

A GUIDE FOR WRITTEN WORK
SUBMITTED TO
THE DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT, HISTORY, AND JUSTICE
CAMPBELL UNIVERSITY

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INTRODUCTION

The ability to write correctly and with clarity is a sign of a truly educated person and is essential for success in many, if not all, professions. Writing is a craft that is cultivated through practice; it is or should be an unending process like learning itself, not something that is finished in four years. In high school, you should have made much progress in developing your ability to write well. If you did not, you have lots of catching up to do. Now, to help undergraduates at Campbell to continue improving their ability to write, we in the Department of Government, History, and Justice require students in our courses to do various types of written work but not nearly as much as we would like to require.

This Guide sets forth standards for the written work to be done in our courses. It should be read carefully as soon as possible, digested, and always followed unless your professors make exceptions. While this Guide does not go into detail about such matters as choosing topics for papers, searching for information, taking notes, improving your writing style, and footnoting, it will refer you to other books that will provide information about those matters; the authors of some of them will be mentioned in the text of this Guide; complete information about them will be found in the References section near the end of this booklet. No doubt, your professors will also provide you with additional instructions and bibliographical information; they may also clarify and as mentioned, make exceptions to some of the standards presented here.

Students should realize that the standards set forth in this Guide are not necessarily the standards of other departments here at Campbell or of other schools and other types of institutions such as corporations where some of you may be employed some day. Our standards will, however, have enough in common with the standards of others that learning to follow them with care should make you more attentive to such matters as organization and documentation- and thus a better writer.

TYPES OF WRITTEN WORK

This section describes some of the various types of written work that you may be required to complete—Essay Examinations, Term Papers, Policy Analyses, Critical Reviews, and Case Studies. What is said about some of these types, Essay Examinations for example, will apply to other types as well.

Essay Examinations

Understand the Instructions. Always begin an essay examination by carefully reading the question—including making a thoughtful choice if the professor has told you to write on only one or a few of several possible questions. As you read the question do not hastily focus on some key word or concept and then, thoughtlessly assuming that you have understood what is required, immediately begin to write all you can recall about that subject. Instead, read and reread the question, pausing to decide exactly what is expected of you. Some essays, for instance, require that you **explain** something (example: why socialism has been less influential in the United States than in Europe). Another might require you to justify your support or disagreement with a statement made in the question (example: that the American presidency has become so powerful as to threaten democracy in the United States). Another form of essay question might require you to respond to several interrelated statements forming part of a single question (example: In the post-Cold War international order how will power be distributed? What issues will become more important? Which will become less important? Will nation-states remain the cornerstone of the system or will new actors emerge?). Finally, rather than a series of questions like the one just mentioned, your professor might simply require you to give your views on the nature of some subject such as the New World Order proclaimed by President Bush (Sr.) and leave it to you to determine the sub-questions that must be considered in your essay. Whatever you are told to do, before you begin to write, remember that all essay questions require analysis—breaking them into several smaller sections that must be addressed in order to respond to the question as a whole. Make a list of these sections before you start writing your essay so that you are clear on what you need to do.

State a Thesis. When you have determined precisely what the question requires, next decide how you would summarize your answer to the question in a sentence or two. This summary statement is often called a **thesis** or **hypothesis**. Using the examples above, that brief statement would summarize your

views on the most important of the multiple causes of the French Revolution or on the two or three factors best explaining the relative weakness of socialism in the United States compared to Europe or the ways in which the American president has become too powerful if, indeed, he has. This summary of your answer—your thesis—becomes the point that you will try to make and the point around which your argument and evidence will be organized. If some key terms such as “socialism” must be made clear, also consider how you would define such terms before going any further with your essay.

Outline. When you have determined what the essay requires you to do and what you want to say in response, take another few minutes to outline your answer. If you have analyzed the question as recommended above, that may suggest the way you will organize your answer. Whether or not it does, take time to decide what major points you wish to make in support of your essay’s thesis. Make note of the facts and reasoning that you will use in support of each point. Decide the best order in which to present your evidence and argument. Now is the time to recall what you have overlooked and to determine the structure of your essay—what must go into your answer, what the lack of time suggests you should pass over briefly, whether you have responded to all essential aspects of the question, and at what point certain material should be introduced. When you are in a hurry, taking time to make an outline may seem like a waste. On the contrary, it is the key to a good essay. Immediately putting pen to paper often results in an incomplete, unfocused, disorganized, incomprehensible “essay” that fails to answer the question. After you have made your outline, of course, follow it as you write.

