THE MARINE CORPS UNIVERSITY

COMMUNICATIONS STYLE GUIDE

9TH EDITION

A PUBLICATION OF THE LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION SKILLS CENTER

The Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide
9th Edition

~

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Foreword

Effective written and oral communication skills are essential in both professional military education and in leadership development. In the operational forces, you need strong communication skills to brief, instruct, persuade, counsel, and motivate fellow service members. At Marine Corps University, you will use these skills to engage in critical debate with classmates 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 the operating forces.

The 9th 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, US Marine Corps Reserve
President, Marine Corps University

Preface

The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* was written and developed by the faculty in the Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC), a written and oral 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 knowledge, skills, and abilities through classroom instruction, written guidance, and one-on-one assistance.

This style guide is intended to be a user-friendly resource to assist students in meeting coursework requirements and also 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*, 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, use of MCU student examples and military citation references make the guide more approachable for its intended readership.

We hope you find useful this complete, updated version of the *MCU Communications Style Guide,* located on the MCU website, the LCSC Blackboard site, and the Library of the Marine Corps site. The complete guide is searchable, interactive, and hotlinked, allowing for quick reference.

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 our country's finest men and women from all branches of the United States Military, Department of Defense agencies, and foreign militaries. 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.

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Acknowledgements

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

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

Thank you to Ms. Lisa Voss, MFA, for your editing and revision efforts on the ninth edition of this guide. We appreciate your support of our team during the spring and summer of 2015.

Thank you to the Gray Research Center reference librarians. Your guidance and knowledge of common student reference questions helped to shape the "Research" section of the guide.

Thank you to the Archives and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, for your invaluable help with archival references and historical research information.

To Dr. Donna Connolly, whose writing style guide for the Naval War College provided us with citation examples requested by many of our students, your guidance and collaborative efforts are greatly appreciated.

To Dr. Jerre Wilson, former Vice President of Academic Affairs (VPAA), who led the team that developed the center's mission and oversaw its establishment in 2007, and to Dr. James Anderson, current VPAA, you have continued to ensure the LCSC has the resources it needs, even in times of fiscal austerity.

To BrigGen Thomas Draude (USMC, Ret), former President and Chief Operating Officer of the Marine Corps University Foundation and LtCol John Hales (USMC, Ret), Secretary and Chief Operating Officer of the Marine Corps University Foundation, thank you for providing invaluable administrative and financial support for Leadership Communication Skills Center personnel. Without your support, this style guide may never have come to fruition.

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

Respectfully,

Andrea Hamlen, Communications Instructor
Stase Wells, Communications Instructor
Linda Di Desidero, PhD, Director

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 to do so. While the 2015-2016 print version of the guide focuses primarily on written communication, this online version includes a chapter on developing oral presentations.

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 your 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 short argumentative essays, to an academic research paper that presents the findings of a year-long research project. Through these assignments, students learn not only about how to structure academic and professional papers, but also about how writing can stimulate critical and creative thinking processes.

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:

> 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 often thought to be 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 produce for awards and even 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 today. You can consult Appendix B of the complete *MCU Communications Style Guide* online for more information about the guidelines and deadlines for different essay competitions, MCU writing awards, and publications that you can submit to. Please be aware that this list is by no means exhaustive; it merely presents the publications students were most likely to submit to in years past.

1.3 Professional Military Communication

While the effective writing skills you obtain will ideally result in publication or an award, you can also take this skill set with you when you return to the operating forces, joint staff officer positions, and other professional work environments. 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 also addresses the process of scholarly research, and you can find a more in-depth discussion of the research process in Chapters Five and Six.

1.4 How to Use this Book

The *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* serves as a reference for both students attending MCU schools and for 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.

1.4.1 Organization of the Book

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

Part I: The Writing Process presents a series of steps that you will progress through as you develop academic and professional papers of all lengths and for all purposes. Though this section presents the writing process as a series of steps, it also demonstrates that writing is not a linear process.

Part II: 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 III: Grammar and Mechanics explains proper use of punctuation, mechanics, and grammar and presents common conventions of academic writing. Readers may use this section to review basic rules of grammar and mechanics; however, Part III may also be of particular interest to those who need to quickly reference a grammatical rule while performing professional writing tasks in the operating forces or in garrison.

Part I: The Writing Process

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

- **Chapter Two**: Invention
- **Chapter Three**: Drafting
- **Chapter Four**: The Revisions Process

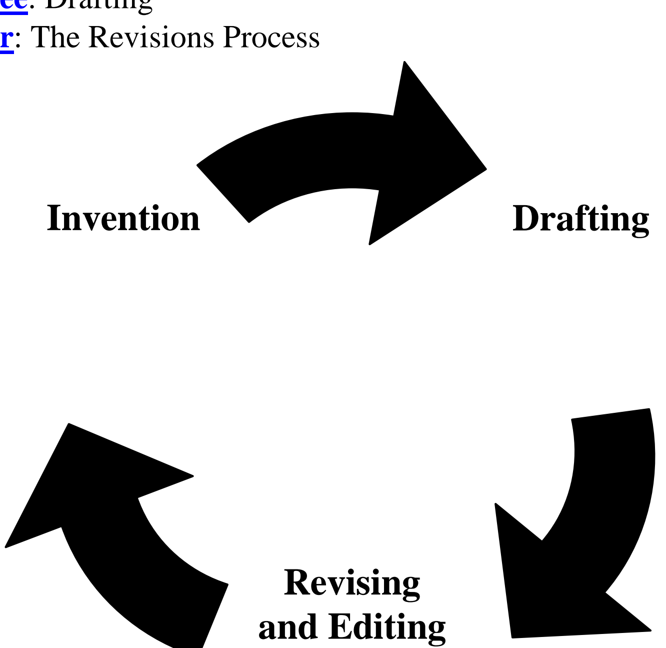

Figure 1: The Writing Process

It is no accident that writing is depicted as a recursive 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 may shift 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, you may find yourself needing to cut some paragraphs—which is part of the revisions process. At the same time, you will likely need to draft new paragraphs to help substantiate your new thesis, which means you will enter into the drafting phase 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 may be referred to as *invention*, though you may also 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 also 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
2.2 Identifying Key Words and Understanding Common Academic Writing Tasks
2.3 Invention Strategies

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 audience you are writing for will often determine the length, scope, tone, and focus of your writing. Audience and purpose may also influence the types of 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:

"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. For instance, you may write:

"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 morals component more rigorous."

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

2.1.2 Analyzing Your Reader

While attending Marine Corps University, your instructor will most likely be your audience, also 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 thinking about your readers, you may notice that 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?
6. What is the level of formality that is needed to communicate with your audience?
7. To what degree 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 only going to be used 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 also 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 the construction of a new academic building on the Marine Corps University campus. Who is your target audience? Will you focus on what the new building will mean for students? Will you focus on how the new building will affect faculty and staff? Will you focus on the new jobs it might bring to the base? Each of these groups of people will have a different interest in the new building, so you will need to tailor your paper to address the needs and interests of your target audience.

Consider how the focus of your essay might change when addressing the following groups:

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 that you plan to accomplish this week.	vs.	Write an email to your employees explaining the tasks that you need them to accomplish this week.

You can use the Audience Analysis Worksheet to help you determine your audience's interests.

Worksheet 1: Audience Analysis Worksheet

1. My objectives in relation to my audience include:
   ____
2. My audience's values include:
   ____
3. Constraints that 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 this topic and technical terminology to be:
   High_____ Low_____ Mixed_____ Unknown_____
6. My assessment of the audience's willingness to accept the ideas I present is:
   High_____ Low_____ Mixed_____ Unknown_____
7. My audience's opinion of me as a communicator is:
   High_____ Low_____ Mixed_____ Unknown_____
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:
   ____
10. Contacts who can provide insight into my audience's thinking and understanding are:
    ____

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 EWS or the SNCOA, this may mean that you are communicating primarily with fellow Marines. Bear in mind, however, that these Marines still may have different Military Operational Specialties (MOS) 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, as 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 also important to remember that should you choose to submit a paper for publication, the 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 also about the changes you may need to make depending on the assignment guidelines.

2.2 Identifying Key Words and Understanding 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 make sure you are fully meeting the intent of every assignment, read each prompt carefully and make sure you fully understand the task at hand before you begin writing. Here are three key steps you can take to make sure you meet the requirements of your assignments:

1. Identify 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 correctly.

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, or argue? Below are examples of some common key words as well as academic assignments and personal or professional tasks that might require you to use the described approaches.

1. **Summarize**: To briefly provide the key concepts and main points. An example assignment might be, “Write two pages summarizing Clausewitz’s book, *On War*.”
2. **Apply**: To use a learned concept, model, or idea in a new situation. An example assignment might be, “Use David Kilcullen’s counterinsurgency theory to examine current operations in Afghanistan.”
3. **Argue**: To take a position and to justify that position with evidence. An example assignment might be, “Write an email to your supervisor telling him/her why you need funding for additional training.”

4. **Compare/Contrast**: To examine aspects of similarity and difference. An example assignment might be, "Explain the differences and similarities between the US and Chinese policy strategies in the 'pivot to the Pacific.'"
5. **Evaluate**: To weigh the advantages and limitations; to assess. An example assignment might be, "Write an After Action Report that describes a recent operation and identifies strengths and weaknesses of how your unit executed the operation."
6. **Synthesize**: To combine existing elements in order to create something original. An example assignment might be, "Read Clausewitz's *On War* and Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* to determine what gaps exist in the way the two theorists perceive warfighting."
7. **Explain**: To show the meaning of something; to clarify. An example assignment might be, "Inform a civilian about the repeal of Don't Ask, Don't Tell."
8. **Discuss**: To consider a subject from multiple points of view. An example assignment might be, "Consider the benefits and drawbacks of sequestration on military service members and their families."
9. **Analyze**: To break content into components in order to understand the whole. An example assignment might be, "Determine the main factors that led to failures during the Israeli-Arab war in 1973."

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

1. Is the Marine Corps Planning Process (MCPP) a useful tool for planners, or does it require revision?
   A. Is MCPP a useful tool for planners?
   B. If so, what are the specific characteristics that make MCPP a useful tool for planners?
   C. If not, what aspects of 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 United States' policy towards China?
   B. What factors might be used to evaluate the policy?
   C. Is the current policy effective? Why/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. The type of paper you are writing will influence how you plan your approach. On the following pages, you will find the most common types of papers you will 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. Use summaries to accomplish the following communication tasks:

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., meeting minutes)

Below are strategies for writing a summary:

Strategies for Writing Summaries
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 quote. See Chapter Eight for more information about how to cite summarized material.
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.
When summarizing part of a work (e.g., a few pages or paragraphs), try writing a one-sentence summary of each paragraph, then put all of the sentences together. **Note**: You may find that some of the paragraphs cover the same idea, since many writers will develop one main idea over the course of several paragraphs. You will also need to add transitions to connect these sentences so that your paragraph reads as a unified, coherent unit as opposed to a collection of summary sentences.
Attempt to put the text's concepts and ideas into your own words.
Put the text away while summarizing, then reread the summarized text to check for accuracy.
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 and compare with the argument you present. You will not have enough space to provide

direct quotes from all of your supporting sources; therefore, you will need to summarize some of the ideas these researchers present in order to capture the essence of their arguments without necessarily quoting their ideas word for word—this approach will allow you more space to fully develop your supporting arguments.

Argumentative Essay

Argumentative essays require you to take a position on a specific topic 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) and must support that argument with evidence. You may choose to think of each piece of evidence as a new supporting example; the more specific your examples are, the stronger your case will be.

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

> **"The US Marine Corps will not have the capability to support theater operational plans for forcible entry by the year 2025 due to limited amphibious assault ships."**

This statement makes an argument that can be opposed; thus, it can form the foundation of a true argumentative essay. For more information about drafting an effective thesis statement, please see Section 3.2.2.

Note: Most essays you write at the Marine Corps University will require you to present some type of argument, even if the assignment itself is not necessarily 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 argumentative thesis statement and to persuade your reader of its viability. That is, these papers require you to take a stance on the ideas you are comparing, analyzing, or reviewing. 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.

Much like the argumentative essay, the compare and contrast paper must have a thesis statement that tells the reader not only what the paper will cover, 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 fails to provide enough detailed information about this position: 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:

"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 paper requires you to break a concept down into its component parts in order to determine its meaning or significance. The analytical papers you will write while a student at MCU will usually require you to examine an event or theory and to break that event or theory into its component parts in order to better understand it. Much like the argumentative essay and the compare/contrast paper, the analytical paper will also need to contain a thesis statement that presents your specific position on your topic. That is, even though the paper is referred to as an "analytical paper," it still needs to contain a thesis statement that is argumentative 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, argumentative statement in this case. A revised thesis might state:

"In the Russo-Finnish War, Finnish tactical success 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 identified what the assignment is asking you to do, you need to determine its

scope—that is, what information you will cover and what you will leave out. When deciding on what information to include in your assignment, make sure to 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. For 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, you want to 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. For 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 well fitting, 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 "invention" that 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, faculty member, or LCSC faculty member instead of doing any 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/note taking in which you literally map out your ideas. Mind maps can be useful, not only for helping you to organize information before you begin to draft, but also in helping you to determine the scope and focus of your paper. In figure 2 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 the "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.

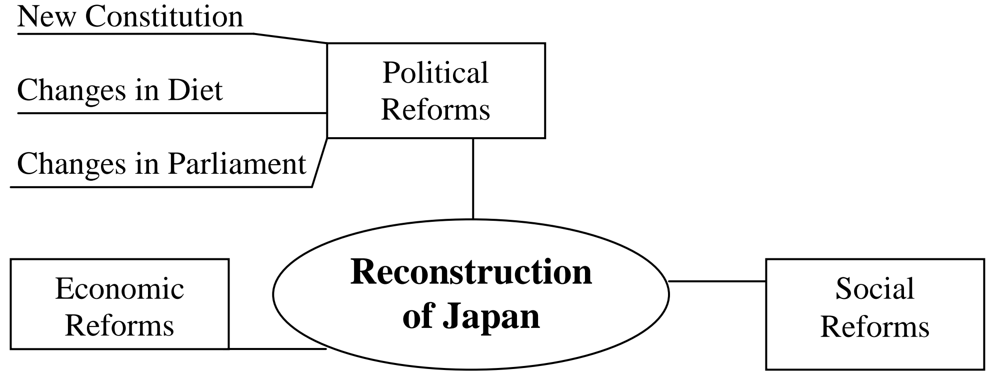

Figure 2: Reconstruction of Japan Mind Map Example

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 (which is often referred to as a thesis statement). At times, you may create a mind map after developing a thesis in order to determine how you will support that thesis in the paper. Figure 3 presents an example of this process.

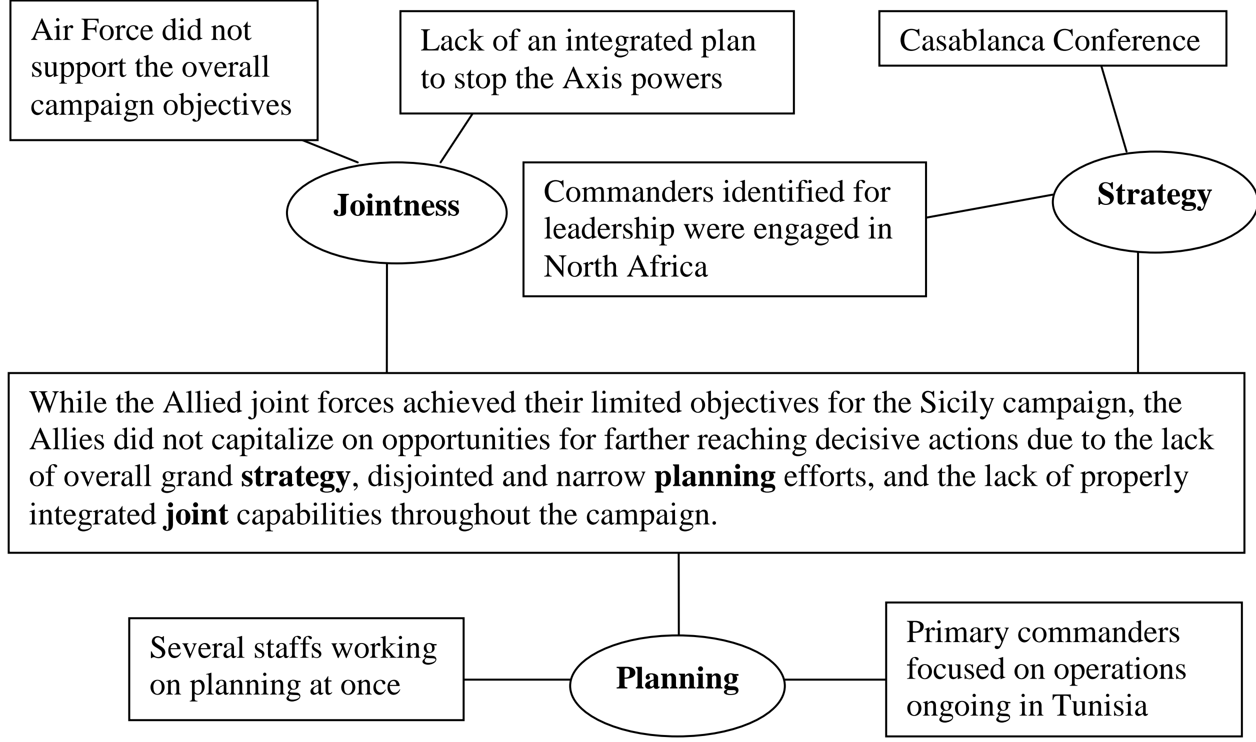

Figure 3: Sicily Campaign Mind Map Example

2.3.2 Traditional Outline

The mind maps pictured in figures 2 and 3 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 visual 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 also gives you the chance to read and evaluate the ideas you have already generated.

The following strategies can help you order the major points of your outline:

1. **Chronological order:** Organizes elements in the outline into major stages. This type of organization is frequently used 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.
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 necessarily agree with your argument.
4. **Compare and contrast:** Organizes items in terms of similarities and differences. This type of outline might be used to prepare for a paper that compares two campaigns or two 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 4 and 5 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 own desired level of detail. While some writers may feel comfortable writing after making a list of two or three key supporting points, others feel more confident and ready to write after developing a detailed outline. Keep in mind that 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 that you have to adhere to the structure of your outline if your ideas about your topic begin to shift as you write. 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/ ground forces did not receive the air support they required

Figure 4: 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, appropriate levels of security, and considerable restraint 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 terrorists 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.
III. In order to possess nuclear weapons, nations should need to demonstrate considerable restraint concerning employment of nuclear weapons.
  A. Definition of "considerable restraint."
    1. Countries only employ their nuclear weapons in self-defense; employment of nuclear weapons is a last resort.
    2. Countries do not threaten to use nuclear weapons in an offensive manner.
  C. Defining what considerable constraint looks like in practice.
    1. Countries that have exercised "considerable constraint" in the past.
    2. Examples of countries that have failed to demonstrate considerable restraint.

Figure 5: 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. Below 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

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 it?

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 to 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. However, matrices may also be helpful when you are attempting to synthesize or compare several texts, events, or theories. For instance, you might use the matrix on the following page to organize your thoughts if your instructor asked you to determine the relevance of *On War*, *The Art of War*, and *MCDP-1*.

Table 1: Textual Relevance Matrix

	Source 1: *On War*	Source 2: *The Art of War*	Source 3: *MCDP-1*
Main idea text presents			
Main examples/arguments author uses to support his/her main idea			
Is the source relevant to current military operations? Why or why not?			

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 6 may also help you to think about similarities and differences between two events, systems, or theories.

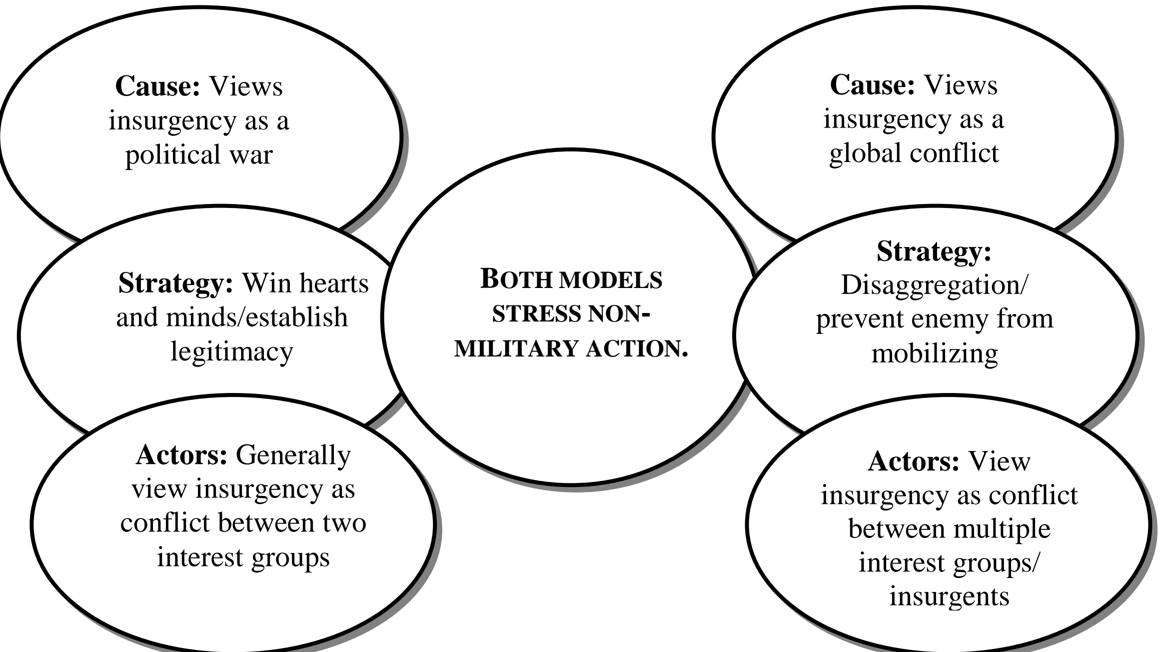

Figure 6: Double Bubble Map

2.3.5 Freewriting

Freewriting[3] is a strategy that 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 of freewriting as follows:

> To free write is to start writing and keep writing…Free writing doesn't have to be perfect stream of consciousness. You can just write the same sentence over and over again. Free writing doesn't have to be interestingly disorganized. Free writing can be perfectly organized. The only rule for free writing is to keep writing and don't stop and whatever you do is fine. In other words it's impossible to be wrong in free writing as long as you keep writing.[4]

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

In order to begin a freewriting exercise, you will want to write—by hand or on the computer—for at least 10 minutes. Write at a steady pace and allow the thoughts to flow. Keep writing and let the words fill up the paper. Don't worry about spelling, grammar, or logic; your goal with freewriting is simply to get your ideas into words and onto paper. If your thoughts are stuck, Elbow advises that you just write the same word over and over again until your mind takes you somewhere else. When you stop freewriting, read over what you have written. You are bound to find that you have generated some interesting ideas that may turn into new lines of inquiry.

Be aware that your freewriting will likely require significant revision before it can become a first draft. You will need to reorganize your ideas, and you may even 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 session. Below are a few tips you may want to consider before you attempt a freewrite 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, alone or with a friend. If you find that 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, or

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 (something you would be able to communicate in the amount of time spent on an elevator ride) that tells your reader specifically what your paper is about and what it will prove.

For instance, you might tell your faculty member that 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 it is the paper will prove and what supporting factors will be considered. If you find that it takes you several minutes to explain the purpose of your paper, or that you are struggling to remember the purpose of your writing, there's a good chance that you may need to further narrow your focus 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 civilian 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 or 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 MMS, IRP, Future War, or Argumentative Research paper.

ASSIGNMENT LOCATION	DUTY ASSIGNMENT	MAJOR DUTIES OR PROJECTS	Adapted from Donald M. Murray's *Write to Learn*, 2nd edition POSSIBLE TOPIC AREAS
Frankfurt, Germany	**Chief, Intelligence Division, V Corps G2**	• **Contingency plans** • **Threat briefings**	• **IC support to U&S commands** • **All-source intelligence analysis** • **Targeting** • **Intelligence writing & briefing** **Note:** Topic areas may stem from challenges you experienced on the job.
Fort Gordon, Georgia	**Commander, Special Security Detachment (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**

Figure 7: Sample Invention Template

While figure 7 focuses on using specific personal experience in order to determine 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	**4. 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—in fact, many writers find that once they begin drafting, their ideas about their topic begin to shift. Be aware, however, that if you decide to take the paper in a new direction once you begin drafting, you will need to pay special attention to making 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 will provide more information about the process of drafting and 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 that 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 also 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 that 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 drafting stage and develop new supporting elements. The main sections of this chapter are as follows:

3.1 Strategies for Approaching the Drafting Process
3.2 Parts of the Paper

3.1 Strategies for Approaching the Drafting Process

1. Accept that the first draft will not be your final draft.
2. Remember to be flexible in your writing. If you begin to formulate new ideas as you are drafting, do not be afraid to refine your original ideas.
3. Give yourself enough time. While a rapidly approaching deadline does provide some motivation, it does very little to improve the quality of the writing produced. Writing is a process; it takes time and involves multiple steps. Giving yourself the time to put your draft aside for a day or two before revising will help you to spot mechanical or logical problems in your writing. In addition, the earlier you complete your draft, the more time you will have to seek a peer, faculty, or Leadership Communication Skills Center review.
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 revisions 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 also include front matter such as a preface, acknowledgments, and a table of contents, and back matter such as appendices, a bibliography, and endnotes. The length, focus, and nature of these parts of the paper will vary depending on the type of writing task you have been asked to perform. 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 longer 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 the introduction, but you should place the thesis where it will be most effective for the purposes of your paper and for the reader's needs.

Introduction Checklist

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.

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 or historical event to gain the reader's interest. In order to capture the reader's interest, you will want to provide enough context for the reader to become interested in your argument. Your introduction motivates the reader to continue reading.

