THE MARINE CORPS UNIVERSITY

COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

10TH EDITION, REVISED

A PUBLICATION OF THE LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION SKILLS CENTER

THE MARINE CORPS UNIVERSITY COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

Revised Tenth Edition

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FOREWORD

Effective written and oral communication skills are essential in both professional military education and in 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 also upon return to your professional endeavors.

The revised 10th edition of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* establishes a consistent style of writing adapted from the *Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS). In the guide, you will find information regarding CMS 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 my commitment to leadership communication throughout Marine Corps University operations, and I am pleased to provide you with this excellent resource. Best wishes for a successful academic year.

Helen G. Pratt
Brigadier General, U.S. Marine Corps Reserve
President, Marine Corps University, November 2014 – August 2016

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*](#), 16th edition; the Joint Military Intelligence College's [*Research and Writing* style guides](#); [*Naval Correspondence Manual*](#) guidelines; and guidance from Marine Corps University faculty, students, and staff. 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 make the guide more approachable for its intended readership.

It is our hope that our students gain valuable insight about how to convey important messages that change the way we fight and win our nation's wars. We are honored to serve the finest men and women from all branches of the United States Military, Department of Defense, and all other government agencies and foreign militaries 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 effectively communicate your vision and goals. 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.

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 bullet background papers, to argumentative essays, to an academic research paper that presents the findings of a year-long research project. 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 Enlisted Professional Military Education (EPME) as well. Students attending EPME courses write short essays and professional papers that must present well-structured, supported arguments. A basic description of the Senior Enlisted Professional Military Education (SEPME) course reads as follows:

> This course is designed to equip Marines in the ranks of master sergeant through sergeant major with the critical thinking and adaptability skills necessary to function at the operational and strategic levels of war.[1]

As writing is an extension of critical thinking, the academic writing component present in the SEPME course 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."[2]

1.2   Taking Your Writing and Speaking beyond the Classroom

It is important to take your writing assignments seriously, as you may submit the academic papers you write for awards or for publication, giving you the chance to voice your opinions on some of the most difficult policy issues and strategic challenges that face our nation and world today.

It is also important that you broaden your understanding of the vital role that communication plays in leadership development. Current theories of leadership emphasize the ways in which leadership is constituted by language. It is a speaker's *languages*—spoken, written, and nonverbal—that work together to either create leaders and enhance their leadership or diminish leaders and devalue their leadership. The more that you understand about leadership

communication, the better prepared you will be to take action in professional contexts that demand leadership of you. In the online version of this guide you will find an entire chapter devoted to Leadership Communication.

1.3   Professional Military Communication

While the effective writing skills you obtain will ideally result in publication or an award, you will also apply these skills in professional contexts upon leaving the university. Communication skills are needed in the operating forces to write orders, deliver inspiring speeches, brief superiors, and send emails. 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 in order 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.

1.4   How to Use the Guide

The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* serves as a reference for both students attending the university and service members in the operating forces. The principles of writing described in this guide extend beyond academic writing; readers may apply them to military and professional writing contexts as well.

This edition of the *MCU Communications Style Guide* consists of three main sections: Part One, The Writing Process; Part Two, Research and Documentation; and Part Three, Grammar, Mechanics, and Style.

> **Part One: The Writing Process** presents writing as a series of stages you will progress through as you develop academic and professional papers of all lengths and for all purposes. At each stage of the process, you will employ particular writing strategies, some of which will be more effective for you than others.

> **Part Two: Research and Documentation** provides strategies for performing a literature review, narrowing a research topic, and incorporating research into your writing. It explains the *Chicago Manual of Style* citation and documentation process and provides endnote and bibliography formats for the most commonly cited source types.

> **Part Three: Grammar, Mechanics, and Style** explains proper use of punctuation, mechanics, and grammar and presents common conventions of academic writing. Readers may use this section to review or study basic rules of grammar and mechanics; in addition, Part Three may be of particular interest to those who need to quickly reference a grammatical principle while writing professionally in the operating forces or in garrison.

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.
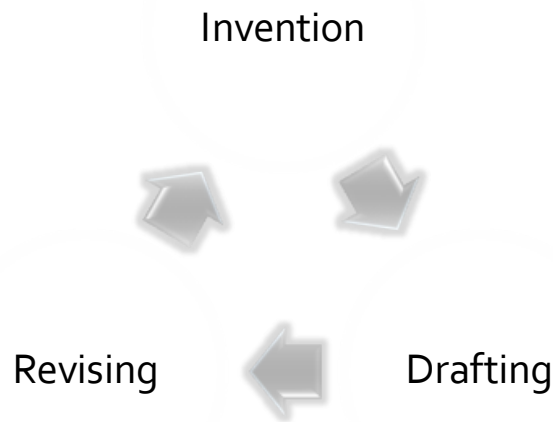
Figure 1: The Writing Process

It is no accident that writing is depicted as a recursive, cyclical process in figure 1. 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 begin to write, your ideas about your topic may begin to change; this may require you to change the focus of your paper and move to an earlier step of the writing process. For instance, your thesis 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, which is part of the revision process. At the same time, you will likely need to draft text to substantiate your new thesis, 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 instance, 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 thoroughly examine your topic 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 just a vehicle for expressing thought, but 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   Determining Purpose and Analyzing Your Audience

One of the first steps in the writing process is to determine your purpose for writing and who you are writing for. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the purpose of your writing and the audience you are writing for will often determine the length, scope, tone, and focus of your writing. Audience and purpose will influence the types of evidence and examples you use.

2.1.1   Planning Your Purpose

The easiest way to determine your purpose is to ask yourself what you want the audience to do as a result of your writing. You can then make your answer into a statement of purpose. For instance, you might write the following statement:

```
As a result of my writing, I want my audience to believe
the Biscari massacre was both preventable and predictable.
```

Your statement of purpose may be slightly different if you want to not only persuade your readers but also encourage them to adopt a particular course of action. An example of this occurs below.

```
As a result of my writing, I want to persuade my audience
to change the Marine Corps Professional Military Education
requirements in order to make the ethics and morality
component more rigorous.
```

Your purpose for writing influences the way you choose to present your information. Are you writing to inform or to persuade? Is it enough to include only the facts of a given situation, or do you need to include an opinion or suggestion for action as well? For example, if you are briefing a general on events that unfolded during an attack, you would concentrate on accurately and objectively portraying the events that took place.

However, if you are trying to persuade a general to adopt a particular course of action, you may need to take a more evaluative or analytical approach.

2.1.2   Analyzing Your Reader

While attending Marine Corps University, your instructor will most likely be your audience, known as your primary reader. This means you will begin a writing assignment by analyzing the guidelines your instructor provides. However, when you leave the university, you may need to spend more time thinking about your intended audience and its needs, interests, and biases. As you begin considering your readers, you may notice your purpose for writing is closely connected to your intended audience. The characteristics of your audience will often influence how you approach your topic and the stance you take on your topic. For instance, you would frame your argument differently when writing for a reader who agrees with your position than you would if writing for a hostile audience. 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. Below are a few questions that may help you to think critically about your audience.

1. If your audience is your professor, why has he or she assigned this topic? What might he or she expect you to do?
2. What viewpoints and experiences do your audience members bring with them?
3. Is your audience interested in the topic?
4. How much does your audience know about your topic?
5. How much background information does your audience require to understand your topic? Does your audience have prior biases?
6. What is the level of formality needed to communicate with your audience?
7. To what extent will the audience agree or disagree with your main point (thesis)?
8. How do you want your audience to react to your text?

These are all questions that 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.

For instance, perhaps you would choose to write about a new technology that you believe the Marine Corps should utilize in its counterterrorism operations. Who is your target audience? Will you focus on what the new technology will mean for the Marine Corps? Will you focus on how the new technology will impact the enemy's operational capacity? Will you focus on the new jobs it might bring to the Marine Corps? Each of these groups will have a different interest in the new technology, so you will need to tailor your paper to address the needs and interests of your target audience. Figure 2 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 2: Tailoring Writing to Needs of Intended Audience

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. My objectives in relation to my audience include:
2. My audience's values include:
3. Constraints I must recognize when addressing this
   particular audience include:
4. Special needs of this particular audience include:
5. I would rate my audience's knowledge of my topic and
   technical terminology to be:
   HIGH       LOW        MIXED       UNKNOWN
6. My assessment of the audience's willingness to accept the
   ideas I present is:
7. My audience's opinion of me as a communicator is:
8. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to
   persuade my reader include:
9. Examples of supporting ideas and arguments likely to cause
   a negative reaction include:
```

Source: Audience Analysis worksheet adapted from Jean H. Michulka, *Let's Talk Business,* 3rd ed. (Cincinatti, OH: South-Western Publishing Co., 1988).

2.1.3   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 you are attending the Expeditionary Warfare School or the Staff Non-Commissioned Officers Academy, this may mean you are communicating primarily with fellow 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 a variety of nations around the globe. It is important to remember that 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.

2.2 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.

2.2.1 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 writing prompt. In fact, graduate-level work may require you to answer multiple sub-questions, even if the prompt proposes only one question. On the following page are examples of the sub-questions you may need to address in order to fully answer a test question or essay prompt.

1. Is the Marine Corps Planning Process (MCPP) a useful tool for planners, or does it require revision?
   a. Is the MCPP 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?
   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: bullet 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.

2.2.2 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. You will need to summarize what others have said in order to show the reader where your ideas fit in the broader critical conversation about your topic. In other words, your paper will contain summaries of others' work, which you will then critique or use to support the argument you present. 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 in order to capture the essence of their arguments without necessarily quoting their ideas word for word—this approach will allow you more space to fully develop your supporting arguments.

Persuasive Essay: Persuasive 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. These 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.

Persuasive 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 the persuasive or arguable 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.

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 3.2.2.

> **Important Note: 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 arguable 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 thesis statement below.

> Writing and speaking are different in many ways.

This thesis is ineffective because it doesn't provide a rationale for the claim. How are writing and speaking different? What are the specific similarities and differences between these two types of communication? Why is this issue important? A more effective thesis statement for a compare and contrast paper might read as follows:

> Though both written and spoken communication call for a
> great deal of planning, writing requires a clearer and more
> direct expression of ideas.

Analytical Essay: The analytical essays you will write while a student at MCU will usually require you to examine an event or theory and break that event or theory into its component parts in order 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 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.

2.2.3 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 assignment, 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 effect 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.

2.3   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 much 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.

2.3.1   Mind Mapping

Mind mapping is a form of 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 determine the scope and focus of your paper. In figure 3 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 type 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 this "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 balance in the paper.
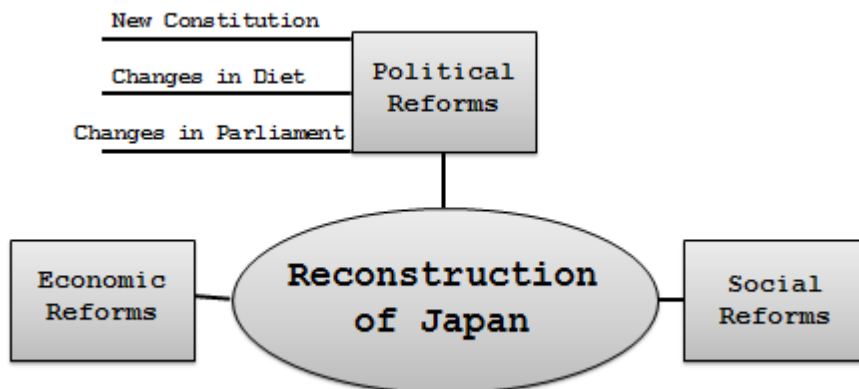
Figure 3: Reconstruction of Japan Mind Map Example

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 in the paper. Figure 4 presents an example of this process.
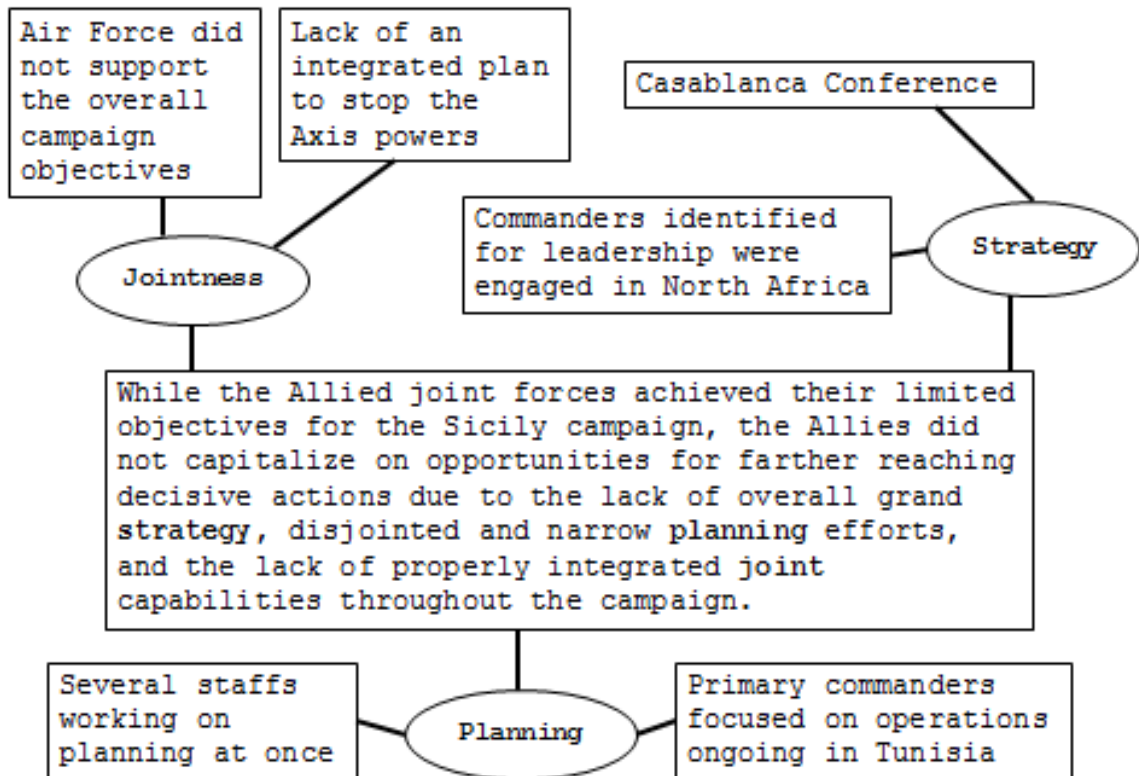
Figure 4: Sicily Campaign Mind Map Example

2.3.2   Traditional Outline

The mind maps pictured in figures 3 and 4 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 thesis. Outlining gives you the chance to read and evaluate the ideas you have already generated.

The strategies on the following page can help you order the main points of your outline.

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 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 5 and 6 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 overall grand strategy, disjointed
and narrow planning efforts, and the lack of properly
integrated joint capabilities throughout the campaign.

I.   Allies did not have 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. Disjointed, narrow planning efforts
    A.   Several staffs working on planning at once
    B.   Primary commanders focused on operations ongoing in
        Tunisia

III. Lack of 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 5: 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 6: Three-Level Traditional Outline Example

2.3.3   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 7](#) 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 7: 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 in the list above 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.

1. Look for trends and connections between listed elements.
2. Identify "outliers" (items that do not seem to have anything in common with the other listed elements).
3. Think about specificity: Do some of the items belong to a larger category? (In the list above, the thesis, purpose, and original thought might be "big picture" characteristics of good writing, while conciseness and proper grammar focus on surface-level elements.)
4. 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?

2.3.4 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 double bubble map in figure 8 may help you to think about similarities and differences between two events, systems, or theories.
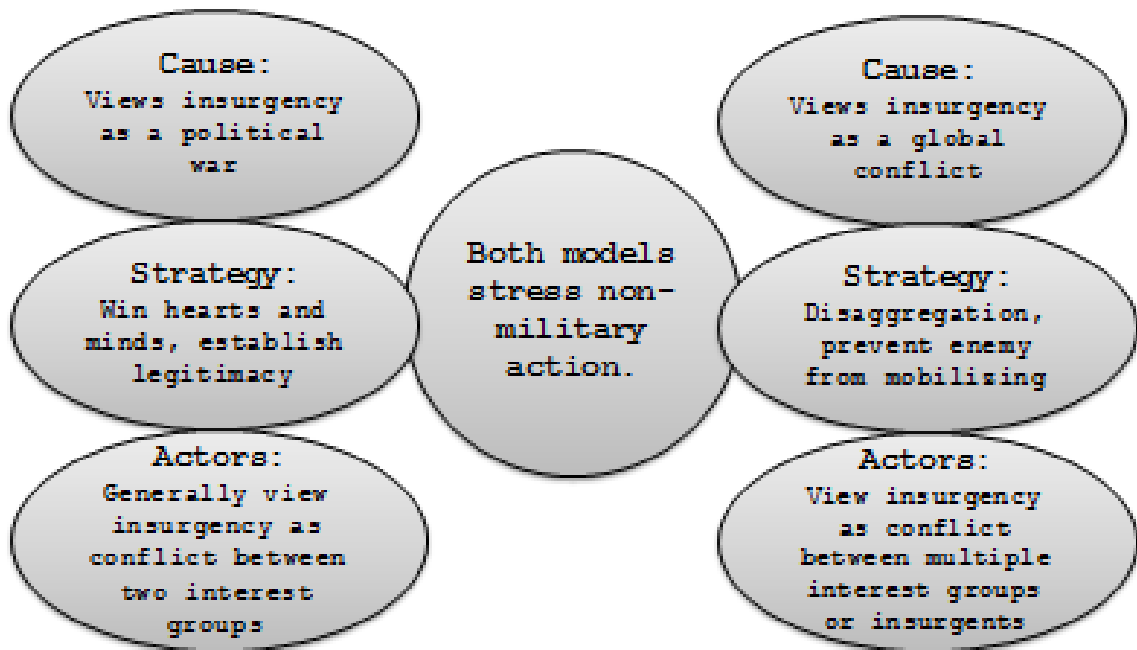
Figure 8: Double Bubble Map Example

2.3.5 Freewriting

Freewriting[3] is a strategy writers use to help them 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. If you can't think of a word or a spelling, just use a squiggle or else write "I can't think what to say, I can't think what to say" as many times as you want; or repeat the last word you wrote over and over again; or anything else. The only requirement is that you never stop.[4]

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.

Be aware your freewriting will likely not become a first draft. You will need to reorganize your ideas, and you will probably decide to completely discard parts of the writing. Therefore, it is important not to become too attached to any of the products you develop during your freewriting sessions. Below are a few tips you may want to consider before you attempt a freewriting session.

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.

2.3.6   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, tape recorder, 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.

2.3.7   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. An elevator speech is nothing more than a short statement that tells your reader specifically what your paper is about and what it will prove—something you would be able to communicate in the amount of time spent on a short elevator ride.

For instance, you might tell your faculty member you plan to write about "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 and what you wish to prove by writing it. A more concise and focused statement of purpose might be, "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 prove and what supporting factors you will consider. If you find it takes you several minutes to explain the purpose of your paper, or if you are struggling to remember the purpose of your writing, there is a good chance you may need to narrow your focus further before you begin writing.

2.3.8   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 system of technology 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 experience in order 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.

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, who you are writing for, 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. Likewise, 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**
3.2   **Parts of the Paper**

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. Give yourself enough time. While a rapidly approaching deadline does provide some motivation, it does very little to improve the quality of the writing produced. Writing is a process; it takes time and involves multiple steps. Giving yourself the time to put your draft aside for a day or two before revising will help you to spot mechanical or logical problems in your writing. In addition, the earlier you complete your draft, the more time you will have to seek a peer or faculty review.
2. Accept that the first draft will not be your final draft.
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 fresh eyes to revise. For more information on the revision process, see Chapter Four.

3.2   Parts of the Paper

Most academic papers contain three main parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. However, research-based papers might include front matter such as a table of contents, preface, and acknowledgements; and 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.

3.2.1 The Introduction

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

Presenting Context: The context of the introduction presents the problem or phenomenon you will discuss in the paper and provides 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.

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 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 10 presents an

example of an introduction written by a student during the 2015-2016 academic year for the assignment prompt displayed in figure 9.

