INTRODUCTION TO GRADUATE WRITING

SECOND EDITION

Liberty University
Graduate Writing Center

Dr. Emily Heady
Dean, College of General Studies

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This workbook is a collaborative effort, and gratitude is due to all LU faculty, Graduate Writing Center employees, and students who contributed to this effort.

Specifically, Dr. John Thomas, Dr. Steve Deckard, and Dr. Fred Smith offered insights and concrete advice on graduate-level writing. In addition, Diana Haddad and Allison Scoles contributed their technical and artistic expertise throughout the writing process.

Thanks are due as well to Dr. Fred Milacci, Dr. Barbara Boothe, Dr. Patti Hinkley, Dr. Boyd Rist, and all members of Liberty's QEP Steering Committee, who were involved in this project from its earliest stages.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

WHAT IS GRADUATE WRITING?

What Is This Book About?

"Graduate-level writing" is a deceptively simple term because the demands placed on students by the various disciplines, formats, and genres in which they write differ widely. For example, a student in the Counseling Department must learn to use APA documentation, while students in English use MLA, and Seminary students use Turabian. Similarly, students studying in scientific fields often write in passive voice, using many forms of the verb "to be," while students in other fields try to maintain active voice as they compose their essays. The questions that various disciplines find intriguing differ widely as well: while a student in the School of Business may want to investigate free trade as an economic system, a student in the History Department may choose to explore the ways in which discussions of free trade shaped other political attitudes in the nineteenth century.

Nevertheless, some characteristics of good graduate-level writing remain consistent across disciplinary boundaries. This workbook is designed to give students practice in these areas, which include the following:

- Grammar
- Punctuation
- Logic and Organization
- Critical Thinking
- Diction and Vocabulary
- Research Writing

In addition, this workbook will give students limited practice in discipline-specific skills such as citation.

What is Good Writing?

Anything that you must do well to succeed as an undergraduate writer, you must also do well to succeed as a graduate student. In brief, these are the characteristics of good scholarly writing:

- It demonstrates good mechanical skills, including grammar, spelling, and punctuation.
- It is well organized, with main ideas introduced early on and defended, complicated, and refined through the paper.
- It is coherent and unified.
- It explores and explains worthwhile content.
- It is free from filler phrases, verbal tics, and space-wasters.
- It is aware of its audience.
- It situates itself within a discipline, discourse community, or scholarly field.

What is the Difference Between Undergraduate and Graduate Writing?

These parallel lists summarize the difference between good undergraduate- and good graduate-level writing.

UNDERGRADUATE WRITING

- Is mechanically correct.
- Is concise.
- Is clear though not necessarily interesting.
- May or may not demonstrate new ideas.
- Contains citations when required.
- Uses transition words and phrases.
- Exactly conforms to outside models of argumentation, such as the Toulmin method of legal argument or classical rhetorical theory.
- Is written for a general audience or for the teacher.
- Will, with revision, be presentable at an undergraduate conference or in a general-interest publication.

GRADUATE WRITING

- Is mechanically skillful.
- Is concise though also nuanced.
- Is engaging, stylish, and interesting, and speaks with your own voice.
- Explores a topic or research question in an original way.
- Demonstrates extensive research.
- Has a strong organizational frame.
- The paper moves from point to point in the way you want your audience's thoughts to move; structure grows out of content.
- Is written for a professional audience.
- Will, with revision, be publishable in a professional journal or presentable at a good conference.

In summary, good undergraduate writing is correct, clear, concise, and suitable for an intelligent general-interest reader. On the other hand, graduate-level writing is also

clear, correct, and concise, but it adds the elements of originality and discipline-specific expertise. Graduate-level writing is usually not suitable for the general public, but it should be of interest to other scholars in the field.

Remember: while undergraduate-level writing ideally *fulfills* the conventions of good writing, graduate-level writing, done properly, *exceeds* them.

Practice 1.1

Using the topic below, write a short explanation geared toward a general audience (undergraduate writing) and one geared toward an audience of your graduate school peers. Remember that the content will not necessarily be different; however, the language, sentence structure, and style you use will be.

Example:

Topic: Why I Came to Liberty University

General/Undergraduate Writing:
Liberty University has always been a place I wanted to attend. I visited here while I was a student in high school, and I really liked the environment and the people. Plus, I wanted to study more about my faith, so this school seemed like a good fit for me. When I visited, I was blown away by the huge campus, the Division I sports teams, and the size of the student body. How great it is to study at a place with 10,000 Christians! I liked it so much that I stayed after I finished my undergrad degree. Now I'm a student in the Seminary. I can't wait to use all I've learned to minister to others.

Graduate/Professional Writing:
Although I have long been aware of the existence of Liberty University, I did not seriously consider it until I was a high school student. With college decisions looming, I began investigating schools and found that Liberty University met many of my criteria: it was large, vibrant, and distinctively Christian. Thus, at the age of 17, I visited the Liberty campus and found that my expectations were met and exceeded. The campus was physically impressive; the athletic teams competed at a very high level; the student body was large and diverse. In short, Liberty University had all the advantages of a larger state school, along with the capacity to train me spiritually—something that other secular schools I visited unfortunately lacked. My decision to come to Liberty was effortless; indeed, my decision to remain at Liberty for an advanced degree in the Seminary was equally easy. I pray that I will be able to use all the blessings my time at Liberty has bestowed on me to, in turn, bless others as I minister to them.

