdown menu.	**Top of Page** ▸ **Bottom of Page** ▸ **Page Margins** ▸ **Current Position** ▸ **Format Page Numbers...** ◄────── **Remove Page Numbers**	
This will bring you to the *Page Number Format* menu. Use the dropdown menu next to number format to choose the numbering system you wish to use throughout the document.	Page Number Format ? ✕ Number format: 1, 2, 3, ... ▾ ☐ Include chapter number Chapter starts with style: Heading 1 ▾ Use separator: - (hyphen) ▾ Examples: 1-1, 1-A Page numbering ◉ Continue from previous section ○ Start at: [ ] ▴▾ OK Cancel	

Take note that the pages in the front matter should be numbered with lowercase Roman numerals (i.e., i, ii, and iii) as opposed to Arabic numerals (i.e., 1, 2, and 3), which should be used in the main text. In order to use two sets of numbering in the same document, you will need to create a section break. Table 48 provides more information about creating section breaks to allow for two systems of numbering within the same document.
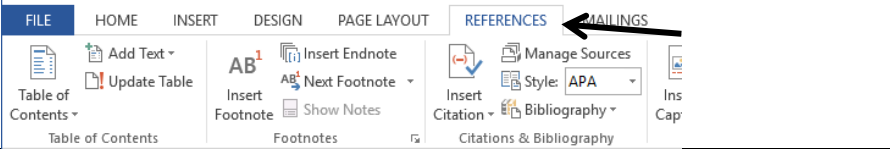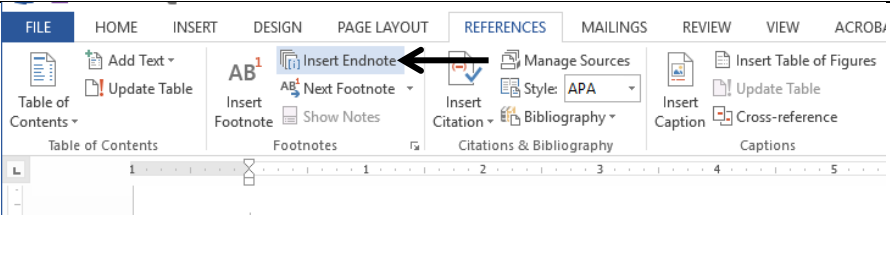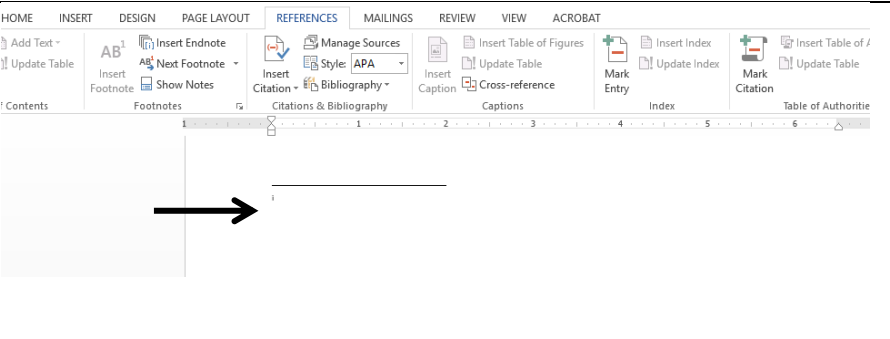
Table 48: Creating a Section Break to Allow for Two Sets of Numbering
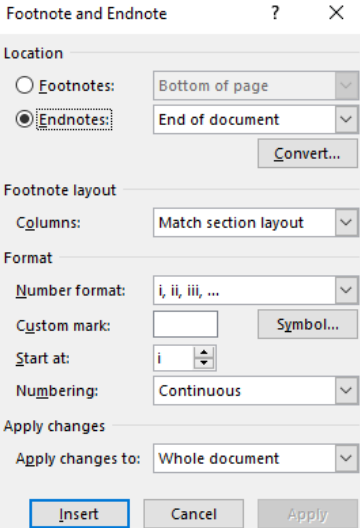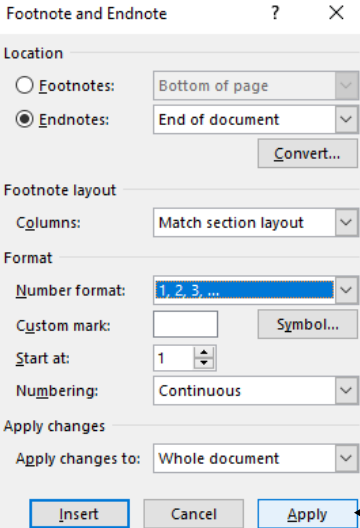
Step	Visual
Go to the last page of the front matter and click on *Page Layout* on the top toolbar.	
Click on *Breaks*, located in the second box on the top toolbar.	
From there, a box will drop down and you have many options. Click on *Next Page;* it is the first option under section breaks.	
Your cursor will automatically be placed at the header of the second page, although nothing will pop up.	