```
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 their 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 9: 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.  Whilst there was a diminished appetite amongst
nations for war, a number of influential military officers
demonstrated the doggedness, foresight, and willingness to
champion ground breaking 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 Willisom 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 10: Sample Student Introductory Paragraph for Innovation Essay

On the following page are common pitfalls to avoid when drafting your introduction.

1. **Vague terms:** Vague terms include undefined acronyms, abstract ideas and concepts, and subjective expressions.
2. **Broad, sweeping statements:** These types of statements include trite, overused expressions and overgeneralizations, such as "from the beginning of time."
3. **Including information that is too specific:** If you want to investigate how George Washington shaped the Continental Army, you do not need to begin providing specific examples of his leadership style in the introduction. Save these specific details for the body of the paper.
4. **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 11 is an example of an introduction that demonstrates some of these pitfalls.

```
Following the end of the Cold War, there has been global
interest in the Asia-Pacific region and its stability.
With numerous independent nation states, actors, and key
SLOCs, many nations throughout the world have become
concerned with the security in the region.  In 1994, ASEAN
developed the ARF to address rising security concerns
within the region.  In order to improve and maintain
security in the region, the ARF can help foster a secure
environment in the region by sustaining its legitimacy,
balancing China's power projections, and investing in
preventative diplomacy.
```

Figure 11: Sample Student Introduction Showcasing Pitfalls

Although the student has a fairly clear thesis, he or she needs to provide more contextual information prior to presenting the thesis statement. Readers may be left wondering how the ARF will specifically address rising security concerns within the region. They may question why the security in the region needs to be improved. In addition, a key issue lies in the use of undefined acronyms. Unfamiliar readers may need to see acronyms like SLOC spelled out upon first use (e.g., Sea Lines of Communication). In figure 12, you will find an example of a more fully developed introduction.

As two countries steadily gaining prominence on the international stage, China and India share similar interests and challenges, as well as a border. However, conflict has marked the Sino-Indian relationship since a brief war in 1962. Contemporary points of contention include the ongoing border rivalry, India's support for Tibet, China's support of India's main adversary (Pakistan), India's growing relationships with some of China's biggest global competitors (The United States and Japan), and control of sea lines of communication between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea. In recent years, these issues have spilled over into cyberspace, with China assuming an aggressive posture against India, primarily through espionage. Cyberattacks have exploited both state and industry targets in order to extract information that might better apprise China of India's strategic intentions. This development is a reflection of China's incorporation of cyberspace as an important domain in its national security strategy and, more specifically, its acceptance of cyber espionage as a cost-effective means of intelligence gathering. **The primary reasons for China targeting India in cyberspace are long standing and nascent inter-state issues, as well as Beijing's perception of strategic encirclement by Delhi and its partners. The international community can expect this cyber conflict to continue its growth as India further asserts itself in an attempt to increase legitimacy in the 21st century, and nations must develop assertive response policies in order to disincentivize China's actions in the cyber domain.**

Figure 12: Effective Sample Student Introduction

This introduction 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, why it is important, and how it will be supported with evidence in the body of the paper.

3.2.2 The Thesis Statement

Most academic papers contain a thesis statement in 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.
1. The thesis should **take a stand**.
2. The thesis should **give the reader a sense of how the argument will be supported**.
3. The thesis should **answer the questions *what*, *how*, and *why*.**
4. The thesis should **use clear language and avoid abstract terminology.**

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 Ernest Hemingway's famous novel *A Farewell to Arms.*

Questions readers may have include the following: What aspects of the novel will be evaluated? What is the main point the author wants to make about the text? A revised thesis is presented below.

> **Revised Thesis:** Though *A Farewell to Arms* paints an accurate picture of World War I, Hemingway's portrayal of Catherine Barkley is more archetypal than realistic.

This thesis acknowledges the specific strengths and weaknesses the author will discuss in the body of the paper. 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 doesn't 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 unclear example.

> **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).

3.2.3   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.

3.2.4   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 13.

```
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 13: 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 14 presents an example of how you might use a mind map to diagram your thesis and supporting points.
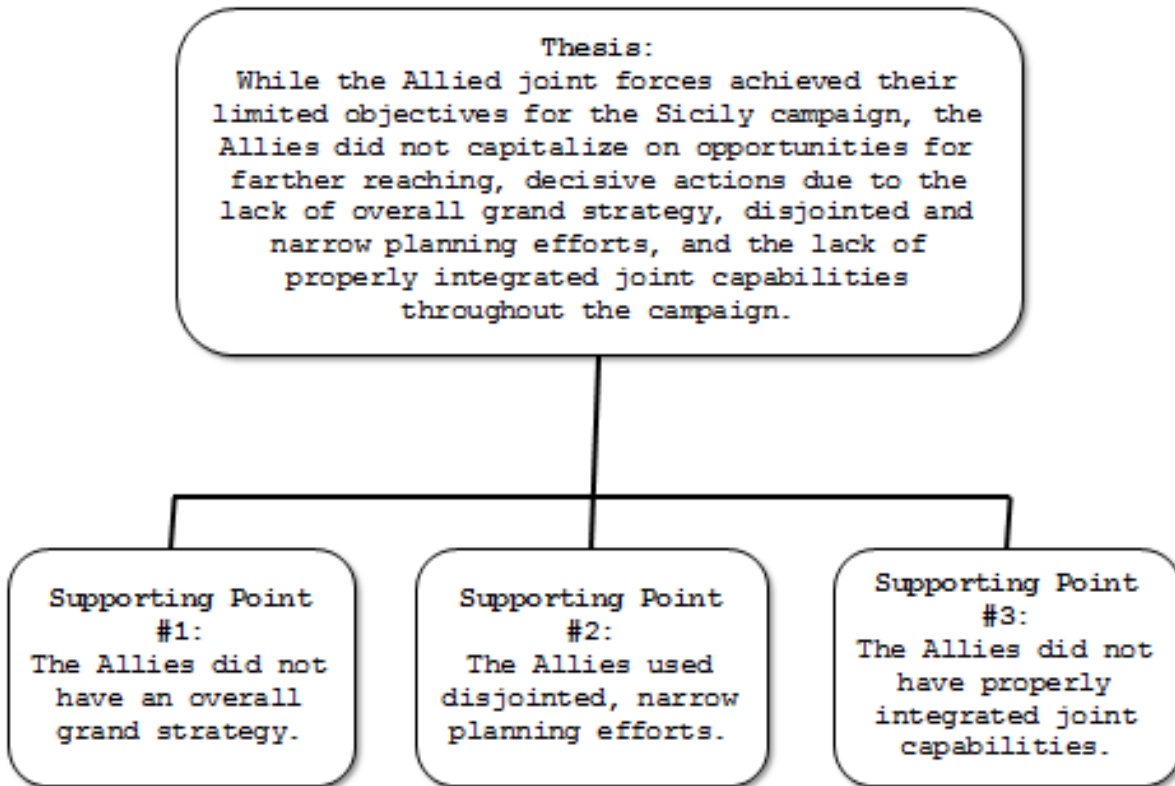
Figure 14: Mind Map of Thesis and Supporting Points

These main supporting points might then form the topic sentences for the paper's supporting paragraphs. The revised topic sentences could read as follows:

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

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.

3.2.5 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. A paragraph will often begin with a topic sentence that provides the reader with a sense of the main idea or point the paragraph will cover. The supporting sentences then provide evidence to substantiate that topic sentence. The paragraph may then conclude with a "clincher" sentence that explains the significance of the main point and connects the ideas in the paragraph to the next body paragraph.

Below are the three main components of body paragraphs.

1. **Topic sentence:** Presents the central claim the paragraph will address (think of this as the "thesis" of the paragraph). The topic sentence will likely include a transition back to the ideas presented in the previous paragraph.
2. **Supporting evidence:** Presents specific evidence to demonstrate the claim presented in the topic sentence.
3. **Clincher/transition sentence:** Reinforces the paragraph's main idea, explains its significance, and/or connects the main idea to the next body paragraph.

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

```
     Topic sentence (introduces main idea/connects to thesis).
Supporting sentences (provide evidence and support for
paragraph's main idea) xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx. Clincher sentence (sums up idea and
transitions to next point).
```

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

```
[Topic sentence] The problem with implementing a military
solution in Syria is that…. [Supporting point #1] Theorist Y
furthers this point in his article "name of article" in which he
indicates…. [Supporting point #2] General Z has observed these
issues on the ground in Syria and has reported that…. [Clincher
sentence] Therefore, the US response to the Syrian Civil War must
consider…
```

Figures 15 and 16 offer two examples of how these main components of a paragraph (topic sentence, supporting points, and clincher sentences/transitions) might look in fully developed paragraphs.

[**Topic sentence/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 US official 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] 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] [**Clincher sentence/transition**] Finally, with the dissolution of the Soviet Bloc in 1991 marking the end of the Cold War, Wilsonian idealism succeeded into a new, different world.[6]

Figure 15: Sample Fully Developed Paragraph on Wilsonian Idealism

[**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 forces that drove the American Revolutionary War were in play in 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 both the people in the North and South identified strongly with the goals of the Union and the Confederacy, respectively.[1] This allowed 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. [**Clincher sentence**] 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 two million and 900,000 troops respectively, with the majority of them volunteers.

Figure 16: Sample Fully Developed Paragraph on the Civil War

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3.2.6   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 word or phrase serves your purpose. Table 5 shows a list of common transitional words and phrases you can use in your writing and speaking projects.

Table 5: Transition Examples

To show cause and effect	Therefore, so, thus, hence, as a result, consequently, accordingly
To compare	Likewise, similarly, in the same way, in comparison, compared to
To contrast	However, in contrast, conversely, although, on the contrary, on the other hand (preceded by on one hand), yet, nevertheless
To add to an argument	In addition, furthermore, moreover, further, also, so too
To give an example	For example, for instance, specifically, consider
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* (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2007), 174-175.

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.