Your Topic: Your Research Interests

Explain how you came to be interested in the field of study you have chosen. If your interests are very broad, you may note that. However, do try to be as specific as possible. If you have questions, see the example in the box for a guide.

UNIT I

GRAMMAR 911

Introduction

The following chapters offer an overview of the most commonly misunderstood and misapplied elements of English grammar. These chapters will not ask you to diagram sentences, memorize the parts of speech, or explain the difference between a participial phrase and a gerund. But you will have to learn some terminology and learn to recognize the way grammatical constructs contribute to the structure of the English language. Our goal here is for you to understand how all the pieces—parts of speech, grammatical constructs, etc.—fit together within the English sentence.

You may already know some of this information. If that is the case, skim over that section but do the activities. If you are unfamiliar or uncomfortable with a concept, slow down and concentrate your efforts in that area. For instance, most native speakers of English understand articles very well, but students who come from East Asia may find them quite difficult. On the other hand, often ESL students have a better grasp of sentence structure in English than Americans do. Concentrate on the areas that are a special need for you.

Glossary of Terms

- *Adjectives* - Descriptive words that tell you which, what kind, and how many nouns.
- *Adverbs* - Words that describe a verb and tell you how, when, why, and where the verb's action takes place.
- *Articles* - Articles (a, an, the) accompany nouns and give precise information about which noun the writer means to refer to.
- *Conjunctions* - Connection words that describe relationships between words and grammatical structures.
- *Nouns* - People, places, things, or ideas.

- *Prepositions* - Location words that require an object; prepositional phrases act as adjectives or adverbs within the sentence.
- *Pronouns* - Words that replace a noun.
- *Verbs* - Action words; the verb sets the subject in motion or describes its state of being.

CHAPTER 2

PEOPLE, PLACES, THINGS, AND WORDS THAT GO WITH THEM

Nouns

DEFINITION

A **noun** is a person, place, thing, idea, or concept. Nouns and pronouns (which we will discuss shortly) are *who* and *what* words—they name all the things and people in sentences. Nouns are **singular**, **collective**, or **plural** and either **proper** or **common**.

This section will give you practice with nouns. You will learn the different types of nouns, learn how to decide if nouns are singular or plural, and learn how to form plurals.

EXPLANATION 1:
Recognizing Singular, Plural, and Collective Nouns

A **singular noun** refers to one person, place, thing, idea, or concept:

- A dog
- A president
- The cafeteria
- A theory

Note: Sometimes words look plural but are actually singular. An example can be found in this sentence: "My favorite subject is economics." "Economics" is singular because it refers to one *discipline or field of study*.

A **plural noun** refers to *more than one* person, place, thing, idea, or concept:

- Dogs
- Presidents
- Cafeterias
- Theories

Note: Plural nouns usually (but do not always) end in "s." Some words (such as "data") have irregular plural forms that do not *end in "s."*

A **collective noun** refers to a group. Within the sentence, collective nouns behave like either singular or plural nouns depending on the meaning you want to convey.

The team:

- The team plays together very well as a unit.
  Hint: Because the team is acting in unison, it behaves like a singular *noun.*
- The team find it difficult to agree about strategy.
  Hint: Because the team is divided and not acting as a group, it behaves like a plural *noun.*

Note: Most of the time, English speakers tend to use collective nouns in their singular form. If they want to convey a different meaning, they will often add in other words to clarify (e.g., "The team members *find it difficult to agree about strategy").*

Practice 2.1

Use the following confusing nouns in sentences. Note: You will need to decide whether the nouns are singular or plural in order to use them properly. Then explain why you made the choice you did.

1. Physics (the academic subject)
   Sentence:
   Explanation:
2. Faculty (academic educators)
   Sentence:
   Explanation:
3. The Church Fathers (people like St. Augustine)
   Sentence:
   Explanation:

EXPLANATION 2:
Forming Plural Nouns

In English, the plural form of most nouns is formed by adding “s” or “es” to the end of a word.

Rules for regular plurals:

1. If the noun ends in “s,” “x,” “ch,” “o,” or “sh,” add “es” to the end:
    a. Fish / Fishes
    b. Crash / Crashes
    c. Fox / Foxes
    d. Potato / Potatoes
2. If the noun ends in a consonant (all letters of the alphabet except a, e, i, o, and u) and “y,” then change the “y” to an “i” and add “es.”
    a. Cry / Cries
    b. Lullaby / Lullabies
3. If the noun ends in a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u) and “y,” add “s” to the end.
    a. Key / Keys
    b. Day / Days

Note: Sometimes you can figure out how to spell regular plurals by pronouncing the word. If the noun ends in a “hissing” sound, it would be very hard to pronounce it if you simply added “s” to the end. You need the extra “e” to make the word flow more easily. Similarly, a word like “crys” cannot be the plural of “cry” since simply adding “s” would change the pronunciation of the word to “criss” and thus make it unrecognizable for a native English speaker.