Click on *Page Number*, located in the first box on the top toolbar.	
Select *format page number*s from the drop-down menu	
In the page number format box, at the top is a drop menu titled *Page Number Format.* Click on the arrow, and a number of choices will be displayed. You can choose Arabic numerals or Roman numerals, depending on what your instructor or style guide format calls for. *Since you want to allow for two styles of numbering, make sure you select the *Start At* button under *Page Numbering* (since you **do not** want to continue with the same style of numbering from the previous section).	

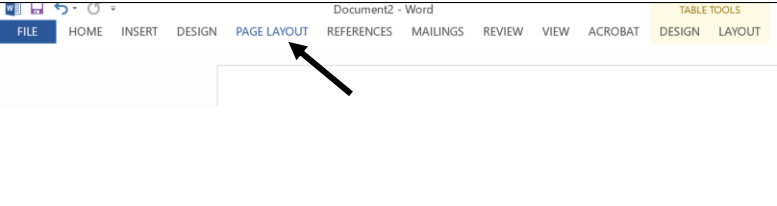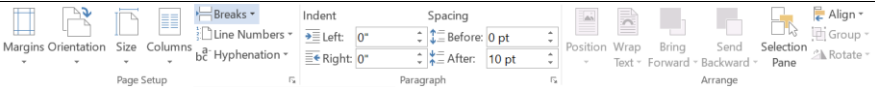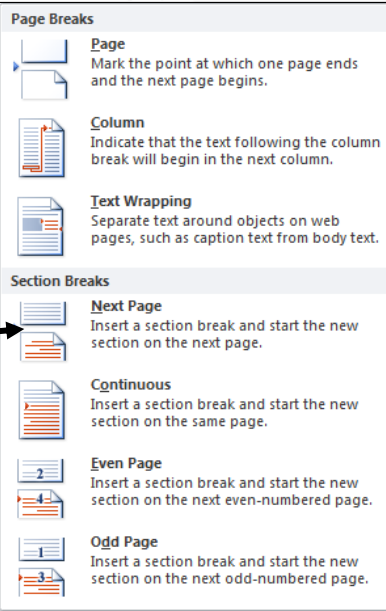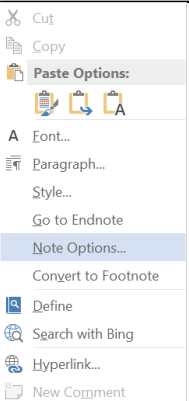Table 49 depicts information on how to use Microsoft Word tools to automatically insert an endnote into your paper.