```
                Smith argues…
             According to Smith…
               Smith states…
    Smith describes the process as follows…
              In Smith's view…
           From Smith's perspective…
             As relayed by Smith…
```

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.[5] 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.[6] 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 paragraph above—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 direct to operational commands, **thereby** increasing his influence in military affairs and effectively appointing him the field commander of Prussian armies.[7] 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.[8] **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.[9] Mao successfully achieved his goal, and when the nationalists had 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.

3.2.7 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 respect for opposing viewpoints and systematically debunking opposing claims.

Using Counterarguments. 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 address the counterargument 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.

How to Brainstorm a Counterargument. Consider who might oppose the viewpoint you represent. Why would someone oppose your argument?

1. Does the problem stem from a difference in understanding of terms?
2. Is your opponent basing his or her conclusions on different premises (supporting pieces of evidence)?
3. Are you drawing different conclusions from the same premises (the same pieces of evidence)?
4. Is your opponent's point of view a result of competing political, economic, or social interests?

In your counterargument, you might discuss the following:

1. Facts your opponent has not considered
2. Faulty or incorrect information your opponent has presented
3. Logical problems that have led your opponent to draw a different conclusion from the same premises
4. The actual relevance of the counterargument to your thesis

Below, you will find components of the structure of a counterargument.

1. States and explains the opposing point of view
2. Addresses why you disagree with your opponent's point of view
3. Provides evidence that refutes the counterargument

Redacted Counterargument Paragraph Template

```
While X argues the solution to curtailing civil war in Syria…
[States opposing point of view], he fails to consider Y. [Debunks
argument] By focusing on problem Z instead of problem Y, theorist
X….This is dangerous because…. [Further criticism of
counterargument] Instead of doing Z, the United States should…in
order to…. [Transitions back to argument]
```

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 placed after the introduction but before the first supporting paragraph. This 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 may be particularly useful when dealing with an audience that might be hostile towards your point of view.
2. The counterargument may be part of the introduction and may even serve as part of your context.
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 works well with a reader who is sympathetic to your point of view.

3.2.7   The Conclusion

After reading the introduction and body of your paper, your reader should fully understand your argument and all of its supporting components. The purpose of the conclusion is then to revisit this argument from an enlightened point of view. The conclusion gives you the chance to make connections between the main points you have presented throughout the paper and to draw broader implications. The conclusion may include a call to action, or it may present an issue that is worthy of further study. The conclusion should serve the following purposes:

1. Provide the "so what" factor or discuss implications
2. Give the reader a sense of closure
3. Synthesize 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 exact 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, if you restate the information you present in the introduction, you 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.

Figures 17 and 18 demonstrate two sample introductions and conclusions.

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. 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 threat 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 quite 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 17: 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 18 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. Rather, it has endured as the foremost influence on US foreign policy that shows no signs of disappearing anytime soon.

Figure 18: 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.

This chapter addressed the main components of an academic essay. However, it is important to remember that writing is a multiple-step process—it is unlikely your first draft will be your final draft. Most successful writing involves not only invention and drafting but also a rigorous revision process. Chapter Four provides strategies for revising your draft to make it a polished final product.

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. The chapter is divided into the following sections:

4.1   **Overview of the Revision Process**
4.2   **Global-Level Revisions**
4.3   **Surface-Level Revisions**
4.4   **Ordering of Elements in a Research Paper**

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

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.

1. Review your assignment question, concentrating on some of the key words (See Chapter Two for more information about identifying key words).
    a. Does your draft address your specific assignment prompt?
    b. If your writing task is not necessarily academic (e.g., professional military writing), does it fulfill all of the requirements of the project?
    c. 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. Now think about your target audience.
    a. 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?
    b. Does the draft contain information that distracts readers from the central purpose and focus of the paper? For more information about determining the needs of your audience, refer to Chapter Two.

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, therefore, 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. Below are two items you will want to consider when you evaluate your central argument.

1. Does your paper contain an arguable thesis statement or statement of purpose that accurately captures your perspective on the topic?
2. Is the argument sustained throughout the paper?

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

4.2.3   Evaluating Supporting Evidence and Logic

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

1. Evidence (in the form of specific examples and citations) is provided to support your central argument.
2. Claims are supported by primary and secondary sources, not just your own opinion and personal experience.
3. The conclusions you have drawn from your research are logical.
4. The evidence you present will be convincing to your target audience.
5. Counterarguments are acknowledged and addressed.
6. The paper has clear connections between premises (evidence and examples) and conclusions (arguments and evaluation of the premises).

When evaluating your supporting evidence and logic, you will need to consider your use of primary and secondary source material. For a definition of primary and secondary sources, see Chapter Five, sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2. Though you will want to use outside sources to provide support for the claims you make throughout the paper, most of your document should be comprised of original thought. As a general rule, if 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. However, if you have not provided sufficient information and citations to verify the claims in your paper, you may need to add evidentiary support (in the form of primary and secondary sources) to substantiate your claims. The following list provides some issues to consider as you evaluate your use of sources.

1. Your claims are backed by supporting information from primary and secondary sources.
2. The paper presents original thoughts (e.g., it is not merely a compilation of information from other sources).
3. The reader can easily differentiate between your discussion of others' ideas and findings and your interpretation of those ideas.
4. The paper uses a variety of credible sources (e.g., both primary and secondary sources, and not all sources that are written by the same author or organization).

4.2.4   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 list below provides some issues to consider as you double-check your citations.

1. An endnote follows all paraphrased and summarized information.
2. All run-in direct quotes are placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote.

3. All block quotes are indented five spaces (tabbed right), single spaced, and followed by an endnote.
4. 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.
5. 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").
6. The paper includes a bibliography, which is an alphabetized list of all the sources that are cited in the paper (see Chapter Nine for more information on how to compile and format bibliographic entries).

If you are using Microsoft Word 2007 or a newer form of the Office tool (e.g., MS Word 2016), you will find a resource on the toolbar that will help you to format citations and bibliography entries in APA, MLA, and CMS citation styles. However, the citations that these tools generate often contain some 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 publication information with the citation 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 B. For information about the format of *Chicago Manual of Style* citations, see Chapter Nine.

4.2.5   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.

1. The introduction provides enough information for the reader to understand the argument that will be discussed in the body of the paper.
2. The thesis statement appears in the paper's introduction.
3. Each body paragraph supports the thesis in some way.
4. Paragraphs are arranged in a logical order; paragraphs build upon one another.
5. The paper includes transitions that provide readers with a sense of direction and carry readers from one idea to the next.
6. Connections among paragraphs are clear.
7. Connections between sentences within paragraphs are clear.
8. The conclusion draws broader implications from the information and arguments that are presented in the body, rather than simply summarizing the main points.
9. The conclusion is free from new information and/or evidence. For more information on how to properly structure and organize an academic paper, consult Chapter Three.

4.3   Surface-Level Revisions

Once you have made the global-level revisions needed to improve the paper, it is time to begin revising the document for surface-level issues. Before you begin this process, you may want to print out your paper, as it is often easier to spot errors on a hard copy than it is to spot them on a computer screen. Below are some strategies you can use to revise your paper and improve tone, diction, and word choice.

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 the paper.

4.3.2   Diction

While many people use the word *diction* to refer to pronunciation, this word frequently refers to the type of lexical choices that are made in a document. When evaluating your diction, you need to question whether the vocabulary used in your paper suits your intended purpose and audience. For example, the vocabulary used when writing to a friend is much different from the type of vocabulary used in a formal research paper. 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.
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*).
   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.
   a. 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, even in Western societies, 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/nationalities.)

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 jargon is understood by the people within that specific group, it is often meaningless and confusing to outsiders. Avoid using jargon when writing for or speaking to people outside of your group. Use jargon sparingly when 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, if 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 Verbosity

Verbose writing uses too many words to get a point across. 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 examples of ways to make 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. (25 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) can tend to make your sentences wordy and less active. If possible, try to replace these verbs with active verbs (argues, establishes, proves).
    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 19 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 19: Sample Paragraph with Repetitive Sentence Structures

A revised paragraph with varied sentence structures is shown in figure 20.

```
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 20: 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. Therefore, you need to have the skills to identify and correct errors without relying on your word processor. Chapter Ten provides in-depth information regarding correct grammar and punctuation usage, as well as strategies for correcting common errors. Below are some additional 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, and use the slit to read each page of text line by line.
3. Read the document out loud and pronounce each word 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 send your paper to your respective school's writing center for feedback.

4.4 Ordering of Elements in a Research Paper

Some of your shorter assignments probably will need to include only a title page, main text, endnotes, and a bibliography. However, when writing a longer research paper, you may need to include additional elements, such as a table of contents, preface, and appendix. Below is a description of the elements 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*, 16th edition.

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 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.

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 document in full (e.g., a general or SES) but who needs to understand the information presented in the document, making precision and accuracy of information essential. If you are summarizing an academic work—as you will likely need to do 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 21 is an example of an executive summary.

```
                          Executive Summary

Title: A Future New Zealand Government Response to a Military Coup in the
South Pacific.

Author: CSC Student AY2013-2014

Thesis: The New Zealand government's response to a future military coup in
the South Pacific should prioritize constructive engagement over sanctions
and isolation in order to retain influence and achieve national
objectives.

Discussion: The New Zealand government's response to military coups in the
Republic of Fiji in 1987 and 2006 has generally consisted of a combination
of economic sanctions, the cessation of military engagement, and the
imposing of travel bans to selected Fijian nationals who were involved
with or related to coup leaders.  New Zealand's response has generally
been aligned with Australia.  Together, these two countries have fought to
remove the Fijian military leadership's influence from regional
associations such as the Pacific Island Forum.  The aim of the New Zealand
government response has been to bring democracy back to Fiji swiftly;
however, since 2006 its ability to influence the military regime in Fiji
has diminished significantly.  Since the 2006 coup, the Fijian military
has sought to reduce the impact of the New Zealand government's response
by seeking economic support and military engagement with China as part of
a 'look north policy' that can trace its origins back to former Prime
Minister Rabuka.  Fiji has also established alternate means of regional
engagement through the Melanesian Spearhead Group, an organization New
Zealand does not belong to.  As Fiji heads toward democratic elections in
2014, New Zealand must prepare itself to handle future military coups in
the South Pacific, taking into account the rise of China or any other
potentially unwelcome influence.

Conclusion: The New Zealand government has displayed flexibility when
developing foreign policy in response to military coups globally,
employing a combination of smart sanctions and constructive engagement
that attempt to further New Zealand's national interests and the interests
of the citizens of the affected state.  Sanctions and isolation from
regional alliances are not an effective long-term strategy when responding
to military coups because other actors are able to fill the economic,
military, or diplomatic gaps left by New Zealand's disengagement.
Constructive engagement with a military regime post-coup should be pursued
as the initial response by the New Zealand government, as it can provide
an opportunity to identify shared national and regional interests, which
may provide a starting point to commence rebuilding the democratic process
of the affected state.  If domestic political pressure requires a
sanctions and isolation response, then New Zealand should strive to
maintain dialogue with the military regime through other avenues.
Multilateral forums can provide an alternative avenue for constructive
engagement, while still allowing New Zealand to apply a principled
approach to diplomacy through bilateral action.
```

Figure 21: Sample Executive Summary

Abstract: Though the longer papers you write at the 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 8.3.6 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.

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."[10] 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. 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*, 16th edition includes a list of abbreviations as a part of the front 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 information 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 (i.e., 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; 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. Endnotes should be one type size smaller than the font size used in the main text. 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 B 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 B for more information about how to create section breaks.

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
```

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 can be thoroughly investigated and written about within the time and page constraints of your assignment. 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, and 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

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, by searching online—to inform your decision. When you need to know whether a particular food has health benefits or health dangers, you conduct research to find the answer. This chapter provides strategies for beginning your research 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 can be 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.

The research process is both cyclical and recursive, as figure 22 illustrates.

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

Research begins with a problem or an unanswered question in the researcher's mind.

Research is a cyclical process.

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

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

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

Research subdivides the problem into appropriate sub-problems.

Figure 22: 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.

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 subtopics 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.

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 in the field. Is there anything you would do to change your organization's technology, strategy, or training? Were there any specific problems or issues you encountered that you would like to find solutions for? Often, the most fulfilling research projects are those that have relevant real-world applications.

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

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 about 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.

5.2.1 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 or surveys.

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?

5.2.2 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. This means 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, they 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 6.2.

When building an argument, it is especially important to use secondary sources as a foundation. For instance, if you are writing a paper that proposes a new operational culture perspective for AFRICOM, you need to briefly discuss some of the main operational culture perspectives that already exist. You may want to synthesize what you view as the strengths of these multiple perspectives in order to create your own model. Then you will use primary sources—reports from the field and interviews with African culture experts, for example—to show why your model would be effective. Figure 23 offers examples of primary and secondary source research.

Primary Source Research
- Walking the battlefields at Gettysburg
- Reading after action reports written by a commander who just returned from Iraq
- Interviewing people who experienced Hurricane Katrina
- Reading original correspondence George Washington wrote from Valley Forge

Secondary Source Research
- Reading about the terrain of the Gettysburg battlefields
- Reading a book about Iraqi culture
- Reading a summary of the National Security Strategy
- Reading about Hurricane Katrina in a history book
- Reading a biography of George Washington that describes his time at Valley Forge

Figure 23: 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.

5.3   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 find information and perspectives that enrich your research and help you to further your own arguments. This typically requires that you interact with the text at least three times.

1. Skim the text or preview the material at first.
2. Next, 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 you can draw on as you write. Using active reading strategies helps you avoid having to go back to relearn concepts you have previously read about.

5.3.1   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 text book, what are some of the questions the authors ask 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.

5.3.2   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 a new 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.

5.3.3   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, or 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 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 of the DIME principle (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.

5.3.4   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 24 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 800 km stretch of territory from Lake Ladoga north to the Arctic Ocean "was quite impenetrable except for a handful of unpaved roads."[3] |

Implications or 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 Winter War of 1939-1940*, 123.
2. Trotter, 6-10.
3. Trotter, 6-7.
4. Trotter, 35.

Figure 24: 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 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.

5.3.5 Analyzing

When you analyze a text, you are "breaking it down into its parts to find out how these parts relate to one another."[11] 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 type 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?

5.3.6   Responding

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

Though responding generally refers to the act of writing down your initial impressions of a text, you may 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 type 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 material you have read?
    How does it relate to other research you have conducted?
  c.What are the main issues for future consideration that the text
    raises?
```

5.3.7   Journaling: Keeping a Three-Column Journal

Another strategy you may want to use when reading critically is to keep a three-column
journal. 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. Here 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 in a course reading or in a research
project. 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

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 "socialized medicine"—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.

```
Why was the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in
Malaya more effective than the French military's
counterinsurgency strategy?
```

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

```
1. In what ways is the current fight against ISIS/IS/Daesh effective?
   In what ways is it ineffective?
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. Below 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 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; this will help you avoid making hasty, unfounded conclusions. When conducting a literature review, ask yourself the following questions:

1. What is known about the topic?
2. Is there a chronology attached to the topic?
3. Are there any gaps in knowledge 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 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

Some in-depth research papers (e.g., MMS, Future War, and IRP papers) may require a formal written literature review. A literature review is a synthesized discussion of other authors' work within a particular subject area that offers a detailed context to help the reader situate and understand the writer's investigation. The literature review may be restricted to a particular timeframe and should have a specific focus. 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

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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 type and length of the paper you are writing. Below are 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."[12] 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.[13]

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.[14] According
to B.F. Skinner, a prominent behaviorist, "Behavior is shaped and
maintained by its consequences;"[15] 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;[16] 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.[17] Kaufman and Drown have further the concept of malevolent creativity in order to shed light on how societies might counter or disrupt terrorist organizations.[18] 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 thesis. 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.[19] 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.[20] 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).[21] 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.[22] 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.[23] *The Art of War* uses these concepts in tandem to create an advantageous situation, ideally allowing friendly forces to exploit an enemy 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.[24] 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.[25]

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.[26] 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 neglects current research on creativity in adulthood. While the author asserts that little is known about creativity in adulthood,[27] 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,[28] 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.[29] Further, decision making is improved by strengthening pattern recognition capabilities.[30] Finally, decision making is improved through mental practice.[31] 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.[32] The nation-wide 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.[33] 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.[34]

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."[35] 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."[36] 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.[37] 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.[38] 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."[39]

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.[40] 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."[41]
Klein further posits that the key to successful decision making
in time-constrained environments is pattern recognition, not
analysis.

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) Cropely (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 might end with a thesis statement that addresses central themes throughout the literature **or** that 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 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.

6.3   Evaluating Your Sources

Regardless of whether you are required to write a formal literature review, you will still need to evaluate your sources. When you review a source, it is important to remember you are not only reading to make sure it suits your purpose but you are also evaluating the author's credibility and logic.[42] 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 his counterinsurgency strategy is effective, reliability would be lowered if you were to find out a group of commanders had employed his 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 individual's theory and demonstrated that the strategy he proposed 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, he would have little credibility because his 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 her theory about Professional Military Education (PME) is effective, credibility would be lowered if you were to find out that individual had never taught a PME class, or had never been exposed to military culture before. Credibility would increase if that individual could show you statistics proving the effectiveness of her 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/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 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 partial to either political party, and was simply a subject matter expert in American economic policy. You will often want to briefly research a text's author and his or her affiliations before you begin reading, as this 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 prove your thesis, the more credibility your work will have. This process of collecting multiple sources of data that come together to support a particular point is commonly known as triangulation.[43] Triangulation adds to the academic rigor of your work because it demonstrates to the reader that the conclusions you have drawn are not a result of biased observation. The following is an example of how you can use triangulation of data to prove your thesis. Consider the thesis statement below.

        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.
```