Rules for irregular plurals:

1. F / V
    a. If a noun ends in a single “f,” change the “f ” to a “v” and add “es.”
        i. Calf / Calves
        ii. Laugh / Laughs (an “f ” sound is not the same as an “f ”)
        iii. Staff / Staffs (an “ff ” is not the same as an “f ”)
    b. If a noun ends in “fe,” change the “f ” to a“v” and add “s.”
        i. Knife / Knives
        ii. Life / Lives
2. Words derived from other languages
    a. If a noun ends in “us,” change the “us” to “i.”
        i. Cactus / Cacti
        ii. Radius / Radii
    b. If a noun ends in “on,” change the “on” to “a.”
        i. Phenomenon / Phenomena
    c. If a noun ends in “is,” change the “is” to “es.”
        i. Analysis / Analyses

3. Plurals you have to memorize
    a. Some plural forms are simply irregular; there is no way to learn these except memorization. This is a sampling:
        i. Child / Children
        ii. Foot / Feet
        iii. Mouse / Mice
        iv. Man / Men
    b. Some words (usually animal names) are the same in singular and plural or do not exist in separate forms.
        i. Sheep / Sheep
        ii. Deer / Deer
        iii. Scissors / Scissors

EXPLANATION 3:

Proper and Common Nouns

A **proper noun** refers to a specific person, place, thing, or idea. An official title is a proper name if it either (1) includes the person's name (President Bush; Pope John Paul II) or (2) replaces the name (the President; the Pope). Proper nouns are marked with *capital letters*:

- Paris
- Father Time
- The Duke of Earl
- Philosophy 101
- The Emergent Church

Note: Some things are always *proper nouns in English, including the following:*

- Days of the week, months of the year, and holidays (Saturday, December 25, Christmas)
- Regions and locations with specific names (the Gulf Coast, Lake Mead)
- States and Provinces (Ohio, Alberta)
- People's names (John, Uncle Tim)
- Titles preceded by "the" (the Attorney General of the United States)
- Official group names (Democrats)
- Brand names (Xerox, Sony)
- Names of deities (God, Zeus, Allah)

Note: Occasionally in older works of English literature, you will see abstract nouns capitalized ("Beauty," "Truth," etc.). This is no longer current usage.

A **common noun** refers to any other person, place, thing, or idea. Titles are common nouns when preceded by a possessive word such as “my” or “our.” Common nouns are not capitalized.

- The capital city
- Our president
- An English aristocrat
- An introductory philosophy class
- A twenty-first century church movement

Practice 2.2

Pretend you have a friend who wants you to proofread a letter he wants to write to a new family in town. The problem is that your friend doesn't understand the difference between proper and common nouns. In the following letter, underline each proper noun so that your partner knows which words should be capitalized.

Dear friend,

When I was a child, my mother, father, brother, and I moved from massachusetts to virginia. The adjustment coming from the north to the south was very large, but soon I found much to love here, including the food, the friendliness of the local people, the beauty of mother nature, and the blue ridge parkway. I also made some good friends, and that helped a lot. If you would like, I'd love to have you join me and my wife at our church, first Baptist church of Lynchburg. We attend a small group for young couples called marriage enrichment. The leaders of that group, Dan and Tammy, are great friends, and so is pastor Mel. Also, there are a lot of yankees in that church, so you'll find it's easier to fit in. Remember, though, Lynchburg is a good town! You'll like it in this part of the country once you adjust.

Your new neighbor,
John Patterson

Articles

DEFINITION

In English, an **article** is a word that accompanies a noun and gives you important information about it. For instance, the absence or presence of articles lets your listener/reader know if a singular or plural noun is coming. Articles also let your reader know if you have a specific or a general category of nouns in mind when you are speaking. Articles come in two forms: *indefinite* and *definite*.

This section will give you practice with articles. You will learn the different types of articles and learn how to decide when to use one.

EXPLANATION 1:
Indefinite Versus Definite Articles

The **definite article** "the" is used when the noun referred to is already known to the reader. Reasons the reader might recognize the noun include:

1. There is only one of this particular noun:
    a. "The best teacher at LU"
    b. The Washington Monument
    c. The capital of France
2. The noun has already been referred to or is clear from context:
    a. "The first sentence in the article you read for today..."
    b. "Hand me the scissors on my desk."
    c. "The red dress looks best on you."

The **indefinite articles** "a" and "an" are used when the noun referred to is not already known to the reader. "A" is used before nouns beginning in consonants or a long "u" sound; otherwise, "an" is used. Reasons the noun may not already be known include the following:

1. You do not want to specify which noun you mean:
    a. "Do you see a pair of scissors anywhere?"
    b. "Write a sentence in which you use the word 'context' properly."
    c. "I would like to buy a red dress for the party."
2. The reader cannot observe or recall the noun to which you are referring:
    a. "I have an uncle named Jim."
    b. "I saw a beautiful rainbow yesterday."
    c. "A favorite food of mine is Chicken Kiev."
    d. "An unopened gift is the most exciting kind."

Practice 2.3

Briefly explain the different meanings for each of the sentences below.