Presenting a Thesis Statement

By the end of the introduction, the reader should have an understanding of what it is the paper will prove. Almost all academic writing should present some type of argumentative 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 also need to adapt the introduction to shape the new ideas you introduce 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 drafting the supporting body paragraphs first. 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. The following pages provide examples and critiques of introductions written by MCU students during the 2007-2008 and 2008-2009 academic years. Below are some example introductory paragraphs:

Introductory Paragraph from Student Paper Titled "Permanent Law Enforcement Fusion Cells: The Key to Mitigating Global Jihadist Threats"

Captures Interest: The Syrian Uprising has resulted in more than one hundred thousand civilian deaths and nine million displaced persons and refugees since its outbreak in March 2011.[5] These figures are shocking enough, but their destabilizing regional effects are further exacerbated by the arrival of more than twenty thousand radicalized foreign fighters to Syria and Iraq.[6] **Establishes Context and Purpose:** In September 2014, President Barack Obama warned the United Nations Security Council of the global threat posed by these foreign terrorist fighters, recognizing that "as we've already seen in several cases, they may try to return to their home countries to carry out deadly attacks."[7] It takes only one terrorist to cause tremendous havoc and to compromise US national security; therefore, mitigation is critical. **Presents Argument**: In order to counter these terrorist threats, the United States should establish a permanent law enforcement foreign fighter fusion. This cell would provide the United States and partner nations with the unity of effort required to defeat the flow of foreign terrorist fighters to the West. The collective organization of the multinational fusion cell would benefit not only Western nations but also Syria and its regional neighbors, while contributing to the defeat of the global jihadist movement.

Introductory Paragraph from Student Paper Titled "China's Expanding Sphere of Influence in Latin America and the Caribbean"

Captures Interest: While the United States is focusing on the rise of China in the Asia-Pacific region, China has been quietly expanding its economic, political, and military influence into Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). **Presents Context:** Taking China's strategic culture and history in the Asia-Pacific region into account may shed light on the intent China has towards Latin America in its efforts to expand its global economic and industrialization goals. China's investment in Latin America has the ability to change the relationship and notion of dominance that the United States has historically held in Latin America; a dominance that the United States has perhaps taken for granted. Additionally, many analysts are concerned that China's expanding political, economic, and military influence in LAC could prove to be a future challenge for US naval forces to freely transit through the region, utilizing an isthmian canal, during a time of crisis. It is unclear at this time whether China's expansion into Latin America is

in retaliation for the US presence in the Pacific or if it is simply to develop benign economic growth and political stability. Either way, the United States will need to expand its frame of reference from stability in the Asia Pacific to trans-oceanic access utilizing all elements of national power to manage China's growing sphere of influence. **Presents Argument:** The security of US national interests in LAC will most likely involve not military strategies to constrain China, but the diplomatic and economic elements of national power to ensure political stability and continued economic progress in the region.

The following 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 expressions and overgeneralizations, such as "from the beginning of time" and "underdeveloped nations are a threat to national security."
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.
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.

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

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

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

These terms are jargon. In an academic paper, it is advisable to use scholarly terms, not military terms, to reach a broader audience.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The author explains the purpose of the paper.

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

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

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

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

This introduction is effective because it contextualizes the paper's argument without providing excess background information. The thesis statement is specific and provides the "what" as well as the "why." Successful introductions provide readers with a clear sense of direction, allowing them to understand what the main argument is 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 also 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 statement in some way.

Your purpose for writing as well as the audience you are writing for will also 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 argumentative research paper. See Chapter Two for more information about common academic writing assignments that you may complete at MCU. 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 "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 tell your reader your topic; it should also express your stance on that topic. That is, it must present a position that you can argue. Consider the following thesis statement:

> **Weak Thesis**: "This paper evaluates Ernest Hemingway's famous novel *A Farewell to Arms."*

Questions that readers may have could include: What aspects of the novel will be evaluated? What is the main point the author wants to make about the text? A revised thesis might say:

> **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 that the author will discuss in the body of the paper. It also 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 reading, critical thinking, and writing skills," the reader would expect the body of the paper to address how the curriculum encourages critical reading, critical thinking, 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 the 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 "how" and "why."

How will you develop the argument in the body of the paper? Why is the argument important (e.g., "so what" factor)? The language in the weak thesis example below needs to show how the argument will developed should provide the "so what" factor.

> **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 also 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:

> **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."

This thesis statement clearly answers the three questions: The "what" is the need for leveraging civilian graduate education programs, the "how" is through evolving away from traditional training methods, and the "why" is to better prepare combat arms company grade officers for stability operations.

The thesis should contain clear language and should avoid abstract terminology.

The thesis should contain a clearly defined argument. The following 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, what about preventing military personnel from attending political protests is unethical? How does it go against principles of democracy? A more clearly worded thesis 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). It also 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 prompt. In this case, the thesis should specifically address the key components of the assignment question (See Chapter Two for more information about identifying key words and analyzing assignments). Below is an example of how you might develop a working thesis to answer an assignment question:

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 also 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 it, 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 II: Research and Documentation.

3.2.4 The Body: Presenting Evidence to Support the Thesis Statement

The body is the "meat and potatoes" 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, 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 he will support this argument by showing how prohibiting military personnel from attending political protests violates free speech and presents opposing viewpoints from being heard.

If you were to outline a paper on this topic, it might look like this:

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 pretests 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

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 8 presents an example of how you might use a mind map to diagram your thesis and supporting points.

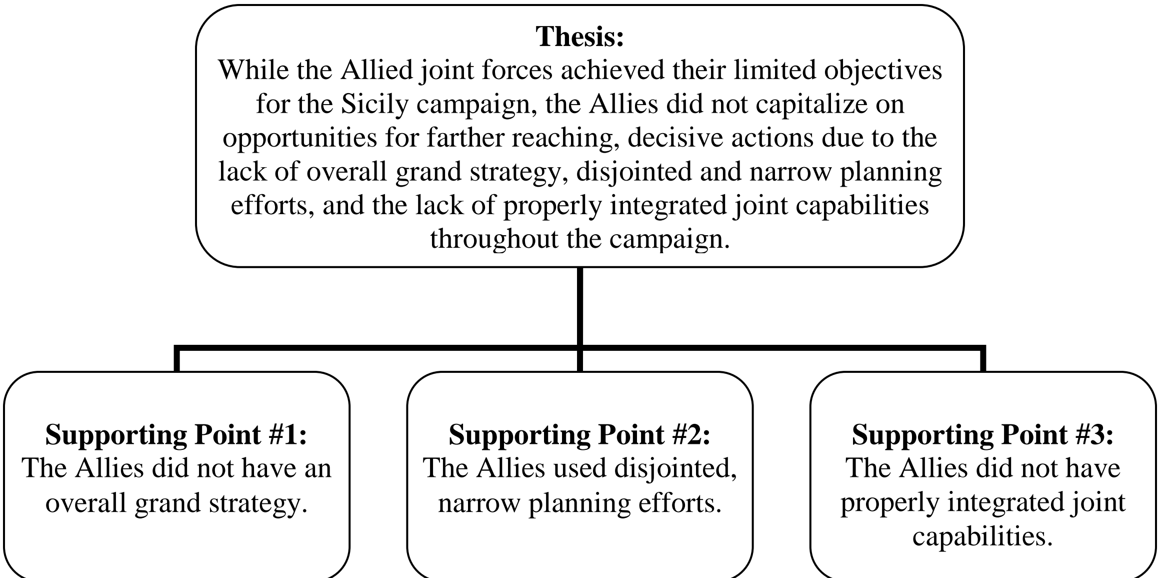

Figure 8: Visual Representation of Thesis and Supporting Points

These main supporting points might then form the topic sentences for the paper's supporting paragraphs. The topic sentence for the first paragraph may read as follows:

"The Allies did not capitalize on opportunities for farther reaching decisive actions due to the lack of overall grand strategy."

The second paragraph may start with the following sentence:

"The Allies' narrow, disjointed planning efforts prevented them from achieving far-reaching decisive actions."

Similarly, the third paragraph may read:

"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. For instance, if you needed to cover this topic in a two-page limit, you may only have space to develop one specific example. When given the choice, strive to develop a few examples fully rather than providing only a broad overview of many examples.

3.2.5 Paragraph Construction

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

The organization of body paragraphs is quite similar to the organization of an essay or argumentative 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/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 reiterates the main point (in different language) and connects the ideas in the paragraph to the next body paragraph.

Below are the four 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). 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 paragraph's main idea, explains its significance, and/or connects main idea to the next body paragraph.

In accordance with the paragraphing principles above, a body paragraph template might look like this:

Topic sentence (introduces main idea/connects to thesis). **Supporting Sentences** (provide evidence and support for paragraph's main idea) xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx Xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx. **Clincher sentence** (sums up idea and transitions to next point).

A redacted body paragraph that follows this paragraph might 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 also observed these issues on the ground in Nigeria and has reported that…. [**Clincher sentence**] Therefore, the US response to X crisis in Syria must consider…

Below is an example of how these main components of a paragraph (topic sentence, supporting points, and clincher sentences/transitions) might look in a fully developed paragraph:

Paragraph Development Example 1:

[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 Founding Father doctrine. [8] In 1947, the US announced a significant economic and relief package for Greece and Turkey, attempting to promote democracy and deny communist expansion in the region.[9] In the following year, the US 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.[10] In 1949, the US signed the North Atlantic Treaty with the Wilsonian ideal of cooperative security, not alliance, in mind.[11] 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 ideals.[12] [**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.[13]

Paragraph Development Example 2:

[Topic sentence] The 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. [**Supporting evidence]** 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.[14] 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/concluding sentences]** These passions were harnessed to mobilize huge armies from the population. Rapidly raised at the state level by local politicians,[15] the Union and the Confederacy fielded more than 2 million and 900,000 troops respectively, with majority of them volunteers.

3.2.6 Counterarguments

Academic research papers often include not only supporting examples but also **counterarguments**. A counterargument is an argument against your thesis; it is a challenging of the primary argument you present in the paper.

Why Write a Counterargument?

Some of the assignments you complete at MCU will require you to write a counterargument. However, even if a counterargument is not required, including one in your argument shows that you've considered other points of view. It allows you to strengthen your argument by 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 that your initial stance is still valid despite these opposing views. When you refute a counterargument, you use evidence to argue that the point is incorrect or misunderstood. When you accommodate a counterargument, you might acknowledge the legitimacy of the argument, but you may argue that 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 placing his/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 that your opponent has not considered
2. Faulty or incorrect information that 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

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 that the solution to curtaining civil war in Syria is……… [**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 work as your "attention getter" or to contextualize your main point.
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. This allows you to acknowledge and address any opposing viewpoints before moving into your concluding paragraph.

3.2.7 The Conclusion

After reading the introduction and body of your paper, your reader should fully understand your argument and all 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've presented in the body of the paper.

Below is a list of things 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 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.

Below you will find two sample introductions and conclusions.

<u>Sample Introduction and Conclusion</u>
<u>TITLE: Preventing Chaos: Conditionality of Nuclear Proliferation</u>

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 had 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. All nations do not have the 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 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.

> This concluding paragraph is effective because it revisits some of the main themes discussed in the paper without directly restating the thesis statement. It also broadens the discussion of nuclear weapons ("these elements not only restrain….") without introducing new information.

Sample Introduction and Conclusion
TITLE: Wilsonian Idealism: An American Tradition

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 in the years since, have repeatedly tested, and progressively shaped, US approach to foreign policy. But 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. As will be seen, it is Wilsonian idealism, above all, that has been the prominent and enduring influence on 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 GWOT, and in 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. With the passing of time, Wilsonian idealism has faded neither in influence nor in application. Rather, it has endured as the foremost influence on US foreign policy that shows no signs of disappearing anytime soon.

> This concluding paragraph also 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's important to remember that writing is a multiple-step process—it's unlikely that your first draft will be your final draft. Most successful writing involves not only invention and drafting but also a rigorous revisions process. Chapter Four provides strategies for revising your draft to make it a polished final product.

Chapter Four: The Revisions Process

Revision refers to the process of systematically questioning the ideas, structure, and development of a piece of writing. During the revisions process, you will evaluate your central argument, the arguments you use to support that argument, and the language you use to present your ideas. Though many writers may thing of revision as proofreading or "line editing," it is first a process of evaluating ideas and structure and secondly 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 Revisions 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 Revisions 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.

4.1.1 Global-Level and Surface-Level Revision Areas

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

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

Surface-level issues refer mostly to sentence-level elements such as conciseness, word choice, grammar, punctuation, and general formatting. Though most people think of the revisions process as the act of correcting these surface-level issues, you will spend the majority of your time concentrating on global-level issues, as 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 perfect sentences later in the revisions 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 revisions process is evaluating the draft to make sure the focus of your writing is appropriate. Below are a few elements you may want to take into consideration as you evaluate the focus of your draft:

1. Review your assignment question, concentrating on some of the key words (See Chapter Two for more information about identifying key words).
    - Does your draft address your specific assignment prompt?
    - If your writing task is not necessarily academic (e.g., professional military writing), does it fulfill all of the requirements of the project?
    - Does your draft accomplish the task at hand? If you determine that your paper does not meet the requirements of the assignment, it is likely that 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.
    - Does your paper approach the assignment/task in a way that is appropriate, considering the audience's familiarity with your subject and purpose for reading the paper? For instance, if you are writing a report, does it include all of the information your supervisor or colleagues will need to know?
    - Does the draft contain information that distracts readers from the central purpose and focus of the report? For more information about determining the needs of your audience, please 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 that your ideas about your topic change as you begin to defend your argument and develop your rationale. Below are a few items you will want to consider when you evaluate your central argument:

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

For more information on thesis development, please 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 opinions and personal experience. (Click this link for more information about primary and secondary sources.)
3. The conclusions you have drawn from your sources 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 also need to consider your use of primary and secondary source material. Though you will want to use outside sources to provide support for the claims you make throughout the paper, most of your document should be comprised of original thought. As a general rule, if 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 lessening your own ideas by spending too much time discussing what others have said about your topic. On the other hand, if you haven't 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 sources (e.g., both primary and secondary sources, not all sources are written by the same author or organization).

4.2.4 Evaluating Documentation

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

1. All paraphrased and summarized information is followed by an endnote.
2. All run-in direct quotes are placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote.
3. All long 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 without noticing. Remember to reread your document to make sure that if you have borrowed words or ideas from an author, they are properly documented.
5. All of the direct quotes you use in the paper are introduced with a signal phrase (e.g., "according to the author," "as demonstrated by," and "Jones substantiates this claim...").
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 about 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 2010), 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. For specific information regarding how to use the automatic endnote tool in Microsoft Word, see Appendix A in this Guide. 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. The paper includes transitions that provide readers with a sense of direction and carry readers from one idea to the next.
4. Connections between paragraphs are clear.
5. Connections between sentences within paragraphs are clear.
6. Each body paragraph supports the thesis in some way.
7. Paragraphs are arranged in a logical order; paragraphs build upon one another.
8. The conclusion draws broader implications from the information and arguments that are presented in the body, rather than summarizing the main points.
9. The conclusion is free from new information/evidence. For more information about how to properly structure and organize an academic paper, please 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 that you can use to revise your paper and improve word choice, clarity of thought, and conciseness.

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

4.3.2 Diction

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

Correspondence	vs.	**Letter**
Oversight	vs.	**Accident, Goof-up**
Improvement	vs.	**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 probably choose to use the word *accident* instead 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. Use strong, active verbs, such as *illustrates* instead of *shows*.
2. Use specific nouns, such as *Clausewitz* instead of *the strategist*.
3. Avoid using intensifiers, such as *extremely*, *really*, and *importantly*.
4. Use specific subjects as opposed to indefinite pronoun starters (e.g., *the submarine* vs. *it*).
5. Keep verbs in active voice (the subject goes before the verb), but use passive voice to soften criticism or keep a neutral tone to the piece.
6. Avoid changing verbs into nouns and adjectives with endings such as - ion, - ment, and - ency.
7. Express parallel ideas in sentences in parallel form (e.g., I enjoy running, swimming, and dancing, **NOT** I enjoy running, swim, and dancing). Chapter Eleven provides an in-depth explanation of parallel structure.
8. Use a mix of sentence lengths and structures for variety, but select the type that best fits the thought.
9. Vary the length of your sentences to make your writing interesting and to keep the audience's attention.

10. Rely on short words for clear, concise writing; however, make sure they are appropriate for the assignment and academic level.
11. Use words that are familiar to the audience (e.g., avoid unnecessary jargon/technical terminology).
12. Use specific language as opposed to clichés or idioms, which readers may not understand. This type of language is often seen as a bit too informal for academic or professional writing.

4.3.4 Clarity

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

1. Make sure you select words that convey your exact intent; for example, "It was a good meeting" versus "the meeting resolved three questions."
2. Use concrete language, as opposed to abstract language, which refers to words that do not represent anything in the physical world. Concepts and ideas (i.e., diplomacy, love, freedom, and success) are usually represented in abstract terms. While you will likely need to use abstract terms in your writing, you will want to break these terms down so the reader can understand what they mean within the context of your paper. For instance, many theorists and flag officers may have different visions of what "success in the long war" should mean. Abstract words are relative and depend on your perspective, and thus specific, concrete examples are often needed to qualify these terms. For example, even in a Western society, individuals will have different ideas regarding what is moral.
3. Use inclusive language instead of clichés, euphemisms, idioms, and careless phrasing that may produce two interpretations. An example of a cliché might be, "It was raining cats and dogs." As this would be impossible to occur literally, it may not make sense to someone unfamiliar with the expression. Similarly, a euphemism such as the phrase "she passed away last year" may leave some readers confused. Where did she pass? How far away? Finally, American English includes the use of many idioms, such as "apple of my eye" and "a catch 22." These may or may not be familiar to your readers, who may come from a variety of different backgrounds and different countries/nationalities.
4. Use jargon only when appropriate and necessary. Jargon is technical language used by a specific group of individuals as a form of "shorthand." An example might be a US Marine calling his uniform his "cammies." While jargon is understood by the people within that specific group, it is often meaningless and confusing to outsiders. Avoid using jargon when writing for or speaking to people outside of your group. Use jargon sparingly when writing for or speaking to people within your group, especially if you are writing formally.
5. Avoid using ambiguous acronyms and abbreviations. Although an acronym may have one meaning in the US Marine Corps (e.g., PME stands for Professional Military Education), it may mean something entirely different to a professional from another field

(e.g., for physicians, PME stands for Progressive Myoclonus Epilepsies in regards to seizures caused by epilepsy and other genetic disorders). Abbreviations can also be confusing because they vary across and even within fields of study. In addition, abbreviations (e.g., *prof.* versus *professor*) are often seen as too informal for academic writing; spelling out these terms can improve formal voice.

4.3.5 Verbosity

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

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

You will improve your audience's attention if each sentence does not have the same basic structure as the other sentences. Try to vary your sentence length and construction in order to keep your writing interesting. Below 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."

A revised paragraph with varied sentence structures may look something like this:

"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."

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 that it is difficult to identify grammar and punctuation errors in your own writing, primarily because when you read your own work, you may have the tendency to verbally 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. Though spell check is a useful tool, it will not catch every error, nor will it always provide the best solution to correct the error. Therefore, you need to have the skills to identify and correct errors without relying on your word processor. 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. Read your document backwards. That is, read each page from the bottom right corner to the top, starting at the last word in each line.
2. Place your finger under each word and read the word silently.
3. Make a slit in a sheet of paper that reveals only one line of type at a time. Read the words from the bottom right corner to the top of the page, one line at a time.
4. Read the document out loud and pronounce each word carefully. You can also record yourself reading your paper (using an iPhone, a tape recorder, or any type of software that allows for audio recording). Play the recording back to yourself and listen for discrepancies.
5. Have a spouse or friend read your paper.
6. Send your paper to the LCSC or your respective school's writing center/program for feedback.

4.4 Ordering of Elements in an Academic 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 of an academic paper and the order in which they should appear. However, it's important to remember that not all research papers will contain all of the components listed below. This section provides an overview of the elements that 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. The front matter is also where you may want to provide acknowledgements for individuals who assisted you in the development of the paper.

Title Page

The *title page* should contain the full title of your paper or article and your name.
The place of publication or place where the paper was submitted (e.g., Marine Corps University or your professor's name) should also appear on the title page.

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 or reach that conclusion. Below 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 Minster 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.

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 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've drawn as a result of this research. In some cases, especially when conducting experimental research, you may also include the methodology you used to collect the data.

Table of Contents

The table of contents should precede most of the front matter, with the exception of the title page and epigraph (if an epigraph is included). 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. The table of contents should also list the main sections or subjects covered in the paper and their corresponding page numbers.

List of Figures

If you've 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, please 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've 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), [and] acknowledgements."[16] 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. For more information about drafting an introduction, body, and conclusion, refer to Chapter Three.

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 definition of unfamiliar terms. Consult 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 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 the definition of terms that are likely to be unfamiliar to the reader. This glossary should be arranged in alphabetical order.

Notes

Chicago Style allows writers to cite sources with either endnotes or footnotes; however, MCU 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 encourage you to use this function while a student at MCU. See Appendix A 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, please 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 A for more information about how to create section breaks.

Before turning in the final draft of your research paper, you may want to use the following checklist, which shows the ordering of elements in a research paper.

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
    - Body
    - Conclusion
- Appendices
- Endnotes
- Bibliography

Part II: Research and Documentation

Research, like writing, is an iterative process. It typically begins with a problem 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 II of the *Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide* offers you 1) an overview of the research process, 2) strategies and heuristics to guide you through different stages of your research, and 3) a guide to citing and documenting your work using the *Chicago Manual of Style*. The chapters included in Part II are as follows:

- **Chapter 5:** The Research Process
- **Chapter 6**: Developing a Research Question
- **Chapter 7**: Constructing an Argument
- **Chapter 8**: Writing with Sources
- **Chapter 9**: Endnote and Bibliography Formats

Chapter Five: The Research Process

Research is fundamentally a problem-solving exercise. It is a search for evidence that will help you investigate and answer a research question in the way that best suits your particular context and purpose. You participate in research processes every day. When you need to decide what kind of car or computer to buy, for example, you typically conduct research—by talking to others, by searching the web—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 will provide you with strategies for beginning your research and will cover the following topics:

5.1 Overview of the Research Process
5.2 Finding a Topic and Collecting Background Information
5.3 Working with Sources: Reading Critically and Actively

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 also helps you to develop an 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 a dozen other questions first. Research can also 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 9 illustrates.

RESEARCH IS A CYCLICAL PROCESS.

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

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

Research subdivides the problem into appropriate sub problems.

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

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

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

Figure 9: 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 that 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 that 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 that your thesis has shifted and you now need more evidence to support your specific claim. Similarly, you may feel overwhelmed by your sources and all of the sub-topics that are inherent in your main topic. In this case, you may need to do some outlining or mind mapping in order to determine which aspect of your paper you are most interested in presenting. Once you've 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 that you find interesting. The goal of your background research should be to familiarize yourself with definitions and general issues associated with a topic that interests you.

While choosing a topic can be one of the most difficult aspects of writing an academic research paper, it can also 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 that you would like to further investigate. You may also want to consider the topics from guest speakers, a current event, the Secretary of Defense Essay Competition (See Appendix B in the online version of this guide), or current military history and strategic planning journals such as *Parameters*, *Small Wars Journal*, or *Joint Forces Quarterly.* This will help you familiarize yourself with some of the current topics and critical perspectives in military studies. In particular, you may want to pay attention to the last few pages of an article of interest. Researchers will often propose issues for further consideration or ideas for future research in the conclusion portion of an article. These may provide a point of departure for your own research.

Before you commit to a topic, there are three questions that you should ask yourself:

1. Am I really 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, that 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 that 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 also include information that 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 also give you their opinion about additional sources available on the topic. Once you have developed a strong command of the topic and you have articulated your central research question, you might 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 that you will fly to France to study the beaches. However, you may be able to find valuable correspondence in the Marine Corps Archives. When viewing primary sources, try to remember to place the object or document you are studying into its context; 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 that 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. Secondary sources also further disciplinary understanding and can create new theoretical frameworks that readers use to attain

insight. Secondary sources have also 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 (e.g., nearly anyone can edit or add content to a Wikipedia page, so you may not want to consult this 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 (e.g., reports from the field and interviews with African culture experts) to show why your model would be effective. Figure 10 offers examples of primary and secondary source research.

Figure 10: 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

While you may not use every strategy each time you read, these approaches may help you to read more effectively so that you can create new knowledge you can draw on as you write. Using such 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 also want to identify who the author is, what background experience or level of

expertise he or she has regarding the topic, and what potential biases could be present based on this background knowledge and experience.

If you are previewing a longer text, such as an entire book, you may not want to "skim" the entire text. However, you will want to take a look at the table of contents and the preface. By looking at this introductory front matter, you will have some idea of the approach the book will take and the main analytical perspectives the authors will incorporate or disprove throughout the book. The preface and table of contents will also 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 points with you over a cup of coffee or a mug of beer, how would you respond? Would you agree with the author's main points? Would you present a new point of view? Are there parts of the argument you agree with? Are parts of the argument unsupported or questionable? Are there any terms, concepts, or models you do not understand? Are there perspectives that 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 may highlight key phrases, indicate supporting points that 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 text that does not belong to you, you might use post-it notes or flags to indicate key ideas. You can even color code the flags to trace main themes throughout the reading. For instance, if you are trying to determine how the United States applied the DIME principle in a particular conflict, you could assign a color to each element of the DIME (e.g., yellow for diplomacy, green for information, and etc.). 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 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 11 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.