Write Well. As you write, be attentive to the following aspects of good writing:

1. **Introduction.** Begin with an Introduction (a) telling the reader what point you wish to prove or what question you want to answer and (b) explaining how you will try to prove the point or answer the question.
2. **Good Paragraphs.** Organize your supporting argument into good paragraphs with topic sentences, essential facts and reasoning in support of each subpoint of your argument and without any irrelevant material.
3. **Good Grammar.** Choose your words carefully and respect good grammar; this is essential to clear communication.
4. **Correct Spelling.** Spell and use words correctly. Some professors take off points for misspelling and

misusing certain, if not all, words; they should provide you with details about this matter.

5. **Neatness.** Neatness and good penmanship also count; your professors cannot possibly understand what they cannot read. **NEVER CROWD** your words!
6. **Review and Conclusion.** In the last few minutes of the examination period, read over your essay, making needed corrections and additions (without crowding them), and then write a concluding paragraph that brings together the various parts of your argument and that shows you have given a clear, plausible, and well supported answer to the question.

Term Papers

The term paper—usually in essay format—is undoubtedly the most common form of written work demanded by college professors. Certain term papers, because of the length, complexity, and the nature of their sources, are described as research papers. Whether term paper or research paper, their highly structured format (described in the following paragraphs) can make them the easiest types of paper to research, organize and write. **Note:** A Term Paper is just that—a paper that is completed throughout the term or semester, not just during the last week or two before it is to be submitted. Professors will probably give you deadlines for choosing topics, turning in a preliminary outline (with a clearly stated thesis) and bibliography, and maybe even a first draft of your paper complete with footnotes. Failure to meet these and other deadlines in college courses will adversely affect your grades.

Choosing a Topic. It is suggested that you begin every term paper assignment by selecting a subject that interests you and about which information should be readily available. With a subject in mind, you should peruse the relevant portions of one or two good general works on that subject. This should help you settle on the precise subject of your paper, which should be narrow enough to be treated completely within the assigned length of the paper. Reading general works should also lead you to some of the secondary sources that address your specific subject and point out where the experts disagree or suggest an area needing further research.

Forming a Thesis. It is recommended that you complete the process of topic selection by asking an appropriate research question, one that is clear, concise, and answerable in the allotted number of works. When you have the answer to that question, you will have the thesis of your term paper. Any tentative answer you have at this point is most often referred to as your hypothesis.

Be careful how you ask your research question or form your initial hypothesis. For a government course, you might have begun thinking, for example, whether white male voters in the South are more likely to vote Republican than similar voters in the Northeast. The question is clear, it seems concise, and readily available data on elections should enable you to develop a persuasive answer. Be careful; had you asked the question a different way you might have made an assumption that could have led you to write an inadequate term paper. Beginning your research by asking something like “Why do Southern white males more often vote Republican than white males in the Northeast?” assumes behavior that could be false—at least for some subgroups of voters and in some elections.

You should avoid beginning your research with a normative question or statement, which will often, but not always, include terms equivalent to ought and should. Such statements usually involve judgments that reflect your values but that may be incapable of proof. By your ethical standards, for instance, it may well be that the death penalty is immoral and should therefore be abolished. A more appropriate question for a term paper, however, might be whether the death penalty is equitably administered or whether it deters certain types of crime. The latter issues may be addressed by an appeal to facts and reasoning that could be convincing even to individuals who different positions on the morality of the death penalty.

Do not conclude from what was just said, however, that all questions involving ethical values are inappropriate as topics. A comparison of certain facets of two different ethical systems, the contradictions between two ethical principles, the consistency of a public policy with an ethical standard, or the injustices that might nevertheless result from a policy deemed ethical could well be the subject of an excellent term paper.