Example:

Are you going to the Christmas pageant?
vs.
Are you going to a Christmas pageant?

In the first, the reader already knows which pageant is being referred to—maybe the author and the reader go to the same church or school. In the second, the author wants to know if the reader will go to any pageant anywhere; it doesn't matter which one. Maybe the author wants to invite the reader to share which pageant he or she will go to and maybe even invite him or her to come to one at his own church.

1. Are you on your way to a church service?
   vs.
   Are you on your way to the church service?

2. I have a book.
   vs.
   I have the book.

3. Let's donate the old chair to a charity.
   vs.
   Let's donate an old chair to the charity.

4. The university's admissions requirements are strict.
   vs.
   A university's admission requirements are strict.

EXPLANATION 2:
When Not to Use an Article

Sometimes we do not need to use articles at all. This is the primary case in which the article may be left out:

1. Another word gives the necessary information about the noun.
   a. "My book will be published in June."
   b. "One dog is enough for us."
   c. "Either an apple or an orange is fine."
   d. "These punctuation marks are unnecessary."

Sometimes a definite article is permissible but an indefinite one is not for these reasons:

2. The noun cannot be counted or numbered, but the reader does know which noun the writer is referring to.
    a. "Pass me the sugar."
    Hint: Sugar cannot be counted; it can only be measured.
    b. "Where is the vinegar?"
    Hint: Vinegar, like sugar, must be measured, not counted.
    c. Remember: in both cases, you only use a definite article when it is clear which sugar or vinegar the writer desires.
    d. Remember: unless you can count a noun, you cannot put a number in front of it ("I see two waters" doesn't make sense).
3. The noun is a collective term and refers to something specific.
    a. "I will give the clothing to charity."
    Hint: "Clothing" can refer to one shirt or to fifteen dresses—it is deliberately vague.
    b. "The wealth we have in this country is a great blessing."
    Hint: "Wealth" refers to a collection of assets.
4. The noun is abstract, and the noun has already been specified or is known to the reader.
    a. "Violent riots erupted in L.A. last year. The violence was quelled by police."
    b. "Thank you for helping me with my relationship questions. The advice you gave was very wise."
    c. "Let us pray for the peace of Jerusalem."

Sometimes you can leave the article out altogether:

5. The noun is abstract, cannot be counted, or it is unknown which noun exactly the speaker wants to refer to.
    a. "I love to drink coffee."
    Hint: The speaker isn't referring to any specific coffee—he just likes coffee in general.
    b. "I desire peace in the world."
    Hint: The writer desires peace in any form in any place.
    c. "I enjoy writing poetry."
    Hint: The writer is not referring to any particular poem—just to poetry in general.

Practice 2.4

Fill in the proper article in the following sentences. If no article is required, leave the space blank.

1. When I go to McDonald's, I always get ____ Big Mac.
2. You are ____ most generous person I know.
3. I'm thinking of going on ____ study abroad program.
4. I was in my physics class when ____ dismissal bell sounded.
5. There is a lot of ____ pollution in Mexico City.
6. ____ rice is a very important staple in China.
7. Would you prefer a salad made with ____ lettuce or ____ spinach?
8. He lacks ____ confidence to complete ____ task at hand.
9. Dad, I stacked ____ lumber in ____ basement.
10. I have been working on ____ lengthy research project.

Practice 2.5

In John Keats' poem "Ode on a Grecian Urn," Keats concludes with these lines:

> *"Beauty is truth, truth beauty,—that is all*
> *Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know."*

1. Given the absence of articles in the famous phrase "Beauty is truth, truth beauty," what do you think this phrase means?
2. How would it be different if he said, "Beauty is the truth, truth beauty"?
3. What if he said, "A beauty is the truth, truth a beauty"?
4. How about, "Beauty is a truth, a truth beauty"?
5. What about, "The beauty is truth, truth the beauty?"

EXPLANATION 3:
Articles and Proper Nouns

Rule #1: Be careful when you use "the" in front of a proper noun.

- "Americans love to talk loudly" means "Americans in general love to talk loudly."
- If you mean to refer to a specific, knowable group, you may occasionally use "the." "The Americans love to talk loudly" means "This specific group of American citizens talks loudly."

Rule #2: Never use “a” or “an” with a proper noun.

- **Incorrect**: I am going to visit an Eiffel Tower.
- **Correct**: I am going to visit the Eiffel Tower.

Rule #3: If a proper noun is singular, you may or may not use “the” in front of it, depending on what sort of noun it is.

- **Sub-rule #1:** Usually, if a proper noun is discreet and has clear, knowable borders (a street, a lake, a continent), do NOT use “the” in front of it.
  Hint: I went to Lake Superior over Christmas break.
  I live on Taylor Street.
- **Sub-rule #2:** If a proper noun describes a region, a body of water that cannot be circumscribed, or a group of geographical phenomena, use “the” in front of it.
  Hint: The Ohio River flows past several states.
  I love the Rocky Mountains.
- **Sub-rule #3:** Unclear cases include peninsulas, which require “the” and countries with complex names, such as “the United States of America” or “the People’s Republic of China.”