Table 49: Generating Endnotes
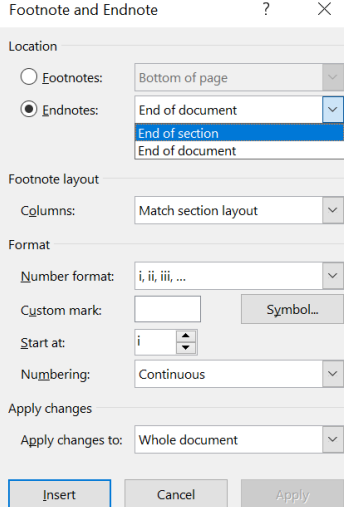
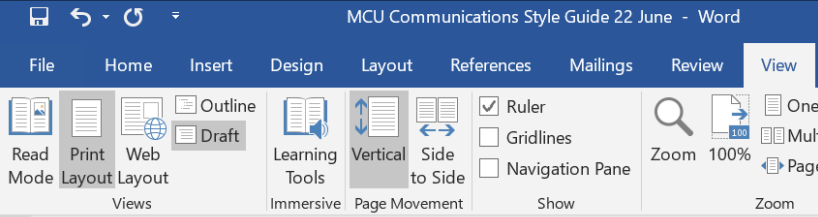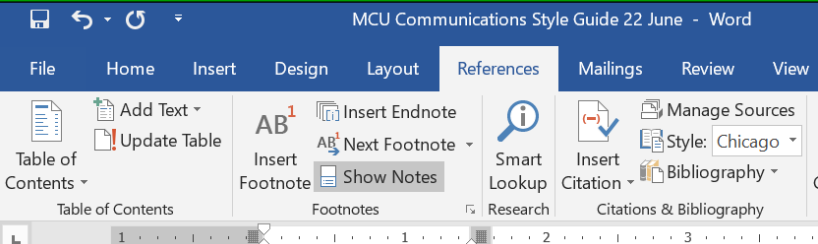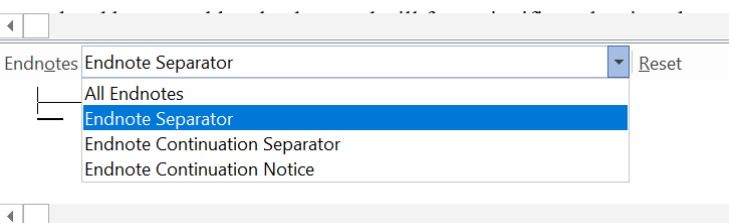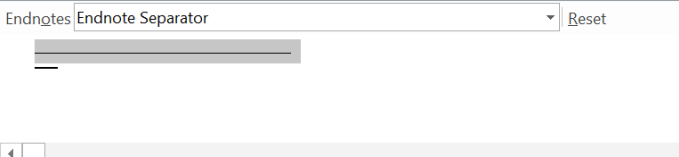| Step	Visual
Click on *References* on the top toolbar.	
Place your curser next to the quotation, paraphrase, or summary in your paper, and click.	**Document Setup and Microsoft Word Formatting** **Font** Though *The Chicago Manual of Style* does not make any specific recommendations regarding the type of font documents should use, as font may vary based on the type of document you are writing, it does acknowledge that Times New Roman is one of the only typefaces that has "all necessary characters." The academic assignments you produce at MCU will typically use Times New Roman, 12pt font unless otherwise specified. Be aware, however, that most of the papers you write using military formats (e.g. point papers, position papers, official correspondence) will use Courier New.
While you are at this particular point in your text, click on *Insert Endnote* on the dropdown list. If you have been instructed to use footnotes, you would click *Insert Footnote.*	
Microsoft Word will then take you to the end of your document, where you can fill in the publication information for the source you cited. See Chapter Nine for more information about properly formatting endnotes in CMOS.	
If your endnote appears as a Roman numeral and you have been instructed to use Arabic numerals, highlight and right click on one of your endnotes, and click *Note Options.*	

| Click on the drop box under *Number Format* and select *1, 2, 3* (unless instructed to use Roman numerals). | |
| Click the *Apply* button at the bottom right-corner of the menu. | |

Microsoft Word's default setting is to place the endnotes after the last segment of text. Therefore, you will want to create a section break in order to place the endnotes after the bibliography. Table 50 provides information on how to create this kind of section break.