Finding the Facts. When you have chosen an appropriate question for your paper, you must determine that you have access to the sources of information needed to answer it. While defining your topic, you may have located general works and relevant monographs through use of the library’s online catalog. As you now develop a list of works that you will wish to consult, go also to the library’s reference area and make use of such indices as The Humanities Index and The Social Sciences Index (available in the CDROM-Format from 1983 on), and be prepared to contact or visit agencies that hold certain kinds of specialized but unpublished data. You may also need to do field research, perhaps in the form of surveys

and interviews. As you get started, also examine works by writers with a similar interest in your subject; their notes and bibliographies may also suggest important sources. Do not fail to consult primary materials, those produced by individuals or agencies with a first-hand knowledge of events. Do not, for example, try to write a paper on some aspect of Plato's Republic without reading the relevant parts of the book.

When you find that the information you need cannot be made available in the time you have, save that topic for another time and select a new one. Though detailed advice on research is beyond the scope of this Guide, you should discuss your sources with your professor, who may insist that you submit a bibliography proving that your topic is feasible before allowing you to go any further with your paper.

As you do your research, you may also discover that certain key concepts must be defined and refined. Using the earlier question about voters, for example, you may need to define what you mean by the South or refine which white male voters you have in mind (college graduates? blue-collar workers? etc.). The answer to your question about voting behavior of white males may differ for each of these sub-categories, and you may need to narrow your subject accordingly.

While gathering your data, you may also discover that your earlier tentative answer (hypothesis) to your research question is misleading or that you must rephrase the question. Recall what was written above about questions with an unstated assumption. Do not get so focused on proving a certain point of view that you cannot make the needed adjustments. Your task is always to challenge the hypothesis, not to select facts that support it and reject those that do not. When you have your initial question in such a form that you can give it a brief answer (thesis) that is consistent with your primary sources and that your research cannot challenge, you are at last ready to write.

Writing. At this point, many of the characteristics of good essay examinations are applicable here. You begin with an introduction that asks your refined research question (or that offers the thesis that you will attempt to validate) and that tells the reader how you will proceed. From there you should move on to a brief review of what other writers have concluded about your subject, which can help you explain the issue that you want to resolve and show why it is important to do so. In some cases, a simple statement in the introduction indicating how you will proceed to prove your thesis will not suffice, and you will need

to explain your methodology in some detail, justifying to the reader that the data gathered and interpreted the way you did will produce a valid answer to your research question.

With these introductory tasks accomplished, you need to present—in a clear, logical, and persuasive fashion—your data and analysis. That means writing good sentences, building them into focused paragraphs in a way that convinces the reader of the validity of your argument. Mastering such books as those by Hodges and Strunk and White will be helpful in accomplishing these goals.

As you write, do not overlook your obligation to acknowledge your use of another person's words, organization, or ideas with a footnote or one of its alternate forms. (See below for more on this subject.) When you quote someone, you must do two things. First, put quotation marks around their words; and secondly, introduce the quotation in some way that will indicate to the reader who made the statement.

After presenting the facts and reasoning in support of your argument, you must write a conclusion that brings all of its various parts together and focuses one last time on the question or thesis with which you began your term paper. The conclusion of your argument marks the end of your text, but it must not be the last item in your paper. If you have an appendix containing a glossary, tables, charts, graphs, pictures, maps, or other ancillary information, they come next followed by endnotes if you have used them rather than footnotes or parenthetical citations. All term papers, moreover, must have a bibliography listing the sources that have contributed to your thinking and to the presenting of your argument. (See below p.19)

Policy Analyses

Policy analyses have several forms; they ask you to weigh the advantages and shortcomings of alternative ways (policies) to resolve some problems of public concern. In one form, your analysis might be historical in nature and an attempt to determine why individuals or groups chose to respond to some past challenge in the way they did. Such an analysis might also expect you to examine the consequences of their choice. A second kind of analysis might be oriented towards the future and ask you to assess possible ways to respond to some current problem. This kind of policy paper might require you to conclude with a recommendation for future action. A third form involves your defending a predetermined policy choice. Doing this well, however, will require you to consider the other policy options and why they may be

inferior to the one that you must advocate. In this third form, your thought process, if not your paper, will be comparable to the first two forms.