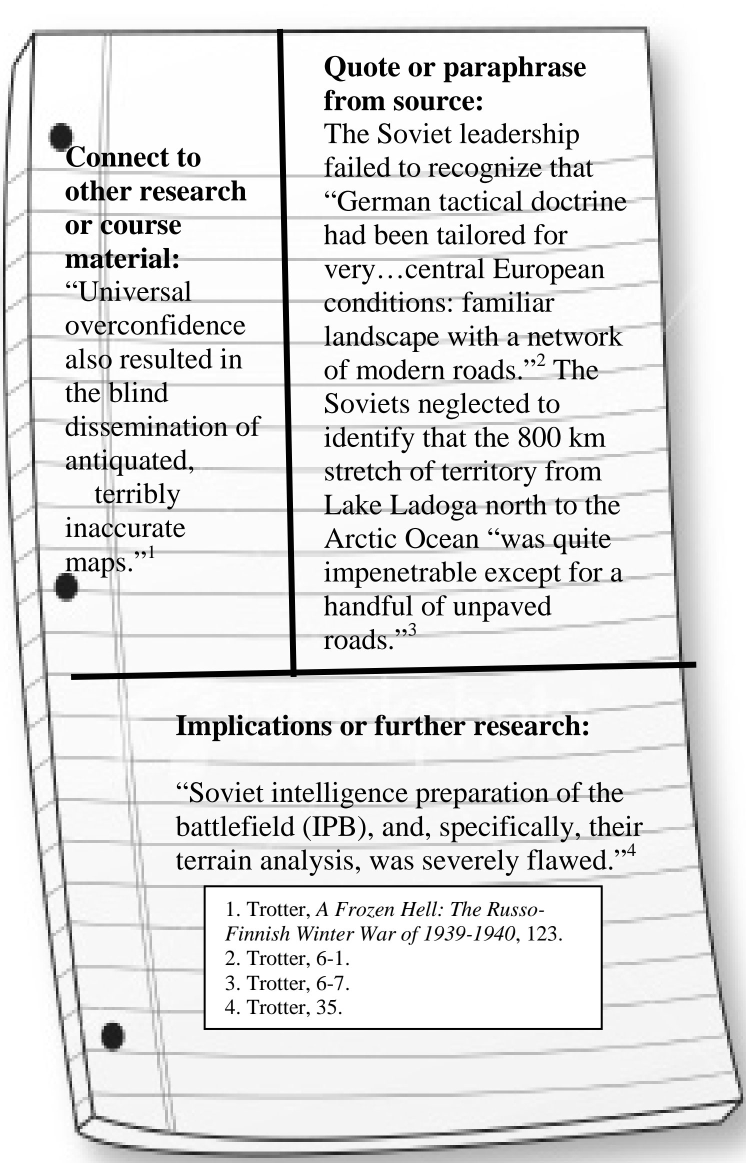

Figure 11: Cornell Note Taking Method

In the Cornell Note Taking Method, you divide your page into three sections. In one section, you summarize or quote an idea from your source. In another section, you make a connection between the new idea and a previous idea that you have learned in class or that you 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 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."[17] You will ask yourself about the structure of the argument. You will also want to examine the author's assumptions, the sources and evidence he or she uses to support those assumptions, and possible author biases. Here are some questions you may want to ask yourself when you analyze a text:

1. Do you agree with the assumptions the author makes? Why or why not?
2. What type of evidence does the author use to support these assumptions (surveys, interviews, field research)?
3. Does the author use secondary sources to support his or her argument? If so, are the secondary sources written by credible researchers? In which publications do these sources appear? Are these publications considered biased in any way?
4. How does the author make his or her point? Does the author rely on emotional appeals? Does the author include unsupported, sweeping generalizations?
5. Who is the author? Does he or she belong to an organization with known biases? What are the author's credentials?
6. What is the author's purpose for writing?

5.3.6 Responding

Generally, responding to a text involves taking a few minutes to write down your initial reaction to a text. This need not be a polished, well-organized piece of writing. 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 also 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 literally becomes a dialogue.

This chapter concludes with a Critical Reading Worksheet and a template for a Three-Column Journal. Using these strategies may 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 believe that using these strategies will actually save time: Active and engaged reading strategies help you assimilate concepts for the long term, so that you will not have to spend so much time rereading.

Worksheet 4: Critical Reading Worksheet

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

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:

6.1 Reviewing the Literature on Your Topic
6.2 Evaluating Your Sources
6.3 Varying (Triangulating) Your Sources
6.4 Primary Research: Constructing Interview and Survey Questions
6.5 Organizing Your Research Data
6.6 Connecting Your Research Data to Your Research Question

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 also may help you begin thinking about the key words you will need in order to find information that is relevant to your topic. Rather than researching "counterinsurgency" or "socialized medicine"—topics which are simply too broad and may not yield a fruitful search—your search will be significantly more productive if you develop a specific research question; for example, "Why was the British military's counterinsurgency strategy in Malaya more effective than the French military's counterinsurgency strategy?" Below are a few examples of research questions that you can used to direct and narrow the focus of a research paper:

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

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

1. Is Hugo Chavez's growing influence dangerous to the United States' national and regional (Latin American) interests?
    A. What are Hugo Chavez's primary interests in Latin America?
    B. How should the United States address Hugo Chavez's growing influence in Latin America?
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 also important to keep opposing points of view in mind; this will help you avoid making hasty, unfounded conclusions. When conducting a literature review, ask yourself the following questions:

1. What is known about the topic?
2. Is there a chronology attached to the topic?
3. Are there any gaps in knowledge 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 these authors. In each document, you will find the bibliography and notes that will guide you further in your search.

If your initial searches seem to yield few results, you may need to broaden your topic or even select a new one. Focus on your question, take thorough notes, and use a systematic approach. When in doubt, consult the reference librarians. They can assist you to find the best key words for your search, and they may have access to databases that you do not. Reference librarians can also instruct you on the use of online databases in your article searches.

6.2 Evaluating 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.[18] 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 that his counterinsurgency strategy is effective, reliability would be lowered if you were to find out that a group of commanders employed his strategy in Vietnam with limited success. 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 that her theory about professional military education (PME) is effective, credibility would be lowered if you were to find out that individual had never taught a PME class, or had never been exposed to the military environment before. Credibility would be increased if that individual could show you statistics proving the effectiveness of his theory on a targeted group of PME students.

Objectivity refers to an author's ability to present ideas that are not colored by bias, individual interpretation, or personal feelings and/or opinions. It also refers to an author's ability to present several sides of an issue (i.e., he/she must address counterarguments). For instance, if one were to argue that our current president is unable to meet the economic policy needs of the nation, the author would need to examine the issue using a variety of sources written by both individuals who are politically aligned with the president and those who oppose his political policies. Objectivity would be increased if the author of the source could state this argument simply based on facts, statistics, and/or logical arguments gleaned from statistics; the use of neutral sources may also help to bolster objectivity. You can often tell 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 that the United States military needs to pull all troops out of a certain location tomorrow, and you find out that this individual's brother was set to embark on a dangerous mission to that location on that same day, the neutrality of this text might be questionable. Likewise, if someone were to argue that 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, very 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 3.

Table 3: Determining the Relevance and Veracity of a Source

Type of 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. Is the book too specialized? Is it 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 web site's home page. Is the information relevant to your research question? 2. Find out when the web site was last updated. Is the information current enough for your purpose?	1. What is the purpose of the web site? Is it trying to sell a particular product or 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. 3. What are the motives/interests of the sponsor/organization that maintains the website?

6.3 Varying (Triangulating) Your Sources

As you think about evaluating sources and checking for potential bias, keep in mind that the more sources and different types of analysis you can use to prove your thesis, the more credibility your work will have. This process of collecting multiple sources of data that come together to support a particular point is commonly known as triangulation.[19] Triangulation adds to the academic rigor of your work because it demonstrates to the reader that the conclusions you have drawn are not a result of biased observation. The following is an example of how you can use triangulation of data to prove your thesis statement:

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

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

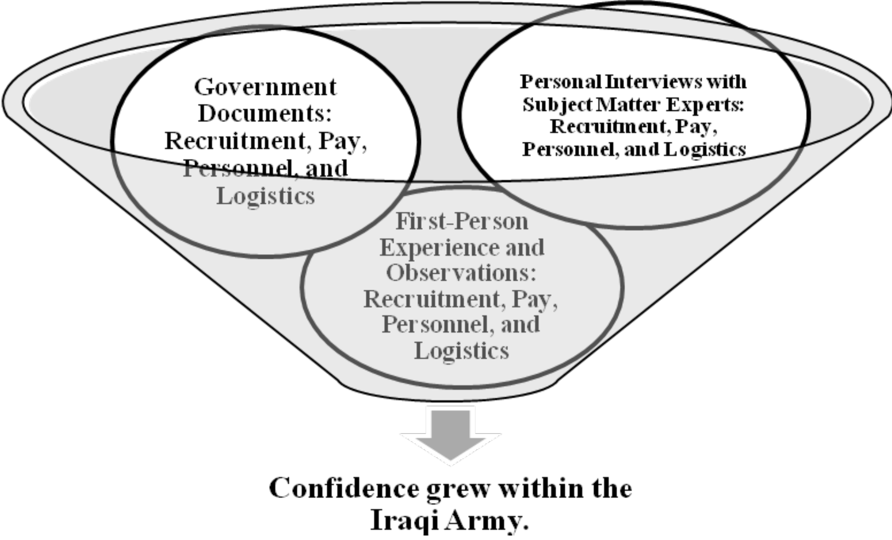

Figure 12: Triangulation of Data to Support a Claim

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 also 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 this type of original research.

6.4 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 that 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. The individuals in your sample should be representative in that 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 or strategy in one of the Middle East conflicts, you would limit your target population to only the Marines who deployed there and who had had experience with that weapon or strategy. 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.

6.4.1 Survey and Interview Questions

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

Open questions and closed questions are two basic types of questions that 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.

> **Closed question**: Did the ethics training you received pre-deployment prepare you adequately to make difficult decisions in combat situations? (Yes/No)
> **Open question**: How can the Marine Corps improve its ethics training to better prepare Marines for the operational forces?

As you construct an interview or 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 might be 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 also 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 also less time-consuming for respondents, thus making it more likely that 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. An example is, "It seems to me that the pushing down of intelligence assets (i.e., company intelligence cell) is a natural evolution paralleling the changing character of warfare. Thoughts?" This interviewer is first telling you his or her own perceptions, and does not orient the question to what you, the responder, perceive to be the case. A better way in which to solicit this information might be, "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 imbedded 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 that military officers should receive language training, but not culture training or vice versa. A suggested revision would clarify the ambiguity with one of these options: 1) "Should military officers receive both culture training AND language training?" Or 2) as two separate questions: A) "Should military officers receive culture training? B) Should military officers receive language training?"

Ambiguous quantifying words are vague ways of describing something that can confuse meaning. For example, if someone asked you, "How well did your organic intelligence capability support planning?" the word "well" is a bit vague and leaves too much room for interpretation. When asking survey participants to evaluate a particular person, process, or idea, consider using a Likert scale instead of using vague descriptors. A suggested rewrite might be, "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?"

6.4.2 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 might find out terminology you thought was familiar and easily understood is not familiar to the people within your sample. The questions you ask interviewees could also be interpreted multiple ways, or the questions you ask may not yield the answers you are seeking. Once you have conducted the pilot test, you should know whether or not some of the questions need tweaking.

6.4.3 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 also 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.

6.4.4 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 phone 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 establish and maintain a rapport with the interviewee, and this guidance will likely allow for this rapport to occur.

It is also important to allow interviewees to express their thoughts in their own words and for you to record their responses verbatim. You can always ask a clarifying or follow-up question if they do not give you enough information, but do not show approval or agreement with responses. Instead, monitor your nonverbal gestures. Finally, if you are conducting a focus group, make sure to take group dynamics into account.[20] Several factors affect group dynamics, including interviewees' ranks, positions in the organization, experience/background with the topic, personal feelings about the topic, and homogeneity.

6.5 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 that 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. Your annotation could also contain a key quote or your own evaluation of bias in the source. Finally, you may want to annotate how each source relates to the other sources in your bibliography.

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 also use different colored note cards to represent the various topics you intend to discuss in your paper. Assigning topics to a particular color note will not only help you to organize your information, but it also will help you to lay out your thoughts when you begin to write your paper.

The modern 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 you 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. You will also 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 simplifying the information. Figure 13 illustrates a few sample note cards:

Alexander the Great: Background

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

<u>Quote: Alexander the Great on the importance of provisions</u>

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

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

Figure 13: Traditional Note Cards

It is very important to take notes carefully. Be sure that 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 not have the source open when they are making notes about it 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. Make sure to indicate which text is quoted and/or paraphrased and which text constitutes your own ideas. Likewise, if you are going to cut and paste information from an electronic source, make sure you immediately differentiate the quote from the rest of the text. 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 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.

6.6 Connecting Your Research Data to Your Research Question

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

The advantage of the research question is that the rigor and success of a study has nothing to do with whether or not the conclusions you draw support your original hypothesis. Instead, the success of a research project depends on your ability to use your data in an effective, logical manner. For instance, a researcher may set out to 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 that 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 to answer the research question that is based on the data you have collected.

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 research 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 prove before you begin conducting focused research. The next chapter will provide you with strategies for developing and constructing your argument.

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 also 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 on track. 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 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 Masters of Military Studies paper, your Future War paper, or your Independent Research Paper. In terms of placement, the thesis usually appears near the end of the introduction.

The Importance of Argument

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.[21] An effective thesis statement should answer three questions:

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

To be argumentative, a thesis statement must make a claim with a level of controversy. For instance, you will want to avoid writing about something that has already been accepted as a fact. Whether or not a thesis is considered argumentative may also depend on 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, "The Marine Corps should open all infantry positions to women," could be considered a thesis statement because it is a controversial topic that the armed forces continue to debate today.

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 event? Are there any research gaps? Does this event provide any lessons learned

that my service or agency might apply on the modern battlefield? If you find you have something new to add to the debate, then the paper is likely a great use of your time and energy.

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

1. **Audience:** Your audience will determine your process for proving an argument. Ask yourself: What sort of evidence will the audience find convincing? What biases and beliefs do the readers already hold? How will you counter these beliefs? 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? Who are some of the most credible people in the field? What stances do they 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., correspondences, 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 of the question will you examine?

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

1. **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.

2. **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.
3. **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 also 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 (refer to Chapter Two for more information about outlining and mind mapping) to begin thinking about the direction the paper might take and to organize some of the research you have already done on your topic.

As stated in the introduction to this section, research is an iterative 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.

The next chapter will provide you with information on proper citation practices and strategies for avoiding plagiarism. In addition, it will provide you with examples of how to cite a variety of different sources.

Chapter 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, or summarized information. This chapter also includes an explanation of the university's academic integrity policy and strategies for avoiding plagiarism. The following chapter provides guidance regarding *Chicago Manual of Style* endnote and bibliography formats, but students should review this chapter to ensure understanding of basic citation practices before attempting to format CMS endnote and bibliography entries.

8.1 Why Use Sources in Your Writing?
8.2 Plagiarism
8.3 When to Cite: Avoiding Plagiarism
8.4 Using Direct Quotations
8.5 Paraphrasing
8.6 Summarizing
8.7 Checklist for Using Your Sources Effectively
8.8 Checklist for Avoiding Plagiarism
8.9 Overview of Chicago Style 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 might include personal interviews and correspondences, maps, newspaper articles, personal observations of a situation or object, journal articles, books, or any other item that might 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 also manifested themselves in the form of artifacts. Good performance was rewarded with hunting knives to underscore the "predator-prey" metaphors.[22] "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."[23] These artifacts in no way referenced

the proud heritage of the Rakkasans or the US Army, and 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 fat storage in the worst places, around the organs, which can result in Type II diabetes. William Davis, MD, states that when fat accumulates due to insulin, fat is stored on the liver, kidneys, pancreas, intestines, and the heart.[24] 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.[25]

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 present that view that transparency will be the most beneficial course of action for everyone involved.[26]

4. **To provide counterarguments** (see Chapter Three for more information about crafting effective counterarguments).

   Example: According to Commander CENTCOM, the military campaign against DAISH in Iraq and Syria is "having the desired effects," forcing it into a "defensive crouch . . . unable to achieve decisive effects."[27] Despite this positive assessment, DAISH remains active in Iraq and Syria, and the United States appears some way from achieving its objective to defeat DAISH.

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

course curriculum at Marine Corps University, you will write at least one research paper in which you will be required to use primary and secondary sources to support your ideas. Citing other authors reinforces your credibility as a writer by demonstrating how your ideas fit into the pre-existing body of research surrounding your topic. However, when you use someone else's words, ideas, 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 exist:

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**: Discussing another author's idea, concept, or line of reasoning that was developed by someone else without giving due credit is considered plagiarism. You can paraphrase the main idea of a group of sentences or even an entire paper, but you must 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. 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."[28] 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" (*MCU Student Handbook*, p. 10). Students can find MCU's complete Academic Integrity policy on pages 8-11 of 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 appropriate 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.

8.3 When to Cite: Avoiding Plagiarism

As a general guideline, you should use a citation any time you borrow someone else's language or ideas. You do not need to cite facts that are accepted as common knowledge; 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 (i.e., that the Declaration of Independence was not actually signed until 1780), a citation is necessary.

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

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

The following sections present more information about quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

8.4 Using Direct Quotations

A direct quotation "records the exact language used by someone in speech or in writing."[29] Any borrowed language must be placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote. There are two types of quotes you may use in your writing: run-in quotes and block quotes.

8.4.1 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:**

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. See section 8.9 for more information about formatting endnotes.

Signal phrase provides context for the quote

In 2003, scholars P. Christopher Early and Soon Ang introduced the concept of CQ, which they defined **"**as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity.**"**[30]

Quotation marks show these words are borrowed from another source

Endnote superscript

[30] Soon Ang and Linn Van Dyne, *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (Armonk, N.Y.: M.E. Sharpe, 2008) 3.

8.4.2 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 an endnote superscript and corresponding citation.
6. Typically, a publisher will specify the desired font size and spacing of block quotes; however, the Leadership Communication Skills Center faculty 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.

Example Block Quote:

Block quote is introduced by a signal phrase.

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.[31]

[31] David Kilcullen, "Counterinsurgency Redux," (2006): 2, http://smallwarsjournal.com/documents/kilcullen1.pdf.

Quotation marks are omitted, but the quote is still followed by a superscript and corresponding citation.

8.4.3 When to Use Quotes

Many writers have the tendency to overuse direct quotations—often because they feel that they don't 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 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. An individual's spirituality draws upon personal, philosophical, psychological, and/or religious teachings or beliefs, and forms the basis of their character."[32]

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."[33]

3. **Use direct quotes when presenting another author's or researcher's specific position on a topic.**

   Example: Tokatlian asserts that Latin America has not yet established itself as a "solid, sustainable, and coordinated energy policy that provides the region a fluid, reliable, and secure energy supply."[34]

   Example: Informed by the ACOG Committee Opinion entitled "Exercise during Pregnancy and the Postpartum Period," Health Services staff indicated that "by the [sixth] week postpartum the physiological effects of pregnancy have resolved." As such, Health Services staff assessed that having six months following return to full duty to "achieve sufficient physical fitness to successfully complete a [physical fitness assessment] is physiologically feasible."[35]

8.4.4 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, however, you can follow the format below.

You can integrate this type of source by quoting the main source in double quotation marks and enclosing the source within the source in single quotation marks.

> **Example**: Daly differentiates Galula's view of insurgency from that of Kilcullen. He explains, "While Kilcullen views insurgency as a global conflict, Galula views insurgency as political war in which the people are the center of gravity. Galula claims, 'The population's attitude…is dictated not so much by the relative popularity and merits of the opponents as by the more primitive concern for safety.' Furthermore, he states, 'which side gives the best protection, which side threatens the most, which one is likely to win; these are the criteria governing the population's stand.'"[36]
>
> [36]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 that 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.

You may also decide to paraphrase ideas that are quoted in another source. For instance, you could paraphrase David Galula's ideas that are quoted in Terence Daly's article.

Example: For Galula, control over the population is the key to success. Only by gaining and keeping control of the population can the counterinsurgent establish the secure environment within which those who support the counterinsurgent and his cause can come forward to organize for their own governance and eventual self-protection.[37]

Note

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

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

8.4.5 Modifying Quoted Material

Sometimes you may also need to edit words in a quotation in order to integrate the source material with the rest of your text. In order to preserve the integrity of the original text, it is important to make sure you acknowledge any changes or omissions you make. 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. Here is an example of the original quotation and its omitted version:

Original Quotation: "There is no constant set of operational techniques in counterinsurgency; rather, this is a form of 'counter-warfare' that applies all elements of national power against insurrection." [38]

Bracketed Quotation: According to David Kilcullen, "[T]his is a form of 'counter-warfare' that applies all elements of national power against insurrection."[39]

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

Original Quotation: "In the post-Cold War world, the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern. Instead, politicians tell us that the U.S. is now at risk from biological and chemical weapons, that the international community is subject to the predations of transnational terrorists, and that 'cyberwar' could bring daily life as we know it to an absolute standstill without a shot being fired."[40]

Bracketed Quotation: According to the authors, "the immediate overriding menace of nuclear war [which helped to characterize attitudes during the Cold War] seems to have faded from the forefront of national concern." [41]

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

Original Quotation: "A militia system also offers many advantages to the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats. Israel's militia system ensures that any limited incursion—even by a band of a few bomb-throwing terrorists—can be contained by the presence of armed citizen-soldiers."[42]

Edited Quotation: Israel's militia system is favorable to "the small state plagued by chronic, low-level security threats." [43]

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 omits words in the middle of the sentence:

Original Quotation: "Whether the Founders and subsequent Americans were liberal individualists or republican communitarians, or even driven by racism, I would argue that in the main they were still suspicious of government, skeptical about the benefits of government authority, and impressed with the virtue of limiting government."[44]

Edited Quotation: According to Kingdon, Americans are "suspicious of government…and impressed with the virtue of limiting government." [45]

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 following example shows how to edit a quotation by omitting words from the end:

Original Quotation: "Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state. The insurgent challenges the *status quo*; the counterinsurgent seeks to reinforce the state and so defeat the internal challenge. This applies to some modern insurgencies—Thailand, Sri Lanka and Colombia are examples. But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure, and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an 'ungoverned space.'"[46]

Edited Quotation: "Classical counterinsurgency theory posits an insurgent challenge to a functioning (though often fragile) state…. But in other cases, insurgency today follows state failure, and is not directed at taking over a functioning body politic, but at dismembering or scavenging its carcass, or contesting an 'ungoverned space.'"[47]

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 correct 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, please see *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 16th edition. The next chapter will provide you with example formats for a wide variety of sources you may use in your paper. These bibliographic references and sample endnotes are in Chicago Style.

8.4.6 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 also begin with an epigraph, though it is rare. Below are a few guidelines for using epigraphs:

1. The *CMS* 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 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 quotes unless the quotation itself contains other quoted material (a quote within a quote).

Below are two example epigraphs:

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*

If the reader prefers, this book may be regarded as fiction. But there is always the chance that such a book of fiction may throw some light on what has been written as fact.

- Ernest Hemingway, *A Moveable Feast*

8.4.7 Common Problems with Direct Quotes

The three most common quotation problems that the LCSC faculty members find in student papers are as follows: 1) failure to quote; 2) dropped quotations; and 3) overuse of quotations.

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 also 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."[48]

> **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.[49]

The writer provides a citation, but without the quote 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 that the actual **words** are borrowed from another text. Therefore, the writer's use of the information is considered plagiarism.

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.**"[50]**

This version includes a signal phrase that places the quote into context.

This version is **correct** because all of the borrowed words are placed in quotation marks and followed by an endnote.

This student's use of the information is not considered plagiarism because directly borrowed verbiage from the original source is in quotation marks and is cited with an endnote. Notice that the student also 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 the original source.

Dropped Quotes

The term "dropped quote" refers to a quotation that is dropped into a text without contextualization or introduction.

Example of a Dropped Quote: 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."[1]

In this example, the author does not introduce or contextualize the quoted information. It's 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.

Overuse of Quotes

Overusing quotes can be distracting to your reader and may add unnecessary text to your paper.

Example: In acknowledging that deep strike operations were to become the main tenet of future war, the relevance of uninterrupted logistics sustainment throughout the entire operation was dependent on two things. N.E. Varfolomeev, the first Chair of Operational Art at the Soviet Military Academy, recognized that first, deep and rapid pursuit required the use of "successive deep operations," which Varfolomeev called "the zig-zags of a whole series of operations successively developed one upon the other, logically connected and linked together by the common final objective."[51] Second, that zig-zagging process in turn depended on, as Varfolomeev envisioned, the "successful struggle against the consequences of the attendant operational exhaustion."[52] Kipp then states, "Logistics, the unity of front and rear as an organizational problem, thus assumed critical importance as an aspect of operational art."[53] 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.[54] 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."[55] This level of planning engrained the importance of linking the operational and tactical levels of support in sustaining deep operations, which is a valuable lesson for today's logisticians in thinking through the complexities in supporting forces in austere and disaggregated conditions.[56]

While this student writer has clearly done his research, he likely need to rewrite the paragraph so that 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.

8.5 Paraphrasing

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

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

8.5.1 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 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."[57]

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.

[57] David Galula, *Insurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice* (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964), X.

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 that 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.[58]

[58] David Galula, *Insurgency Warfare: Theory and Practice* (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964), X.

When comparing the original source with the paraphrase, you can see the word choice, order, and sentence structure are quite different. Notice, however, that 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 quotes and concepts from an outside source can also strengthen your argument and give it credibility.

8.6 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 20-page research article. Overall, summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting are good ways to effectively incorporate outside sources into your paper.

> **Example book summary**: In 2003, scholars P. Christopher Early and Soon Ang introduced the concept of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which they defined "as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity."[59] 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.[60] 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.[61]
>
> In this example, the author uses a combination of directly quoted information and summarized information to present only the main points of the text.

8.7 Checklist for Using Your Sources Effectively

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

1. **Make sure your sources and paraphrases play a supporting role to your own ideas.** When you write a research paper, you need to make an original argument based on the research you conduct—your sources merely provide the evidence to support your central argument.
2. **Avoid quoting if paraphrasing will suffice.** Exact wording may be important at times, especially when you are discussing doctrine, legislation, or another researcher's exact position on a topic. 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.
3. **Make sure to place all quotations into the context of your paper and main argument.** Introduce each quote 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 quote before moving on to the next statement. Adding details, explaining concepts, and relating quoted ideas back to your main argument shows that you have original ideas and have done enough reading on the topic to be able to discuss it fully.
5. **When multiple sources make the same claim, group them together.** For example, instead of saying, "General X believes it is important to employ the concept of Distributed Operations in current and future conflicts. General Y also thinks Distributed Operations should be used in current and future conflicts," you may want to say,

"According to Generals X and Y, future operations should employ the concept of Distributed Operations."