In this study, the researcher used multiple sources in order to highlight the patterns and trends that resulted from the troop surge in Iraq. He traced these trends—logistics, recruitment, personnel, and pay—in all of the sources he consulted. <u>Figure 25</u> is a visual representation of how he triangulated the data to support his 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.
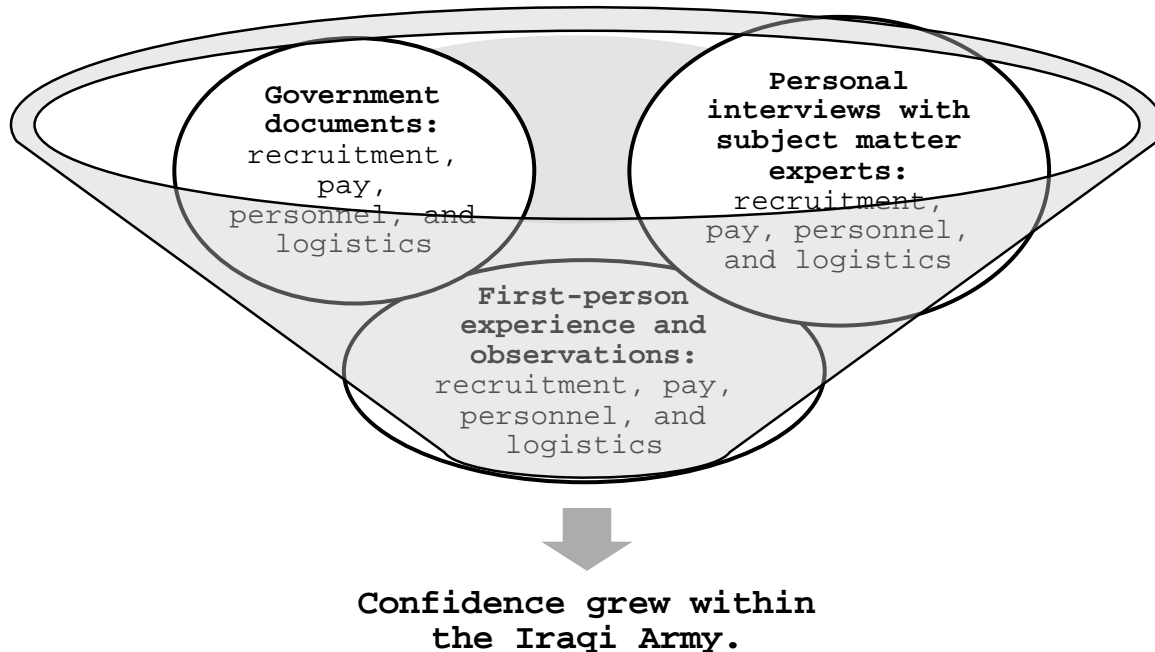
Figure 25: Triangulation of Data to Support a Claim

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: Constructing Interview and Survey Questions

As you conduct your research, you may find a need to gather your own primary data by interviewing experts in the field or by surveying a representative group of individuals who have shared experience or knowledge that might be relevant to your research. As you consider collecting your own data in this way, be sure you can answer the following questions:

1. What sort of information do you want to find? Try to articulate the purpose of your interview or survey in a single sentence.
2. How might this information connect with your research question/thesis statement?

3. Who will you interview or survey? Which specific group of people will have the knowledge or experience that is relevant to your interests?

If you conduct a survey, you will have to determine who will take the survey. In doing this, you will define a sample group of individuals who are a representative subset of your target population, meaning their points of view should be generalizable to the members of the entire target population. For example, if you wanted to investigate Marines' experience with a particular weapon in one of the Middle East conflicts, you would limit your target population to only the Marines who had deployed to this region and who had experience with that particular weapon. From that population, you would select a sample to survey.

Once you determine the nature of the information you would like to gather from specific primary sources, you can design your research tool or instrument. As you design your instrument, one important consideration will be the types of questions you will ask.

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

> **Closed Question:** `Did the ethics training you received pre-deployment prepare you adequately to make difficult decisions in combat situations? (Yes/No)`
> **Open 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 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 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 questions are less time-consuming for respondents, thus making it more likely they will answer. However, closed questions can be limiting, so you may have to create more questions to gather sufficient data. Open 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 example below.

> "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 that 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?"
```

6.5.2   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.

6.5.3   Conducting Surveys

Once you have designed your survey instrument, you should consider how it will be administered. Will you administer the survey yourself, or will you email the survey to potential respondents? 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.

6.5.4   Conducting Interviews

Similar to conducting surveys, you need to make sure the people you are interviewing represent the group you are studying. If an individual is an exception to the rule, you need to indicate this in your field notes. The best place to conduct an interview is in a quiet environment, away from the individual's office, and without personal or 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, make sure to take group dynamics into account.

Several factors affect group dynamics including interviewees' ranks, positions in the organization, experience with the topic, personal feelings about the topic, and homogeneity. **Note: Marine Corps University has an Institutional Research Board that selectively approves or denies research involving human subjects. Those interested in this type of research should contact Marine Corps University's Director for Institutional Research, Assessment, and Planning.**

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 in it. 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. Your annotation could contain a key quote or your own evaluation of bias in the source. Finally, you will want to annotate how each source relates to the other sources in your bibliography. Figure 26 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 26: Annotated Bibliography Entry Example

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

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. Figure 27 illustrates a few sample note cards.

It is important to take notes carefully. 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 can lead to plagiarism. Some researchers prefer to take notes without looking at the source so as to avoid unintentional plagiarism. 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. It is so easy to paste in text from a digital source that students sometimes plagiarize unintentionally as a result. You can find more information about plagiarism in Chapter Eight.

Figure 27: Traditional Note Cards

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 manner. 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.

The purpose of the working thesis statement is to state (in one or two sentences) the point you are trying to prove through your research. The working thesis statement may shift as you progress through the research process; however, you must have a clear vision of what you wish to investigate before you begin conducting focused research. Chapter Seven will provide you with strategies for developing and constructing your working thesis statement.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONSTRUCTING AN ARGUMENT

Once you have formulated your research question and completed your literature review, you will begin to narrow the focus of your paper even further. At this point, you should begin to formulate what is commonly called a working thesis statement. The working thesis statement should tell readers what you are trying to prove through your research. 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 prove 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.

7.1.1   The Importance of Argument

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.[44] 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. For instance, you will want to avoid writing about something that has already been accepted as a fact. Whether or not a thesis is considered 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. Ask yourself: What sort of evidence will the audience find convincing? What biases and beliefs do the readers already hold? How will you counter these beliefs? 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. Ask yourself: 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 Six.
3. **Evidence:** The type of evidence you supply will depend on your topic and your approach. Ask yourself: What type of evidence will you provide to support your ideas? Will you use secondary sources (e.g., journal articles and books)? Will you use archival information (e.g., correspondence, journals, 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 will you examine?

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 Question: How should the United States address Hugo Chavez's growing influence in Latin America? Is this growing influence dangerous to the United States' national and regional Latin American interests?
Working Thesis Statement: The United States must counter Hugo Chavez's influence in Latin America to maintain its regional credibility in the region.

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

Final Thesis Statement: In an effort to maintain its regional credibility in Latin America and to preserve its national interests, the 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 Question: 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 serves two main purposes: First, it 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 make for an easier and more organized 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. Further, it is difficult to specify when the research process should end and the writing process should begin. You may find yourself moving between the writing and research processes as you further narrow your ideas about your topic.

CHAPTER EIGHT: WRITING WITH SOURCES

When writing an academic paper, you typically will include outside source material to add depth or support to your argument or position. You should properly cite these sources to demonstrate that they are not your ideas, but that they belong to others contributing to your research field. Properly citing sources is important not only because it will help you to avoid plagiarism but also because it will allow you to provide attribution for the claims you make in the paper and form a jumping off point where you can discuss gaps or inconsistencies in previous 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. This chapter 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?**
8.2	**Plagiarism**
8.3	**Using Direct Quotations**
8.4	**Paraphrasing**
8.5	**Summarizing**
8.6	**Overview of CMS Citation and Documentation**

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 correspondences, maps, newspaper articles, personal observations of a situation or object, journal articles, books, 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. **To provide evidence that supports the paper's claims.**
   Example: The espoused beliefs of the Third Brigade manifested themselves in the form of artifacts. Good performance was rewarded with hunting knives to underscore the "predator-prey" metaphors.[45] "Kill Boards" were established to tally the number of civilian and enemy targets killed in action, and Charlie Company (the unit involved in the incident of May 9) had assumed the moniker of "Kill Company."[46] These artifacts in no way referenced the proud heritage of the Rakkasans or the US Army, and they only served to further the process of dehumanization of both the Iraqis and the soldiers themselves.

2. **To lend credibility to the paper's claims.**

   Example: Repeated and prolonged ingestion of carbohydrates, particularly high GI foods such as wheat, causes not only fat storage but also 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.[47] Further, in his article "Establishment of a Concept of Visceral Fat Syndrome and Discovery of Adiponectin," Yuji Matsuzawa 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.[48]

3. **To explore earlier arguments and perspectives on the same topic.**

   Example: Riordan Roett and Guadalupe Paz, Brookings Institution editors of *China's Expansion into the Western Hemisphere*, present viewpoints from both skeptical intellectuals and those who feel China's interests in Latin America are more benign. Roett and Paz take the view that China understands the skepticism surrounding its interests in LAC and believe that transparency will be the most beneficial course of action for everyone involved.[49]

4. **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."[50] 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. Regardless of how you incorporate outside sources 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.**

8.2   Plagiarism

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 them proper credit is treated as theft. As part of your course curriculum at Marine Corps University, you will write at least one research paper in which you will be required to use primary and secondary sources to support your ideas. Citing other authors reinforces your credibility as a writer by demonstrating how your ideas fit into the

body of research surrounding your topic. 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. Three main types of plagiarism are listed below.

1. **Plagiarism of language**: Plagiarism of language refers to the copying of an entire phrase or passage 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.
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.
3. **Self-plagiarism:** Self-plagiarism refers to the practice of re-using your own writing by either submitting an article or paper to two different publications, or by submitting the same paper (or portions of it) for two different course assignments.

Acts of plagiarism—regardless of whether or not they are intentional—are of great concern to members of the MCU community. For example, having someone write or rewrite a paper for you is a type of academic dishonesty that can be construed as plagiarism. 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 intolerance of acts of falsification, misrepresentation, or deception."[51] 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."[52] 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 is in compliance with the university's expectations of academic integrity, you should consult with your faculty advisor or an LCSC faculty member before submitting your work for a grade.

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; 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. 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.

In the following three sections—8.3, 8.4, and 8.5—you will find strategies for avoiding plagiarism through proper attribution and integration of outside source material.

8.3   Using Direct Quotations

A direct quotation "records the exact language used by someone in speech or in writing."[53] 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.

8.3.1   When to Use Quotes

Many writers have the tendency to overuse direct quotations—often because they feel they do not have the writing skills to place 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."[54]
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."[55]
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."[56]

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

Figure 28: Example of Run-in Quote

8.3.3 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. 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. Quoted letters or other forms of correspondence, bulleted lists, and specifically formatted text should be set off in a block quotation.
3. Block quotes are **indented five spaces (tabbed right)**.
4. Block quotes are **not placed in quotation marks** (since the indent signals to the reader that the information is directly quoted from another source).
5. Block quotes are **followed by a superscript endnote and corresponding citation**.
6. 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**.
7. Block quotes, like run-in quotes, should be **introduced by a signal phrase** and contextualized. Figure 29 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]
>
> [1]David Kilcullen, "Counterinsurgency Redux," *Small Wars
> Journal* (Winter 2006): 2,
> http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents /kilcullen1.pdf.

Figure 29: Example of Block Quote

8.3.4   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. 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 "as cited 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. The following page provides
an example.

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."[57]

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

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. Alternatively, you may decide to paraphrase ideas that are quoted in another source. The treatment of this source would be different if you decided to paraphrase Daly's interpretation of Galula's work. Consider the following example:

Example: Daly claims that for Galula, gaining and keeping control of the population is the key to success.[58]

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

Example Bibliographic Reference:
Daly, Terence J. "Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice." *Military Review* 86, no. 5 (September/October 2006).

In this case, you do not need to credit Galula, as you are paraphrasing Daly's interpretation of Galula's work rather than quoting or paraphrasing a claim or idea that belongs to Galula.

8.3.5 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."[59]

> **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."[60]

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."[61]

> **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."[62]

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."[63]

Edited Quotation: `Israel's militia system is favorable to "the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats."`[64]

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."`[65]

Edited Quotation: `According to Kingdon, the Founders were "suspicious of government…and impressed with the virtue of limiting government."`[66]

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.'"`[67]

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.'"`[68]

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*, 16th edition.

8.3.6 Epigraphs

You may see a book, paper, or chapter open with a quote that is relevant to the text, otherwise known as an epigraph. Section titles may begin with epigraphs, though it is rare. 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
```

8.3.7 Common Problems with Direct Quotes

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

1. **Failure to quote**: 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."[69]

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.[70]

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**. 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."[71]

This student's use of the information is not considered plagiarism 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 his 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."[72]

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."[73]

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

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."[74] Second, that zig-zagging process in turn depended on, as Varfolomeev envisioned, the "successful struggle against the consequences of the attendant operational exhaustion."[75] Kipp then states, "Logistics, the unity of front and rear as an organizational problem, thus assumed critical importance as an aspect of operational art."[76] 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 tenants of operational art through "actual operational-scale wargaming" vice formal lectures and specialized studies.[77] 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."[78]

While this student writer has clearly done his research, he likely needs to rewrite the paragraph so the reader will understand the writer's analysis in his own words. While integrating the ideas from his sources is important, using the exact language from the sources proves to 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 source's main points instead of presenting so many direct quotations.

8.4   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 summary or 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).