In most cases, a policy analysis requires you to identify and give the essential background of the problem calling for the formulation of a new plan of action. You must next identify the principal options, the choices policy makers have in responding to that problem, and then decide which of them seems most efficient, feasible, suitable, and acceptable. Here you must bring to bear on your paper all the relevant facts and your own reasoning. Depending upon the type of policy paper you are writing, you might then conclude with an explanation of the choice actually made or a recommendation regarding what that choice should be.

Critical Reviews

After thoughtfully reading an article, chapter, monograph or other piece of work, a critical review requires you to do four things: identify the author's thesis; describe the author's supporting argument; and conclude with a statement of the work's value to its field of study.

When preparing a review, you should not confuse the author's subject (what the work is about) or purpose (why the author wrote it) with his thesis (a proposition or main point that has been maintained by a supporting argument). Though you must next describe that argument and explain specifically how it supports the author's thesis, keep in mind that review is not a book report in which you merely summarize things that interested you or that you think might interest the reader.

You must devote half the review, in clearly identified and explained manner, to summarizing the book; in the second half of the essay, you must offer and support your personal assessment of the work. You might ask yourself each of the following questions: Is the author's argument logical? Is it adequately supported with facts and reasoning? Has he considered all the relevant facts and other hypotheses that might account for them as well as the work's thesis? Does the work indicate any harmful bias? Each of your responses to those questions—and others you think appropriate to raise—should be supported with facts, reasoning, or illustrative examples. In the conclusion, you must offer a well-supported statement about the work's value to you, to other audiences, and to the field of study.

Case Studies

A case study is a paper to present the results of your examination of some specific social phenomenon. It might be the test of a hypothesis that, for example, claims to explain or predict the consequences of a particular set of circumstances (why nations modernize) or the behavior of individuals, social classes or groups, organizations, even nation-states (why countries go to war). A case study might also focus on an organization's behavior during a process that unfolds over a period of time. Through study of a specific organization and a series of related events, you might either develop or test the validity—in quantitative, complex, and comprehensive terms—or some hypothesis concerning organizational behavior.

From the latter example—the test of a hypothesis about organizational behavior—one can illustrate how a case study might be arranged. Your purpose will shape the organization of your written report, which normally includes the following elements: introductory statement of purpose; brief description and history of the organization; explanation of the hypothesis tested and the methodology used to study the organization; identification of the actors who shaped the organization's behavior and the factors—internal and external—that influenced them; the consequences and implications of their behavior; and conclusions concerning the relevance of the hypothesis and the impact of the organization's and actors' behavior.

For other types of case study, your professor will identify the essential elements and suggest their appropriate organizations. Or, in advanced courses, they may leave you to struggle creatively with such details yourself.

Now that we have considered some of the types of written work that you will be doing in government, history, and justice courses, in the next chapter we shall discuss the format of written work.

FORMAT OF WRITTEN WORK

Although each of the types of written work described in the preceding chapter has its own special structure and appropriate style, which you should know before beginning to write your paper, each type has a number of common features. These are the subject of this chapter of the Guide. All the standards presented here may make writing sound like a lot of work. For most of us it is, at least at first. Regard writing as an art or craft in which you will become proficient only through practice. Do not delay

practicing, however, until you reach graduate school or obtain your first job. Neither location is the place to discover that you lack an essential quality associated with a college degree—the ability to write well.

Parts of a Paper

Unless your professor gives you other instructions more appropriate to the nature of a specialized assignment, the parts of a typical writing project are usually assembled in the order indicated below. The underlined items indicate the parts required of all papers.