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 set it off in block quotation format.** Quoted letters or other forms of correspondence, bulleted lists, and specially formatted information should be set off in block quotation format as well. Block quotations do not need quotation marks; instead, the entire quotation is indented five spaces or one TAB space from the left margin. 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). An endnote is needed to cite the quotation.

8.8 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. Also, it is important to set off any direct quotations in quotation marks.
2. **Put your research away:** It is easier to accidentally copy an author's ideas, words, or writing style when you are trying to read your research and formulate ideas for drafting simultaneously.
3. **Always double check your draft:** Make sure you have used a properly formatted endnote/footnote to credit any outside sources you have used. Also, make sure your research paper includes a bibliography in which you will cite all the sources that you have compiled to support your ideas.
4. **Use plagiarism detection software (e.g. Blackboard's SafeAssign or Turnitin.com) 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. There is also a high probability that these sites will match other papers using your sources rather than the original sources you consulted. As a result, it will be difficult to determine where you have obtained source material unless you have already compiled a working bibliography. To ensure that you submit an accurate document to your instructor, it is best to cite quoted, paraphrased, and summarized material prior to and while drafting. If you are an MCU student who is interested in learning more about the additional plagiarism detection software that is available to you through the university, please contact the LCSC at LCSC.PAPERS@gmail.com.

8.9 Overview of Chicago Style Citation and Documentation

8.9.1 Endnote Format

Chicago 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 a numeric 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 does have an author-date style of citation for texts that deal with physical, natural, and social sciences, the papers that you write at Marine Corps University will use endnotes and a bibliography unless you are otherwise instructed by your 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.

8.9.2 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."[62]
>
> **Note:** 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.
>
> [62]Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *MCDP-1: Warfighting* (Washington, DC: U.S. Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 3.
>
> **Example:** Clausewitz's definition of war as "an act of violence intended to compel our opponent to fulfil our will,"[63] is still relevant today.
>
> [63]Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), 75.

If quoting two separate sources within one sentence, each quote should be immediately followed by its own numeric superscript.

> **Example:** MCDP-1 defines war as, "a violent clash of interests between or among organized groups characterized by the use of military force;"[64] similarly, Clausewitz characterizes war as "an act of violence intended to compel our opponent to fulfil our will."[65]
>
> [64]Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *MCDP-1: Warfighting* (Washington, DC: U.S. Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 3.

[65]Carl von Clausewitz, *On War*, ed. Michael Howard and Peter Paret, trans. Michael Howard and Peter Paret (Princeton, NJ: 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 (MCDP-1 defines war as) is used to introduce the quoted material. 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 that these factors had a particularly damaging effect on Tunisia's youth population.[66]

[66]Anne Wolf and Raphael Lefevre, "Revolution under threat: The Challenges of the Tunisian model," *The Journal of North African Studies,* Vol. 17, No. 3, June 2012, 560.

8.9.3 Substantiating a Claim with Multiple Citations

However, 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 that 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, 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 ISIL.[67]

[67]John B. Alexander, "Defeating ISIS Without American Ground Forces," *Huffington Post*, February 23, 2015, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/john-b-alexander-phd/defeating-isis-amercian-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.

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

8.9.4 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 that 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.

> **Example:** With a requested $715 million in fiscal year 2016, roughly 1,600 US advisers, and an additional 700 Western partner trainers, 9 ISF, and 3 Peshmerga brigades (approx. 25,000 personnel) can be trained in Iraq until Spring 2016. These current numbers seem insufficient 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 that the coalition needs a larger force to recapture Mosul.

There may be times when the discussion within the discursive note also 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."[68] 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.

> **Main text:** Despite the fact that some of its partner nations can also 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.[69]
>
> [69]"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 also 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:

> **Main text:** Graduate-level writing prompts are complex and often require a writer to perform more than one type of cognitive task.[70]
>
> [70] Andrea Hamlen, Stase Rodebaugh, and Linda Di Desidero, *The Marine Corps University Communications Style Guide*, 7th ed. (Quantico, VA: Marine Corps University, 2013), 83. Students at MCU "will often have to perform more than one

cognitive task (i.e., evaluating, synthesizing, analyzing) when answering a test question or writing prompt."

8.9.5 Endnotes vs. Footnotes

Occasionally, texts that contain a great deal of discursive notes will use both endnotes and footnotes. In this case, the 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 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).

8.9.6 Shortened Citations

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

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

Second Note (shortened citation)
[2]Douglass Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy*, 202.

First Note
[1]Central Intelligence Agency, "Contemporary Soviet Propaganda and Disinformation: A Conference Report," Arlington, VA, 25-27 June 1985 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1987), 312.

Second Note (shortened citation)
[2]CIA, "Conference Report," 313.

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

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

Second Note (shortened citation)
[2] Erfurth, Possony, and Vilfroy, *Surprise,* 18, 21-22.

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

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

Second Note (shortened citation)

[2] Suisman et al., *The Arc*, 32.

8.9.7 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 a list of all of 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 also 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 that all of a work's citations are five years old and you are writing about an emerging technology, it is likely that the work is not current enough for your intended purpose. Similarly, if you notice that a work does not cite any of the key theorists in your field of research, then you may decide that the text does not have sufficient academic rigor. Chapter Nine contains more specific information regarding the formatting of bibliographic entries.

In most cases, you will find a note and bibliography format for each source; however, some sources (websites and personal interviews for example) are not placed in the bibliography—and 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 the *MCU Communications Style Guide*; in some cases, you may need to consult the original CMS in order to find the correct format. If you are on the Marine Corps University campus and have a question about citation, the LCSC faculty should be able to help you locate the appropriate format—either in the *MCU Communications Style Guide* or in the CMS.

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 will cover the mechanics of the endnote and bibliography formats that are used to cite sources. In academic writing, footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical documentation indicate the original source of words or ideas you borrow from other authors. These forms of documentation are unique to the different style manual formats. The specific citation formats provided in this chapter follow *The Chicago Manual of Style* (CMS), as all papers written at MCU are expected to follow this style. Chicago Style is used mainly in historical and military writing, while the Modern Language Association (MLA) is used mainly in writings based in the studies of English and other related humanities; American Psychological Association (APA), on the other hand, is used in psychology and social science writings. The main differences you will find between the three citation styles reside in the use of in-text citations or notes, the reference page, block quotation length, and page format. Table 4 on the following page provides information regarding the differences between these three commonly used citation styles.

This chapter will provide you with example formats for a wide variety of sources you may use in your research and include in your writing. These bibliographic references and sample endnotes are in Chicago Style, the standard citation style at Marine Corps University and a style commonly used in military and historical 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 all references used in the research and writing of an academic paper or other document. 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, and Papers Presented at Meetings
9.7 Encyclopedias and Other References
9.8 Audiovisual Materials
9.9 Government and Military Documents
9.10 Electronic Sources

Table 4: Differences between CMS, APA, and MLA Citation Styles

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

More information about APA and MLA can be found in their respective style manuals; copies are available in the Gray Research Center. The remainder of this chapter discusses specific features of Chicago Style citation and documentation.

A Word about Source Citation Software

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 often contain minor formatting errors. **If you decide to use source citation software, LCSC faculty recommend 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, it is typically best to 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.

Publication Date

Generally, only the year of publication should be included in the citation, even if the day of publication appears on the copyright page. 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 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 year.

Publication Location

You may find that 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."[71] 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 that 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.

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 that 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 in the endnote the author's name is not needed.

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). In regards to the publication information, you will notice that the state is added after the city name. If the city of publication is not well-known, add the postal abbreviation of the state or country.

Bibliography

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

Note

[3]Waldemar Erfurth, Stefan Possony, and Daniel Vilfroy, *Surprise* (Harrisonburg, PA: Military Service Publishing, 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

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

Note

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

9.1.6 Book with an Editor(s)

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 and/or Translator

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

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.1.8 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.

9.1.9 Book with Edition

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

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

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

9.1.10 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. Also 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

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

9.1.11 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

[10]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.

9.1.12 Book with Multiple Volumes

When you are citing a book with multiple volumes in the bibliography, write the number of volumes in total after the title or editor's name (if one is given). The volume number should be in Arabic numerals even if it is given in Roman numerals in the original. Also, 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*. 2 vols. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1975.

Note

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

9.1.13 Reprint

In a reprint edition, if the original information (e.g., original publication date) is important, 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 also use this

citation to show that a book is now declassified and/or now has an electronic version that you are using with a phrase like, "now declassified and also 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

[12]C. E. Callwell, *Small Wars: Their Principles and Practice*, 3rd ed. (London: His Majesty's Stationary Office, 1906), 13. Citations refer to the Nebraska edition.

9.1.14 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 also 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 end note 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

[13]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.

9.1.15 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, U.S. Marine Corps, 1971.

Note

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

9.1.16 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.

Note

[15]Romans 8: 35-38 (Saint Joseph New Catholic Edition)

9.1.17 Publisher's Imprint

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

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.1.18 Books Available Online

To show that a book was found or is available online, add the URL to the end of the citation. Be aware that 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

Cable, Boyd. *Grapes of Wrath*. Reprint of the 1917 New York edition, Project Gutenberg, 2014. https://www.gutenberg.org/files/46787/46787-h/46787-h.htm.

Note

[17] Boyd Cable, *Grapes of Wrath* (New York, 1917; Project Gutenberg, 2014), Chapter 3, https://www.gutenberg.org/files/46787/46787-h/46787-h.htm.

Notice that the note and bibliography entries include the original place and date of publication followed by the date on which the electronic version was published. In some cases, particularly in the case of older works that have fallen out of publication, it might not be possible to locate the original place of publication. It's permissible to omit the place of publication if this is the case.

9.1.19 E-Books

Even if an e-book is also 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. Also, if page numbers are not given in the e-book, you can 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

[18]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.

9.2 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 electronic 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.

Volume Numbers

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.

Issue Numbers

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 including the month and/or season in the citation is not incorrect. For this reason, **both of the citations below are correct** since the periodical contains an issue number:

Bibliography and Note Format Including the Issue Number and Month:

Bibliography

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

Note

[19]T. X. Hammes, "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare," *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (May-June 2007): 15.

Bibliography and Note Format Omitting the Issue and Month Number:

Bibliography

Hammes, T. X. "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare." *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (2007): 14-23.

Note

[20]T. X. Hammes, "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare," *Military Review* 87, no. 3: 15.

The months of publication are unnecessary because the journal already includes both a volume (87) and issue (no. 3) number.

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).

9.2.1 Journal Articles in Print

To cite a journal article, put the title of the article first in quotation marks, followed by the title of the journal in italics. The volume number follows the title. There is no punctuation between the title and the volume number. Write the volume 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 allowed and may help your readers.

Bibliography

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

Note

[21]T. X. Hammes, "The Emergence of 5th Generation Warfare," *Military Review* 87, no. 3 (May-June 2007): 15.

9.2.2 Journal Articles from Electronic Databases

Access dates are not required to cite a formal source published in an electronic database. However, if directly to use an access date, place it before the URL and separate it with commas. The citation should use the database's homepage URL as opposed to the article's specific URL, as readers will not be able to consult this link unless they have access to the specific database that was used to retrieve the article.

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. http://search.ebscohost.com/.

Note

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

9.2.3 Journal Article Accessed Online

While you may use electronic databases to collect most of the journal articles you will cite in your work, you may also 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. Below is an example of how you would cite this type of source:

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.comwww.aabri.com /manuscripts/131610.pdf.

Note

[23]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.comwww.aabri.com/manuscripts/131610.pdf.

9.2.4 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

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

9.2.5 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

Foucalt, Michael. "Des espaces autres." [Of other spaces.] Translated by Jay Miskowiec. *Diacritics* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1986): 22-27.

Note

[25]Michael Foucalt, "Des espaces autres" [Of other spaces], trans. Jay Miskowiec, *Diacritics* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1986): 22-27.

9.2.6 Magazine Articles in Print

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

Bibliography

McGirk, Tim. "In the Shadow of 1967." *Time*, June 11, 2007.

Note

[26]Tim McGirk, "In the Shadow of 1967," *Time*, June 11, 2007, 43.

9.2.7 Magazine Articles from an Online Magazine

When citing a magazine article from an online magazine, the URL follows the page number(s).

Bibliography

Cragg, Jennifer. "Battle of Midway." *All Hands*, June 2007. 15-23. http://www.news.navy.mil/media/allhands/acrobat/ah200706.pdf.

Note

[27]Jennifer Cragg, "Battle of Midway," *All Hands*, June 2007, 15, http://www.news.navy.mil/media/allhands/acrobat/ah200706.pdf

9.2.8 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. Also, 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

[28]Ernesto Londoño, "Before Pullout, A Scrap Project: Gear Disposal in Afghanistan," *Washington Post*, June 20, 2013.

9.2.9 Newspaper Articles from Electronic Databases

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

Note

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

9.2.10 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.

Note

[30]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.

Note

[31]Thomas Gibbons-Neff. "Pentagon to Boost Military Equipment in Europe Amid Moscow Anger." *Washington Post*, June 23, 2015, http://www.washingtonpost.com/world/national-security/pentagon-to-boost-military-equipment-in-europe-amid-moscow-anger/2015/06/23/a2ad65c5-161c-4478-a414-c6da43119b7b_story.html.

9.2.11 News Releases

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

[32]U.S. 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.

9.2.12 Resources from Jane's Information Group

Jane's—also 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 often not listed in Jane's resources, so LCSC faculty members recommend that you begin your citation with the name of the publication in which the article is found.

Bibliography

Jane's Terrorism and Security Monitor. "AQ in Indonesia Reemerges," March 26, 2010. https://janes-ihs- com.lomc.idm.oclc.org/CustomPages/Janes/DisplayPage.aspx? DocType=News&ItemId=+++1233057&Pubabbrev=JTSM.

Note

[33]*Jane's Terrorism and Security Monitor,* "AQ in Indonesia Reemerges," March 26, 2010, https://janes-ihs- com.lomc.idm.oclc.org/CustomPages/Janes/DisplayPage.aspx? DocType=News&ItemId=+++1233057&Pubabbrev=JTSM.

9.3 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

[34]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.

Note

[35]Nikki Keddie, Review of *Nationalism in Iran,* by Richard Cottam, *Political Science Quarterly* 60, no. 4 (December 1966): 65, http://www.jstor.org/stable/2146928.

9.4 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
[36]Ian Bremmer, "An Interview with Ian Bremmer," interview by David Doktori and Rebecca Leicht, *Journal of International Affairs 60,* no. 2, Spring 2007, 113-122.

9.4.2 Published or Broadcast Interviews Retrieved from Electronic Databases

When citing published or broadcast interviews that are found on an electronic database, it is best to give the URL of the electronic 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. http://www.proquest.com/.
Note
[37]Gary Gallagher, "Gettysburg Then and Now: A Civil War Times Interview," interview by Peter S. Carmichael, *Civil War Times Illustrated*, July 2007, 23, http://www.proquest.com/.

9.4.3 Published or Broadcast Interviews Available Online

See above examples for more information on the basic elements to include (they are the same for this type of interview), but add the URL to show where readers can find the interview online.

Bibliography
Rice, Condoleezza. "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
[38]Condoleezza Rice, "Interview with Condoleezza 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 and Personal Communications

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 also include where this information can be located. Make sure to get permission from the interviewee to cite his or her name in your paper.

9.4.4.1 Unpublished Interviews

[39]Miles Price (education specialist at iparadigms), interview by Michelle Williams, May 3, 2015.

9.4.4.2 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 also explain the reason for omitting the interviewee's name. It is not necessary to include unattributed interviews in the bibliography.

Note

[40]Interview with senior executive servant, June 10, 2011.

9.4.4.3 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 should not be included in the bibliography.

Main text: In telephone conversation with the author on June 23, 2015, Director of the Leadership Communication Skills Center Linda Di Desidero stated that….

Note

[41]Linda Di Desidero, telephone conversation with the author, June 23, 2015.

Main text: In an email to the author, Congressman X stated….

Note

[42]Congressman X, personal email to the author, July 2, 2014.

Electronic Mailing Lists

The main components of electronic 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 electronic mailing list postings in the bibliography.

Note

[43]Jason DePaulo to MCU@listserv.usmcu.edu, July 2014.

Note

[44]Patricia Santos to Wounded Warrior mailing list, March 5, 2002, no. 33, http://www.woundedwarrior.volunteers/archives.php.

9.4.5 Oral Histories

You can often treat an oral history in the same way as an unpublished interview, according to CMS guidelines. Make sure to provide information on the interviewee, creating institution, format, archive information, and collection number/name, if applicable.

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.5 Student Papers and Other 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

[46]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 Electronic Databases

For this type of reference, it is also necessary to include the URL of the electronic 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. http://stinet.dtic.mil/.

Note

[47]Haile Araya Amdemichael, "East African Crisis Response: Shaping Ethiopian Peace Force for Better Participation in Future Peace Operations" (master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, 2005), 51, http://stinet.dtic.mil/.

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).

Bibliography

Lee, Audrey. "Thesis Drafting Strategies." Unpublished manuscript, last modified June 1, 2012. Microsoft Word file.

Note

[48]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." Working Paper, Center for Strategic and International Studies, 2004.

Note

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

9.6 Lectures, Speeches, 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 Breckenridge do not necessarily need to be cited due to MCU's non-attribution policy. Consult with your faculty for more specific guidance.

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

[50]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 Transcript

Note

[51]Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have a Dream" (speech, Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C., August 28, 1963). transcript, 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

[52]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 Conference Proceedings

Proceedings from a conference that are published in journals are treated as periodical articles; papers that are published in the proceedings of a conference or meeting are treated as book chapters.

9.6.4.1 Proceedings from a Conference that are Published in Conference Proceedings

Bibliography

Huntjens, Patrick. "A Legal and Institutional Perspective." In *Water Security and Peace Conference*, 20-37. Amsterdam: The Hague, November 2013. Wahttp://www.waterdiplomacyconsortium.org/wp-content/uploads/Water-and-PeaceConference LR-Final.pdfter.

Note

[53]Patrick Huntjens, "A Legal and Institutional Perspective," in *Water Security and Peace Conference*, (Amsterdam: The Hague, November 2013), wahttp://www.waterdiplomacy consortium.org /wp-content /uploads/Water-and-PeaceConference LR-Final.pdfter.

9.6.4.2 Proceedings from a Conference that are Published in Journals

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

[54]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.

9.6.5 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:

Note

[55]Lewis Miller, "Iraqi Culture and Politics" (course card, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 2012), 2.

9.7 Encyclopedias and Other References

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 also 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

"under the word."

Bibliography

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

Note

[56]Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 11th ed., s.v. "history."

9.7.2 Reference Materials Available Online

Most dictionaries and encyclopedias found online are electronic versions of well-known sources. As in the print version, well known online dictionaries and encyclopedias do not have to be cited in the bibliography unless the entry is specifically authored by a particular person. Also, if the publication date is posted, add an access date.

Note

[57]Encyclopedia Britannica Online, s.v. "strategy," accessed June 18, 2013, http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/568259/strategy.

9.7.3 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.

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, 15. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2001.

Note

[58]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.

9.7.4 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

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

9.8 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

Kartoum, DVD. Directed by Basil Dearden. Originally released 1966. Santa Monica, CA: MGM Home Entertainment Inc, 2002.

Note

[60]*Kartoum*, DVD, directed by Basil Dearden (1966; Santa Monica, CA: MGM Home Entertainment Inc, 2002).

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

[61]US Marine Corps, *Marching Cadences of the U.S. Marines*, performed by U.S. Marine Corps, Documentary Recordings, 1998, Audio Compact Disc.

9.8.3 PowerPoint Presentations

Bibliography

Lopez, Jacob. "MCPP." PowerPoint presentation. Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 25 June 2012.

Note

[62]Jacob Lopez, "MCPP," (PowerPoint presentation, Marine Corps University, Quantico, VA, 25 June 2012).

9.8.4 Photographs

When citing a photograph, include the photographer's name (last, first, initial), photo title, format, publisher city, publishing company, copyright date, source, and collection name, as well as the folder/box the photograph was obtained from and the collection number/name.

Bibliography

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

Note

[63]Straub, Robert, photographer, "Mortar Fire," photograph, San Francisco: Force Information Office, III Marine Amphibious Force, Military Assistance Command Vietnam 1969, Archives

and Special Collections Branch, Library of the Marine Corps, *Johnathan F. Abel Papers*, Folder 58, Box 4, Coll. 3611.

9.8.5 Maps

To cite a map, 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

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

9.9 Government and Military Documents

9.9.1 Government Documents Available in Electronic 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)."[72]

Bibliography

US Congress. Senate. Committee on Indian Affairs. *Combating Terrorism.* 108th Cong., 2003. Committee Print 37. http://www.lexis-nexis.com/.

Note

[65]Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, *Combating 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."[73]

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

[66]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 CDF volumes, you don't need to use the word "Comp."

Bibliography

U.S. 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 2 June 2006. http://www.gpoaccess.gov/cfr/.

Note

[67]U.S. President, Proclamation, "Honoring the Memory of the Victims of the Indian Ocean Earthquake and Tsunamis," *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 3 (2005 Comp.), accessed 2 June 2006, http://www.gpoaccess.gov/cfr/.

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

[68]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

[69]The White House, *The National Security Strategy of the United States of America* (Washington, DC, 2016), 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

[70]US Department of Defense, *2014 Quadrennial Defense Review* (Washington, DC, March 4, 2014).

9.9.7 Congressional Hearings in Print

Note

[71]*Status of the V-22 Tiltrotor Aircraft Program: Hearing before the Procurement and*

Military Nuclear Systems Subcommittee and the Research and Development Subcommittee of the Committee on Armed Services, 102nd Cong. 2 (1992).

9.9.8 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."[74]

Bibliography

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

Note

[72]*Thinkers and Practitioners: Do Senior Professional Military Education Schools Produce Strategists?: Hearing Before the House Armed Services Subcommittee*, 111th Cong., 10 (2009) (Rear Adm. James P. Wisecup, President, US Naval War College).

9.9.9 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

U.S. Congress. House. *Food Security Act of 1985*. HR 2100. 99th Cong., Congressional Record 131, no. 132, daily ed. (8 October 1985): H 8461-66.

Note

[73]*Food Security Act of 1985*, HR 2100, 99th Cong., Congressional Record 131, no. 132, daily ed. (8 October 1985): H 8461-66.

9.9.10 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

[74]House Committee on Veterans' Affairs, *Report to the Committee on the Budget from the Committee on Veterans' Affairs Submitted Pursuant to Section 201 of the Congressional Budget Act of 1974 on the Budget Proposed for Fiscal Year 2008,* 110th Cong., 2007, Committee Print 2, 15-16.

9.9.11 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

[75]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.

9.9.12 Statutes

Bibliography

Atomic Energy Act of 1946. *US Statutes at Large* 60 (1947): 755-775.

Note

[76]Atomic Energy Act of 1946, *US Statutes at Large* 60 (1947): 767, 774.

9.9.13 US Code

Bibliography

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

Note

[77]*Declaratory Judgment Act*, U.S. code, vol. 28, secs. 2201-2 (1952).

9.9.14 Supreme Court Decisions

When citing Supreme Court decisions, include the name of the case, "the volume number, abbreviated name of the reporter, the ordinal series number of the reporter (if applicable), the abbreviated name of the court (if not specified by the reporter) and the date together in parentheses, and other relevant information. A single page number designates the opening page of a decision; an additional number designates an actual page cited."[75]

Note

[78]Brown v. Board of Education, 347 U.S. 483, 380 (1954).

9.9.15 Constitutions

When citing a constitution, include the name of the constitution (an abbreviation of the jurisdiction and Const.) and the cited part (e.g., article, amendment, clause, section). Articles are abbreviated "art.," amendments "amend.," and clauses "cl."

Note

[79]U.S. Const. art. II, § 2, cl. 2.

9.9.16 Treaties and International Agreements

Bibliography

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

Note

[80]"Maastricht Treaty," 1 February 1952, International Legal Materials 33, I.L.M. 395 (1994).

9.9.17 Memoranda

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.9.18 Draft Memoranda

Bibliography

Director of the Marine Corps Museum. Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of Command and Staff College. draft memorandum, 15 July 2010.

Note

[82]Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of the Marine Corps Museum, draft memorandum, 15 July 2010.

9.9.19 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, 10 August 2010.

Note

[83]Director of the Marine Corps Museum to Director of the Marine Corps Museum, Memorandum of Understanding, 10 August 2010.

9.9.20 Memoranda for Record

Bibliography

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

Note

[84]Maj Zachary Smith, Chief of Staff, Marine Corps University, Memorandum for Record, 20 December 2000.

9.9.21 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, 10 February 2001.

Note

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

9.9.22 Doctrinal Publications

Bibliography

Headquarters US Marine Corps. *Warfighting*. MCDP 1. Washington, DC: Headquarters US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991.

Note

[86]Headquarters US Marine Corps, *Warfighting*, MCDP 1 (Washington, DC: US Marine Corps, June 30, 1991), 52.

9.9.23 Directives

Bibliography

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

Note

[87]US Department of Defense, *Joint Improvised Explosives Device Defeat Organization* (JIEDDO), Directive 2000, 19E, February 14, 2006, 2.

9.9.24 Instructions

Bibliography

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

Note

[88]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/1205.13p.pdf.

9.9.25 Orders

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.9.26 Marine Corps Bulletins

Bibliography

Commandant of the Marine Corps. *Fiscal Year 2007 Individual Clothing Allowances*. MCBul10120, October 1, 2006. http://www.usmc.mil/directiv.nsf/4428aa1f9c9e888 5256d11005ebe54/1df834f08042262b852571fe007735c6/$FILE/MCBUL%2010120.pdf.

Note

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

9.9.27 Staff Studies

Bibliography

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

Note

[91]Headquarters U.S. Marine Corps, *Marine Corps Provisioning: Policy Review*, Staff Study, 1980.

9.9.28 Correspondence

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.9.29 Reports

Bibliography

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

Note

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

9.9.30 CRS Reports Retrieved from Electronic 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

[94]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/.

9.9.31 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

[95]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 Electronic Sources

While the term "electronic sources" applies to a variety of source types, including e-books and online periodicals, this section focuses primarily on sources that are only available online (such as websites, blogs, and social media). Sections 9.1.18 and 9.1.19 provide more information about citing e-books, while section 9.2 includes information about citing periodicals (journals, magazines, and newspapers) that are accessed online.