Practice 2.6

Write a two-paragraph essay in which you describe the cultural life of one particular city that is of interest to you. You may want to discuss the following: (1) cultural events or performances such as music or festivals; (2) sites that visitors should see; (3) historical events that occurred in the city; (4) cultural phenomena for which the city is known (regional food, sports teams, etc.).

Nouns in Context: Subjects and Objects

DEFINITION

Within the English sentence, nouns can serve two functions: they can be subjects or objects. Subjects originate action: they agree with verbs, and they usually come in the first half of the sentence. Objects receive action (either from verbs or from prepositions).

EXPLANATION 1:
Finding the Subject

Every verb in an English sentence has a subject. Usually the subject is stated explicitly, but sometimes it is implied. The subject can be one word or a group of words.

You can find the subject by asking yourself "who" or "what" does the action of the main verb.

The examples below have the subjects underlined:

- Pizza always attracts the attention of teenagers.
  Hint: What attracts attention?
- Do you like artichoke hearts?
  Hint: Who likes artichoke hearts?
- A navy blue suit and a good briefcase will help you make a good first impression.
  Hint: What will help you make a good first impression?

Sometimes when a sentence has more than one verb, it may also have more than one subject:

- The children will sit at the counter in the kitchen, but the adults will stay in the dining room.
  Hint: Who sits at the counter? Who stays in the dining room?

Sometimes the subject is harder to find because it is extremely long:

- Sitting alone in the sun and weaving a braid of grass, the girl seemed not to have a care in the world.

EXPLANATION 2:
Direct and Indirect Objects

Transitive verbs require objects. Like subjects, objects can be one word or a group of words.

There are two types of objects that follow verbs: direct and indirect objects. You can find the direct object by asking yourself "who" or "what" after the main verb.

The examples below have the direct objects of verbs underlined:

- Teenagers love pizza.
  Hint: Teenagers love what?
- I like artichoke hearts.
  Hint: I like what?

- I dated a boy named Steve.
  Hint: I dated who?
- A navy blue suit and a good briefcase will help you make a good first impression.
  Hint: A suit and briefcase will help you make what?

Indirect objects also receive the action of the verb, but they do it as the name suggests: indirectly. You can find the indirect object by asking "to/for whom" or "to/for what" after the verb.

The indirect objects are underlined in the following sentences:

- Give me the book.
  Hint: Give the book to whom?
- He made his dog some homemade dog food.
  Hint: He made dog food for whom?

Practice 2.7

In the following sentences, write whether the underlined word/words is/are a subject or object.

1. Are you going to go home for Easter?
2. Take those apples and give them to me.
3. You are the nicest person I have ever met.
4. Are you telling me you are actually mean?
5. He loves me; this much I know.

Practice 2.8

In the following sentence, label the underlined words as subjects (S), direct objects (DO), or indirect objects (IO).

1. Of all my friends, you are the most honest.
2. Pass me the tomatoes, please; I need them to top off this hamburger.
3. I am glad that I will be seeing some good friends next week.
4. Do you think that "Harry" sounds like a good name for a baby, or does it sound out-of-date?
5. Students with a documented disability may receive academic accommodations through ODAS.

EXPLANATION 3:
Objects of Prepositions

Sometimes objects come after prepositions (location words or word groupings such as to, between, among, against, in spite of, and behind). You can find objects of prepositions by asking "what" or "whom" after the preposition.

The objects of prepositions are underlined in the following sentences:

- Give the book to me.
  Hint: Give the book to whom?
- He leaned against the wall.
  Hint: He leaned against what?

Practice 2.9

In the following paragraph, find all the nouns and mark if they are subjects (S), direct or indirect objects (DO and IO), or objects of prepositions (OP).

John Milton's masterpiece *Paradise Lost* is an epic poem about the fall of man. In the poem, Milton expresses some theological positions that are quite heterodox. Although Milton's theological errors may distract students and plague instructors, he nevertheless demonstrates a deep understanding of the nature of God and Satan, the weaknesses of mankind, and the tragedy of sin. For this reason, undergraduate students at Liberty University who take the British literature sequence in the English Department almost always study Milton in great depth. No one gives students a clearer retelling of the events of the first few chapters of Genesis.

EXPLANATION 4:
Gerunds and Infinitives

Gerunds are verb forms that end in "ing" and that serve the function of nouns in the sentence. **Infinitives** are verb constructions consisting of "to" and the verb root. These also serve the function of nouns. Gerunds and infinitives can do most things that nouns can do, including acting as subjects and objects. However, they are usually not accompanied by an article, and they are never capitalized.

The gerunds are underlined in the following sentences:

- I really enjoy running.
  Hint: A gerund acts as a direct object.
- Cooking and cleaning are not my favorite activities; however, I am enjoying learning about French cuisine.
  Hint: Gerunds act as subjects. "Enjoying" is not a gerund; it is a verb.

The infinitives are underlined in the following sentences:

- I love to sing and dance.
  Hint: Infinitives serve as direct objects of the verb.
- To offer a wedding toast to the bride and groom is an honor usually reserved for the best man.
  Hint: An infinitive serves as the subject. Here, the entire infinitive phrase is underlined. Within this phrase, note that "a wedding toast" serves as the direct object of your infinitive.