- + Cover or title page. See Appendix A.
- + Table of contents (necessary only for long research papers)
- + List of maps or illustrations (as appropriate)
- + Abstract or short summary of your paper (if required)
- + Text
- + Appendices (as necessary)
- + Endnotes (unless footnotes or parenthetical notations are used)
- + Works cited (when parenthetical notations are used)
- + Bibliography

The pagination of your paper, which is indicated with a centered Arabic numeral placed one inch from the bottom of the sheet or at the top right corner, begins with the first page of text and continues through the bibliography. Pages preceding the first page of text are identified with Roman numerals, lower case, beginning with the title page, which, like the first page of the bibliography, does not bear a number. Unless otherwise directed by your professor, do not include blank pages in your paper. Each page of your paper after the title page should also contain your name in the upper right-hand margin (but to the left of the page number should you put your page numbers at the top rather than at the bottom of the page), which, like the margins on the left, top, and bottom of your pages, should be one and a quarter inches.

You must produce typed double spaced pages on unlined white paper eight and a half by eleven inches in size. **Be sure the printed words are dark enough to be read without any difficulty!** If you do write rather than type your paper, write legibly and also double space on lined white paper that is eight and half by eleven inches in size. **NEVER hand in papers typed or written on ragged edged sheets of**

paper torn from notebooks! Take pride in what you do; always strive for perfection even though perfection is humanly impossible. By the way, if you do not know how to type using a computer word processing program, now is the time to learn.

When you have assembled all the parts of your paper in the proper order, secure them with a staple in the upper left-hand corner **before you come to class**. Do not put your paper in any kind of folder, another unnecessary expense for you and often a bother for the professor. Some professors may want all parts of your paper that follow the text stapled together as a separate part, especially if you use endnotes rather than footnotes or parenthetical notations. This will enable them to place your text and your endnotes side by side and, thus, will make it easier for them to read and check. **ALWAYS LISTEN TO AND FOLLOW YOUR PROFESSORS' INSTRUCTIONS.**

Writing Style

Although a person's writing style is an individual matter, the kind of formal writing required in college courses has its own special standards that your professors will expect you to meet. You may want to consult the latest edition of some guide to good writing such as the classic by **Strunk and White**.

Good Sentences. First of all, you should write good sentences—ones characterized by the following:

1. **Clarity.** This is essential in good writing. If you have not been clear, you will have failed to convey your ideas to the mind of another as precisely as you may hold them in your own. Do not assume that your professor will know what you are trying to say and will overlook your lack of clarity. You are not in college to learn how to write for professors who know all about your subject and your thoughts about it but rather to learn how to write clearly enough to be understood by educated people who know little or nothing about your subject. When you revise your paper—and you will do that several times, no doubt—verify that each sentence and paragraph clearly and precisely conveys your thought.
2. **Good Usage and Word Choice.** These are related to clarity. Although some sentences may be correct in grammar and meaning, yet they do not seem to have been written by an educated person or one who speaks American English like a native. That may be the result of poor usage. If you have doubts about the appropriate word, consult the most recent edition of such works as those by **Fowler**

and **Bernstein**. For help with word choice, buy and use a dictionary and thesaurus; many versions and editions are available. You should, of course, avoid the use of slang and all vulgar or colloquial terms.

3. **Brevity**. This is another characteristic of good college writing and requires the elimination of unneeded words. Be as concise as possible. When one word will do, why use two?
4. **Honesty**. This is the best and only policy—in everything, not just in writing. If you use another writer’s exact words, you must enclose them in quotation marks and give the writer credit in a footnote or endnote or in parentheses another writer or borrow some idea or piece of information not generally known, then, too, you must give the writer credit. **FAILURE TO DO SO IS DISHONEST. YOU ARE GUILTY OF PLAGIARISM** (See the Campbell University Student Planner/Handbook on the subject of plagiarism. For examples of plagiarism, see Gibaldi, MLA Handbook, pp. 30-34). You should refrain from quoting a lot; be judicious. In quoting, it is also a good technique to introduce into your text the name of the person you are quoting so that the reader will not have to search for it in the notes.