Table 50: How to Create a Section Break between the Endnotes and the Bibliography

Step	Visual
Create your bibliography section if you have not already done so.	You will notice the endnotes still go at the end of the bibliography. The endnotes should precede the bibliography.
Make sure your cursor is just after the last element of your main text (e.g., conclusion of the essay), and click Page Layout.	
Click breaks.	
-Click next page.	
Right click on one of the endnotes, and click "Note Options."	

Within Note Options, click the drop-down menu next to "Endnotes:" and click "End of section" instead of "End of document." This will move your endnotes to the end of the section you just created between the end of your document and the bibliography.	
If you still have a line at the top of your bibliography page, switch to Draft View by clicking View.	
Next, go to References and click Show Notes.	
Click the dropdown at the top of the Endnotes pane in View mode. Select "Endnote Separator" to display the line.	
Use your cursor to select the line and backspace to delete the line.	

C.1.5   Section Headings

If you are writing a longer paper or report, you may want to include section headings. Headings can help your reader easily navigate the document. In terms of their content, headings should be clearly connected to the key words and concepts in your thesis. The headings and subheadings should carry the story line of your argument through the paper. As you design and format your headings, be sure to follow CMOS recommended practices for headings at different levels. Here are CMOS recommendations:

- ✓ Use parallel forms in writing your headings.
- ✓ Use up to three levels of hierarchy; more than this can confuse the reader.
- ✓ Use headline style capitalization for headings.
- ✓ In formatting headings and subheadings, be consistent in size, placement, bolding, and font.

Kate Turabian's *Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*, 8th ed*.,* a student version of the *Chicago Manual of Style* designed for those writing research papers, recommends the five levels of CMOS headings described below:[138]

- ✓ Level 1 Headings (such as your title) should be centered in bold-face.
- ✓ Level 2 Headings should be centered in regular type.
- ✓ Level 3 Headings should be flush left and in boldface or italics.
- ✓ Level 4 Headings should be flush left and in regular type.
- ✓ Level 5 Headings should run in at the beginning of a paragraph in boldface or italics.

Figure 35 provides a model of the different levels of headings.

<div style="border:1px solid black; padding:1em;">

<p align="center">Level 1 Title</p>

<p align="center">Level 2 Main Section</p>

Level 3 Section
[text begins below heading]

Level 4 Subsection
[text begins below heading]

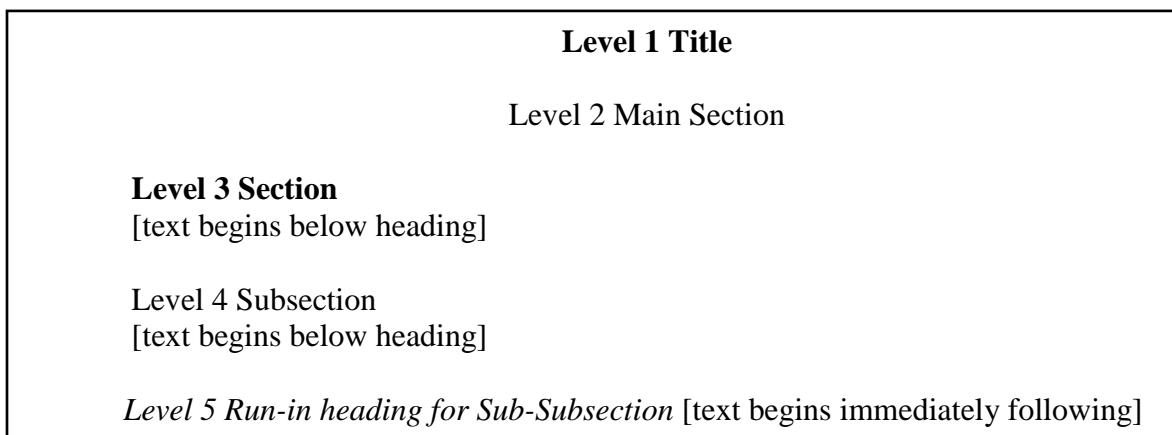*Level 5 Run-in heading for Sub-Subsection* [text begins immediately following]