Note: Some verbs may be followed by both gerunds and infinitives. For example, "I love to sing" and "I love singing" are equally correct. However, many verbs in English require a gerund but not an infinitive or vice versa. A good list of each of these types of verbs may be found at the following URL:
http://www.iei.uiuc.edu/structure/structure1/gerinfvbs.html.

Adjectives

DEFINITION

In English, an **adjective** is a word that describes a noun and gives you specific information about it.

EXPLANATION

The good news is that adjectives are very easy to understand and find. You can locate the adjectives in a sentence by asking: which one?, what kind?, or how many? to every noun you see in a sentence.

Sometimes words can act as either nouns or adjectives. You have to look at the context to figure out in which way they are used. For instance, in the sentence "I love broccoli," "broccoli" is a noun. However, in the sentence "I love broccoli casserole," "broccoli" is an adjective because it tells you what kind of casserole you love.

In most cases where an adjective is derived from a proper noun (American from America, for instance), the adjective is capitalized.

Practice 2.10

Underline the adjectives in the following sentences.

1. I have a blue cover on my theology book.
2. Do you like the sugar cookies I made?
3. Young children will listen to all that we say, good or bad.
4. The book of Romans is difficult and intricately argued.
5. He gave me a new DVD for Christmas; I gave him two books.

Adjectives in Context

In the same way that gerunds and infinitives can serve the function of nouns within the grammar of a sentence, so also can **participles** serve the function of adjectives. As with gerunds and infinitives, sometimes a whole phrase serves the grammatical function.

The participles are underlined in the following sentences:

- The trotting horse is the one that I wanted to adopt.
  Hint: "Trotting" acts as an adjective because it indicates "which horse" the speaker wishes to adopt.
- Flashing almost obnoxiously in the sunlight, the silver Ferrari blew past my Chevrolet.
  Hint: In this sentence, the entire participial phrase is underlined; it acts as an adjective because it describes the Ferrari.

Practice 2.11

Find all the verb forms (participles, gerunds, and infinitives), in the following sentences. Underline them, and then write which type of form each verb form or verb phrase is.

1. To be or not to be: that is the question.
2. Knowing what we should do is not enough; disciplining ourselves, we also must do good when we can.
3. He is smiling happily because he just received word that his charming, elderly mother has decided to quit her job.
4. Having trouble breathing is inevitable after a hard workout; that's why I hate to exercise when I am fighting a cold.
5. To James, having faith and living it out are inextricable: you cannot hope to prove your faith without showing it to others through your works.

Pronouns

DEFINITION

A **pronoun** is a word that takes the place of a noun.

EXPLANATION 1:
Subject Pronouns

Like nouns, pronouns can serve as the subjects of sentences and of verbs in other parts of sentences. **Subject pronouns** include the following:

Standard Subject Pronouns: I, you, he/she/it/one, we, you (plural), they

Indefinite Pronouns: someone, who, somebody, what, anyone, everyone, anybody, some, whoever, none, whatever

Relative Pronouns: who, which, that

Demonstrative Pronouns: this, that

The subject pronouns are underlined in each of the following sentences:

- He was the one who showed me how to read Scripture.
  Hint: "He" is the subject of "was"; "who" is the subject of "showed."
- Whoever turned off the lights forgot to lock the door.

Hint: "Whoever" is the subject of the whole sentence.

- I have long wished to know <u>which</u> is the proper adverb to use.
  Hint: "I" is the subject of the sentence; "which" is the subject of "is."
- Would <u>someone</u> please pass me that book?
  Hint: "Someone" is the subject of "would pass" and the whole sentence.
- <u>What</u> is the name of your dog?
  Hint: "What" replaces the dog's name and is the subject of the sentence.
- <u>None</u> of the boys is likely to grow up to be one <u>who</u> sings.
  Hint: "None" is the subject of the sentence; "who" is the subject of "sings."
- <u>It</u> was <u>she who</u> called me.
  Hint: "It" is the subject of the sentence; "she" is a subject because it follows a linking verb; "who" is the subject of "called."
- <u>That</u> is the book I liked so much.
  Hint: "That" refers to the book and is the subject of the sentence.

Four cautions:

1. Use a subject pronoun *only* if you can figure out which verb the pronoun accompanies.
2. Use a subject pronoun *only* if you can figure out which noun the pronoun is replacing. This noun should also be functioning as a subject.
3. After a linking verb (am, is, are, was, were, seems, becomes), always use a subject pronoun.
4. Sometimes adjectives can look like pronouns. Make sure the word you spot is *replacing* a noun—not describing it—before you decide it is a pronoun. For instance, in the sentence "Which book is yours?" "which" is an adjective describing "book."

Practice 2.12

Underline the subject pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Is he your friend or your boyfriend?
2. My lawyer said it was he who called the defense attorney.
3. He is like everyone wishes to be: he knows what he values, and he lives in a way that demonstrates his beliefs.
4. None of the children who survived the tsunami has anyone else to rely on.
5. *She Who Must Be Obeyed* is the title of an H. Rider Haggard novel that takes place in a little-explored British colony.