Good Paragraphs. Along with good sentences, you also need good paragraphs which are, of course, a collection of related, good sentences. Specifically, each paragraph should include the following:

1. **A Topic Sentence**. This sentence, often the first one in a paragraph, should clearly state the thesis or main point of the paragraph—what you are trying to prove in it.
2. **Facts or Reasoning**. The other sentences in your paragraphs will provide the facts and reasoning that support the main point contained in the topic sentence. These should be presented in an orderly (logical) and coherent manner. Maintain the unity of your paragraphs by not including material that is unrelated to your topic sentence. Content footnotes or endnotes may be used to provide information that is related to but not essential to the paragraph.
3. **An Element of Continuity**. Paragraphs are linked by some word or phrase either in the first or last sentence in order to make for smooth transitions. The second and third paragraphs of this chapter, for example, are linked by the use of the phrase “Along with good sentences.” In this example, the first sentence is the topic sentence, and it provides continuity with the previous paragraph. To achieve a smooth transition to the next subdivisions of this chapter, we can say: “Now that we have dealt with

writing style, let us consider grammatical standards.” Achieving smooth transitions requires a lot of practice.

Grammatical Standards

In your sentences, and paragraphs, you must use correct grammar and spell words correctly. **Hodges** and a good dictionary should be consulted on these matters. Do not rely solely on the spell check of a word processing program. Also, see the next chapter on grading procedures; using bad grammar, misspelling words, and making typographical errors will, most likely, result in a lower grade.

So much for the format of written work. We turn next to documentation.

DOCUMENTATION

In this chapter, we shall deal briefly with footnotes (or endnotes or parenthetical citations) and bibliography and refer you to other works where these matters are dealt with in greater detail than we can and choose to do here in this Guide.

Notes: Why?

Work taken from other sources must have footnotes (or endnotes or parenthetical citations) for several reasons. First, you must tell the reader the source of such things as a quotation (of a mere phrase or a long passage), a closely paraphrased statement, an idea, and information not generally known—you are, in other words, giving credit where credit is due. **Failure to do so is, we repeat for emphasis, TO CHEAT BY PLAGIARIZING and MAY RESULT IN YOUR FAILING A COURSE.** Secondly, in a footnote, you can provide additional information that is not really needed in the text but may be of interest to the reader or may point out conflicting views on the subject. Thirdly, you can use footnotes to refer the reader to another passage in your paper. Fourthly, you can provide guidance for further reading on the subject. (The intellectually curious may want to read Anthony Grafton’s book The Footnote: A Curious History published in 1997 by Harvard University Press. There is a lengthy review of it in The New York Review of Books, March 5, 1998, pp. 32-34.)

Notes: How?

There are several reasons for providing notes, and there are several ways of citing them. First, you can employ FOOTNOTES at the bottom of the pages of the text. Secondly, you can cite ENDNOTES,

which are just like footnotes except they appear not at the bottom of the pages of the text but rather as a continuous list in the End Matter (whatever follows your text) after any appendices that you may have and before the Bibliography.

Here are just a few examples of footnotes or endnotes that show the order of the information and the information and the punctuation required (usually):

1. Example For a Book:

1

John Z. Smith, American History (New York: Oxford UP, 1988), p. 10.

After the number of the note (printed a half line higher) come: the author's first, middle and last names; a comma; the title of the book underlined; no punctuation; then, in parentheses, the place of publication, colon, the publisher, and the date of publication; a comma; finally the page number or numbers followed by a period.

2. Example For an Article in a Scholarly Journal:

2

Josef L. Altholz, "The Tractarian Moment; The Incidental Origins of the Oxford Movement," Albion 26 (1994): p. 273.

After the number of the note we have: the author's first name, middle initial, and last name followed by a comma; the title of the article within quotation marks also followed by a comma; the name of the journal underlined; the volume number; the year in parentheses; colon; page number; period.

3. Example for a Later Reference to a Work Already Cited:

3

Altholz, "Tractarian Moment," p. 275.

Here we have the last name of the author whose article has been cited before followed by a short form of the title of the article and the page number. If there is only one work by this author cited, then the author's last name and the page number are all that is needed.

4. Example For a WEB Source:

31

Barry Schweid, "Powell Makes Iraq Case." Washington Times. 5 February 3 2003

[online resource] <http://www.washtimes.com/world/default-200325121859.htm> (12 March 2003).

Here we have cited not only the article author, title, journal, and date but also the web address and date that the article was downloaded. This information makes it possible for instructor to go directly to the source and determine if your citation is accurate.