Publications Available in Multiple Media

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.

Using URLs in Electronic 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."[76] Avoid adding hard returns or other formatting to break URLS, and do not add hyphens or dashes to indicate a break in the URL.

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.

Access Dates/Last Modified Dates

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

Page Numbers

If you are citing an electronic source that does not use page numbers, use a chapter title or section title instead.

Note

[96]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.

9.10.1 Websites

The citation format for websites is relatively flexible, as not all websites will include detailed publication information. However, you should be aware that if you are unable to identify the author of the site or sponsor of the site, the information the site contains may not be considered credible. Below are the basic components of website citations:

1. The 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. The site URL

Specific titles of blogs and web sites 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 authors (e.g., the CIA, the World Wildlife Foundation), rather than individual authors (e.g., John Smith). You may also be able to locate the individual or corporate author's name at the bottom of the webpage.

Websites are cited in the notes section, but should not appear in the bibliography. Below are example note formats for websites:

Note

[97]"How to Write Numbers," Mignon Fogerty, *Grammar Girl*, last modified May 31, 2012, http://grammar.quickanddirtytips.com/how-to-write-numbers.aspx.

Note

[98]"History of MCU," Marine Corps University, accessed June 30, 2015, https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/SitePages/aboutus/MCU%20History.aspx.

Note

[99]"Running Reduces PTSD Symptoms," Christine Fennessy, *Runner's World*, June 26, 2015, http://www.runnersworld.com/health/running-reduces-ptsd-symptoms.

9.10.2 Blogs

If the word "blog" is not found in the title of the web site, include the word "blog" in the endnote after the blog title. Blog entries generally do not appear in the bibliography unless they are cited multiple times throughout the paper. Also, someone writing a blog often has 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

[100]Frederick Lardinois, "Google Transparency Report: U.S. Content Removal Requests Increased 103%," *Techcrunch* (blog), June 18, 2012, http://techcrunch.com/2012/06/18/google-transparency-report-u-s-content-removal-requests-increased-103/.

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

[101]Pope Francis, "Pope Francis Speaks at the European Parliament," YouTube video, November 25, 2014, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A6dARTnMwc0.

Note

[102]Tony Blair, "British Prime Minister Address," C-SPAN video, July 17, 2003, http://www.c-span.org/video/?177391-1/british-prime-minister-address.

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."

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Hopke, Jack. "Foreign Artists Visit Louisiana and the Times-Picayune Slowly Dissolves." *All Things New Orleans*. Podcast audio. NPR. 14 June 2012. http://npr.org/rss/podcast/podcast_detail.php?siteId=113308984.

Note

[103]Jack Hopke, "Foreign Artists Visit Louisiana and the Times-Picayune Slowly Dissolves," *All Things New Orleans*, podcast audio, NPR, 14 June 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 is possible: the site or page title, the author, the site or page sponsor/organization in charge, 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, but can be added to the bibliography.

Note

[104]The United States Marine Corps Facebook Page, Marine Corps Recruiting Command, accessed June 12, 2013, https://www.facebook.com/#!/marinecorps.

9.10.6 Twitter or "Tweet"

See the above information in 9.8.5 for elements to include when citing this type of source from a social media site. Also, if the Facebook status or "tweet" on Twitter is deleted or no longer exists, include this information in the endnote. You can also 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

[105]Joe Biden, Twitter post, June 30, 2015, 10:47a.m., https://twitter.com/VP/status/61593 9723 027025921.

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Derfler, Leslie. *The Rise and Fall of Political Leaders.* New York: Palgrave MacMillan, 2011.

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Article or chapter in a book

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DOD QDR

Werrell, Kenneth P. "The Strategic Bombing of Germany in World War II: Costs and Accomplishments." *The Journal of American History* 73, no. 3 (Jan/Feb 1986): 702-713. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1902984.

Journal article from JSTOR

Part III: Grammar and Mechanics

Part III explains conventions for some of the more confusing aspects of sentence level grammar, mechanics, and usage in your writing. 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 visit the ***Now You Try It*** exercises in the online version of the guide. 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 10**: Grammar, Punctuation, and Mechanics
- **Chapter 11**: Sentence Style

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 will cover:

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, the sentence, 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 rules or conventions that the 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. 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 below 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. We know that the heart of a subject is a noun phrase, and the heart of a predicate is a verb phrase. You have internalized these rules for the language you speak, even if you don't know how to articulate those rules.

Nouns and verbs are the two essential parts of speech that you use to create sentences:

- *Nouns* are persons, places, things, ideas, entities, and etc. 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* often begins a sentence or serves as the object of a verb.
    - A *noun phrase* usually serves as the subject of a sentence; it is who or what the sentence is about.
    - Subject noun phrases are underlined in the sentences below:
        - The active-duty Marine deployed to Afghanistan in the spring.
        - Continued development and posturing of missiles capable of delivering nuclear or conventional 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 are 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 underlined in the sentences below:
        - The active-duty Marine deployed to Afghanistan in the spring.
        - Continued development and posturing of missiles capable of delivering nuclear or conventional 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 and performed the action of the verb "wrote." "Paper" is the direct object and received 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.

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: it 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. For example:

The student wrote an excellent paper, and the instructor gave it an "A."

In this case, two independent clauses are joined by the coordinating conjunction "and." Therefore, a comma appears before the "and" to tell the reader that the first thought is finished and a new but closely related thought is beginning.

Consider the following example:

The colonel**,** said the general**,** has tremendous integrity.

In this case, "said the general" interrupts the relationship between the subject of the sentence, "colonel," and the verb "has." Therefore, the interrupting element <"said the general"> is set off by a pair of commas to indicate to the reader that the normal order of the sentence (Subject-Verb-Object) is being interrupted with additional information. In terms of content, this sentence indicates that the general said that 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 is referring 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 5 lists some of the most common uses for both simple and complex commas.

Table 5: Comma Usage

Rule	Example
Simple Separations (one comma)	
Commas separate two independent clauses (two sentences) with a coordinating conjunction (e.g., *and, but, for, so, yet, or, nor*).	These obstacles were often self-imposed**, and** they created unnecessary confusion in planning that continued into the operation.
Commas separate parallel adjectives. NOTE: If the order of adjectives can be reversed or if the word "and" can stand between them, the adjectives are considered parallel.	The Command and Staff College student found an **old, dusty** copy of a Civil War soldier's journal to use in his research.
Commas separate a series of phrases, letters, or numbers. The last of these commas is referred to as the serial comma or the 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. Faculty members will review papers for conference groups 1**,** 10**,** and 11**,** as well as conference group 12.
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 MCU President**, the *MCU Style Guide* was revised. **Should insurgents attack here,** our battalion will retaliate. **Having failed the test,** the Marine resolved to work harder and succeed the following week.
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 context information.	In the United States Marine Corps, there are 195,129 service members; in the Navy**,** 317,464; in the Air Force**,** 334,157.
Complex Separations: Using Commas to "Set Information Off"	
Commas usually set off transitional words or interjections when they do not separate two independent clauses.	Members of the United Nations disagreed**, however,** on how to define terrorism.
Use commas to set off parenthetical or nonrestrictive elements—words, clauses, and phrases that are not essential to the sentence's	The Marine**, a young officer from The Basic School**, was reprimanded for wearing his fatigues on the train.

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.

Common Comma Errors

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

   Correct: The professor was disappointed**;** the student turned in his thesis late.
   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 neglects to add punctuation to clarify meaning or separate unrelated phrases. The sentence constituents 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: The pain was excruciating the soldier needed morphine.

   Correct: The pain was excruciating**, and** the soldier needed morphine.
   Correct: 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 rest 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: The history of North Korea’s nuclear weapons development and the response by the United States**,** is a roller coaster of brinksmanship and negotiation.
   Correct: The history of North Korea’s nuclear weapons development and the response by the United States is a roller coaster of brinksmanship and negotiation.
   Incorrect: Continued development and posturing of missiles capable of delivering nuclear or conventional warheads**,** further threatens security for the United States and its allies.
   Correct: Continued development and posturing of missiles capable of delivering nuclear or conventional warheads further threatens security for the United States and its allies.

; 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 6 describes semicolon usage.

Table 6: Semicolon Usage

Rule	Example
A semicolon may be used to connect two complete, related sentences.	A young Sergeant ran twelve marathons in the last five years**;** he was running in memory of his twelve fallen comrades. The Marines' new intelligence indicated civilian presence in the village; because of their understanding of the law of war, the Marines reconsidered their strategy.
A semicolon is used before a conjunctive adverb (e.g., *therefore, however, thus, hence, besides,* and *nevertheless*) when it connects two related, complete 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 Christmas 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.

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 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 7 describes colon usage.

Table 7: 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**:**

Common Colon Errors

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

1. **Do not use a colon between a verb and its object.**
   Incorrect: Last year I visited: Montego Bay, Ocho Rios, and Negril.
   Correct: Last year I visited Montego Bay, Ocho Rios, and Negril.

2. **Do not use a colon between a preposition and its object.**
   Incorrect: I have been stationed in: Afghanistan, Iraq, and North Carolina.
   Correct: I have been stationed in Afghanistan, Iraq, and North Carolina.

? 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 8 describes appropriate usage for the question mark.

Table 8: 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.

Common Question Mark Errors

1. **Do not use a question mark at the end of an indirect question.**
   Incorrect: The men wondered when the battle would end**?**
   Correct: The men wondered when the battle would end.
   When would the battle end**?** the men wondered.

2. **Do not use a question mark for a request.**
   Incorrect: Please respond to the Mess Night invitation by April 19**?**
   Correct: Please respond to the Mess Night invitation by April 19**.**

(10.2.5 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 9 displays rules of parentheses usage.

Table 9: 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 author-date documentation styles (e.g. MLA, APA, and 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 Amos] appealed to Congress for funding, but sequestration made such requests difficult to grant.)

10.2.6 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 10 details ellipses usage conventions.

Table 10: 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 the battle.

Ellipses mark the end of a quoted sentence that is purposely left incomplete.	When evaluating the atrocities committed during the war, one may argue that foreign leadership should have kept these words from the US Declaration of Independence in mind: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal**…**"

10.2.7 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 11 outlines hyphen usage.

Table 11: 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**? The buildings had been burned out. Who would demolish the **burned-out** buildings?
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-i**mmigration 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 about the SOP.

Common Hyphen Errors

1. **Do not use a hyphen if a modifier follows the noun it modifies.**
   Incorrect: In the Navy seaman's opinion, the ship was not well**-**designed.
   Correct: 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: At Mess Night, guests enjoyed freshly**-**prepared Roast Beef.
   Correct: At Mess Night, guests enjoyed freshly prepared Roast Beef.

10.2.8. 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 in essence stands for the phrase "up through" or "to" if the word "for" is not used to start the phrase (e.g., 1995-2005). For the purposes of 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, please 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 12 outlines em dash usage.

Table 12: 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.

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.

Apostrophe Use in Contractions

Apostrophes are used to take the place of omitted letters in contractions, that is, in words that are joined together in a single word called a contraction. The most commonly used contractions are listed below.

- 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)

Note that the apostrophe is placed at the point in the joined words where the missing letter would be found (it **i**s => 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.

Apostrophe Use to Signal Possession

The possessive form of a noun or pronoun indicates ownership, either real ownership or metaphoric ownership. Here are some examples:

- the cover of Captain Stevenson => Captain Stevenson's cover
- the commander of Major Smith => Major Smith's commander
- the tenets of structuralism => structuralism's tenets
- the principles of manifest destiny=> manifest destiny's principles
- the work of a day => a day's work
- 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 13 summarizes CMS guidelines for using the apostrophe to signal possession.

Table 13: 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.
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 "right."	the District Attorney**'s** jurisdiction (singular possessive) Districts Attorney**s'** jurisdictions (plural possessive)
The general rules for possessive nouns also 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.	Degas's paintings Descartes's philosophy Illinois's two senators the Marine Corps's best leaders **Note:** Proper or corporate names such as "Marine Corps" may also 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, Marine Corps Planning Process, etc. (Compare these similar attributive adjectives: Army leadership, Air Force monument, and Navy planning process.)

When a noun is singular in meaning and plural in form, add an apostrophe only. This rule also applies to singular places, organizations, and publications that take on plural forms.	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**

Common Apostrophe Errors

1. **Do not use an apostrophe to make a plural (unless you are pluralizing a lowercase letter).**
   Incorrect: The Jackson’s live here.
   Correct: The Jackson**s** live here.
   Incorrect: How many xs and ys are on the page?
   Correct: How many **x’s** and **y’s** are on the page?

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 why would you use one on “its” or “your”?)
   Incorrect: His unit made it’s last pass at the target. What did you’re unit do?
   Correct: His unit made **its** last pass at the target. What did **your** unit do?

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, writing “mechanics” are helpful to understand how sentences work structurally to improve organization and style in a paper. At Marine Corps University, as well as at other PME institutions, understanding mechanics is key to knowing what components make up good, clear writing. The following are several guidelines for using italics, abbreviations, capitalization, and numerals.

*I*talics 10.3.1

Italic type is simply slanted type. You can put words and phrases in italics by pressing 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 also add emphasis to a word or phrase. Table 14 describes use of italics in writing.

Table 14: 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*, which has links in meaning to the word *daøit sei*, or prosper/fare well.
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 should only be used if the context is clear to the reader. Though the term *abbreviation* 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 15 summarizes rules for using abbreviations in your writing.

Table 15: 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 Marine Expeditionary Units (**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 North Atlantic Treaty Organization (**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 you are using it as a noun. You can abbreviate the word "United States" 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**. The **United States** has several branches of military service organizations. The **US military** is one of the largest in the world.
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.	**T**he **R**everend Samson gave a great sermon yesterday. **Rev.** Samson spoke to **C**olonel 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., Ms., and Mr.).	**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.
Abbreviate months and days of the week by spelling out words with fewer than four 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., 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.

Capitalization 10.3.3

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 is great at cooking hamburgers. When capitalized, however, Burger King becomes a popular fast food chain in the United States. Table 16 describes capitalization practices for writing.

Table 16: Capitalization Guidelines

Rule	Example
Capitalize the first word of every sentence.	**T**he student turned in his Independent Research Paper yesterday.
Capitalize the first word of every expression used as a sentence.	**T**hat's too bad! **H**ow come?
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
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 when it introduces two or more sentences.	Marine Corps University is dedicated to fostering academic and professional achievements: **I**ts schools offer students the opportunity to exercise critical thinking in the classroom. However, the university also promotes publication and scholarship outside of the schoolhouse.
Capitalize the first word after a colon when the colon follows an introductory word.	Global conflicts may be arising as a result of the following: **C**ompetition for natural resources, an increase in population density, and poorly patrolled borders.
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.	**P**otomac **R**iver versus the river The Potomac River is about 400 miles long. The river 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.	**T**he **B**ill of **R**ights versus the bill The US Bill of Rights encompasses the first ten amendments to the Constitution of the United States. The bill 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.	**S**ergeant **M**ajor Diaz is a student at SAW; the major wrote an insightful future war paper.

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, regulations, directives, acts, 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.	The **B**attle of **B**unker **H**ill, the battle
Capitalize the names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as proper nouns.	The **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.	***D**iscovery* (the space shuttle) The ***USS S**aratoga* 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 **Southern California**, so we just drove **south** to Baja for our vacation. My Alabama friend joined us, noting how different California is from **the South**.
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

1 Numerals 10.3.4

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 17 summarizes the proper uses of numerals, while table 18 outlines when to spell out numerals in your writing.

Table 17: Using Numerals in Academic Writing

Rule	Example
Use numerals when referring to money.	The college man 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 mathematical 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 18: 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.	**Thirty** planes landed on the strip today, bringing the week's total to **120** planes.
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 less 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 Staff Secretary bought **seven** 12-inch subs for the conference.

10.4 Pronoun Usage

Pronouns take the place of nouns or other pronouns and are often used to avoid excessive repetition 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 also be clear to the reader as to what person, place, or thing the pronoun is replacing. Table 19 summarizes guidelines for pronoun usage.

Table 19: 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, 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).	**I** went for a walk. Though the **professors** enjoy watching Civil War movies, **they** found the film's portrayal of General Lee historically inaccurate. **Our** house 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.

The following are explanations of some of the guidelines above:

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, and as such, it is not possible to identify who *their* refers to. Substituting *Filipinos* for *their* would remedy this.

2. **Pronouns need to agree in number with their antecedents.**
   Incorrect: Every Marine must field day *their* own room.
   Correct: Every Marine must field day *his or her* own room.
   Correct: *All Marines* must field day *their* own rooms.
   In this case, 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, it is still not acceptable in formal writing. See Chapter 11 on "Singular-*They* Usage."

3. **Pronouns need to agree in person.**
   Incorrect Example: When Marines are on the rifle range, *we* are always alert.
   First Correct Example: When Marines are on the rifle range, *they* are always alert.
   Second Correct Example: As Marines, *we* are always alert while *we* are on the rifle range.
   In the incorrect example, it is unclear as to whether the writer is speaking as a Marine or if the pronoun *we* refers to a group of people who are not Marines.

4. **Pronouns need to agree in gender.** In the English language, only third person singular pronouns take on a particular gender. Most often, problems with gender agreement are the result of placing a plural pronoun with a singular antecedent or vice versa.
   > **Example:** For Jeff to attain a perfect score on the PFT, *he* has to train.
   > In the example, the pronoun *he* agrees in number and gender with the proper noun, *Jeff*.

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

   Subjective case: pronouns used as subjects. Subjective case pronouns include *I, you, he, she it, we, they,* and *who*.
   > **Example**: *I* went for a walk. *She* enjoys skiing and sailing.

   Objective Case: pronouns used as objects of verbs or prepositions. Objective case pronouns include *me, you, him, her, it, us, them,* and *whom.*
   > **Example:** I went to the movies with *her* and Dennis. Though filled with action, the movie was not appealing to *them.*

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

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

Problems with pronoun case often occur when dealing with compound subjects or compound objects. If a compound sentence contains two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, drop the other noun temporarily to check your pronoun use. This action will help you decide which case pronoun you need to use in the sentence.
First Example: Andy and *me* went to the store.
Sentence after noun is removed: *Me* went to the store.
Since you would say, "I went to the store," as opposed to "me went to the store," *I* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

Second Example: He had a meeting with Ann and *I*.
Sentence after noun is removed: He had a meeting with *I.*
You would not say, "He had a meeting with I," so *me* is the appropriate pronoun in this case.

Third Example: *Us* chefs like to cook.
Sentence after noun is removed: *Us* like to cook.
You would not say, "Us like to cook," so the appropriate pronoun here is *we*.

Problems with pronoun case may also occur when making comparisons. When deciding which pronoun to use, try filling in words to complete the comparison.
Example: She is older than *I* (am old). This helps you as much as (it helps) *me*.

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

   This: singular and near the speaker
   That: singular and at a distance from the speaker
   These: plural and near the speaker
   Those: plural and at a distance from the speaker

   First Example: I bought *these* cakes, but Sam baked *those*. (*Those* refers to cakes that are at a distance from the speaker.)
   Second Example: I wrote *this* last year. (*This* refers to something that is singular near the speaker, and readily understood in the context of the conversation.)

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

11.1 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)."[77] A sentence is more easily understood when it reflects the principle of parallel construction. Table 20 offers examples of parallel construction.

Table 20: 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.	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.**

Parallel construction is also used to great effect in the memorable words of writers and leaders.

> **Example One:** "I chose my friends for their good looks, my acquaintances for their good characters, and my enemies for their intellects."
>
> –Oscar Wilde

> **Example Two:** "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. Parallel structure is also called for with prepositional phrases. According to the *Chicago Manual of Style*, "in a parallel series of prepositional phrases, repeat the preposition with every element unless they all use the same preposition."[78]

> **Example Three:** The man said, "I have been published in *The New Yorker, The Atlantic,* and *Time Magazine.*"

> **Example Four**: To reach the university, drive under the railroad bridge, around the circle, and into the parking garage.

In addition to the speaker being a prolific author in reputable publications, the man in the third example also uses parallel construction effectively by making each series item refer to the preposition "in." In this case, the preposition "in" does not need to be repeated because the same preposition applies to each element. In this way, the sentence flows nicely, and readers can see all three publications are those his work has been published in. 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 sentence. When you create a sentence with some sort of action in it, the way in which you structure the sentence tells the reader whether you are emphasizing 1) the actor who performed the action (active voice), or 2) what happened to the object or receiver of the action (passive voice).

> Consider: 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:

> The student drafted his research paper.
> 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.

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 also 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*, *become*, and *became*.

Additionally, passive voice sentences do not always include who did the action:

The rifle **was fired**.

Passive voice is a valid, grammatically correct structure that does have specific purposes:

- 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.
- It allows the writer additional options for sentence variety.

However, passive voice presents three basic problems:

- It uses more words to convey the same content as Active Voice.
- It reverses the basic English sentence structure, which can confuse the reader, especially in longer, more complex sentences.
- It allows the writer to avoid naming the agent or the doer of action, which can be especially problematic in professional writing.

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 very 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:

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 also passive. The active version would read "which the staff considered unnecessary." Table 21 below contains more guidance on using active and passive voice.

Table 21: Active and Passive Voice

Passive Voice	Active Voice
The command **was issued** by the general.	**The general issued** the command.
The winning contest entry **was written** by a MCWAR student at Marine Corps University.	**A MCWAR student** at Marine Corps University **wrote** the winning contest entry.
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.	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.

11.3 Point of View

Another component of effective writing style is *point of view*. Using the correct perspective in your writing is 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 usually 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 also use first person in the more informal and conversational preface of 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 22 presents examples of the three types:

Table 22: Point of View Examples

First Person Point of View	Second Person Point of View	Third Person Point of View
I observed the participants in their natural habitat.	**Observe** the participants in their natural habitat (command).	**They** observed the participants in their natural habitat.
We observed the participants in their natural habitat.	**You** observed the participants in their natural habitat.	**The researcher** took a participant-observer approach to collecting the data.

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 point of view in your writing, particularly when you are writing about the same topic.

1. **Incorrect:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize culture training. You need to provide this training at the unit level.
2. **Correct:** The Marine Corps needs to institutionalize culture training**. It** needs to provide this training at the unit level.

In the pairs of sentences 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 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 that 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 that some of these UN members and some of these commanders are, in fact, **women**—we might revise these sentences using singular *they.*

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: 1) use "he or she"; or 2) make nouns in the sentences plural. These solutions are displayed below.

Every UN member agreed to present **his or her** proposal.
Each commander argued for **his or her** strategic vision.
All UN members agreed to present **their** proposal**s**.
All of the commanders argued for **their** strategic vision**s**.

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 some members of the MCU faculty. The elements of sentence style discussed in this section are surface-level in nature and are not inappropriate to use in all contexts. However, it is important for you to be able to understand these concepts and to recognize the way in which you may use split infinitives or misplaced modifiers in your own writing; awareness is key to effectively conveying your message.

11.5.1 Avoid Split Infinitives

The infinitive form of a verb is composed of two elements: the word "to" followed by the stem of the verb. Examples of infinitives are the following: to read, to write, 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, to sloppily reconstruct.

Here 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:

> 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. Here are some phrases that actually need to split the infinitives to communicate their meaning.

> The US envoy didn't feel pressure **to actually respond** to the email.
> The firm expected its stock price **to more than triple** within the coming year.
> The students engaged in a practical application **to more clearly understand** the issue.

For these sentences, repairing the split infinitives would not create a more effective way to express their meanings. In fact, the revisions below confuse the meaning or result in marginally grammatical sentences:

1. The US envoy didn't feel pressure **to respond actually** to the email.

2. The firm expected its stock price **more than to triple** within the coming year.
3. The students engaged in a practical application **to understand more clearly** the issue.

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 getting your meaning across to your reader, you should edit it. And if you have a supervisor who prefers that you not write with split infinitives at all, you should try to acknowledge that preference.

11.4.2 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 underlined. 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 writer is referring to.

> Trenchard strongly argued that strategic bombing become 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 underlined participial phrase tells the reader more about the manner and motivation of the subject’s actions.

> **Correct:** 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 tend to become misplaced; sometimes they are called “dangling participles.” The sentence below offers an example of a misplaced modifier that is a dangling participle. The problem in this sentence is that the underlined participial phrase has nothing to attach to—the reader does not know who was doing the fighting—so it “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**: Fighting to safeguard the Royal Air Force’s autonomy, the mission of the RAF changed to that of strategic bombing.
> **Misplaced Modifier:** 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 that the subject of the participle (e.g. the actor who performs the action of “fighting”) is placed as close to the participial modifier as possible, as in:

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 this sentence, there is a clear structural tie between "fighting" and the individual who is doing the fighting, Trenchard. This tie is missing in the dangling modifier example above.

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:

Dangling Modifier: 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 in:

Correct: 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."

Here is a second set of examples.

Correct: Having revised his argumentative research paper, the Captain went to the park with his son.

In a sentence like this, the Captain is the actor who revised his research paper. The entire first phrase gives the reader extra information about the Captain, explaining some of the context of the main sentence ("went to the park"). The following example demonstrates the ambiguity created by a dangling modifier:

Dangling Modifier: Having revised the argumentative research paper, the pool was opened and the Captain got his son ready to go swimming.

In this sentence, it is not clear who performed the action of the participial modifier, "having revised." The sentence grammar actually tells the reader that the pool itself revised the paper, which is impossible. The participial phrase becomes a dangling modifier in this case. To revise, you would either add a noun phrase to serve as the subject of "having revised" or you would simply rewrite the sentence to make the relationships among events clear.

Corrected: Having revised his argumentative research paper, **the Captain** went to the park with his son.

Revised Sentence: The Captain had finished his argumentative research paper, so he decided to take his son swimming when the pool opened.

Chapter Twelve: Oral Communication

Communication is the art of shaping and negotiating perceptions. Trying to convey your ideas to an audience involves trying to get them to see the world the same way you see it. Audience members don't have to agree with your position to see an issue from your point of view, but they have to understand your message in order to act on the information you are communicating to them.