EXPLANATION 2:

Object Pronouns

Object pronouns, like nouns, can serve as direct and indirect objects and as objects of prepositions. Object pronouns may include:

me	you	each	whatever
this	whom	what	whomever
us	someone	them	him/her/it/one
all	anyone	that	himself/herself/themselves

The object pronouns are underlined in the following sentences:

- Tell him that he needs to find a friend who will play football with him.
- Whatever you need to make cookies can be found in the cabinet I stocked for you.
- To what do I owe this pleasure?
- He told me that last New Year's Day.
- I am in search of someone who will supplement what I am doing already without telling anyone about our grand plans.
- Hand me that, please.
- I will talk to each of the boys individually.

Practice 2.13

Find the pronouns in the following sentences, and write whether they are subjects (S) or objects (O).

1. Which book are you referring to?
2. Has anyone come to this table yet to ask you if you are ready to order?
3. Everyone who said that he is unable to complete the assignment needs to find a partner in class who can help him with his work, or he needs to ask himself if this is the right class for him to be in.
4. Whenever I go to the food court, I see many people talking on their cell phones while ignoring those with whom they are dining.
5. We commit sin if we know to do good but do not do it.

EXPLANATION 3:
Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns indicate that a particular object belongs to someone.

Possessive pronouns include:

Mine
Yours
His/hers/its/one's
Ours Yours Their

The possessive pronouns are underlined in the following sentences:

- The book you are holding is <u>mine</u>.
- <u>His</u> is the CD with the red cover.
- That dog of <u>yours</u> certainly can run.

A caution: Please don't confuse possessive adjectives with possessive pronouns. Possessive adjectives immediately precede a noun and thus cannot replace it. For example, in the sentence "My book is red; yours is green," "my" is a possessive adjective; "yours" is a pronoun.

Practice 2.14

You are employed at a small business that produces instructional aids for Sunday School programs. The company's code of conduct, written in the 1960s, is badly in need of an update. First, when the code was written, all of the company's five employees were male. Now, however, the group includes men and women. Second, the code needs to be updated to reflect the changing times. While employees of the company are still expected to abide by a basic Christian code of behavior, attitudes toward issues such as dress, use of formal titles in the office, and music choice in the workplace have shifted drastically. Furthermore, the code needs to reflect changes such as the advent of e-mail.

Your assignment is to write a new code of conduct. You know that you need to think about how employees of a small Christian business should conduct themselves, but you also know that you cannot dictate fine points of morality in a professional behavior code. Your employer has asked you to be concise while also maintaining a clearly Christian identity.

The old code of conduct includes very general rules for the following categories:

1. Dress code
2. Courtesy and verbal communicatio
3. Use of technology
4. Out-of-office behavior code

A Note on Gender Neutrality

Anyone writing formally and/or professionally must be aware that choosing to use male or female pronouns in sentences can contribute to gender bias. For instance, many recent Bible translations render the Pauline address "brethren" as "brothers and sisters" in order to make clear that the audience includes both men and women. Consider the following example:

Each student should bring <u>his</u> books with <u>him</u> to class.

Most likely the instructor means "his" as a gender-neutral pronoun. Some women in the class, however, may object to the exclusionary choice of "his."

There are three ways to fix this:

1. *Each student should bring <u>his or her</u> books with <u>him or her</u> to class.* Unfortunately, this is very awkward.
2. *Each student should bring <u>her</u> books with <u>her</u> to class.*

Unfortunately, although this construction may give less offense, it simply excludes the men in the group just as the women were excluded before.

3. *All students should bring their books with them to class.*
   This is less awkward and avoids the gender problem by using plural pronouns.

The following rules may help you to know which pronoun to choose:

1. Try to avoid giving needless offense. If you know someone in the group may object to using a male pronoun, then try not to do it.
2. Try to avoid awkward constructions. If “he or she” or “he/she” or “s/he” is not a possibility for this reason, then put the sentence in plural form.
3. Find out what your professors and employers desire you to do.
4. Say what you mean: if you mean “men,” then use “he.”
5. Do not allow political correctness or the need to keep from offending others to overwhelm your sense of right and wrong. For instance, you may offend some readers by referring to God as “He” or “he”; as “She” or as “It” is theologically inaccurate.

CHAPTER 3

VERBS AND WORDS THAT GO WITH THEM

Types of Verbs

A **verb** is an action word or a word that describes a state of being. All complete sentences must have a main verb, though there may also be other verbs and verb constructions.

In English, there are several types of verbs, including **action**, **linking**, and **helping verbs**. We choose the type of verb we want based on the meaning we want to convey. In addition, we add helping verbs or verb endings to words based on when the action or state of being we want to describe takes place in time.

Action verbs describe what the subject is *doing*—running, singing, thinking, etc. Most verbs are action verbs.

Linking verbs describe states of being. There are only eight in English. You should learn this list: be, been, being, am, are, is, was, and were.

Some verbs can be either action or linking verbs depending on your meaning. For instance, "I smell a skunk" is an action verb, since smelling is what you are *doing*. On the other hand, "Tim smells like a skunk" describes Tim's *state of being*, so it serves as a linking verb in this sentence.