A third way of indicating the source is by PARENTHETICAL CITATIONS placed right after the borrowed quotation or information within the text itself. Here is an example of a parenthetical citation:

(Smith, p. 10).

When you use this system, you will have a list of “Works Cited” after any appendices that you may have after your text (see “Parts of a Paper” above on p. 12). This list differs from the Bibliography in that the latter will list all works that you have used, not just those that you have cited in notes.

All of your professors are, so we hope, fiercely individualistic and will disagree among themselves on which of these ways—or others—they will want you to document your work. They will refer you to or provide you with detailed information about the system they prefer. Among the works they will probably cite will be **Turabian, Hodges** (which you will probably already have on hand), and the MLA Style Manual, the fifth edition of which came out in 1999. The library has copies of the fifth edition.

Bibliography: Why?

The main purpose of a bibliography is to give credit to all those whose works helped you with your paper. Another purpose is to provide in one place all the information a reader might need in order to find and check up on your use of the sources—and some professors do this.

Bibliography: How?

The works you consulted for details about footnotes should also provide the details needed for doing your bibliography. The entries should be arranged in alphabetical order by the author’s last name. Some professors may tell you to have separate sections for different types of sources (primary, secondary, articles, newspapers, etc.). Here is one simple example that shows the order of the information and punctuation needed in a bibliographical entry:

Smith, John. American History. New York: Oxford UP, 1988.

The order and punctuation here are slightly different than in a footnote or endnote: author's last name comes first, then his other names followed by a period; next—not in parentheses—the place of publication followed by a colon, the publisher, and the date of publication, and a period.

As noted above, you will have to consult other works for fuller details about the intricacies of notes and bibliographies.

GRADING WRITTEN WORK

Now, in this final chapter, we shall focus on the standards followed by and the symbols used by professors in grading written work; but before considering those matters, let us remind you that grading written work carefully takes a lot of time; so, be patient with your professors as they grade papers.

Standards

According to their preferences and the nature of the requirement, your professors may vary the weight assigned to each aspect of a piece of written work. Their response to each of the following will, however, influence the grade they assign to your work:

1. **Purpose.** Did your paper accomplish the required purpose and begin with or result in, as appropriate, a clear statement of the thesis or conclusion?
2. **Organization.** Did the organization of your paper satisfy the stated format and proceed in a manner that expressed to the reader a clear, consistent, and logical line of thought or development?
3. **Style.** Were your sentences written in Standard English as appropriate to college work and did your paragraphs include a topic sentence and supporting facts and reasoning?
4. **Substance.** Did your paper represent thorough research and reflection, show a mastery of the relevant facts and subject matter, consider (as appropriate) alternative hypotheses that might fit the facts, and provide persuasive support for your thesis or conclusion?

5. **Documentation.** As required, did your paper include—in the proper form—the following items: table of contents; endnotes or footnotes; bibliography; graphs, tables, and figures; abstract?
6. **Grammar.** Did you submit a paper that was free from errors in grammar and spelling? Did you correct typographical mistakes? Many professors will count the number of original errors in spelling, grammar, and Standard English style and reduce your grade accordingly. So, do not simply look for the grade on any piece of written work returned to you. Also check the correction symbols used to identify each error that you have made (see list below), consult your grammar handbook or dictionary as necessary, and be certain that you never repeat the error. In certain cases, your professor may even have you correct and resubmit your original paper.

Correction Symbols

Here is a list of some of the symbols professors will use in grading your papers. They may add others along the way.

agr = faulty agreement
 ap = apostrophe error
 k = awkward
 cap = capitalization error
 ▣ = capitalize
 / = do not capitalize
 cs = comma splice
 ✂ = delete
 X = factual error
 fn = footnote/citation missing
 f = format error
 frag = sentence fragment
 gr = grammar error
 hw =handwriting illegible
 log = logic error
 ^ =omission

Π = paragraphing error
 ↯ = one-sentence paragraph
 //ism = parallelism missing
 p = punctuation error
 q = quotation needs introduction
 ? = indent
 ref = reference error
 rel = questionable relevance
 rs = run-on sentence
 s = spelling error
 spt = support lacking
 ts = error/shift in tense
 ∨ = transpose
 wc = faulty word-choice
 w = wordy
 wo = write out

Well, there you are—the rules, to be supplemented by ones to be provided by each individual professor, you should follow when writing for the Government, History, and Justice Department. If you follow them all carefully, you should succeed in your government and history courses, go on to even greater successes

elsewhere, and then, of course, live happily ever after. There are, however, two other items left here—the list of References and the Appendices.