</div>

Figure 35: Levels of Headings Example
Source: Adapted from Kate L. Turabian, *Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations,* 8th ed., quoted in "Chicago Manual of Style Headings," Purdue Online Writing Lab, last modified Feb. 16, 2018, https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/717/2/.

C.2   Using Visuals in Academic Writing

Visuals are an important component of both academic research papers and oral presentations. They help to emphasize or clarify specific points; demonstrate relationships between concepts, events, and people; and simplify complex information. The number and type of visuals you need for a paper or presentation depend on your audience and your purpose. The more technical the nature of your topic, the more visuals may be required. Visuals may engage your readers or audience members—particularly those who are more inclined to learn through visual means— and further emphasize your credibility. Two main types of visuals discussed in this section of the guide are figures and tables. Figures are images that are set off from the text to illustrate a point the author is making or provide a visual reference of a concept, process, map, or situation. Tables are lists of information presented in rows and columns.

Step One: In-Text Reference to the Visual

Prior to placing the figure or table in your paper, you need to name the figure in the text and let readers know where it will be located for easy reference. Examples of text references—see figure 1, refer to table 5—occur throughout this guide. Text references should appear before the figure or table in the text of the paper—according to the *Chicago Manual of Style,* 17th edition, "the image may precede the reference only if it appears on the same page or same two-page spread as the reference or if the text is too short to permit placing all figures and tables after their references."[139] When discussing the figure or table in the body of the paper, make the words *figure* and *table* lowercase unless used as the first word in a sentence.

Step Two: Visual Consistency and Clarity

When labeling and formatting visuals, it is best to ensure consistency within the table or figure itself and between tables and figures, as well as with the style of the text in the paper. For example, figure labels should be in Times New Roman font if the rest of the text is Times New Roman font, and if one figure label is bolded and centered, the other figure labels in the paper should be bolded and centered.

When using tables and other visuals or figures in a paper, number tables separately from figures. Give each its own number, and use Arabic numerals (e.g., Table 1, Figure 3). When listing visuals in the front matter, tables are listed separately from figures as well.

Further, it is important to make your visuals clear for readers who may be unfamiliar with the technical content or visualizations of your ideas. First, provide a title that clearly and concisely identifies the subject. Readers should be able to understand the information presented in the table, even if they are unfamiliar with your subject. Second, in regards to use of abbreviated language, the *Chicago Manual of Style* 17th edition states, "The meaning of any abbreviation taken from the text should be clear from the table alone in case the table is reproduced in another context, apart from the text."[140] Third, you can include totals in a table if they are useful to the paper or presentation. Use exact numbers/values, especially if a percentage equals more or less than 100 percent.

Step Three: Citing the Visual

If you borrow the figure, table, or data within your own created figure or table, you need to cite that information for readers. Rather than cite in an endnote per the guidelines in Chapter Nine of the Style Guide, the CMOS advises you to add a source citation directly below the table or figure. The word "source" is capitalized, italicized, and followed by a colon. If adding a note explaining the figure or table, this note would follow the source citation below the figure or table and start with the word "note" capitalized, italicized, and followed by a colon. You can think of this as a table footnote—the main differences are as follows:

1. The citation is placed directly below the figure or table.
2. The citation is not numbered as other endnotes are in a list.
3. The citation is preceded by the word "Source."