This chapter will provide you with techniques, advice, and insight on how to communicate your ideas in speaking situations so that you can more effectively shape people's perceptions. The chapter covers the following topics:

12.1 Situational Awareness
12.2 Creating the Presentation
12.3 Visual Aids
12.4 Oral Delivery Skills
12.5 Tips for Making Messages Memorable
12.6 Speech Anxiety
12.7 Question and Answer Sessions

12.1 Situational Awareness

When you have been asked to speak before a group, one of the first things you need to do is gain a sense of situational awareness. This means that you will understand the purpose of your speech and your audience, as well as the physical and psychological context of the event.

Analyzing the audience for an oral presentation is similar to analyzing the audience for your writing (See Chapter Two for more information about audience analysis in writing). Before you create your presentation, you will want to collect as much information about the potential audience as possible. The more you know about the group, the better you can prepare to meet its needs and fit the context of the presentation. Several aspects of audience identity will inform your decisions about how to address the group. These include age, education, occupation, socio-economic background, political affiliation, religious orientation, race, gender, organizational affiliation, and the audience's knowledge about your topic. When you are aware of these audience characteristics, you will be better able to create a presentation that will be effective for them.

For example, if you are talking to a group of Marines in your command, you know that your presentation can be rife with military jargon and acronyms, as you share a similar background. But if you are speaking to a largely civilian audience without a military background, your language needs to be relatively free of specialized words, unless you provide definitions in the context of your speech. In like manner, you would not give the same fire safety presentation to adults that you would to children, nor would you give the same presentation on discipline to members of the Command and Staff College that you would to a group of new recruits. While the topic is the same and the messages are similar, the manner (language, tone) of the presentation would be dramatically different.

In addition, the **audience's expectations** should also influence the way in which you create your presentation. If you are conducting a training session, your audience may not expect you to be dynamic and inspiring. Rather, audience members would expect you to be clear, organized, and a subject matter expert. They would be looking to you for exact guidelines on what to do. On the other hand, if you are asked to give a commencement address, the audience would probably expect you to be dynamic and inspiring. They would expect you to send this group of students out into the next stage of their lives with an optimistic disposition and some words of wisdom that may be helpful down the road. They would not expect you to tell them, in a step by step manner, what to do.

Similarly, the **emotional context**, **physical location**, and **time of day,** as well as **other speakers** who speak before and after you may influence the way in which you create your presentation. In the same way that having situational awareness is important in Warfighting, it is important in speechmaking. The more you know, the better prepared you are and the better you can tailor the presentation to the context in which you are speaking.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the amount of **time** you are given to speak to the group is a critical consideration. Anyone who has ever had to sit through a 20-minute presentation that was supposed to have been ten minutes long will tell you that sticking to your time limits is one of the most important aspects of a speech. If you have ever had an invited speaker scheduled in the middle of the day give a 75-minute presentation instead of a 50-minute presentation, you realize how that impacts the schedule of everyone involved. Given the choice between being two minutes over-time and two minutes under-time, under-time is generally the safer choice.

12.2 Creating the Presentation

When you have time to prepare a speech, putting together an outline is important; when you don't have time to prepare a speech, putting together an outline is even *more* important. An outline is perhaps the single best tool available to you when giving a speech. Though the type of outline you would draft before writing the first draft of a paper might be highly detailed, an outline for a speech might be nothing more than a few key words jotted down on a card or sheet of paper. The purpose of this outline is to help you remember what you are planning to say and the order in which you plan to present your key points. You will want to craft your outline in a format that can be used for quick reference. For instance, you will not want to use an outline that is several pages long, as you would not want to have to ruffle through papers in the middle of your presentation. Similarly, if you decide to use note cards, you will want to make sure you write your cues only on one side of the card; this will prevent you from needing to flip your note cards over during a speech—a movement that could be distracting to your audience. On the following page, you will find an example of an informally constructed outline:

Thank Col. Sanders, Maj. Payne & Capt. Crunch for inviting me
Story about first time I used the weapon
Specs
- Weight, length, capacity
- Muzzle velocity, Range, lift

Features
- Attachments
- Forward Assist
- Sights

Advantages over current equipment
- Rate of fire
- Accuracy during full auto
- Weight
- Cycle speed

Closing, personal experience in the field.

Figure 14: Informally Constructed Speech

One of the keys to giving successful presentations is to have solid organization. A random stream of consciousness approach will leave most audiences feeling confused. But a well-organized presentation will not only ensure that you include all the information you wanted and needed to include, it will also increase your audience's retention rates.

As with your writing, a speech will have an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. Each section of your speech—like each section of an essay—fulfills a particular function. Your **introduction** will give your audience background information and let them know the main goal of your speech. The **body** of your speech will explain your supporting ideas with a sequence of linked points that are organized in such a way that they seem to fit into a natural order. And your **conclusion** will summarize your presentation and offer your audience an indication of why it is important and how they can act on your ideas.

12.2.1 Introduction

The introduction is one of the most important parts of a speech. It helps you establish rapport with the audience members, it gives them a reason to listen to you, and it lets them know where you are taking your presentation. A good introduction should contain four important parts:

1. **An Attention Getter**: This is something that draws an audience in, makes them interested in what you have to say, and gets them thinking about your topic. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways: a brief story, a startling statistic, a relevant quotation from someone respected/famous, a brief demonstration, or even a bit of humor that relates to your topic.

2. **Link to the Audience**: Audience members need to feel as though a message applies directly to them. Don't just expect them to believe that what you have to say is

important; prove it to them. Tell them why they need to listen and what they will get out of it.

3. **Thesis Statement**: As with your writing, a thesis statement is one clear sentence that tells your audience the controlling idea of your speech, why it is important, and how you will present it.

4. **Preview**: This is an overview of the main points of your speech in the order in which you plan to address them. It functions as a brief roadmap for the audience.

12.2.2 Body

The body of your speech is a well-organized progression of ideas that support and explain your thesis. These ideas are linked together with transitional words and phrases that help your audience understand the connections. Basic organizational patterns for a speech—similar to organizational patterns for an essay—would include chronological, spatial, topical, comparison/contrast, cause-effect, and problem-solution, among others. The description of organizational patterns below is by no means exhaustive.

Chronological

The chronological organizational pattern is an effective format for talking about ideas that are naturally organized over time. If your main goal is to speak about a process or procedure or a historical event, a chronological organization may be your best organizational pattern. This pattern establishes a linear progression of ideas. In a briefing you might explain what has led to the current situation, what the current status is, and what the plan is for moving forward. This is the way stories or narratives are designed, and narratives (stories, parables, anecdotes, and etc.) are some of the most memorable forms of oral communication.

As one type of chronological pattern, the narrative can be an effective strategy. Telling stories can entertain, educate, and inspire. Stories are generally easy for an audience to follow because they have a clear beginning, middle, and end. Furthermore, stories may hold the audience's attention because they deal with human experience. Even if a narrative is not a good choice for the main organizational pattern of your speech, it can be a useful way of explaining or illustrating one of your points. However, be aware that while a narrative may help you to gain your audience's attention, the story needs to have a purpose. Unless you are telling a story primarily to entertain your audience, the narrative should support your central argument or purpose.

Spatial

The spatial organizational pattern is most common when you are describing a place or an object. Your description is organized in relationship to space: moving from near to far, right to left, or bottom to top. The description of a city might begin at one side and move to the other side. The description of a structure might start at the ground level and move upward. It provides the mind

with a progressive structure to recognize. Spatially organized information may be a part of your overall organizational scheme.

Topical

The topical organizational pattern contains a sequence of topics, the order of which is typically not that important. This is an appropriate pattern for talking about typologies or classifications, for example. There is generally little natural progression of ideas. In a presentation about a new aircraft you might talk about maneuverability, fuel consumption, and firepower. Each of those is an important, independent issue. This differs from the previous formats in that any one of these issues could come first, second, or third and it wouldn't really matter.

Compare/Contrast

When you want to highlight similarities and differences between two elements—theories, approaches to a problem, campaigns, or government systems—you might use a compare/contrast organizational pattern. When using a compare/contrast format, you may want to choose some points for comparison and to organize your information in terms of those points.

Cause/Effect

If you choose to use a cause/effect organizational pattern, you will focus on determining how one event led to another. You may use this type of organization when presenting the outcome of a campaign. In this particular case, you might detail the factors (e.g. specific tactics, strategy, and terrain) that led to a successful or unsuccessful outcome of a campaign.

Problem/Solution

In your military career, you may be asked to present a solution to an ongoing or new problem within your specific service or MOS. In this case, you may use a problem/solution organization to present your ideas. The key to making this organization effective is to fully discuss the problem before presenting the solution. You may also use this type of organization when presenting your MMS, IRP, or Future War paper if you choose to write about a current issue in your service or government agency.

12.2.3 Conclusion

While the introduction is an audience's first impression of you, the conclusion can be your audience's last impression of you. You want both of those impressions to be favorable. A strong conclusion should contain the following three parts:

1. **Review**: Now that your audience has heard the entire presentation, recap the main points. Repeating the main ideas makes it more likely that the audience will remember them and understand them.

2. **Summary**: Think of the conclusion as your thesis statement in retrospect. Remind the audience members of the purpose of your speech, why it was important, and how they can act on the information you have presented: Should they view an issue differently? Should they vote a certain way? Should they change their eating habits?

3. **Parting comment**: Plan out the last line you are going to say. That line should bring with it a sense of ending. It should also be memorable. End on a strong note, preferably a positive note if the situation makes that appropriate.

12.3 Visual Aids

Visual aids are tools that are designed to help the audience members understand your message. Presentation tools such as Microsoft PowerPoint or the cloud-based Prezi can help speakers create visual information for an audience to follow during a speech. Such presentation tools can clarify organization and make certain points memorable. A visual can also make complicated information easier to understand. As with other tools, visual aids must be used properly in order for them to be effective. Here are best practices to follow when you create and use visual aids for your speech or presentation.

12.3.1 Use Key Words Only

A slide presentation should augment what the audience is hearing from the speaker. Visuals on a slide may clarify or illustrate information. Slides may help an audience understand the speaker's organization. Slides should contain as few words as possible—key words only—so that your audience members do not spend their time reading slides. You want your audience to be listening to you and using the slides to supplement what you are saying. Some speech coaches use the 5 x 5 rule: A slide should have no more than five lines of text with no more than five words on each line.

12.3.2 Show Your Text One Line at a Time

If you have multiple lines of text, use the animation options to make the lines appear one at a time as you talk about them. Again, you don't want to compete with your slides for the audience's attention. Let those key words prompt your discussion and serve as a reminder of what you have said. The narrative of your presentation unfolds more naturally when the audience gets the information incrementally.

12.3.3 Use Images in Addition to Text

Finding images related to the text is an effective way to reinforce the message and to evoke an emotional response in audience members. Using images also gives people's neural pathways one more connection point to aid in recollection later. It is important that the image be related to the subject matter because it creates an association that strengthens the memory. Serious messages should have serious images associated with them, though sometimes it is useful to lighten a message with an appropriately humorous image. Some researchers believe that unless we "hook" our words to images, the audience will not retain the majority of information we present.

12.3.4 Work from an Outline

An outline does more than just help you organize your thoughts; it helps your audience members organize their thoughts as well. A good outline will provide a lattice for the audience on which it can hang your ideas; it helps shape and funnel the messages the audience members receive from you. They start to follow your line of reasoning, and your ideas seem to progress naturally to them.

12.3.5 Let the Software Do its Job

Presentational software programs such as PowerPoint and Prezi were created by individuals who were trained in visual arts and who understand how best to use visual media effectively. These programs offer pre-made templates that are designed to optimize the message.

12.3.6 More Is Not Better

The general rule is that ten slides are appropriate for a 20 minute presentation. It is better to spend more time talking about fewer slides than to dash through too many slides in too short a time period.

12.3.7 Use Handouts Carefully

A handout should augment your presentation, but it should not distract the audience from listening to you. If you have data or diagrams that your audience members might use to take notes as you speak, you might create a handout for that purpose. But in general, it is not necessary to print out your slides and give them to your audience. That will simply be a distraction. Your audience will be reading the handout instead of listening to you. It is also important to plan ahead and determine what point in the presentation you will distribute the handouts for optimum audience usability and the lowest possible distraction.

12.4 Oral Delivery Skills

Delivery is a word that describes all of the ways in which your message is communicated to your audience. It includes your method of delivery as well as how you use your voice and your body, including your facial expressions, your eyes, and your gestures.

12.4.1 Voice

The features of your voice that will have an impact on your delivery are volume, pace, intonation, verbal filler, and the actual language you use.

Appropriate volume is essential to an effective speech. Unless you speak loud enough for your audience to hear you, what you have to say will become irrelevant. Your aim is to speak loudly enough for the people in the back rows to hear you easily but to not speak so loudly that you overpower the people sitting in the front rows. As you speak, develop the habit of checking the body language of the people in back to see if they are straining to hear you. Finding the right

volume level and accommodating to background noise (machinery, a noisy audience, and/or crying children) becomes easier with more experience.

A microphone allows you to be heard easily, but speakers must understand how to use a microphone effectively. When you speak into a microphone, sound waves cause vibrations that are converted into analogue or digital signals that your audience members can hear. Speakers should remember to position the microphone to the side of the face in order to avoid popping noises caused by certain sounds (fricatives and plosives such as /f/, /sh/, and /d/). A clip on microphone or lapel microphone will obviate this problem.

12.4.2 Pace

The pace of your speech should be a little slower than your normal rate of speaking. Remember that your audience is processing new information and may also be viewing slides or a handout, so you want to give the audience enough time to understand the information well. You should also consider pausing when you present especially important information or particularly complex information to ensure understanding. If you are a little nervous about speaking, chances are that you will speak even more quickly than you usually do, so try to force yourself to slow down. Rehearsing your speech will help you maintain a reasonable pace.

12.4.3 Intonation

Your intonation—or the way in which your voice rises and falls—carries meaning. In particular, your voice communicates your own energy, your enthusiasm for your topic, and your attitude toward your audience. If you are not energized about your presentation, how can you expect your audience to become energized? Effective speakers practice using expressive intonation in their speeches.

12.4.4 Word Choice

Avoid using verbal filler—sounds or words such as “uh,” “um,” or “okay.” Not only can this become annoying to your audience, but it can also communicate a lack of confidence and credibility. The best way to prevent verbal filler is to practice your speech and to be confident about your message. Choose your language carefully.

1. **Avoid jargon**: If you are speaking to a largely civilian audience, heavy use of military acronyms and abbreviations will only cause confusion and misunderstanding.

2. **Use gender-neutral language**: Refrain from using gendered pronouns (e.g. him, her, she, or he) unless absolutely necessary. Avoid generic use of gendered words (e.g. use humanity as opposed to mankind, personnel as opposed to manpower).

3. **Use Standard American English**: Even in informal speaking situations, you will want your language to follow the conventions of Standard English. Heavy use of slang, dialect, or casual grammar will cause audience members to judge you negatively.

12.4.5 Nonverbal Delivery

The speaker's body language is an essential component of a public presentation. The way in which a speaker communicates with the body carries meaning for an audience, especially in terms of appearance, eye contact, facial expression, gestures, and movement.

Make sure that your **appearance** is professional. Dress appropriately. Hold yourself tall, but not stiffly. Try to have a natural stance that communicates ease and confidence to your audience through your body.

Make **eye contact** with your audience at least 90% of the time. (You will use the other 10% of the time to look at your notes.) People in Western cultures believe that eye contact conveys honesty, integrity, and respect for the audience. Look at different audience members in different parts of the room; try not to allow anyone to feel left out.

Maintain a pleasant **facial expression** that reflects the meaning of your words. If you introduce a topic that is serious, your facial expression should reflect that seriousness as well.

Use **gestures** effectively to communicate meaning, or to enhance the meaning of what you are saying. Gestures should be natural, normal, and purposeful. Do not over-gesture or 'talk with your hands.' If your gesture isn't enhancing your speech, it probably isn't needed. A repetitive gesture is really nothing more than flapping your hands around. In addition, avoid knife-hand or karate chop gestures. Most audiences, especially civilian audiences, will find these gestures harsh and even threatening.

A final nonverbal tool that you might use to enhance your speech is **movement**. Walking slowly from one end of the presentation space to the other can enhance your presentation. But too much movement can become a distraction. Keep in mind that everything you do while in front of an audience is sending a message. In a short presentation, very little movement is required. But in a long presentation, movement is expected and can be helpful. You might move to signal transitions from one idea to the next. This actually helps your audience understand that you are moving from one topic to another. More importantly, it provides the audience members with a different visual frame for their memory of you. As you speak from the right-hand side of the room there are different background cues than the left-hand side of the room. That makes it easier for the audience to remember what you were saying at that time.

12.5 Tips for Making Messages Memorable

Here are things that you can do to make your presentation more memorable.

12.5.1 Use Powerful Narratives

The narrative, or story, is one of the most effective memory aids for human beings to use as they process information. Human beings are wired to understand narratives and can recall narrative in great detail.

12.5.2 Use Repetition for Retention

The more often audience members hear the same message, the more likely they are to remember it. Speakers like Martin Luther King, Jr. recognize the impact of a short phrase being repeated. King's "I have a dream" speech is perhaps his best known work. If you were asked to recite any part of that speech it would probably start with the phrase "I have a dream…" If you have a central point that you would like your listeners to take with them, turn it into a short mantra and repeat it in an identical manner throughout the speech. By the end of the speech your audience will likely repeat it with you. To be effective, the line needs to be short, relevant, and repeated verbatim.

12.5.3 Use Humor

Humor is a valuable tool in your bag of speaking tools. Using humor selectively can entertain an audience and sometimes make your point for you. Be sure that your humor is tasteful and that it will not offend anyone.

12.5.4 Use Analogies and Metaphors

When audience members struggle to understand abstract thoughts or new concepts, it helps for them to be able to compare these ideas to something tangible or to something they already understand.

12.5.5 Take Advantage of Mnemonics

A mnemonic is just a linguistic device used to aid in memory retention. If you want your audience to remember a list of things, use a mnemonic such as ROYGBIV, the mnemonic you most likely used to remember the colors of the spectrum (**R**ed, **O**range, **Y**ellow, **G**reen, **B**lue, **I**ndigo, and **V**iolet).

12.6 Speech Anxiety

Feeling anxious as you prepare for a speech is quite natural. Understanding the possible causes of that anxiety will help you figure out which tools you can use to best address it.

No matter the source of a speaker's anxiety, the body reacts to speech anxiety in ways that are sometimes counterproductive. Evolutionarily, humans have survived because of what is known as the "fight, flight, or freeze" syndrome. When our ancestors were confronted with a deadly situation, the survivors were those whose brains immediately jumped into action and flooded their bodies with adrenaline. This hormone allowed them to stay and fight or to flee from the situation. A third option was to freeze in order to remain undetected by the threat.

The most common result of speech anxiety is that it releases adrenaline into the speaker's system. Adrenaline produces a unique biochemical response: it increases your heart rate, raises your blood pressure, and quickens your breathing. Your hands might shake and you might feel lightheaded, leading the brain to produce even more adrenaline. Understanding the physiological

contributors to speech anxiety may help speakers deal with it effectively before, during, and after the speech.

12.6.1 Preparing to Speak

Before you speak, preparation and practice can help you reduce speech anxiety. Try to finish your presentation outline and your slides well before the presentation date. The more you know about your topic, the better prepared you will be to answer questions (and the less anxiety you can anticipate). Then practice your delivery. Practice your speech to a wall, practice in front of a mirror, practice in the room in which you intend to speak, or practice in front of an audience who will give you feedback. The more you practice looking at an audience while speaking, the more comfortable you will become. If you can speak in the room in which you intend to speak, you are more likely to feel comfortable giving the speech when it is time to speak to your intended audience.

There are several things you can do in the 30 minutes before your speech to help reduce your apprehension. Using Positive Mental Imagery (PMI) is a way to combat a mental problem with a mental solution. Picture yourself giving your speech and giving it well; imagine your audience responding to it positively. This can counter the negative mental imagery that many speakers have. When they imagine that they will give an ineffective speech, their insecurities may dominate the presentation, creating a self-fulfilling prophecy.

There are also some physical things you can do to reduce anxiety just before you speak. One of the best ways to allow your body to process the excess adrenaline is to take a short, brisk walk. Isometric exercises can also help reduce anxiety: Tense your muscles, hold for 3-5 seconds, and then release. If you do several repetitions of isometric exercise, you will burn off much of the excess adrenaline.

The final thing you can do to relieve anxiety before you speak is to simply repress the fear and give the presentation. To accomplish that, it is helpful to focus on **the message** rather than on your reaction to the situation.

12.6.2 Performing the Speech

During the speech, you may find yourself feeling anxious again. Keep things in perspective by focusing on your message. You can also use gestures (appropriately and not in excess) to release some of that anxious energy. Some speakers find that telling a joke allows them to laugh along with their audience members, dissipating some of the nervous energy.

You are probably never going to completely eliminate all of your butterflies (nervousness) about giving formal presentations. But it is that nervousness that makes us prepare harder and do a better job. The key to giving a good speech is not eliminating all of your fears; rather, it is getting the butterflies to fly in formation.

12.6.3 Reflecting on the Speech

After the speech, you can reduce your speech anxiety for future presentations. Take an objective look at how well you did. Focus on the positive things so that you can easily picture yourself doing well the next time. As you consider the things that went wrong, reflect on what you could have done to prevent these things, and what you will remember to do differently as you prepare for your next presentation. Feedback from others will give you useful information about what can improve. The more information you have, the better you can prepare for the next presentation.

12.7 Question and Answer Sessions

There will be several times during your career when you will be expected to participate in a question and answer (QA) session. Even though these sessions may include reporter interviews, post-briefing QA sessions, and oral examinations, the strategies you will use to respond to these questions are similar. It is important to understand how to formulate cogent and coherent responses to questions. Here are some guidelines.

12.7.1 Have the Right Mindset

Attitude often determines achievement, so approach a QA session with the same strategies with which you would approach a speech. Do not view the situation as adversarial, even if the persons asking the questions are skeptical about your point of view. Whether it is a reporter asking questions in a press conference or a faculty member asking questions during comprehensive examinations, the people asking the questions aren't out to get you. They are both looking for the truth. Reporters want to know about events, the faculty member wants to know if you have mastered the material.

12.7.2 Be Prepared

Do your research, review your materials, and make sure that you have the facts at hand. Just as with other presentations, practicing is important. Anticipate what questions you might receive and prepare responses to those questions. Then practice your responses.

12.7.3 Interpret the Question

Take some time to think about the questions as they are presented to you. If you have more than one question, allocate time to answer both. Read the first question and spend half of your time preparing the first response, then read the second question and prepare that response. Consider what your listener really wants to know.

12.7.4 Organize Your Response

You will probably find that you have more than enough information available to you and plenty of ideas about your answer. The important thing is to organize your response logically and efficiently. As with any other presentation you should have an introduction with an attention-getting device that leads to your thesis statement (the essence of the answer to the question). Figure 15 illustrates an organized response to an oral exam question.

What Clausewitz would say about Kilcullen

Thesis: (In this case read the question and provide a one word or one sentence answer.)

I. Establish presence
- A. Both the Hutu and Tutsi are already Present. But there is no commingling.
- B. So it fails on this level

II. Contagion
- A. There is no safe haven
- B. There is no ideological difference
- C. It is a blood feud

III. Intervention
- A. The tribes are in active conflict/genocide
- B. There is no safe haven to disrupt

IV. Rejection
- A. Nothing is loss, no need to reject
- B. The Tutsi would likely welcome or help

Concl: Proverb: The enemy of my enemy...

Figure 15: Organized Response to Oral Exam Question

12.7.5 Parting Comments

Being an effective speaker is a combination of talent and skill. Effective communication is critical to career advancement. By using the information provided in this chapter you can become a better public presenter, and your audience members will thank you for it.

Appendix A: 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; it also 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.

Document Setup and Microsoft Word Formatting

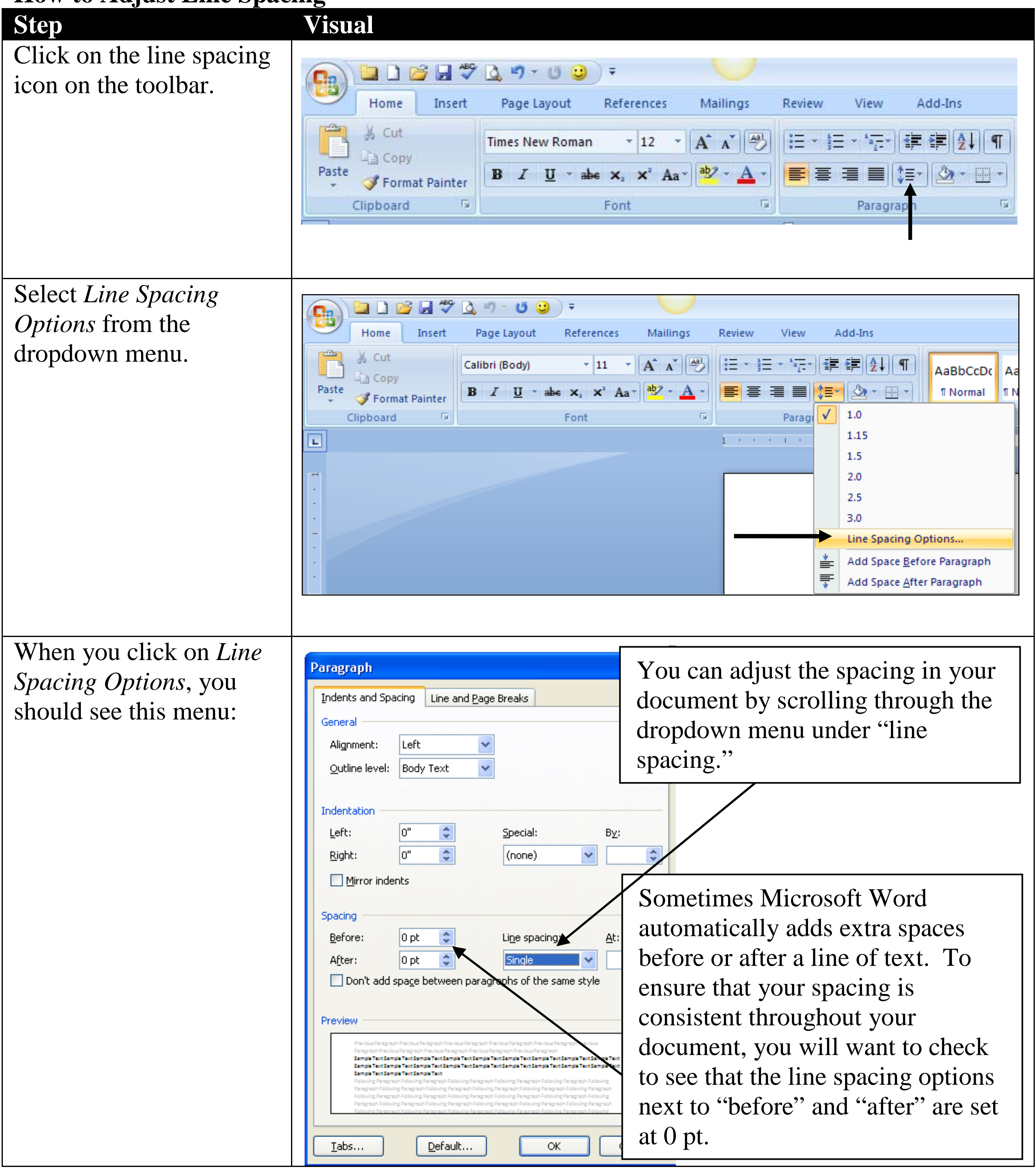
Font

Though *The Chicago Manual of Style* does not make any specific recommendations regarding the type of font documents should use, as font may vary based on the type of document you are writing, it does acknowledge that Times New Roman is one of the only typefaces that has "all necessary characters."[79] The academic assignments you produce at MCU will typically use Times New Roman, 12pt font unless otherwise specified. Be aware, however, that most of the papers you write using military formats (e.g. point papers, position papers, official correspondence) will use Courier New.