8.4.1   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 can lead to charges of plagiarism. Below is an example of an improperly paraphrased text followed by a revised, 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."`[79]

> **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.`[80]

The paraphrase above copies much of the wording from the original text, which means it could be considered plagiarism (even though the writer provides an endnote to cite the original source). In this case, the writer could either 1) significantly revise the word choices used so the excerpt no longer copies the original author's syntax and style, or 2) directly quote the information as opposed to paraphrasing. Below is an example of how the student writer might revise this paraphrase in order to avoid plagiarism.

> **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.[81]

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.

8.5   Summarizing

A summary is a brief synopsis of a longer text; it should be written in your own words and should present the central idea(s) discussed in the text, but it should not provide minor details. While a paraphrase focuses on a specific section of a text (a paragraph or a page), a summary may be a brief explanation of an entire 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."[82] 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.[83] 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.[84]

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 6 provides a checklist for using these different types of sources effectively.

Worksheet 6: Checklist for Using Your Sources Effectively

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

☐ **2. Avoid quoting if paraphrasing will suffice.** Exact wording may be important at times, especially when you are discussing doctrine, legislation, or another researcher's exact position on a topic. 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.

☐ **3. 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).

☐ **4. 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.

☐ **5. When multiple sources make the same claim, group them together.** For example, instead of saying, "General X believes it is important to employ the concept of Distributed Operations in current and future conflicts. General Y 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 8.6.2 provides guidance for citing a single claim that is substantiated by multiple sources.

☐ **6. 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 block quotation format.** You should set off 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.

provides a checklist for avoiding plagiarism.

Worksheet 7: Checklist for Avoiding Plagiarism

☑ 1. **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.

☐ **2. Put your research away.** It is easier to accidentally copy an author's ideas, words, or writing style when you are trying to read your research and formulate ideas for drafting simultaneously.

☐ **3. Always double-check your draft.** Make sure you have used a properly formatted endnote 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.

☐ **4. Use plagiarism detection software (e.g., Blackboard SafeAssign) 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.

8.6   Overview of CMS Citation and Documentation

When incorporating outside source material into your paper, the *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends using 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}). The publication information for the corresponding source is then placed on the notes page, which is included at the end of the document.

While Chicago style 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.

8.6.1   Placement of Note Numbers

All paraphrased, summarized, and quoted information needs to be followed by an endnote superscript and a corresponding citation—which will appear on the notes page at the end of your 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.

The superscript number signifying an endnote should be placed at the end of a sentence

or main clause. It may follow any punctuation mark, with the exception of the dash. Endnotes typically use Arabic numerals (1, 2, and 3) as opposed to Roman numerals (i, ii, and iii).

> **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.

> [1]Headquarters US Marine Corps, *MCDP-1: Warfighting* (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]Headquarters US Marine Corps, *MCDP-1: Warfighting* (Washington, DC: US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 3.
> [2]Carl 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]

> [1]Anne 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.

8.6.2 Substantiating a Claim with Multiple Citations

The placement and formatting of the note is different when two sources are substantiating a similar idea. This 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 and 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.

> **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]
>
> [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.

The two sources cited in the endnote are separated by a semicolon (;).

8.6.3 Explanatory (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. Further, 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]
>
> [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."[85] The endnote presented in the example below includes a source citation 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

    1Andrea 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."
```

8.6.4   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).

8.6.5 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.

The abbreviation *ibid.* may be used when referring to a work that is cited in the note immediately preceding. *Ibid.* may take the place of the author or editor, title, and page number if each piece of information is exactly the same as in the citation above. If the author and title are the same but the page number is different, you may use *ibid.* and a page number. You can see from the example below that a citation needs to be written out in full the first time a work is referenced. *Ibid.* may then be used if the citation immediately above is from the same source.

> [1]Joseph D. Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), 198-199.
> [2] *Ibid.*, 202.
> [3] Waldemar Erfuth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisburg, PA: Military Service Publishing, 1943), 18.
> [4] Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy,* 200.
> [5] *Ibid*.
> [6] Erfuth, Possony, and Vilfroy, *Surprise*, 22.

In reviewing these example endnotes, you can see that the second note uses *ibid.* and a page number, indicating to the reader that notes one and two refer to the same sources but are referencing different page numbers within that source. Because note three introduces a different source, a shortened citation is needed in note four (as opposed to *ibid.*), even though the Douglass source has already been cited several times in the notes. The abbreviation *ibid.* can then be used in note five since notes four and five refer to the same source. The absence of a page number indicates that notes four and five are referencing the same page.

8.6.6   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 outside 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).

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 the endnote and bibliography citation formats. **Students are advised to consult Chapter Eight to develop an understanding of basic citation practices before attempting to format CMS 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 specific citation formats provided in this chapter follow *The Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS), as all papers written at Marine Corps University are expected to follow this style. Chicago style 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, on the other hand, is used largely in social science 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. Table 8 summarizes the key differences between these three commonly used citation styles.

This chapter will provide you with Chicago style endnote and bibliographic examples for a variety of sources you may use 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.

In most cases, you will find a note and bibliography format for each source. Some sources (websites and personal interviews for example) are not placed in the bibliography; therefore, the formatting example is omitted. Further, because the *MCU Communications Style Guide* attempts to present a condensed, user-friendly resource for CMS citation guidelines, not all CMS formats are included in this guide; in some cases, you may need to consult the original CMS in order to find the correct format. Below are the main sections of the chapter.

9.1   **Books**
9.2   **Periodicals**
9.3   **Reviews**
9.4   **Interviews and Personal Communications**
9.5   **Student Papers and Other Unofficially Published Material**
9.6   **Lectures, Speeches, Reports, and Papers Presented at Meetings**
9.7   **Encyclopedias and Dictionaries**
9.8   **Audiovisual Materials**
9.9   **Government and Military Documents**
9.10   **Digital Sources**

Table 8: Differences between CMS, APA, and MLA Citation Styles

	CMS	APA	MLA
IN-TEXT CITATIONS	Citations used in form of endnotes or footnotes.	Citations begin with signal phrase (e.g., author name); parenthetical reference follows and includes author last name, date of publication, and page number. Commas separate information within parenthetical reference.	Citations begin with signal phrase not including publication date; parenthetical reference follows and includes author last name and page number. No commas used inside parenthetical reference.
REFERENCE PAGES	Reference pages titled "Bibliography" centered at top of page.	Reference pages titled "References" centered at top of page.	Reference pages titled "Works Cited" centered at top of page.
BLOCK QUOTATION LENGTH	Quoted material 100+ words in length, or taking up 6-8 lines in original source should be in block quote format.	Quoted material 40+ words in length should be in block quote format.	Quoted material taking up 4+ lines of text; poetic verses comprised of 3+ lines of text should be in block quote format.
PAGE FORMAT	Page numbers in top right; author last name precedes page number. Title page required; page number not needed on title page.	Page numbers in top right; shortened version of paper title precedes page number. Title page required; page number needed on title page.	Page numbers in top right; author last name precedes page number. No title page required.

More information about APA and MLA can be found in their respective style manuals. The remainder of this chapter discusses specific features of CMS citation and documentation. **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 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 could be "confused with another city of the same name."[86] 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., PA, MD). 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 9. Note that basic bibliography entries are essentially three "sentences" separated by periods, while basic note entries are each a single "sentence" wherein the information is separated by commas.

> **Bibliography Contents**: Author's name. Title of Work. Publication Information.
> **Note Contents:** Author's name, title of work (publication information), page number.

Table 9: 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." 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.* 16th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2010. **Note** [5] University of Chicago Press, *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 16th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2010), 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	**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.
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** [8]Georges Feydeau, *Four Farces by Georges Feydeau,* trans. Norman R. Shapiro (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** [9]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** [10]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** [11]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 [12]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** Calder, Kent. "U.S. Foreign Policy in Northeast Asia." In *The International Relations of Northeast Asia,* edited by Samuel S. Kim, 225-248. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 2004. **Note** [13]Kent Calder, "U.S. Foreign Policy in Northeast Asia," in *The International Relations of Northeast Asia,* ed. Samuel S. Kim (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 2004), 226.
9.1.14 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** [14]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.
9.1.15 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."[87] 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** [15]Robert B. Asprey, *War in the Shadows: The Guerrilla in History*, vol. 2 (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975), 243.
9.1.16 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 [16]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.
9.1.17 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** [17]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.
9.1.18 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** [18]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.
9.1.19 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 scholarly writer or editor working extensively with biblical material should consult the latest edition of *The SBL Handbook of Style*."[88] **Note** [19]Romans 8: 35-38 (Saint Joseph New Catholic Edition).
9.1.20 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, link the name of the imprint and the name of the publisher with a slash, putting the imprint last. A slash should be used only if it is unclear which name to list.[89] **Bibliography** Behrens, Laurence, and Leonard J. Rosen. *A Sequence for Academic Writing.* New York: Pearson/Longman, 2010.

	Note [20]Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen, *A Sequence for Academic Writing* (New York: Pearson/Longman, 2010), 225.
9.1.21 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** [21]John Steinbeck, *Grapes of Wrath* (1917; Project Gutenberg, 2014), chap. 3, https://www.gutenberg.org/files/46787-h/46787-h.htm.
9.1.22 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. If page numbers are not given in the e-book, use a chapter number or section number instead. **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** [22]Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), Kindle edition, chap 3.
9.1.23 Audio Book	**Bibliography** Chernow, Ron. *Alexander Hamilton.* Read by Scott Brick. New York: Penguin Audio, 2004. Audiobook, 36 hrs. 2 mins. **Note** [23]Ron Chernow, *Alexander Hamilton,* read by Scott Brick, 2004, audiobook, 10:13.

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, or dates 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 since the periodical contains an issue number.

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). As you cite different types of periodicals in your paper, you can reference table 10.

Table 10: 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 and may help your readers. **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. Below is an example.** **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 a formal source published in a digital database. However, if directed to use an access date, place it before the URL and separate it with commas. 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. If you have an identification number, it should be placed in parentheses.[90]

	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, the translation in English should follow the original title and should be in brackets with no quotation marks. If you put the translated title in English without the original title, the name of the language needs to follow the title and be put into 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.
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. CMS states that even magazines "numbered by volume and issue are usually cited by date only."[91] 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** [9]Tim McGirk, "In the Shadow of 1967," *Time*, June 11, 2007, 43.
9.2.8 Magazine Articles from an Online Magazine	When citing a magazine 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** [10]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** [11]Ernesto Londoño, "Before Pullout, A Scrap Project: Gear Disposal in Afghanistan," *Washington Post,* June 20, 2013.
9.2.10 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 a news service instead. Capitalize the title of the news service, but do not italicize it as you would the newspaper title. **Note** [12]Associated Press, "Israelis Kill 11 Palestinians," *Richmond (VA) Times-Dispatch*, June 28, 2007, http://library.pressdisplay.com/.

9.2.11 Newspaper Articles from an Online Newspaper and/or 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** [13]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.
9.2.12 News Releases	**Note** [14]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.
9.2.13 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** [15]*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 11 contains an example of book review citations.

Table 11: 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 12, you will find examples of bibliography and endnote references for these types of sources.

Table 12: 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, it is best to give the URL of the digital database so readers can see where to find the source. **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, but add the URL to show where readers can find the interview online. **Bibliography** Rice, Condoleeza. "Interview with Condoleeza Rice." By Washington Post Editorial Board. *Washington Post*, December 15, 2006. http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2006/12/15/ AR2006121500529.html. **Note** [3]Condoleeza Rice, "Interview with Condoleeza Rice," interview by Washington Post Editorial Board, *Washington Post,* December 15, 2006, http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2006/12/15/ AR2006121500529.html.
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, 2015.
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, 2011.
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, 2015, Director of the Leadership Communication Skills Center Linda Di Desidero stated… **Note** [6]Linda Di Desidero, telephone conversation with the author, June 23, 2015. **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, e-mail 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 Digital Mailing Lists	The main components of digital mailing list citations are the name of the list, the date of the posting, and the URL through which the posting can be accessed. If the posting includes a title or file name/issue number, you should include that information as well. You should 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 helpful source type you may be able to use in your writing is unpublished material such as previous student papers on a similar topic that you can further in your own writing. You may want to cite an unpublished work or paper that you have written previously (e.g., citing yourself to avoid self-plagiarism). Previous MMS papers published through DTIC are considered "unofficially published material." You will find examples of this in table 13.

Table 13: 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** [2]Haile Araya Amdemichael, "East African Crisis Response: Shaping Ethiopian Peace Force for Better Participation in Future Peace Operations" (master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, 2006), 51, 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** [3]Audrey 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 [4]Anthony 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, 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** [5]Specific item (e.g., letter, memorandum, recording, photograph), Collection Name, [Folder Heading], Collection Number, name and location of institution. **Note** [6]General Butler, memorandum, 1913, Smedley D Butler Collection [Folder heading], COLL 1202, Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico VA. **See 9.9.27 and 9.9.28 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 14 provides bibliography and note reference formats for these types of sources.

Table 14: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Lectures, Speeches, Reports, and Papers Presented at Meetings

9.6.1 Lectures and Speeches	**Bibliography** Obama, Barack. "Address before the Joint Session of Congress on the State of the Union." Speech. United States Congress, Washington, DC, January 20, 2015. **Note** [1]Barack Obama, "Address before the Joint Session of Congress on the State of the Union" (speech, United States Congress, Washington, DC, January 20, 2015).
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** Obama, Barack. "State of the Union Address." The White House video, January 25, 2012. http://www.whitehouse.gov/photos-and-video/2012/01/25/2012-state-union-address-enhanced-version. **Note** [3]Barack Obama, "State of the Union Address," video, 42:13, address to Congress and the nation on January 25, 2012, http://www.whitehouse.gov/photos-and-video/2012/01/25/2012-state-union-address-enhanced-version.
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 Proceedings from Conferences 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 in Constructing a More Connected Future 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 in Constructing a More Connected Future 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 place the letter was written (if applicable), and the name of the collection or book in which the letter was published. 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 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** [9]Sustainable Defense Task Force, *Debt, Deficits, and Defense: A Way Forward* (Washington, DC: Center for Defense Information, 2010).
9.6.9 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** [10]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.

9.7   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 15 depicts example citations for reference materials.

Table 15: 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 and 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 16.

Table 16: 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 CMS 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** The Wall Street Journal. *The Maritime Silk Road and Silk Road Economic Belt*. Map. In Clemens, Morgan. *The Maritime Silk Road and the PLA*. Arlington, VA: Center for Naval Analyses, 2016. https://www.cna.org/cna_files/pdf/maritime-silk-road.pdf. **Note** [5]The Wall Street *Journal, The Maritime Silk Road and Silk Road Economic Belt*, map, in Morgan Clemens, *The Maritime Silk Road and the PLA* (Arlington, VA: Center for Naval Analyses, 2016), https://www.cna.org/cna_files/pdf/maritime-silk-road.pdf. 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, "Almost all legal works use notes for documentation and few use bibliographies."[92] CMS recommends using *The Bluebook* if working extensively with legal and public documents.   Table 17 provides examples of bibliographic and endnote reference formats for a wide variety of government and military sources.

Table 17: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Government and Military Documents

9.9.1 Government Documents Available in Digital Databases	According to CMS guidelines, "Sources consulted through commercial databases such as Westlaw or LexisNexis may be cited; these are treated like print sources but with the addition of the database name and any identification number (or, in the case of constitutions and statutes, information about the currency of the database)."[93] **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/.
9.9.2 Government Documents Available Online	When citing government documents accessed online, "citations should follow the format for printed sources with the addition of a URL. Access dates ('last visited' in *Bluebook* parlance) are recommended only for undated documents."[94] **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.
9.9.3 Presidential Documents	Documents in this category are typically compiled into a larger publication (e.g., *Public Papers of the Presidents of the United States*). If you are citing a complete set of volumes, you do not need to state that they are compiled or use the abbreviation "Comp." **Bibliography** US President. Proclamation. "Honoring the Memory of the Victims of the Indian Ocean Earthquake and Tsunamis, Proclamation 7859." *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 3 (2005 Comp.). Accessed June 2, 2006, http://www.gpoaccess.gov/cfr/.

	Note [3]US President, Proclamation, "Honoring the Memory of the Victims of the Indian Ocean Earthquake and Tsunamis," *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 3 (2005 Comp.), accessed June 2, 2006, http://www.gpoaccess.gov/cfr/.
9.9.4 Executive Department 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** [4]US Department of Defense, *Defense Manpower Requirements Report* (Washington, DC: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, April 2012), 15.
9.9.5 National Security Strategy	**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** [5]The White House, *The National Security Strategy of the United States of America* (Washington, DC, 2006), http://www.whitehouse.gov/nsc/nss/2006/.
9.9.6 Quadrennial Defense Report	**Bibliography** US Department of Defense. *2014 Quadrennial Defense Review*. Washington, DC, March 4, 2014. **Note** [6]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 the 60th Congress, where an odd-numbered year indicates a first session and an even year a second session."[95] For more information on how to reference this type of source, consult the *Bluebook*. An example note is listed below. **Note** [7]*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** [8]*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 [9]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** [10]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** [11]Atomic Energy Act of 1954, 42 U.S.C. §§ 2011-2021, 2022-2286i, 2296a-2297h-13 (1954).
9.9.12 US Code	**Note** [12]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. Include the name of the case, "the volume number, abbreviated name of the reporter, the ordinal series number of the reporter (if applicable), the abbreviated name of the court (if not specified by the reporter) and the date together in parentheses, and other relevant information. A single page number designates the opening page of a decision; the second number designates an actual page cited."[96] **Note** [13]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** [14] 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** [15]"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** [16]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 [17]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** [18]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** [19]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** [20]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** Headquarters US Marine Corps. *Warfighting*. MCDP 1. Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991. **Note** [21]Headquarters US Marine Corps, *Warfighting*, MCDP 1 (Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 52.
9.9.22 Directives	**Bibliography** US Department of Defense. *Joint Improvised Explosive Device Defeat Organization (JIEDDO)*. Directive 2000. 19E, February 14, 2006. **Note** [22]US Department of Defense, *Joint Improvised Explosive Device Defeat Organization (JIEDDO)*, Directive 2000, 19E, February 14, 2006, 2.
9.9.23 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** [23]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.
9.9.24 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 [24]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.
9.9.25 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/ $FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf. **Note** [25]Commandant of the Marine Corps, *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances,* MCBul10120, October 1, 2006, http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/ 4428aa1f9c9e8885256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/$FILE/ MCBUL%2010120.pdf.
9.9.26 Staff Studies	**Bibliography** Headquarters US Marine Corps. *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review.* Staff Study, 1980. **Note** [26]Headquarters US Marine Corps, *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review,* staff study, 1980, 2.
9.9.27 Correspondence	This example refers directly to correspondence that is archived in a collection. See the formats below. **Bibliography** McCutcheon, Keith B. Papers, Archives and Special Collections Branch. Library of the Marine Corps, Quantico, VA. Coll. 3040. **Note** [27]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.
9.9.28 Archived Reports	**Bibliography** Headquarters, United States Marine Corps. *Composition and Functions of Marine Aviation.* Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps. Coll. 3746. **Note** [28]*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.
9.9.29 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** [29]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/.
9.9.30 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
	[30]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.

9.10   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 9 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.

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."[97] Avoid adding hard returns or other formatting to break URLs, and do not add hyphens or dashes to indicate a break in the URL. Below is an example of a bibliography reference for a military document accessed online.

Bibliography Example:
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.

The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends including an access date only if the digital source does not include a publication or revision date. You can typically find the "last modified" date at the bottom of the web page.

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,* 16th edition, Section 14.136 (Chicago: Chicago University Press, 2010), http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/16/_ch14/ ch14_sec136.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. 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 table 18.

Table 18: Sample Bibliography References and Notes for Digital Sources

9.10.1 Websites	Websites are cited in the notes section, but should not appear in the bibliography. **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," *Marine Corps University,* accessed June 6, 2017, https://www.usmcu.edu/csc.
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 don't 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** [3]William J. Tucker, "The Manchester Attack," *Blogs of War* (blog), May 29, 2017, http://blogsofwar.com/the-manchester-attack/.
9.10.3 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 [4]"President Trump Speech in Saudi Arabia at Arab Islamic-American Summit," YouTube video, May 21, 2017, 34:45, https://youtu.be/LEnvulC3X-I.
9.10.4 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** [5]Jack 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.
9.10.5 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. 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, access date (date you found this resource), and the URL. These types of sources typically only need to be included in the endnotes. **Note** [6]*The United States Marine Corps Facebook Page*, Marine Corps Recruiting Command, accessed June 12, 2013, https://www.facebook.com/#!/marinecorps.
9.10.6 Twitter "Tweet"	See the above information in 9.10.5 for elements to include when citing this type of source from a social media site. Additionally, if the Facebook status or "tweet" on Twitter is deleted or no longer exists, include this information in the endnote. You can add this information in the body of your paper with a parenthetical phrase like "(a claim that had disappeared from the Marine's page by July 20, 2013)." **Note** [7]Joe Biden, Twitter post, June 30, 2015, 10:47a.m., https://twitter.com/VP/status/615939723027025921.

On the following page, you will find a sample bibliography page in much the same format as you may be expected to use in your papers at Marine Corps University.

Sample Bibliography

Allison, Graham and Philip Zelikow. *Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile Crisis.* 2nd ed. New York: Pearson, 1999.

Galula, David. *Counterinsurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice.* New York: Praeger, 1964. http://www.beyondintractability.org/bksum/galula-counterinsurgency.

Headquarters US Marine Corps. *Expeditionary Force 21, Forward and Ready: Now and in the Future.* Washington, DC: US Marine Corps, March 4, 2014.

Kidder, Rushworth M. *How Good People Make Tough Choices: Resolving the Dilemmas of Ethical Living.* New York: Harper, 1995.

Kissinger, Henry. *Diplomacy.* New York: Simon & Schuster, 1994.

Krulak, Victor. *First to Fight: An Inside View of the U.S. Marine Corps.* Annapolis, MD: Naval I Institute Press, 1984.

Trinquier, Roger. *Modern Warfare: A French View of Counterinsurgency.* New York: Praeger, 1964. http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/cgsc/carl/download/csipubs/ModernWarfare.pdf.

PART THREE: GRAMMAR, MECHANICS, AND STYLE

Part Three explains American English conventions for some of the more confusing aspects of 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! Exercises** 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**
10.2   **Punctuation Marks: Commas, Semicolons, Colons, Question Marks, Hyphens, Dashes, Parentheses, Ellipses, and Apostrophes**
10.3   **Italics, Abbreviations, Capitalization, and Numerals**
10.4   **Pronoun Usage**

10.1   Grammar Basics

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. 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 don't know how to articulate them. Nouns and verbs are the two essential parts of speech that you use to create sentences.

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 further 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). 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 further threatens security for the United States and its
   allies.
```