See figure 36 for an example.
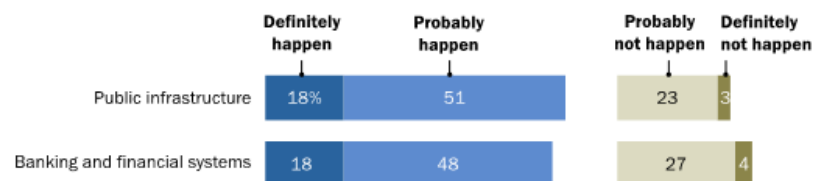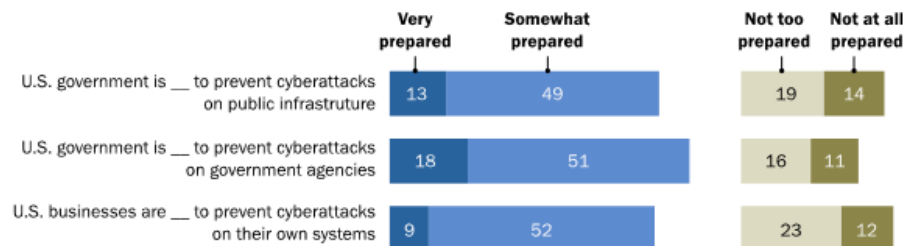
Figure 36: American Attitudes towards Cyber Threats
Source: Kenneth Olmstead and Aaron Smith, "Americans and Cybersecurity," *Pew Research Center*, January 26, 2017, http://www.pewinternet.org/2017/01/26/americans-and-cybersecurity/.

Note the placement of the label, consistent with the other figures in the Style Guide, and the source citation. The source information—author, title of the source, publication title, date, and URL are listed in much the same way as that of an endnote.

Below are two sample tables—one borrowed from an outside source, and one created from the author's original research and data collection.

Table 51: Using Data to Develop a Figure: Most Common Driving Violations in Union, VA, March-May 2014

Violation Type	Average Number of Drivers Cited Per Month
Speeding	111
Failing to obey a traffic sign	78
Reckless driving	42
Driving with expired tags	58

Source: Data received from City of Union Police Chief, Record of Driving Violations, June 1, 2015.

Table 52: Example of a Table: LCSC Recorded Visits Academic Year 2017-2018

Membership Category	Number of Visits to Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC)
Command and Staff College Students	2031
School of Advanced Warfighting Students	98
Marine Corps War College Students	88
Faculty, Fellows, and MCU staff	77
Total	**2294**

As shown, the table is labeled with a clear title and depicts specific and clearly labeled information to be of use in the paper or presentation. **Since the second table is not followed by a source line, it is assumed that this visual (and the research on which the table is based) was compiled by the author of the paper.**