Spacing

Chicago 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 also be double spaced to allow for instructor feedback. The figure on the following page provides directions for changing the spacing in your document in Microsoft Word:

How to Adjust Line Spacing



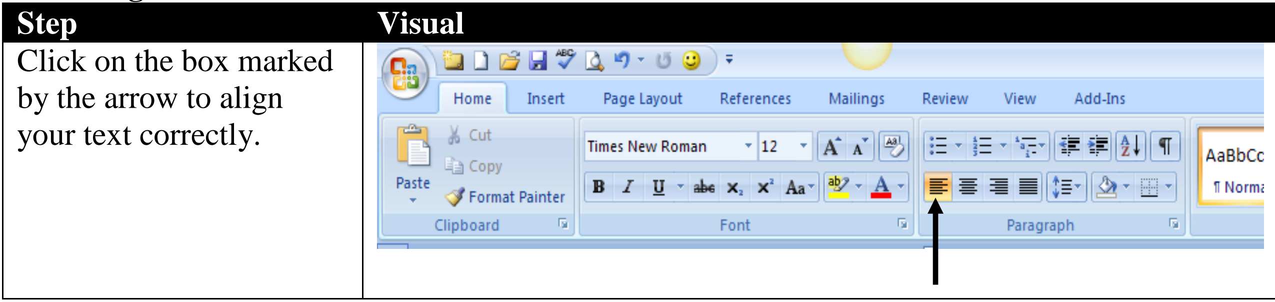
Step	Visual
Click on the line spacing icon on the toolbar.	
Select *Line Spacing Options* from the dropdown menu.	
When you click on *Line Spacing Options*, you should see this menu:	

In addition to the information in the above figure, it is also important to use correct spacing when separating sentences and clauses. Chicago Style recommends using only one space after a period (.) or colon (:).

Justification and Margins

All text should be flush left. The text should not be justified. The figure below shows you how to adjust the text alignment of your document.

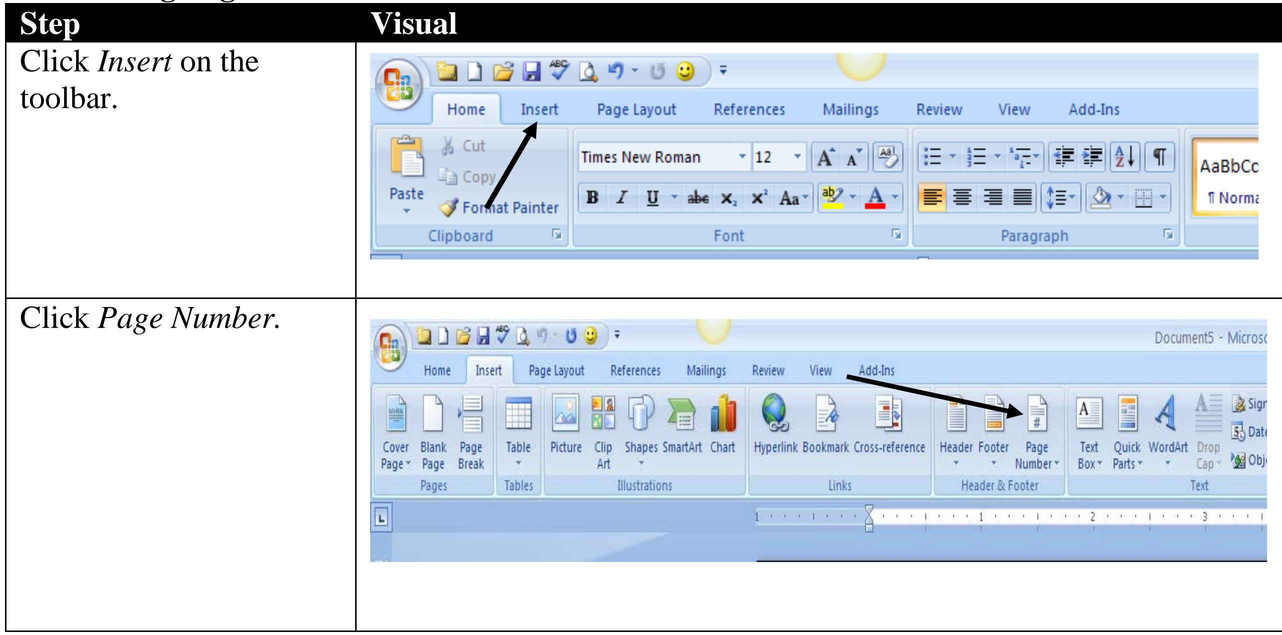
Text Alignment

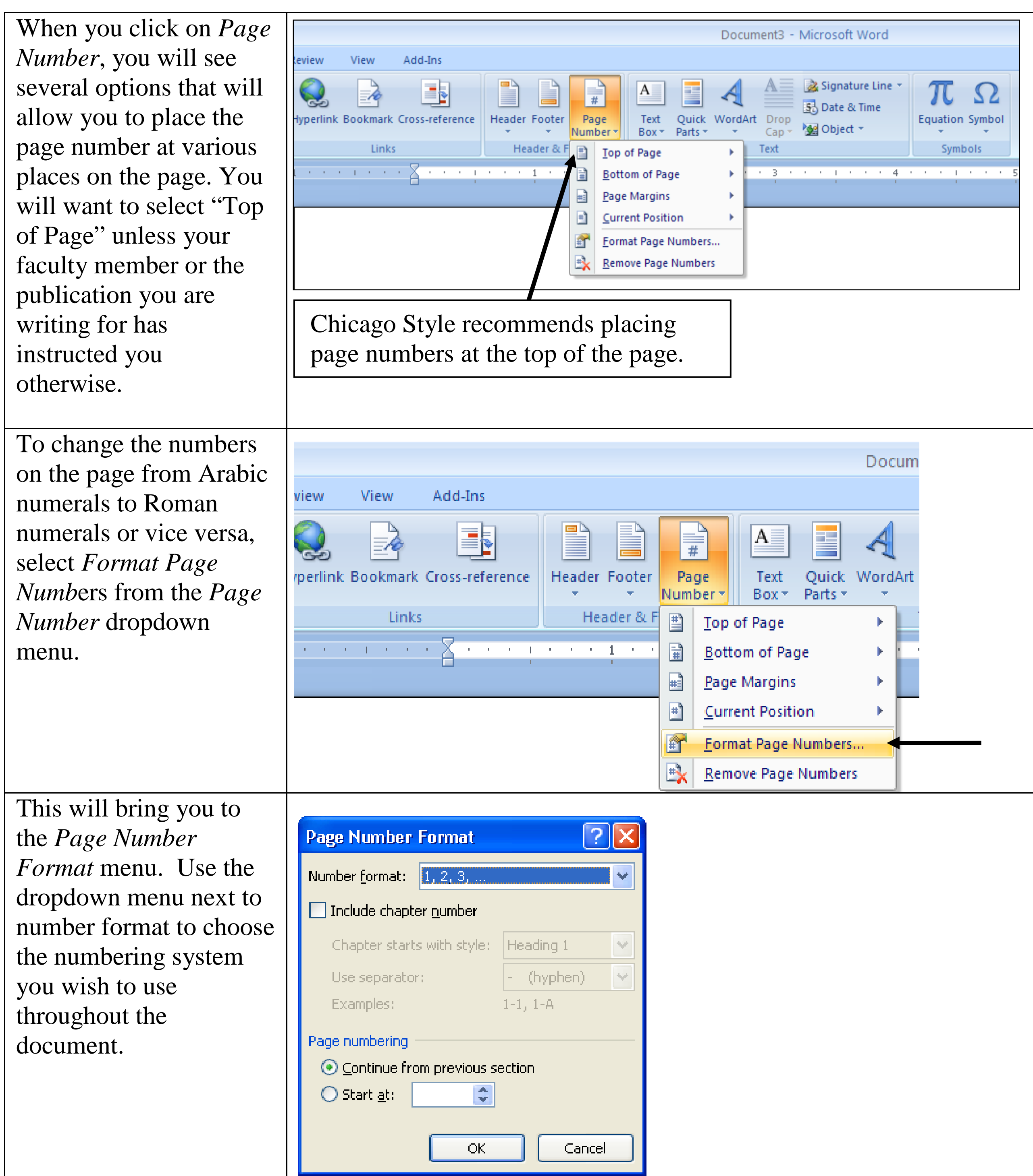
Step	Visual
Click on the box marked by the arrow to align your text correctly.	

Page Numbering

Page numbers should be placed 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 lower-case 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). The figure below provides guidance for formatting page numbers in Microsoft Word.

Formatting Page Numbers

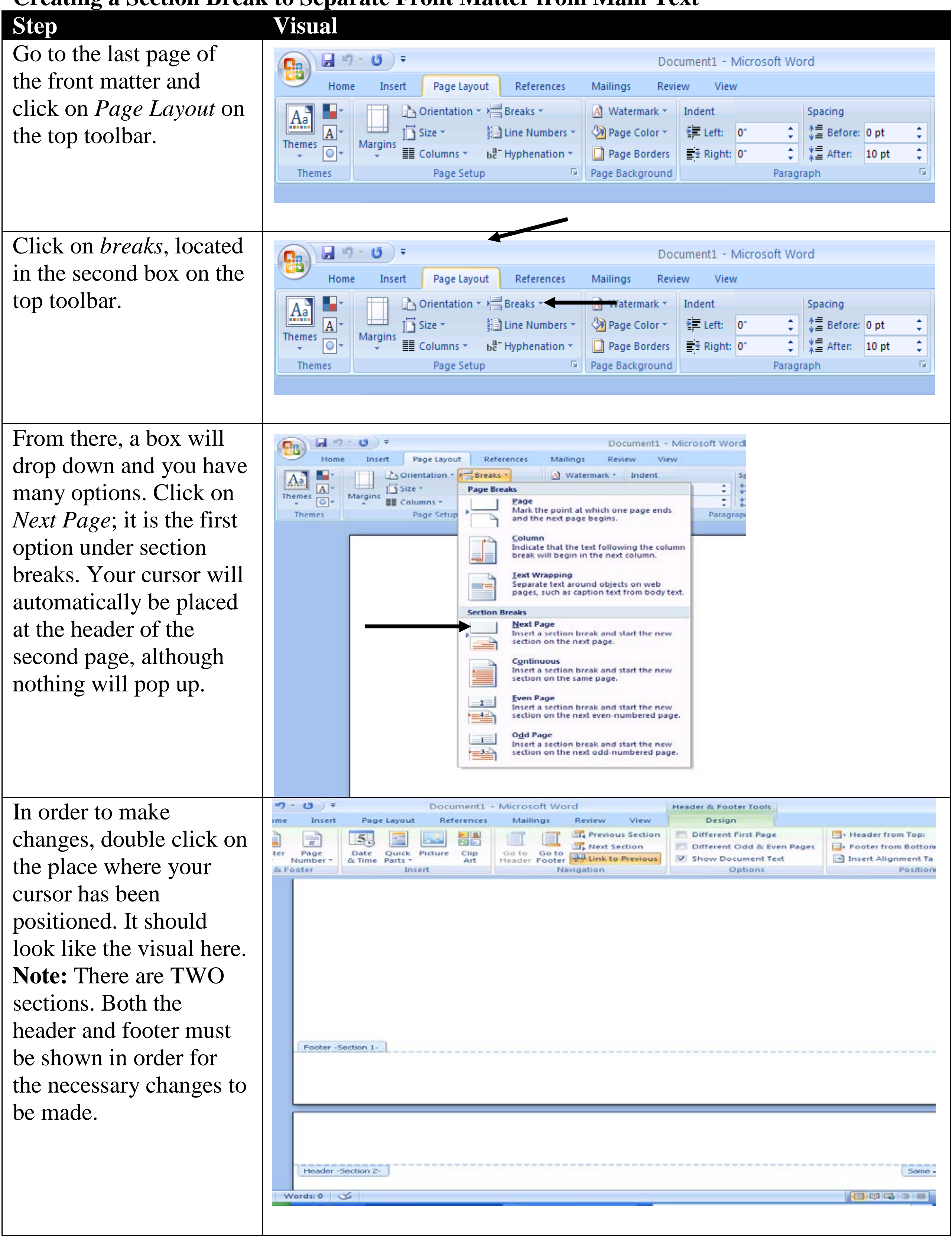
Step	Visual
Click *Insert* on the toolbar.	
Click *Page Number*.	



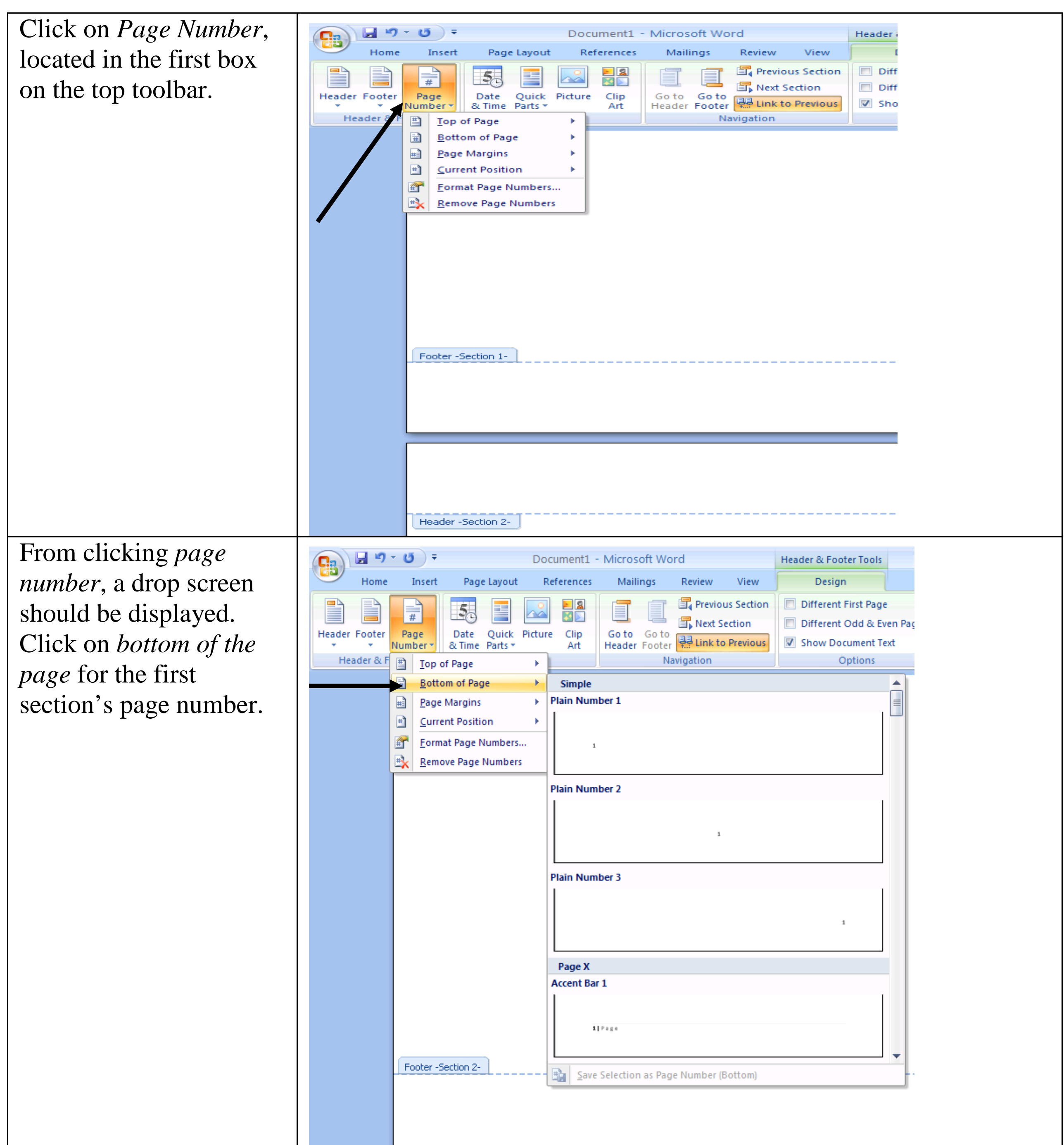
When you click on *Page Number*, you will see several options that will allow you to place the page number at various places on the page. You will want to select "Top of Page" unless your faculty member or the publication you are writing for has instructed you otherwise.	Chicago Style recommends placing page numbers at the top of the page.
To change the numbers on the page from Arabic numerals to Roman numerals or vice versa, select *Format Page Numbers* from the *Page Number* 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 lower-case 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**. The figure on the following page provides more information about creating section breaks to allow for two systems of numbering within the same document.

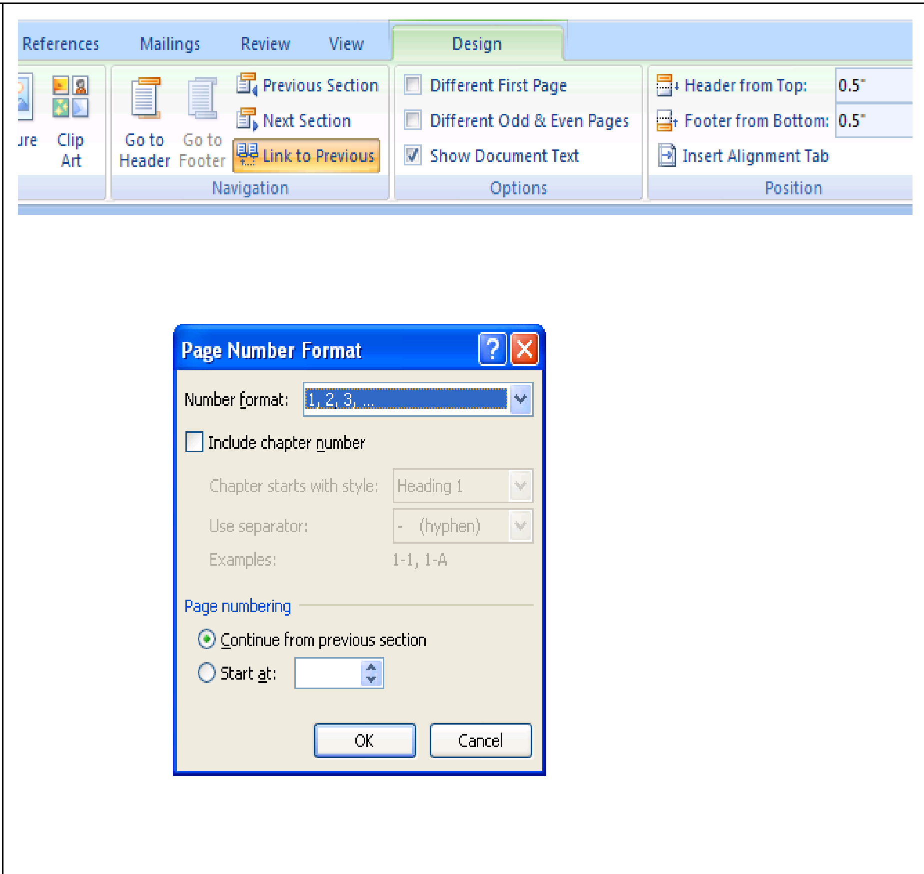
Creating a Section Break to Separate Front Matter from Main Text



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 cursor 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.	

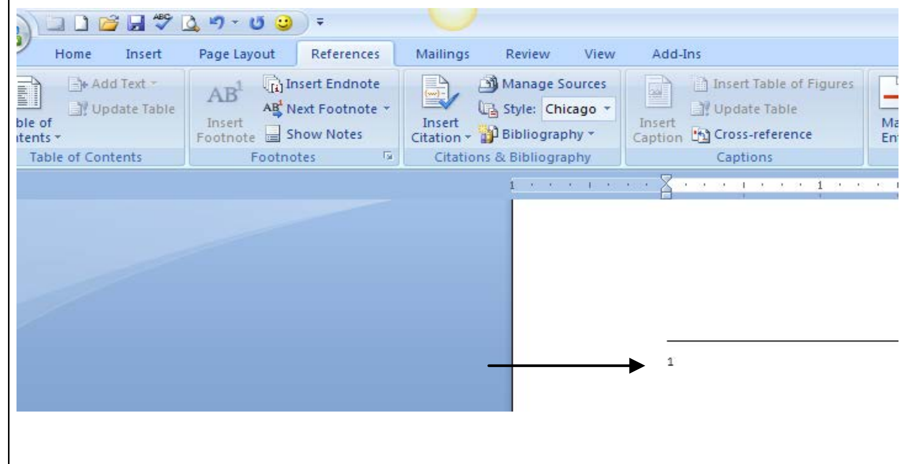
Click on *Page Number*, located in the first box on the top toolbar.	
From clicking *page number*, a drop screen should be displayed. Click on *bottom of the page* for the first section's page number.	

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 numbers or Roman numerals, depending on what your instructor/style guide format calls for.