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) what 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). For 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. 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.

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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 USMC 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 example below.

```
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 19 lists some of the most common uses for both simple and complex comma usages.

Table 19: 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 old 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, CMS 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.	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. Below 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 fuses 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 pain was excruciating the soldier needed morphine.`

   Correct Example: `The pain was excruciating, so the soldier needed morphine.` **OR** `The pain was excruciating; the soldier needed morphine.`

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 8: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

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 20 describes semicolon usage guidelines.

Table 20: 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 9: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

- **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 21 describes guidelines for colon usage.

Table 21: 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 10: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

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 22 describes appropriate usage for the question mark.

Table 22: 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 11: 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

Click here to check your answers!

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 23 outlines correct hyphen usage.

Table 23: 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 *Chicago Manual of Style* Hyphenation Table is available at this link: http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/16/images/_ch07_tab01.pdf	

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 12: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

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 more heavily on the use of the em dash and not on the other three types, which are less commonly used. For more information on these other three types, see the *Chicago Manual of Style,* 16th edition.

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 24 outlines em dash usage.

Table 24: 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 13: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

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 25 displays rules of parentheses usage.

Table 25: 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. In CMS Author-Date style, the reference citation is enclosed in parentheses followed by a period to indicate that the citation is part of the sentence.	New equipment was found in the Marine HMMWV (though it is unknown who ordered it or how it had gotten there). 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 14: 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?*

Click here to check your answers!

○ ○ ○ **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 not be used to separate two distinct, unrelated ideas in an outside source, nor should they be used to your advantage to skew the original author's meaning in favor of your own interpretation. It is important to preserve the author's original intent when you are integrating his or her ideas in your own academic paper. An ellipsis should always be placed on a single line of text. Table 26 details ellipses usage conventions.

Table 26: 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 15: 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 Schultz,_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Click here to check your answers!

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
Am not/are not/is not → ain't (highly informal use)

</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 metaphoric 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 27 summarizes CMS guidelines for using the apostrophe to signal possession.

Table 27: 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

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 monument, and Marine Corps Planning Process. (Compare these similar attributive adjectives: Army leadership, Air Force monument, and Navy planning process.) Below are rules for avoiding common apostrophe errors.

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 Jacksons 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 wouldn't use one on "its" or "your.")
   Incorrect Example: `His unit made it's last pass at the target.`
   Correct Example: `His unit made its last pass at the target.`

Worksheet 16: Now You Try It! Apostrophes Quiz

1. What did you're unit accomplish this quarter?   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of apostrophes?*   2. How many xs and ys are on the page?   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of apostrophes?*   3. Degas's paintings are beautiful.   *Is the above sentence a **correct** or **incorrect** use of apostrophes?* **Click here to check your answers!**

10.3   Italics, Abbreviations, Capitalization, 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 writing mechanic 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. Table 28 describes use of italics in writing.

Table 28: 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 the *USS Abraham Lincoln* is Norfolk, Virginia.
Italics may be used to emphasize a particular word or phrase. **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 29 summarizes rules for using abbreviations in your writing.

Table 29: 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 (**MEU**s).
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, spell out the word "United States" when using it as a noun. You can abbreviate the word as "US" when using it as an adjective.	The **United States** is made up of fifty separate states; Virginia (**VA**) is one such **US** state.
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. Table 30 describes capitalization practices for writing.

Table 30: 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 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.
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.**	**C**ommanding **O**fficer, 26th **MEU C**olonel **F**arrell **J**. **S**ullivan, the **MAGTF** commander
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
Capitalize and italicize the proper names of ships and spacecraft.	*Discovery* (the space shuttle) The *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, seasons, holidays, and religions.	**M**onday, **F**rench, **S**pring, **L**abor **D**ay, **I**slam, **C**hristianity
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**

10.3.4 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 31 summarizes the proper uses of numerals, while Table 32 outlines when to spell out numbers in your writing.

Table 31: 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.

Table 32: When to Spell Out Numbers in Academic Writing

Rule	Example
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.
Centuries are spelled out and made lowercase.	The Air Force officer found an **eighteenth** century document while researching.
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.	**Four** 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.

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 saying, "James reads the *Wall Street Journal* every day; James is interested in becoming a journalist," listeners would expect you to say, "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 33 summarizes guidelines for pronoun usage.

Table 33: 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. **Subjective case pronouns** are pronouns used as subjects (e.g., I,	**I** went for a walk.

you, he, she, it, we, they, who). **Objective case pronouns** are pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions (e.g., me, him, her, it, us, them, whom). **Possessive case pronouns** are pronouns that express ownership (e.g., my, mine, your, yours, her, hers, it, its, our, ours, their, theirs, whose).	Though the **professors** enjoy watching Civil War movies, **they** found the film's portrayal of General Lee historically inaccurate. **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.

Below are explanations of some of the 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 is a subtle but commonly occurring issue 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, CMS 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.

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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.

   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

The next chapter will describe additional 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 issues, on the other hand, refer mostly to elements at the sentence level, such as conciseness, word choice, grammar, punctuation, and general formatting.

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 both 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**
11.2 **Active Voice and Passive Voice**
11.3 **Point of View**
11.4 **Singular *They***
11.5 **Split Infinitives and Misplaced Modifiers**
11.6 **Articles**
11.7 **Frequently Asked Grammar Questions**

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 or should "serve the same grammatical function in the sentence (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, and adverb)."[98] A sentence is more easily understood when it reflects the principle of parallel construction. Table 34 offers examples of parallel construction.

Table 34: 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."[99] 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 did 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 below example.

```
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." 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 be vague and 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 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.**

```
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. The active version would read "which

the staff considered unnecessary." Table 35 contains more guidance on using active and passive voice.

Table 35: 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 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 the second person point of view is used when an author wants 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 36 presents examples of the three types.

Table 36: 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).	**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. 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.

> 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:

> 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.

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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 close as possible to the word they are modifying. In the examples below, the modifiers are bolded. 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.

> Trenchard **strongly** argued that **strategic** bombing became the **central** mission of the Royal Air Force.

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 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 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 close to the participial modifier as grammatically possible, as in the example below.

```
Fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's autonomy,
Trenchard strongly argued that strategic bombing become the
central mission of the RAF.

Trenchard, fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force's
autonomy, strongly argued that strategic bombing 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 revised the sentence to connect the modifier with an actor, the meaning becomes 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 depends 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 37](#) provides more information on article use.

Table 37: 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. I bought **an** Audi A6.

Source: Loosely adapted from "Using Articles," Purdue Online Writing Lab, 2017, https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/540/01/.

As shown in [Table 37](#), **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 17: Now You Try It! Article Use

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.

Click here to check your answers!

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 you are unsure.

APPENDIX A: ANSWERS TO NOW YOU TRY IT! QUIZ ANSWERS

Worksheet 8: Now You Try It! Commas Quiz **Answer Key**

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.
This is a correct use of the serial comma.

2. A challenge from a potential adversary would necessitate a robust**,** capable amphibious assault capability.
This is incorrect. A comma is needed to separate the parallel adjectives.

3. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways**,** but it will be costly.
This is incorrect. A comma is needed to separate the two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction in between.

4. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways**,;** however**,** it will be costly.
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.

Worksheet 9: Now You Try It! Semicolons Quiz **Answer Key**

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.
This is a correct use of the semicolon. A semicolon is used to separate two complete, related sentences.

2. Small wars are defined as**;** "operations undertaken under executive authority."
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.

3. It is safe to state that even humanitarian assistance; disaster relief; and peace support operations are covered by the term *small wars*.
This is incorrect. None of the series items contains internal punctuation, so commas would more appropriately separate the series items.

4. Armies have become smaller, and in most cases fully professional; however, their weapons and equipment largely remain the same.
This is a correct use of the semicolon, as it separates two independent clauses with a conjunctive adverb in between.

Worksheet 10: Now You Try It! Colons Quiz **Answer Key**

1. LCSC instructors provide the following services to Marine Corps University students: formal classes, writing workshops, and one-on-one writing sessions.
This is a correct use of the colon. A colon is used after an independent clause to call attention to a list.

2. US Marines may be asked to PCS to**:** Okinawa, Japan; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; and Quantico, Virginia.
This is incorrect. A colon is not used to separate a preposition from its direct object.