APPENDIX D: ARTICLE SUBMISSION GUIDELINES FOR SELECTED MILITARY AND DEFENSE PERIODICALS AND ESSAY CONTESTS

Table 53: List of Selected Military and Defense Periodicals

Name of Periodical	Description
Air & Space Power Journal https://www.airuniversity.af.edu/ASPJ/Submit-An-Article/	This professional journal of the US Air Force publishes a range of articles regarding all issues of air and space power. Feature manuscripts are around 3,000 to 5,000 words, and commentary articles are shorter (1,500 to 2,500 words) and cover more timely subjects of interest to the military community.
Defense One https://www.defenseone.com/about/writers-guidelines/	*Defense One* is a widely read blog that accepts shorter submissions (800 words) for concise, well-argued commentaries examining topics that are currently trending or speculate on the future of US defense and national security.
The Diplomat https://thediplomat.com/write-for-us/	The *Diplomat* is a blog platform that publishes well-written and researched articles, usually from academics or practitioners giving "quality analysis and commentary" on domestic and security issues mostly in the Asia-Pacific region.
Joint Force Quarterly https://ndupress.ndu.edu/Submit-a-manuscript	This quarterly magazine is published by National Defense University and publishes longer manuscripts (2,500 to 5,500 words) that explore a range of national security issues.
Journal of Military History http://www.smh-hq.org/jmh/submissions.html	This quarterly journal publishes scholarly articles and book reviews covering military history (all regions) since 1937.
Military History Magazine https://www.historynet.com/contact-military-history-magazine	This magazine is a more popular and accessible publication highlighting a range of articles about key conflicts, military personnel, major battles, and book reviews.
Military Review Journal https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Military-Review/	The *Military Review Journal* "provides an established and well-regarded Army forum to stimulate original thought and debate on topics related to the art and science of land warfare."[141]
Naval History https://www.usni.org/naval-history-magazine/submission-guidelines	*Naval History* is a paid publication by the US Naval Institute and looks for well-written, professional manuscripts—about 3,000 words.
Naval War College Review https://usnwc.edu/Publications/Naval-War-College-Press/Policies-and-Submissions	The *Naval War College Review* is "a forum for discussion of public policy matters of interest to the maritime services."[142]
Parameters https://press.armywarcollege.edu/parameters/	*Parameters* is the Army War College's journal on the art and science of all issues related to military and national security affairs.
PRISM https://cco.ndu.edu/Publications/PRISM/PRISM-Submission-Requirements/	*PRISM* is a security studies journal published by National Defense University (NDU) and examines complex military and global security issues from the strategic to the tactical level.

Name of Periodical	Description
Proceedings https://www.usni.org/periodicals/proceedings-magazine/submission-guidelines	*Proceedings* is a journal from the US Naval Institute and accepts submissions for feature articles, leadership articles, and articles discussing Navy-specific issues. It also publishes short opinion pieces (500 to 650 words) for comment and discussion, and book reviews.
Royal United Services Institute Journal https://rusi.org/guidelines-contributors	The *RUSI* is a UK-based independent think tank that publishes timely commentary articles covering a wide range of national and global security conflicts and issues.
Seapower Magazine https://seapowermagazine.org/contact/	*Seapower* magazine is published by the Navy League of the United States. The magazine publishes a wide range of defense topics such as defense strategies, foreign policy, maritime issues, national security, and "defense research, development and procurement."[143]
Small Wars Journal https://smallwarsjournal.com/	*Small Wars Journal* is a widely read, popular online magazine that highlights timely and trending military issues focused on interstate conflict, insurgencies, and small/proxy wars. If a piece is accepted, it is usually not peer reviewed or edited prior to publication.
Strategic Studies Quarterly https://www.airuniversity.af.edu/SSQ/Submit-An-Article/	*SSQ* publishes articles on "strategic issues of current and continuing interest to the US Air Force, the larger US Defense community, and our international partners."[144] Articles range from 5,000 to 15,000 words, and commentary pieces range from 1,500 to 2,500 words.
The Strategy Bridge https://thestrategybridge.org/submission-criteria	The *Strategy Bridge* is an academically rigorous journal that focuses on developing contributions to the fields of strategy, national security, and military affairs. Publication submissions can include analytical and argumentative essays, reflections, book reviews, and even fictional works between 1,000 and 2,000 words.
War on the Rocks https://warontherocks.com/submissions/	*War on the Rocks* is a popular, widely read defense blog that acts as a "platform for analysis, commentary, debate and multimedia content on foreign policy and national security issues through a realist lens."[145]

Please use the website links in Table 54 for the most updated information on contest topics and deadlines.