REFERENCES

Aside from a dictionary and thesaurus, which no college student or writer should be without, you may want to consult some of the following works, most if not all of which should be in the library. Some may also be available for purchase at the Bookstore.

Bernstein, Theodore. The Careful Writer: A Modern Guide to English Usage. New York: Atheneum, 1965.

The Chicago Manual of Style. 14th. ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993.

Follett, Wilson. Modern American Usage: A Guide. Ed. Jacques Barzun. New York: Hill, 1966.

Fowler, Henry W. A Dictionary of Modern Usage. Ed. Ernest Gowers. 2nd ed. New York: Oxford UP, 1965.

Gibaldi, Joseph. MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers. 5th ed. New York: Modern Language Association, 1999. For high school and undergraduate students; contains a list of Guides to Writing on pp. 38-40.

----- MLA Style Manual and Guide to Scholarly Publishing. 2nd ed. New York: Modern Language Association, 1998. For graduate students, scholars, and professional writers.

Hodges, John C. et al. Harbrace College Handbook. 14th ed. Fort Worth: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 2001.

Nicholson, Margaret. A Dictionary of American-English Usage Based on Fowler's Modern English Usage. New York: Oxford UP, 1957.

Strunk, William, Jr. and E. B. White. Elements of Style. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan, 1979.

Turabian, Kate L. A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations. 6th. ed. Revised by John Grossman and Alice Bennett. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, 1996.

APPENDIX A: THE TITLE PAGE

Here is a model to follow in preparing your title or cover pages:

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT, HISTORY AND JUSTICE

CAMPBELL UNIVERSITY

CHILD SUPPORT CASES

BY

JENNIFER SMITH

Submitted to Professor Jones

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for

Government 454

August 31, 2009

APPENDIX B: PROFESSORS' PET PEEVES

There are certain practices that really irk professors and that should definitely be avoided in written work. They are often failures to follow the rules that have been set forth in this Guide. Here is a list of some of those pet peeves.

Turning in an examination that:

- + is written with something other than a dark blue or black pen
- + has words crowded together at the bottom of pages, in between lines, in the margins, etc.
- + contains lists without an introductory statement that tells what is listed
- + has writing on both sides of the pages

The submission of term papers, critical reviews, etc. that:

- + are padded to make them seem longer than they really are by doing such things as using margins wider than they should be, triple spacing, and footnoting excessively
- + are not stapled together BEFORE CLASS STARTS
- + have pages that are not in the correct order and are upside down
- + are printed so light that they are hard to read
- + are filled with typographical errors
- + have fragmented and run-on sentences
- + do not have a clearly stated thesis
- + wander away from the subject
- + contain such statements as "I think" and "I feel"
- + do not have tables and graphs conveniently located to help in understanding the text
- + have too many and misused commas and semi-colons

- + have obviously been hastily done at the last minute
- + misuse such words as affect, effect, accept, except, to, too, two, there, their, naval, etc.
- + misspell such words as separate (not seperate), Britain (not Britian), Israel (not Isreal), peasant (not pheasant), and especially, Christian (not Christain) and Baptist (not Babtist)
- + contain “a lot” spelled “alot,” “all right” spelled as “alright,” the adverb “already” spelled as “all ready,” etc.
- + have the professor’s name misspelled anywhere!

Not related to writing, but irksome, too, are students’ asking:

- + after having missed a class, “Did I miss anything important?”
- + “Is this going to be on the exam?” as if to say “If it isn’t, I won’t bother to listen and learn.”
- + never ask a professor two weeks before class is over to check your absences. Some students view this as an opportunity to cut class and professors are aware of this.