3. To whom it may concern: The Gray Research Center's power has been fully restored as of 10 July 2016 at 0900.

This is a correct use of the colon, as a colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.

Worksheet 11: 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 12: Now You Try It! Hyphens Quiz **Answer Key**
1. The MCWAR student looked to written records pre-Vietnam for his research.
   This is a correct use of the hyphen. A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.
2. The man's favorite weapon to shoot was his AK-47.
   This is a correct use of the hyphen. A hyphen is used when the modifier is a letter or a number.
3. The captain made sure the memo was well-written, as he knew it would be distributed throughout the battalion.
   This is incorrect. A hyphen should not be used if a modifier follows the noun it modifies (e.g., well read or properly educated).

Worksheet 13: Now You Try It! Dashes Quiz **Answer Key**
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 research paper published.
   This is a correct use of the em dash. An em dash can be used to emphasize a series.
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.
   This is incorrect. Dashes are needed before and after parenthetical elements.
3. The upcoming storm—which was predicted to severely hinder visibility—delayed the flight several hours.
   This is a correct use of the em dash. An em dash can set off a parenthetical element.

Worksheet 14: Now You Try It! Parentheses Quiz **Answer Key**
1. All after-action reports should be completed by this Tuesday. (The after-action report will not be reviewed until next week**.**)~~.~~
   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.
2. My sister **(**who served in the Marine Corps for twenty years**)** is going to spend Thanksgiving in Detroit, Michigan this year.
   This is a correct use of parentheses. Parentheses enclose explanatory phrases that clarify the meaning of a sentence or passage without changing its message.
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.")
   This is incorrect. Brackets are preferred to enclose parenthetical information that is already in parentheses.

[Worksheet 15: 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."**

This is just one example of how you might use ellipses to shorten a long quotation. There are other possible solutions.

[Worksheet 16: Now You Try It! Apostrophes Quiz](#) **Answer Key**
1. What did ~~you're~~ **your** unit accomplish this quarter?
This is incorrect. You're is a contraction abbreviating the words "you are." Your is the correct possessive pronoun to use here.
2. How many xs and ys are on the page?
This is correct. These are plural, not possessive, so no apostrophe is needed.
3. Degas's paintings are beautiful.
This is correct. The CMS recommends you add an apostrophe –s on the end of singular nouns ending in –s, -z, or –x.

[Worksheet 17: 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: 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*, 16th edition.

B.1   Document Setup and Microsoft Word Formatting
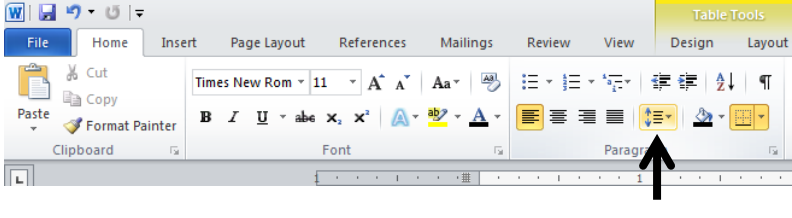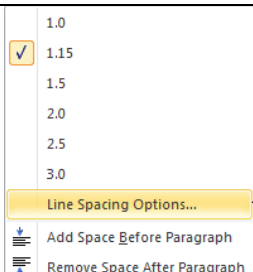
B.1.1   Font

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."[100] The assignments you produce at MCU will typically use Times New Roman, 12 point font unless otherwise specified. Be aware, however, that most of the papers you write using military formats (e.g., point papers, position papers, and official correspondence) will use Courier New.

B.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. Table 38 provides directions for changing the spacing in your document in Microsoft Word.

Table 38: How to Adjust Line Spacing

Step	Visual
Click on the line spacing icon on the toolbar.	
Select *Line Spacing Options* from the dropdown menu.	

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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).

B.1.3 Justification and Margins

All text should be flush left. The text should not be justified. Table 39 shows you how to adjust the text alignment of your document.
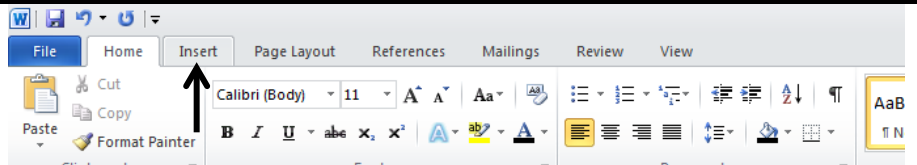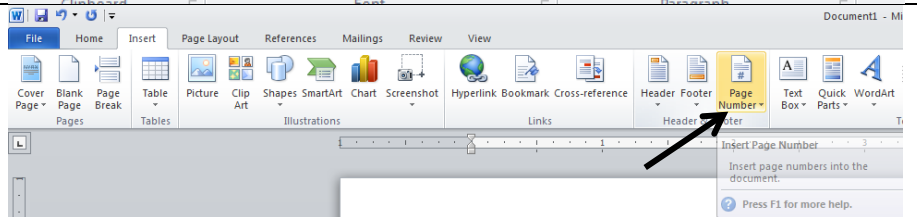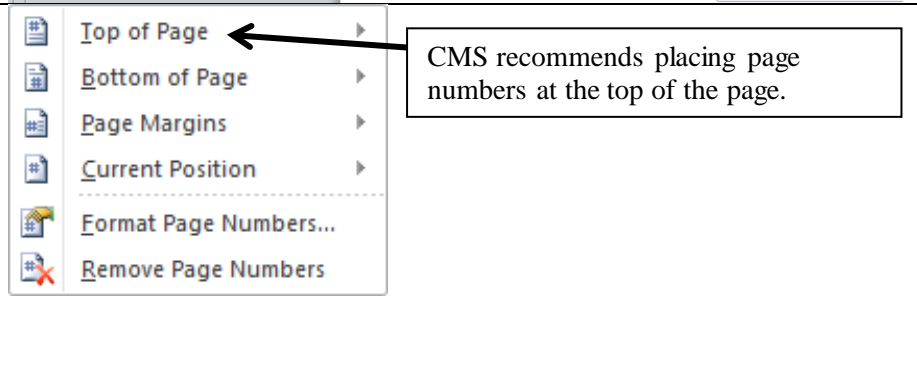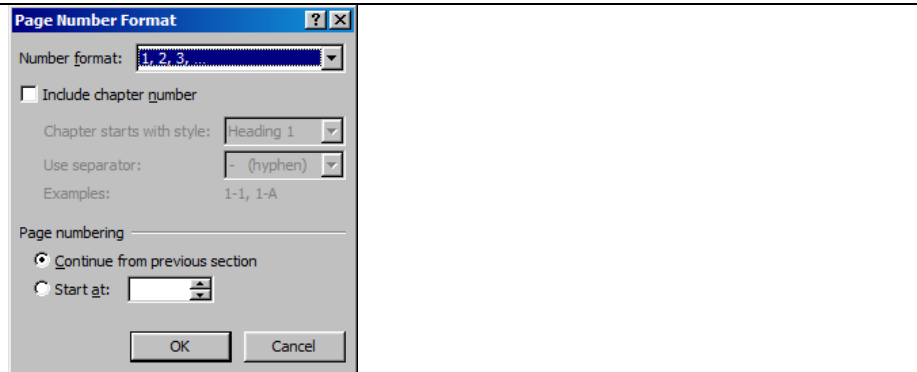
Table 39: Text Alignment

Step	Visual
Click on the box marked by the arrow to align your text correctly.	

B.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 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 40 provides guidance for formatting page numbers in Microsoft Word.
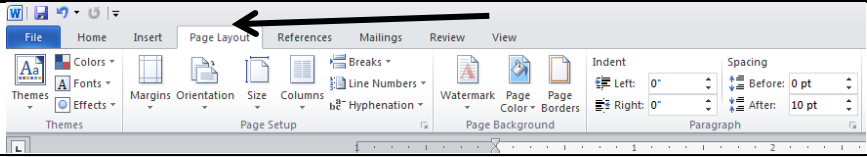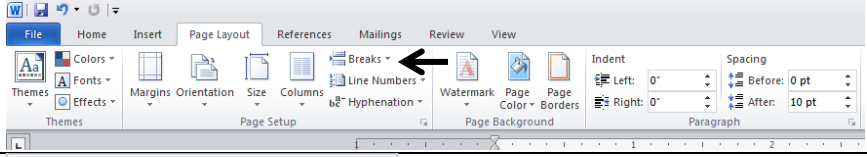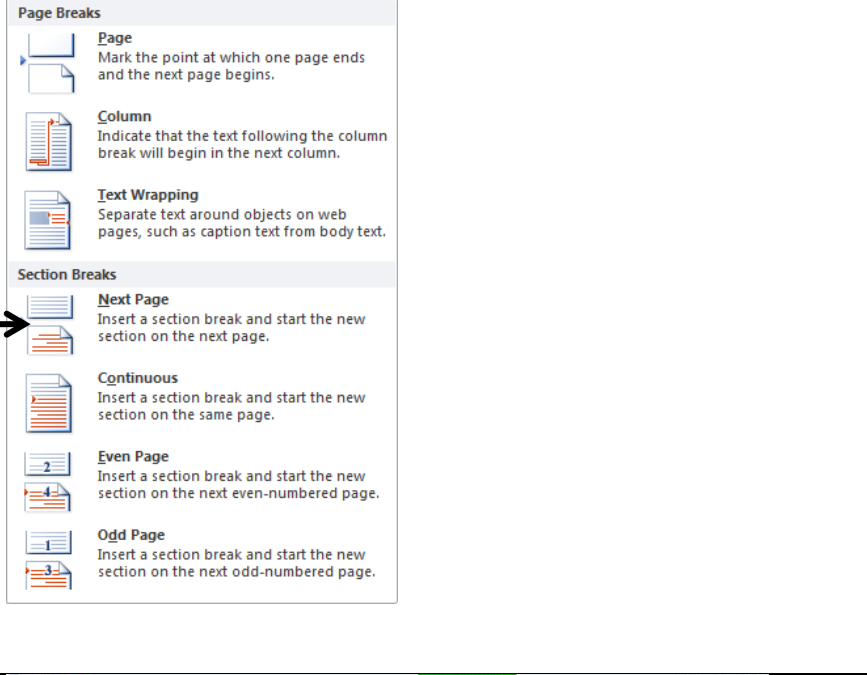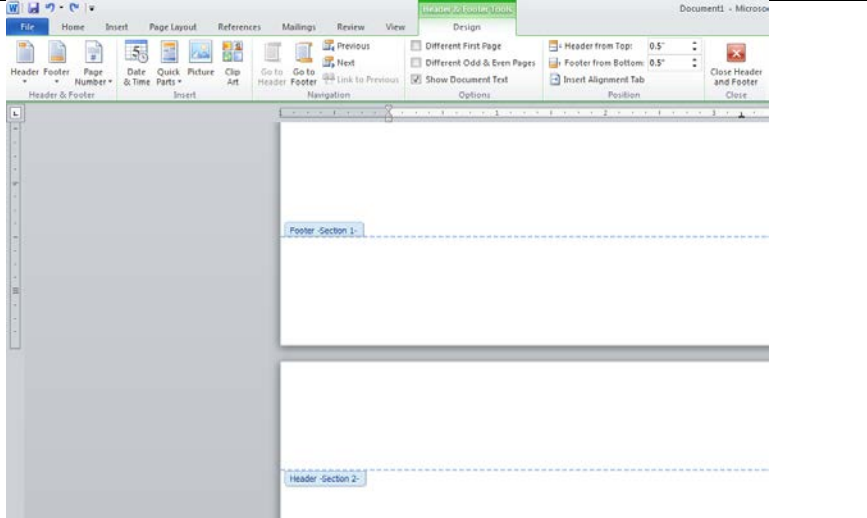
Table 40: Formatting Page Numbers
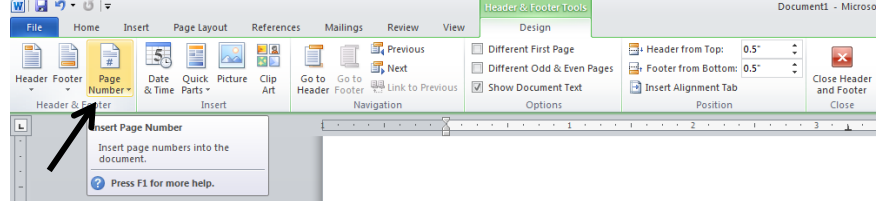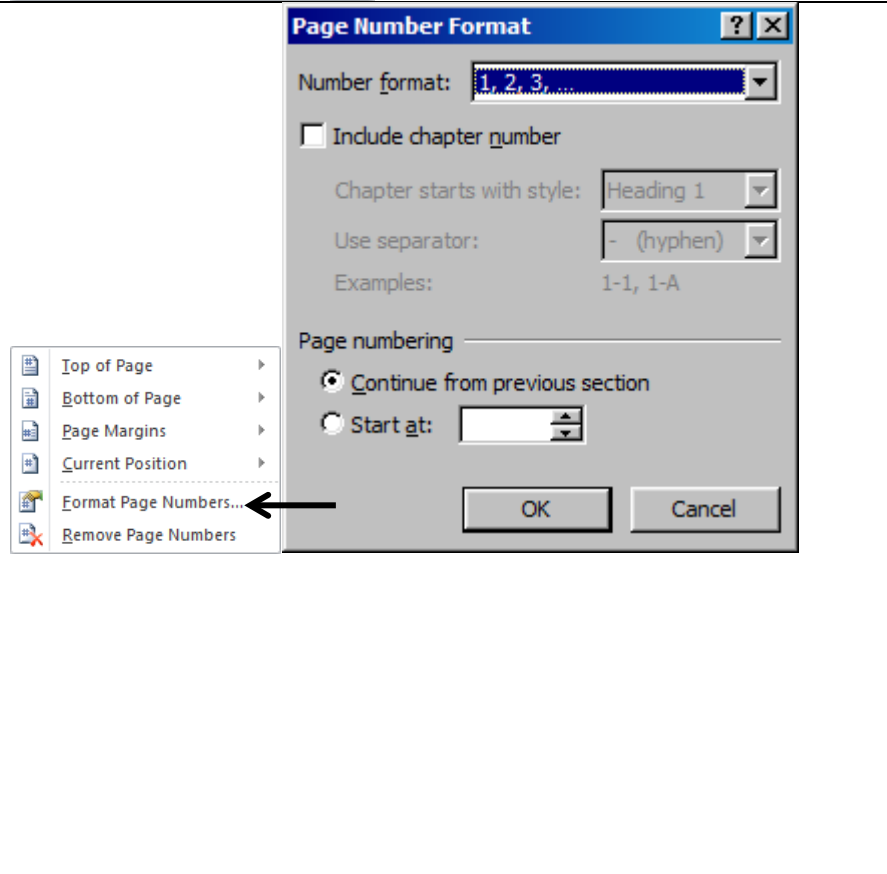
Step	Visual
Click *Insert* on the toolbar.	
Click *Page Number.*	
When you click on *Page Number,* you will see several options that will allow you to place the page number at various places on the page. You will want to select *Top of Page* unless your faculty member or the publication you are writing for has instructed otherwise.	
To change the numbers on the page from Arabic numerals to Roman numerals or vice versa, select *Format Page Numbers* from the dropdown menu.	
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.	