Table 54: List of Selected Military and Academic Essay Contests

Name of Contest	Contest Information	Deadline (approx.)
Secretary of Defense National Security Essay Competition https://ndupress.ndu.edu/About/Essay-Competitions/Essay-Rules/#topics	**Guidelines:** Submissions should address any "aspect of US National Security strategy-addressing the coherent employment of diplomatic, informational, military, and economic instruments of power to achieve strategic ends."[146] (8,000 words) **Eligible:** Professional Military Education students **Why Submit?** Professional recognition; publication in *Joint Force Quarterly*	**March**
The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS) National Defense and Military Strategy Essay Competition https://ndupress.ndu.edu/About/Essay-Competitions/Essay-Rules/#topics	The CJCS competition has two categories: the strategic research essay and strategy article. **Strategic Research Essay Guidelines:** 5,000 words; in-depth research paper on general defense or military topic. **Strategy Article Guidelines:** maximum 1,500 words, should be a "scholarly but tightly focused research paper;"[147] regular course papers may lend themselves to this format **Eligible:** Professional Military Education students **Why Submit?** Professional recognition; publication in Joint Force Quarterly	**March**
CNO Naval History Essay Contest https://www.usni.org/essay-contests/cno-naval-history-essay-contest	**Guidelines:** change annually, essays should apply lessons learned throughout naval history to establish maritime superiority in the current national security environment; 3,000 words (excludes notes) **Eligible:** US Sea Service-wide active, reserves, retired, and civilians who work for US Sea Services **Why Submit?** 1st place: $5,000	**May**
Gen Robert E. Hogaboom Essay Contest https://mca-marines.org/blog/resource/writing-contests/	**Guidelines:** The contest honors the essay that is the most original in its approach to the various aspects of leadership (1,500 to 2,000 words). **Eligible:** All active, retired, and reserve military personnel; multiple entries permitted **Why Submit?** 1st place: $3,000 and plaque; 2nd place, $1,500 and plaque	**September to January**
The Inman Award Competition https://intelligencestudies.utexas.edu/inman-award	**Guidelines:** any well-researched topic related to national security and intelligence **Eligible:** undergraduate and graduate students enrolled at an accredited US higher education institution **Why Submit?** 1st place: $5,000	**June**
The Leatherneck Writing Contest https://mca-marines.org/writing-contests-awards/leatherneck-writing-contest/	**Guidelines:** Potential topics include the following: (1) Leadership – Describe an outstanding Marine Corps leader and what makes him or her so successful; (2) Current Events – Describe a recent event and the impact it had on the Marines involved; (3) History – Describe a little-known aspect of a battle or an individual Marine that others may not know about, i.e. "the rest of the story" (2,000 words). **Eligible:** Enlisted Marines **Why Submit?** 1st Place: $1,000 and an engraved plaque; 2nd Place: $750 and an engraved plaque; 3rd Place: $500 and an engraved plaque	**January - 31 March**

Name of Contest	Contest Information	Deadline (approx.)
LtCol Earl "Pete" Ellis Annual Essay Contest https://mca-marines.org/blog/resource/writing-contests/	**Guidelines:** Ellis is an annual contest focused on Innovation and Future War with a specific theme established each year (2,000 to 3,000 words). **Eligible:** civilian and military writers; multiple entries allowed **Why Submit**? 1st Place $2,500 and a plaque; 2nd Place $1,000 check and a plaque, Honorable Mentions $500 and a plaque each	**August - October**
LtGen Bernard E. "Mick" Trainor Military Writing Award https://mca-marines.org/blog/resource/writing-contests/	**Guidelines:** Propose an innovative solution to one of the warfighting challenges that the Marine Corps will face in the future operating environment (2,000 to 2,500 words) **Eligible:** civilian and military writers **Why Submit?** Winner receives $1,000 and plaque	**April – June**
MajGen Harold W. Chase Essay Contest https://mca-marines.org/resource/writing-contests/	**Guidelines:** Essays must challenge conventional Marine Corps "directive, policy, custom, or practice"[148] (1,500 to 2,000 words). **Eligible:** all active, retired, and reserve military personnel; multiple entries allowed **Why Submit?** Top three receive the Boldness & Daring Award; 1st place: $3,000 and plaque	**January – April**
Naval Intelligence Essay Contest https://www.usni.org/essay-contests/naval-intelligence-essay-contest	**Guidelines:** topics usually involve naval intelligence; 2,500 words (excludes notes) **Eligible:** active-duty military, reservists, veterans, and civilians **Why Submit?** 1st place: $5,000	**July**

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