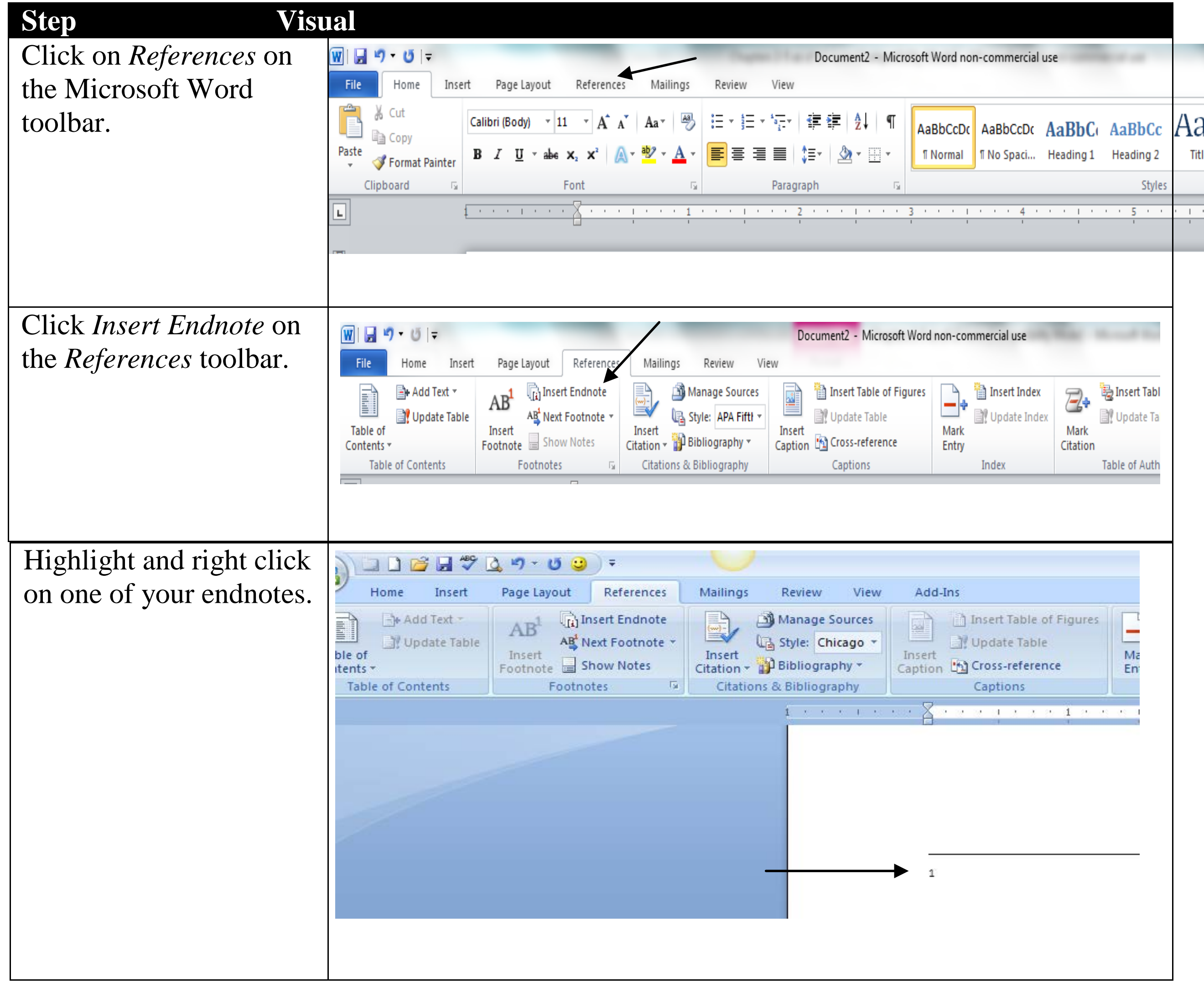
Generating Endnotes

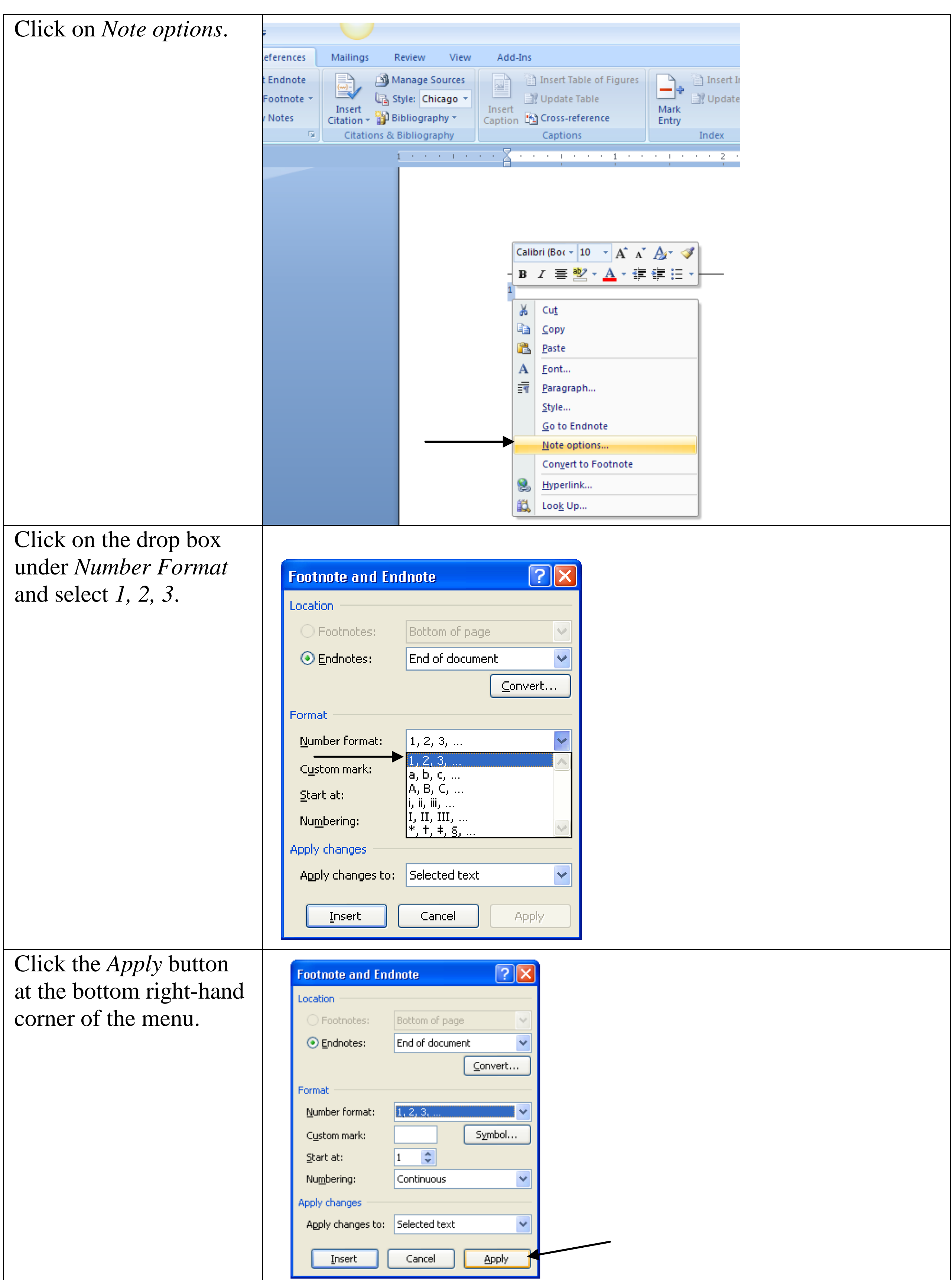
Microsoft Word will then take you to the end of your document, where you can fill in the publication information for the source you cited. See Chapter Nine for more information about how to properly format endnotes in Chicago Style.



You will also want to make sure the endnotes use Arabic numerals (e.g. 1, 2, and 3) as opposed to Roman numerals (e.g. i, ii, and iii). On the following page are directions that will walk you through the process of changing the endnote numbering:

Changing Numbering in an Endnote

Step	Visual
Click on *References* on the Microsoft Word toolbar.	
Click *Insert Endnote* on the *References* toolbar.	
Highlight and right click on one of your endnotes.	



Click on *Note options*.

Click on the drop box under *Number Format* and select *1, 2, 3*.

Click the *Apply* button at the bottom right-hand corner of the menu.

Using Visuals in Academic Writing

Visuals are an important component of both academic research papers and oral presentations. They help to emphasize a specific point; 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 also 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. timelines).

Do not use visuals to convey the main argument of your paper or to analyze the information you present in the paper. Visuals should be used primarily to present organized data or to emphasize a particular point. The following list 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.
   A. **Example:** For more information about writing academic research papers, see figure two.
   B. **Example:** The writing process (fig. 2) cannot be treated as a linear process.

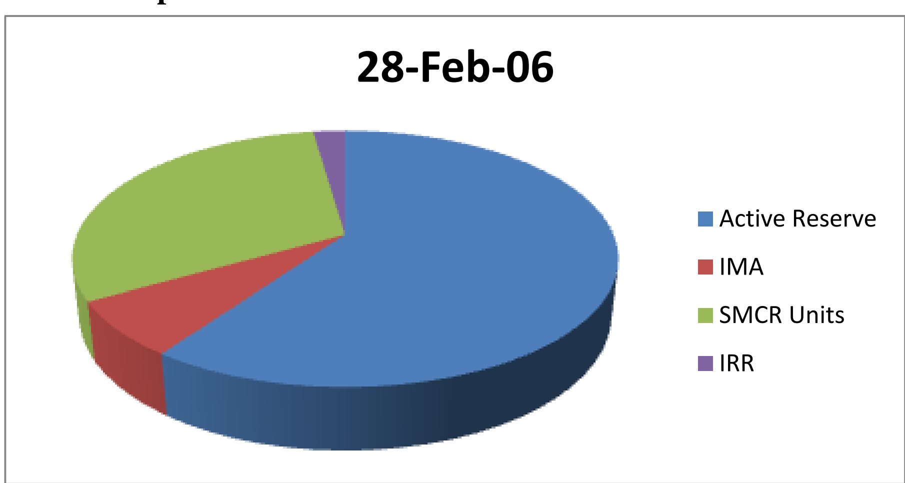
2. Refer to figures in the text according to their label (e.g. figure 1, figure 2); do not refer to figures according to their placement in the text (e.g. the figure above).

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.

Providing attribution for in-text visuals

If using a visual in the main text of a paper, attribution for the visual should also be provided in the main text (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. Below is an example:

Marine Corps Reserve Personnel



Source: Joseph J. Garcia, "Total Force Integration: Transforming the United States from Good-to-Great," (manuscript, Marine Corps University, 2007).

There are times when you may want to provide attribution for a visual you use in the text of your paper, even it is not a direct reproduction of another author's work. For instance, the following example might be a way you use another researcher's data in order to develop a figure.

Most Common Driving Violations in Fredericksburg, VA, May 2012- May 2013

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 Fredericksburg Police Chief, Record of Driving Violations, 1 June 2013.

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. Format and style should be made consistent when using more than one table in your paper.

3. When using tables and other visuals or figures in a paper, number tables separately. Give each table its own number, and use Arabic numerals (e.g. Table 1).

4. Tables should be cited in text, rather than in the bibliography or endnotes.

5. When discussing the table in the body of the paper, make *table* lowercase.

6. 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.

The example below demonstrates proper use and format of a table:

LCSC Recorded Visits AY 2012-2013

Membership Category	Number of Visits to Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC)
Command and Staff College students	743
School of Advanced Warfighting Students	92
Marine Corps War College Students	23
Faculty	27
Administration	5
Total	890

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

Guidelines for Using Charts

1. In Chicago Style, the term "chart" refers to visuals that are commonly referred to as "graphs." A chart generally "presents data in a simple, comprehensible form—often along a set of x and y axes."[80]

2. Label a chart as a figure.

3. Make sure readers can understand the chart as it stands without additional explanations.

4. Make sure your charts are consistent in terms of format and style.

5. Lowercase labels within the chart unless they are proper nouns.

6. It is permissible to use abbreviations in labels if readers can clearly understand the abbreviated terms.

7. If not using color to separate segments of the chart, use black and white rather than shades of gray (unless otherwise instructed).

8. Label the horizontal and vertical axes.

9. When time is a variable, put it on the horizontal axis.

The example below demonstrates proper use of a chart:

Personnel Authorization for Selected Reserve and Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserves

Service	Selected Reserve Force Authorization	Reserves on Full-Time Active Duty in Support of Reserve Authorization
Army National Guard	350,000	--
Army Reserve	205,000	14,970
Naval Reserve	83,400	14,152
Air National Guard/Air Force Reserve	182,900	14,153
Marine Corps Reserve	39,600	2,261

Source: U.S.C. 10, Subtitle E, Part II, Chapter 1201, § 12001 Authorized Strengths: Reserve Components.

Appendix B: Selected Military Periodicals and Essay Contests

Periodicals

Air & Space Power Journal - http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/

Armed Forces Journal - http://armedforcesjournal.com/

Joint Force Quarterly - http://www.ndu.edu/press/jointForceQuarterly.html

*Journal of Military Hist*ory - http://www.smh-hq.org/jmh/jmh.html

Marine Corps Gazette - http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/

Military History Magazine - http://www.historynet.com/military-history

Military Review Journal - http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/MilitaryReview/

Naval History - http://www.usni.org/membership/naval-history-author-guidelines

Naval War College Review - http://www.usnwc.edu/Publications/Naval-War-College-Review.aspx

Parameters – http://www.carlisle.army.mil/usawc/Parameters/default.cfm

Proceedings - http://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings

Royal United Services Institute Journal - http://www.rusi.org/publications/journal/

*SeaPower Magaz*ine - http://www.navyleague.org/sea_power/about_seapower.php

Small Wars Journal - http://smallwarsjournal.com/

Military Essay Contests

The Brigadier A. W. Hammett Award – Sponsored by Colonel William G. Price, USMC (ret.)
https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf

Center for Homeland Defense and Security Annual Essay Competition – Sponsored by the Naval Postgraduate School Center for Homeland Defense and Security
http://www.chds.us/?essay/overview

Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Research Essay and Article Competitions sponsored by National Defense University Press
http://www.ndu.edu/press/CJCS-competition.html

Chase Prize Essay Contest - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/majgen-harold-w-chase-prize-essay-contest

Colonel Francis "Fox" Parry Memorial Article - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/col-francis-f-fox-parry-writing-award

Colonel Franklin Brooke Nihart Award – Sponsored by the Marine Corps University Foundation through Col. Franklin Brooke Nihart (ret.) and his wife Mary Helen Nihart
http://www.mcuf.org/first_draft/support_awards.html

General Clifton B. Cates Award – Sponsored by the Navy League of the United States
http://www.navyleague.org/councils/awards_manual.pdf

General John A. Lejeune Writing Award – Sponsored by the Marine Corps League
http://www.mcldet1073.org/MCLDET1073l4.html#AWARDS

Intelligence Writing Award – Sponsored by the CIA Associate Director for Military Affairs
https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf

Hogaboom Leadership Essay Contest - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/gen-robert-e-hogaboom-leadership-writing-contest.#sthash.1RFBvs8t.dpuf

Lieutenant Colonel Earl "Pete" Ellis Writing Award- Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/gazette/article/ltcol-earl-%E2%80%98pete%E2%80%99-ellis-participate-vision-future-marine-corps

Lieutenant General Edward W. Snedeker Award – Sponsored by the Armed Forces Communication and Electronics Association
https://www.mcu.usmc.mil/Students/MCU%20Awards.pdf

Marine Corps War College Academic Excellence Award - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program

Marine Corps Command and Staff College Colonel Bevan G. Cass Award - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program

The Schulze Memorial Essay - Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program

Secretary of Defense National Security Essay Competition – Sponsored by National Defense University Press
http://www.ndu.edu/press/SECDEF-competition.html

Streusand-Cooper Writing Award – Sponsored by the Marine Corps University Foundation through Dr. Douglas Streusand and LtCol and Mrs. Francis Cooper
http://www.mcuf.org/first_draft/support_awards.html

Woman Marine Association Essay Contest- Sponsored by the Marine Corps Association & Foundation
http://www.mca-marines.org/news/mcaf-writing-awards-program

Appendix C: Glossary of Commonly Confused Word Pairs

Accept/Except

Accept: To agree to take or receive. I accepted the proposal.
Except: With the exclusion of. They all received A's except for Major Smith.

Adverse/Averse

Adverse: Unfavorable, undesirable. The medication had no adverse effects.
Averse: Having strong opposition towards. He is averse to launching a preemptive war.

Advice/Advise

Advice: A noun meaning a suggestion for a proposed action. My platoon leader gave good advice.
Advise: A verb meaning to suggest that someone perform an action. I would advise you to visit the Leadership Communication Skills Center for assistance on your paper.

Affect/Effect

Affect: Causing or expressing emotion; usually used as verb. The general's speech about wounded warriors affected the audience deeply.
Effect: Producing a desired outcome; usually used as a noun. The general's speech had a profound effect on the audience.

All Together/Altogether

All Together: All people or objects present at the same time. I put my books, pens, and notebooks all together on the table.
Altogether: Considering the entirety or whole of something. I was altogether pleased with the seminar discussion today.

Aloud/Allowed

Aloud: Conversing in the open, creating noise. Reading your paper aloud can help you catch typos and other writing errors.
Allowed: Tolerated, permitted, or accepted. The employer allowed his employee to leave an hour early prior to the start of the holiday weekend.

Appraise/Apprise

Appraise: To assess the value of something. The jeweler appraised her diamond ring for insurance purposes.
Apprise: To let somebody know something. The colonel apprised the general of the situation in theater.

Assent/Ascent

Assent: Concurrence or agreement with something. He readily assented to remodeling the bathroom.
Ascent: The act of rising or climbing to the top. We need to make the steep ascent to the top of Mount Everest.

Bear/Bare

Bear (1): The animal. The bear roamed the woods looking for honey.
Bear (2): To hold or carry. He had to bear a pack that weighed 30 pounds.
Bare: Uncovered, minimal. The hot asphalt burned my bare feet.

Born/Borne

Born: The start to life, creation. The Marine felt as though he had been born to do this job.
Borne: The past tense act of carrying someone or something. She had borne a child within the past year.

Council/Counsel

Council: A group that makes decisions, a committee. The matter was brought up before the council.
Counsel: To advise someone on something. He was counseled by the general who had a great deal of deployment experience.

There/They're/Their

There: Refers to a place. I do not want to go there.
They're: Contraction meaning "they are." They're going to employ guerilla war tactics.
Their: Plural possessive pronoun. It was their error.

Elicit/Illicit

Elicit: To evoke or draw out. His question elicited a sharp response.
Illicit: Illegal, prohibited for moral or ethical reasons. There was an illicit drug trade in the city.

Emigrate/Immigrate

Emigrate: To leave one's country or region to live in another. Miguel emigrated from Spain.
Immigrate: Refers to the arrival and settling in a new country or region. Miguel immigrated to America.

Eminent/Imminent

Eminent (1): Issuing from a source. Many property rights are subject to eminent domain.
Eminent (2): Of high rank. The eminent members of the command gathered at the table.
Imminent: Likely to occur at any moment. The attack is imminent.

Fewer/Less

Fewer: Use *fewer* for things you count individually. There were fewer soldiers in Iraq last year.
Less: Use *less* when referring to something that is measured. Next time you make the coffee, use less water.

Foreword/Forward

Foreword: The introduction to a book or other document, front matter. Some interesting points are made by General Pratt in this book's foreword.
Forward: in the direction of something ahead of you. Keep moving forward, and you will achieve your goal.

If/Whether

If: Used when one occurrence depends on another. I will attend the Family Day activities if my spouse can come.
Whether: Used when there are two potential outcomes. I do not know whether my spouse will attend the Family Day activities or not.

Its/It's

Its: A possessive pronoun. The dog chased its tail.
It's: A contraction meaning "it is." It's time to wake up.

Lay/Lie

Lay: To place something, like an object, rather than a person; the verb *lay* must have an object. He always lays his paperwork on my desk.
Lie: To recline. After a long day's work, all I want to do is lie down.

Prescribe/Proscribe

Prescribe: To recommend or authorize the use of something. The doctor prescribed medication to aid in my recovery.
Proscribe: To prohibit or ban someone from using or doing something. He was proscribed from throwing the first punch.

Sit/Set

Sit: An action meaning to be seated. Do not sit on your gun.
Set: To place something; *set* and *lay* are used similarly, and both require an object. Set the money on the counter.

Than/Then

Than: A comparative word. My plan is better than your plan.
Then: Represents sequence. We will eat dinner, and then go to the movies.

Withdraw/Withdrawal

Withdraw: an action verb meaning to remove or take someone or something from a place or position. The troops will withdraw from Afghanistan.
Withdrawal: a noun referring to an act of removing someone or something. The withdrawal is planned for spring.

Whose/Who's

Whose: Pronoun indicating possession. Whose idea was this?
Who's: A contraction meaning "who is." Who's the president of MCU?

Who/Whom

Who: Interrogative pronoun that is the subject of a sentence, phrase, or question. Who is in 10th battalion?
Whom: Interrogative pronoun that is the object of a sentence or preposition; has something done to it. The person with whom you spoke about the plan is not here.

Your/You're

Your: A possessive pronoun. Your uniform is on backwards.
You're: A contraction meaning "you are." You're wearing your uniform backwards.

That/Which

That: Used if a clause does not require a comma (restrictive clause). The car that ran the red light was totaled.
Which: Used if a clause requires commas (non-restrictive clause); if you can eliminate a clause without altering the main idea of a sentence, use *which*. The car, which was a Ford, was totaled.

Appendix D: Now You Try It! Grammar and Sentence Exercises

Commas

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.
   Correct Use of Commas______ Incorrect Use of Commas______

2. A challenge from a potential adversary would necessitate a robust capable amphibious assault capability.
   Correct Use of Commas______ 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.
   Correct Use of Commas______ 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.
   Correct Use of Commas______ Incorrect Use of Commas______

Semicolons

5. Students at the School of Advanced Warfighting arrive and begin classes in early July of the academic year; Command and Staff College students arrive later in the summer.
   Correct Use of Semicolons______ Incorrect Use of Semicolons______

6. Small wars are defined as; "operations undertaken under executive authority."
   Correct Use of Semicolons______ Incorrect Use of Semicolons______

7. It is safe to state that even humanitarian assistance; disaster relief; and peace support operations are covered by the term *small wars*.
   Correct Use of Semicolons______ Incorrect Use of Semicolons______

8. Armies have become smaller, and in most cases fully professional; however, their weapons and equipment largely remain the same.
   Correct Use of Semicolons______ Incorrect Use of Semicolons______

Colons

9. LCSC instructors provide the following services to Marine Corps University students: formal classes, writing workshops, and one-on-one writing sessions.
   Correct Use of Colons______ Incorrect Use of Colons______

10. US Marines may be asked to PCS to: Okinawa, Japan; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; and Quantico, Virginia.
    Correct Use of Colons______ Incorrect Use of Colons______

11. To whom it may concern: The Gray Research Center's power has been fully restored as of 10 July 2014 at 0900.
    Correct Use of Colons______ Incorrect Use of Colons______

Question Marks: Please add the appropriate punctuation mark to the following sentences.

12. When does the groundbreaking for the new academic building take place

13. Has it been that long Colonel Morris wondered

14. The following items must be listed on the inventory tablets laptops and monitors

Parentheses

15. All after action reports should be completed by this Tuesday. (The after action report will not be reviewed until next week).
    Correct Use of Parentheses______ Incorrect Use of Parentheses______

16. My sister (who served in the Marine Corps for 20 years) is going to spend Thanksgiving in Detroit, Michigan this year with us.
    Correct Use of Parentheses______ Incorrect Use of Parentheses______

17. (According to General Gray (a former president of Marine Corps University), "Every Marine is, first and foremost, a rifleman. All other conditions are secondary.")
    Correct Use of Parentheses______ Incorrect Use of Parentheses______

Hyphens

18. The MCWAR student looked to written records pre-Vietnam for his research.
    Correct Use of Hyphens______ Incorrect Use of Hyphens______

19. The man's favorite weapon to shoot was his AK-47.
    Correct Use of Hyphens______ Incorrect Use of Hyphens______

20. The captain made sure the memo was well-written, as he knew it would be distributed throughout the battalion.
    Correct Use of Hyphens______ Incorrect Use of Hyphens______

Dashes

21. In the last week of school at Expeditionary Warfare School, the Captain tried his best to stay focused on his priorities—preparing his family for the upcoming move to Hawaii, practicing for graduation, and getting his argumentative research paper published.
    Correct Use of Dashes______ Incorrect Use of Dashes______

22. 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.
Correct Use of Dashes______ Incorrect Use of Dashes______

23. The upcoming storm—which was predicted to severely hinder visibility—delayed the flight several hours.
Correct Use of Dashes______ Incorrect Use of Dashes______

Want to check your answers and see how well you did? See our answer key!

ANSWER KEY

Commas

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.
   Correct Use of Commas Incorrect Use of Commas
   Reason **Commas separate all items in a series of three or more.**

2. A challenge from a potential adversary would necessitate a robust capable amphibious assault capability.
   Correct Use of Commas **Incorrect Use of Commas**
   Reason **Commas separate parallel adjectives, i.e. adjectives that can be reversed in order.**

3. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways, but it will be costly.
   Correct Use of Commas Incorrect Use of Commas
   Reason **Commas separate two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction (e.g., and, but, for, so, yet, or, nor) in between.**

4. Provision of equipment in peacetime for the contingency of war is beneficial in many ways, however it will be costly.
   Correct Use of Commas **Incorrect Use of Commas**
   Reason **"However" is a conjunctive adverb, so a semicolon is needed to separate the two independent clauses.**

Semicolons

5. Students at the School of Advanced Warfighting arrive and begin classes in early July of the academic year; Command and Staff College students arrive later in the summer.
   Correct Use of Semicolons Incorrect Use of Semicolons
   Reason **A semicolon is used to separate two complete, related sentences.**

6. Small wars are defined as; "operations undertaken under executive authority."
   Correct Use of Semicolons **Incorrect Use of Semicolons**
   Reason **Neither the material preceding nor the material following the semicolon can stand alone as a complete thought; therefore, a semicolon is not needed here.**

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

8. Armies have become smaller, and in most cases fully professional; however, their weapons and equipment largely remain the same.
   Correct Use of Semicolons Incorrect Use of Semicolons
   Reason **A semicolon is used to separate two independent clauses with a conjunctive adverb in between.**

Colons

9. LCSC instructors provide the following services to Marine Corps University students: formal classes, writing workshops, and one-on-one writing sessions.
   Correct Use of Colons Incorrect Use of Colons
   Reason **A colon is used after an independent clause to call attention to a list.**

10. US Marines may be asked to PCS to: Okinawa, Japan; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; and Quantico, Virginia.
    Correct Use of Colons **Incorrect Use of Colons**
    Reason **A colon is not used to separate a preposition from its direct object.**

11. To whom it may concern: The Gray Research Center's power has been fully restored as of 10 July 2014 at 0900.
    Correct Use of Colons Incorrect Use of Colons
    Reason **A colon is used after the salutation in a formal letter.**

Question Marks - Please add the appropriate punctuation mark to the following sentences.

12. When does the groundbreaking for the new academic building take place**?**

13. Has it been that long**?** Colonel Morris wondered**.**

14. The following items must be listed on the inventory**:** tablets**,** laptops**,** and monitors**.**

Parentheses

15. All after action reports should be completed by this Tuesday. (The after action report will not be reviewed until next week).
    Correct Use of Parentheses **Incorrect Use of Parentheses**
    Reason **In the case that an entire sentence is enclosed in parentheses, the closing punctuation mark should go inside the second parenthesis, not outside.**

16. My sister (who served in the Marine Corps for 20 years) is going to spend Thanksgiving in Detroit, Michigan this year with us.
    Correct Use of Parentheses Incorrect Use of Parentheses
    Reason **Parentheses enclose explanatory phrases, things that clarify the meaning of a sentence or passage without changing its message.**

17. (According to General Gray (a former president of Marine Corps University), "Every Marine is, first and foremost, a rifleman. All other conditions are secondary.")
Correct Use of Parentheses **Incorrect Use of Parentheses**
Reason **Brackets are preferred to enclose parenthetical information that is already in parentheses.**

Hyphens

18. The MCWAR student looked to written records pre-Vietnam for his research.
Correct Use of Hyphens Incorrect Use of Hyphens
Reason **A hyphen is used when a prefix is added to a proper noun.**

19. The man's favorite weapon to shoot was his AK-47.
Correct Use of Hyphens Incorrect Use of Hyphens
Reason **A hyphen is used when the modifier is a letter or a number.**

20. The captain made sure the memo was well-written, as he knew it would be distributed throughout the battalion.
Correct Use of Hyphens **Incorrect Use of Hyphens**
Reason **A hyphen should not be used if a modifier follows the noun it modifies (e.g. well read or properly educated).**

Dashes

21. In the last week of school at Expeditionary Warfare School, the Captain tried his best to stay focused on his priorities—preparing his family for the upcoming move to Hawaii, practicing for graduation, and getting his argumentative research paper published.
Correct Use of the em dash Incorrect Use of the em dash
Reason **An em dash can be used to emphasize a series.**

22. 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.
Correct Use of the em dash **Incorrect Use of the em dash**
Reason **An em dash may be used before summarizing words that set off a group of ideas or details, but the em dash is needed at the beginning and at the end of the parenthetical element.**

23. The upcoming storm—which was predicted to severely hinder visibility—delayed the flight several hours.
Correct Use of the em dash Incorrect Use of the em dash
Reason **An em dash can set off a parenthetical element.**

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The Leadership Communication Skills Center (LCSC) is an educational 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, room 122.

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