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 41 provides more information about creating section breaks to allow for two systems of numbering within the same document.
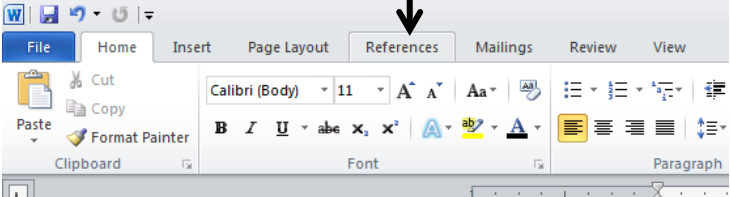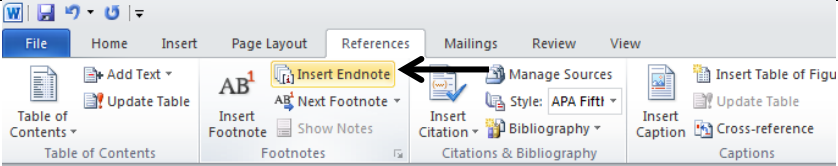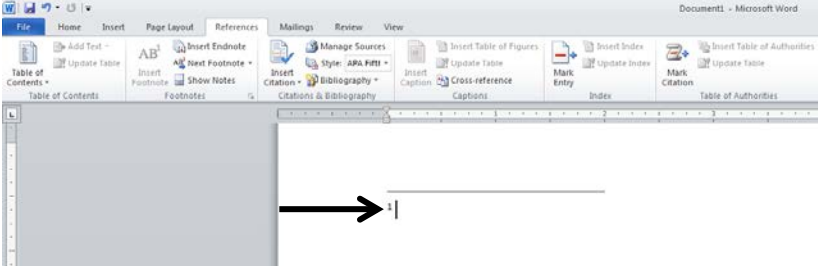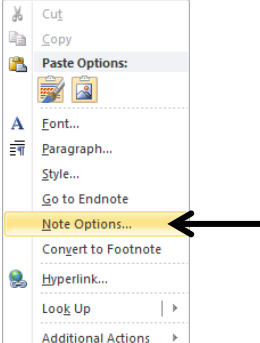
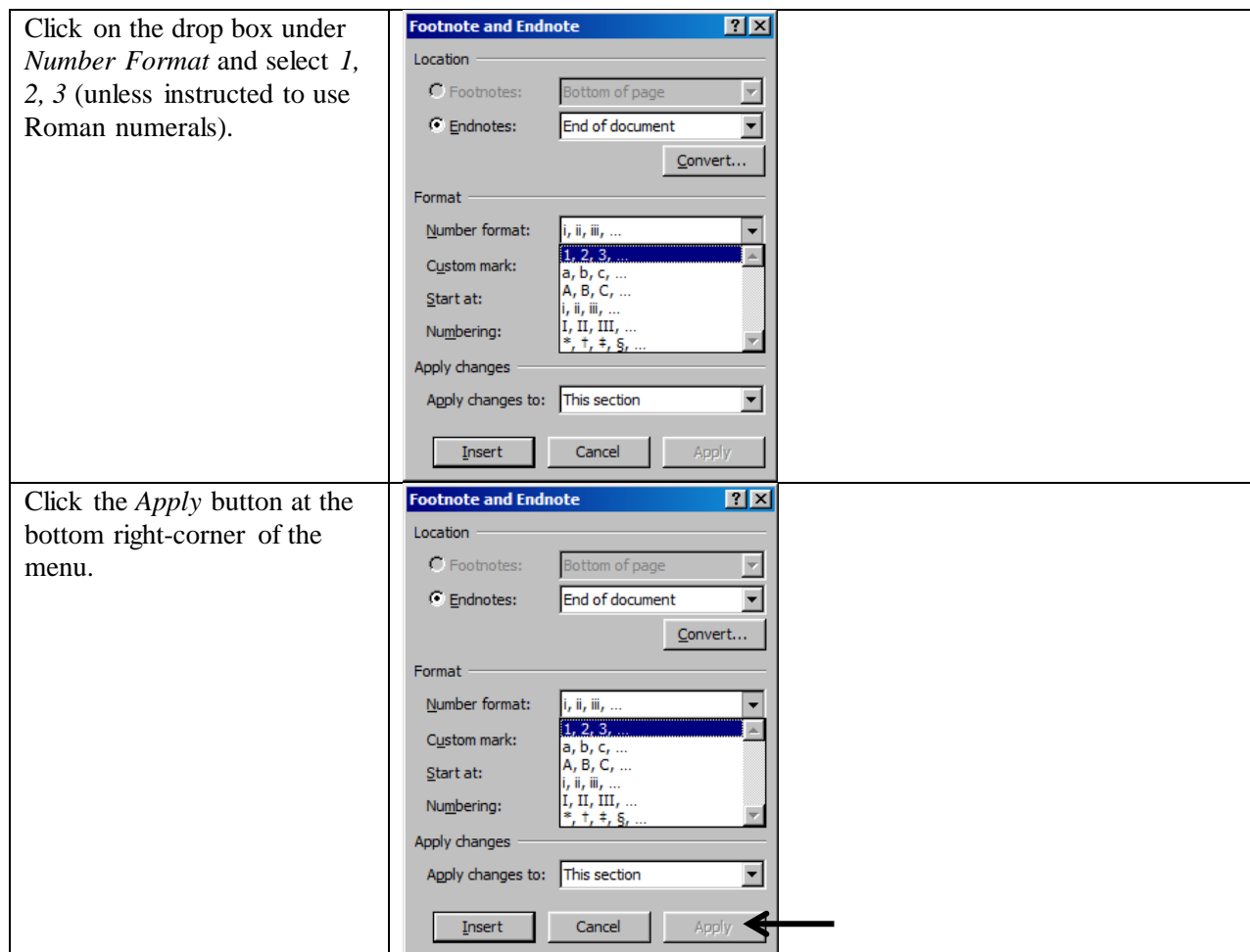**Table 41: Creating a Section Break to Separate Front Matter from the Main Text**

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 curser will automatically be placed at the header of the second page, although nothing will pop up.	
In order to make changes, double click on the place where your cursor has been positioned. It should look like the visual here. **Note: There are two sections. Both the header and footer must be shown in order for the necessary changes to be made.**	

Click on *Page Number*, located in the first box on the top toolbar.	
A drop screen should be displayed. Click on *bottom of the page* for the first section's page number.	
After the page number appears on the bottom of the screen, click on *Page Number* again, and when the drop screen is displayed, click on *format page numbers.* A screen like this should appear. In the page number format box, at the top is a drop menu titled *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 42 depicts information on how to use Microsoft Word tools to automatically insert an endnote into your paper.

Table 42: 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.	
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 CMS.	
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*.	

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Click on the drop box under *Number Format* and select *1, 2, 3* (unless instructed to use Roman numerals).	**Footnote and Endnote** ? X Location ○ Footnotes: Bottom of page ● Endnotes: End of document Convert... Format Number format: i, ii, iii, ... 1, 2, 3, ... a, b, c, ... A, B, C, ... i, ii, iii, ... I, II, III, ... *, †, ‡, §, ... Custom mark: Start at: Numbering: Apply changes Apply changes to: This section Insert Cancel Apply	
Click the *Apply* button at the bottom right-corner of the menu.	**Footnote and Endnote** ? X Location ○ Footnotes: Bottom of page ● Endnotes: End of document Convert... Format Number format: i, ii, iii, ... 1, 2, 3, ... a, b, c, ... A, B, C, ... i, ii, iii, ... I, II, III, ... *, †, ‡, §, ... Custom mark: Start at: Numbering: Apply changes Apply changes to: This section Insert Cancel Apply ←	

B.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. It is important to use visuals in the following situations:

1. Use visuals in order to present complex or technical information.
2. Use visuals to convey names, numbers, factual details, dates, and sequences of events (e.g., a timeline).

Visuals should be used primarily to present organized data or to emphasize a particular point. The list on the following page presents general guidelines for using visuals effectively.

1. Have a clear title that identifies the purpose of the visual.
2. Clearly indicate what data is being measured.

3. Use clearly labeled measurement units.
4. Use clearly labeled legends.
5. Identify the source of your data.
6. If the visual is a reproduction from an outside source, give credit to the original author.
7. If using a visual in an oral presentation (e.g., PowerPoint), use at least 18 point font.

Additional guidelines for referring to and integrating figures in the text include the following:

1. The word *figure* is spelled out and lowercased when used in the text, except in parenthetical references. Example: (Figure 2)
2. Refer to figures in the text according to their label (e.g., figure 1); do not refer to figures according to their placement in the text (e.g., the figure above).
3. Make sure visuals are placed in context. You should briefly discuss the visual in the main text of the paper, but visuals should be clear enough that they do not require a lengthy explanation.

B.2.1   Providing Attribution for In-Text Visuals

If using a visual in the main text of a paper, attribution for the visual should be provided in the main text as well (as opposed to being placed in an endnote). The format for citing visuals in the text is also different from the format used in endnotes and bibliography entries.

There are times when you may want to provide attribution for a visual you use in the text of your paper even if it is not a direct reproduction of another individual's work. For instance, table 43 is a depiction of data collected from a police department. Though the table is original, the data is collected from another source, which means a source line is needed to show where you obtained the information needed to develop the visual.

Table 43: Using Data to Develop a Figure
Most Common Driving Violations in Union, VA, May 2014-May 2015

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.

The type of visuals you provide in the academic papers you write at MCU and in the operating forces may include reproduced photographs, maps, tables, and charts. The following guidelines provide information on when and how to use the various types of visuals and the type of information your visuals can illustrate.

1. Use tables when you want the readers to focus on exact numbers and more technical material.
2. Use consistent format and style when you use more than one table in your paper.
3. When using tables and other visuals or figures in a paper, number tables separately. Give each table its own number, and use Arabic numerals (e.g., Table 1).

4. Tables should be cited in text, rather than in the bibliography or endnotes.
5. When discussing the table in the body of the paper, make *table* lowercase.
6. 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.
7. You can use abbreviations if readers can clearly understand their meaning.
8. You can include totals in the table if they are useful to the paper or presentation. Use exact numbers/values, especially if a percentage equals more or less than 100 percent.
9. The main text of the paper may reference some of the key concepts or data depicted in the table, but should not restate all of the information provided in the table.
10. When listing visuals in the front matter, tables are listed separately from other visuals.

Table 44 demonstrates proper use and format of a table.

Table 44: Example of a Table
LCSC Recorded Visits AY 2015-2016

Membership Category	Number of Visits to Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC)
Command and Staff College Students	1607
School of Advanced Warfighting Students	151
Marine Corps War College Students	62
Faculty	24
Administration	26
Other	26
Total	**2029**

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 table is not followed by a source line, it is assumed that this visual was compiled by the researcher/author of the paper.

APPENDIX C: FACULTY MEMBERS
HOW TO USE THIS GUIDE IN YOUR SEMINAR

Dear Faculty Member:

While the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* is designed to be used independently by students as a writer's reference, it can also be used quite effectively by faculty for instruction and/or support. Specific sections or chapters from the Guide may easily be integrated into your courses. You will find it useful to point your students to specific sections of the Guide as many of the examples are directly relevant to the tasks students will perform in your course. We recommend that you refer to specific sections of the Guide in your assignment documents, and that you discuss the Guide's samples of student writing with your seminar group. Such a discussion will help to clarify your expectations for students. (Indeed, the many samples of student writing in this guide have come from your own students!)

You will find that the Guide is designed in three main parts that cover the writing process, the research process, and grammar and mechanics.

Here are suggestions for how you can easily integrate specific sections of the Guide into your teaching:

- With the FIRST WRITING ASSIGNMENT in your course, ask students to review **Chapters 2, 3, and 4.** These chapters will offer readers strategies for analyzing the assignment and for determining how best to approach it.
  a. Section 2.1 will help students analyze their audience as well as their own purpose in writing.
  b. Section 2.2 offers a typology of writing tasks along with sample thesis statements.
  c. Section 2.3 illustrates strategies for generating and organizing information; it includes sample outlines.
  d. Chapter 3 provides many examples of introductions, thesis statements, body paragraphs, and conclusions. Students respond well to these samples because they offer concrete models of what are essentially abstract ideas.
  e. Chapter 4 helps students understand how to look at their own writing critically and revise it to make their arguments stronger and clearer.
  f. In your seminar, you may want to review and critique some of these student models with your class.
- With SUBSEQUENT WRITING ASSIGNMENTS in your course, ask students to review **Chapters 5 through 8** on developing and supporting researched arguments.
  a. Section 5.3 offers students strategies for working with sources and taking notes.
  b. Chapter 6 illustrates many strategies for evaluating and organizing research data.

c. Chapter 7 helps students move from a research topic to a working research question to a thesis statement. Students have told us that this short chapter really helped them to strengthen their approaches to research and argument.

d. Chapter 8 gives many examples of how students might integrate source material into their writing—the chapter covers summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting, including block quoting. It also points out common mistakes that students make when they use sources and presents strategies for avoiding plagiarism.

e. In your seminar, you may want to review and critique some of these student models with your class.

- With ALL RESEARCH-BASED WRITING ASSIGNMENTS, be sure to refer students to **Chapter 9**, as this chapter summarizes *Chicago Manual of Style's* citation and documentation guidelines. The section includes bibliography and note formats for a variety of sources, including but not limited to books, periodicals, government and military documents, speeches, and websites.

- For LONG RESEARCH PROJECTS such as the MMS, FWP, or IRP, ask students to review **section 4.4** as it explains the different parts of the research paper, how they are ordered, and what function each part serves. You may want to review this section in class with your students.

- As you work with student writers throughout the year, you may want to refer them individually to certain sections in Part 3 of the Guide. As you discover students' specific misapprehensions about grammar and mechanics, you will find that you direct them to one of the sections in Chapters 10 or 11. Students can check their understanding with *Now You Try It!* Exercises throughout.

- Refer students to the appendix for more information about document design and formatting of visuals in text.

Thank you for your support of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* and of the Leadership Communication Skills Center. Please contact us if you have specific questions about how to integrate the Guide into your course or if we can assist you in any way: LCSC@usmcu.edu.

This information is summarized in table 45.

Table 45: Integrating the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* into Your Course

ASSIGNMENT	CHAPTERS TO USE	KEY TOPICS
First Writing Assignment	Chapters 2, 3, 4	Analyzing Assignments, Strategies for Approaching Writing
	Chapter 2	Analyzing Audience, Typology of Writing Tasks, Sample Thesis Statement, Generating and Organizing Information, Sample Outlines
	Chapter 3	Sample Introductions, Thesis Statements, Body Paragraphs, Conclusions
	Chapter 4	Assessing and Evaluating Your Writing
Subsequent Writing Assignments	Chapters 5, 6, 7 8	Developing and Supporting a Researched Argument
	Chapter 5	Working with Sources, Taking Notes
	Chapter 6	Evaluating and Organizing Research Data
	Chapter 7	Moving from Research Topic to Research Question to Thesis Statement
	Chapter 8	Integrating Source Material into Writing, Common Mistakes, Plagiarism
All Research-Based Assignments	Chapter 9	CMS guidelines for citation and documentation (bibliography and note formats)
Longer Research Projects	Section 4.4	How Parts of Research Paper Function
Grammar/Mechanics/ Style	Chapters 10, 11	Common Student Misconceptions about Sentence Structure
Formatting	Appendix	Designing and Formatting Documents

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The Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC) is an instructional support resource for the Marine Corps University community—students, faculty, and staff. LCSC faculty members provide courses, workshops, and one-on-one consulting about writing, speaking, and research. Visit us in the Gray Research Center, rooms 123-124-125.

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