Helping verbs go along with other verbs in order to add shades of meaning to the sentence. In addition to the eight linking verbs, other helping verbs include have, has, had, should, could, would, will, may, and can. In all cases, helping verbs must be accompanied by a participle (discussed below).

Practice 3.1

Underline the verbs in the following sentences. Over each, mark it as an action verb (AV), linking verb (LV), or helping verb (HV).

1. Paul describes the meaning of Christian joy in his letter to the Philippians.
2. How many women have you seen try out for the role of kicker on this football team?
3. I would have gone to the concert, but my mother had called me earlier in the evening asking me if I would take my brother out to dinner instead.
4. I am signing the paperwork for our home loan even as we speak.
5. By this time next year, I will have finished my schooling, will have looked for a job, and hopefully will have accepted one in some location where I will happily spend the rest of my life.

Basic Verb Forms

In English, all verbs have four special forms: the **present**, **past**, **past participle,** and **present participle**.

Present tense verbs describe actions or states that occur in the present time, either at the moment of the sentence's composition or on an ongoing basis.

Examples:

- Today I sing with the choir.
- On Fridays, I wear more casual clothing.
- Digital clocks are less aesthetically attractive than their analog counterparts.

Note: Native English speakers usually indicate that an event is occurring just at the moment of the sentence's composition with the progressive *tense (described in the next section).*

Past tense verbs describe actions or states that occurred in the past and that ended before the time of the sentence's composition. Past tense verbs often describe a sequence of events as well, in which one event precedes another.

Examples:

- I walked to the store by myself for the first time when I was six years old.
- He threw me the ball before he raced off the field.
- It is a blessing that I had a chance to meet Harper Lee.
- Napoleon died in exile after he lost at Waterloo.

Perfect tenses allow us to express subtle variations in time, especially actions that are or were ongoing for a certain period of time or actions that occur in a certain sequence. They require a conjugated past, present, or future form of "have" plus the past participle.

Present perfect describes actions or states of being that either continue or directly affect the present. **Past perfect** describes actions or states of being that describe ongoing events or effects in the past. **Future perfect** describes actions or states of being that will have been completed by a certain point in the future.

Examples:

- I have walked to the store by myself since I was six years old.
  Hint: I still walk to the store by myself: the action started in the past and continues today.
- He had thrown me the ball before he raced off the field.
  Hint: The effects of his having thrown the ball continue as he leaves the field, but they do not continue into the present.
- It is a blessing that I have met Harper Lee.
  Hint: The effects of having met Harper Lee continue in the present.
- Napoleon died in exile after he had lost at Waterloo.
  Hint: The loss at Waterloo continued to affect Napoleon while he was in exile.
- I will have told him about my decision to resign by this time next Friday.
  Hint: The decision will be completed, a thing of the past, by a certain point in the future.

EXPLANATION 1:
Choosing a Verb Form

Often more than one verb form is correct. However, the meaning of the sentence is affected by which verb you choose.

The examples below include possible reasons for the writer's choice of verb form:

- "I love opera" = "At this point in time, opera is something that I enjoy very much."
- "I have loved opera since I was a teenager" = "My history with opera goes back awhile. My feelings for it are not just a fleeting thing."
- "I loved opera" = "I once loved opera at a point in the past. I make no declarations about why or whether my love for it ended, but rather I want to emphasize that I *did* love it at some point in the past."
- "I had loved opera until I dated John" = "Opera was one of my favorite things. Then I started seeing John, who also loved opera. We broke up, and now I can't listen to opera without bad memories."

- "I will have loved opera for five years on Monday" = "Five years ago this Monday, I saw *Aida* and really enjoyed it. That is the day I started liking opera. I will celebrate five complete years of liking opera on the anniversary of that date."

Practice 3.2

Think about the following sentences. Write an explanation of what the speaker means and why he/she chose the verb form he/she did in each case.

1. I am a Christian.
2. I have been a Christian since I was sixteen years old.
3. I had been living for myself before I became a Christian.
4. I was a very rebellious teenager before I became interested in spiritual things.
5. I will have been a Christian for six years in December.

Explanation 2:
Forming Present, Past, and Perfect Forms

To form the **present tense** of a regular verb, just use the root, but conjugate the verb properly. For example "I walk" requires no special endings or helping words. The same thing applies to the third-person form, "He walks."

To form the **past tense** of regular verbs that end in consonants, add "ed" to the end of the verb. For instance, "I walked" is the past tense of "I walk." To form the past form of verbs that end in an "e," add "d" to the end. For example, "I saved for a year" is the past tense of "I save."

Present perfect requires a conjugated present-tense form of "have" plus the past participle form of a verb. Most past participle forms are simply the past-tense form of the verb.

Past perfect requires a conjugated past-tense form of "have" plus the past participle.

Future perfect requires a conjugated future-tense form of "have," such as "will have" plus the past participle.

Unfortunately, there are many irregular verbs in English. Some patterns are observable (e.g., "become" is conjugated like "come"), but for the most part, you will need to memorize the irregular forms. This is particularly confusing because sometimes patterns seem to be present when, in fact, they are not. For instance, "strive" and "live" are not conjugated in the same way, even though both have the same verb ending.

A good list of irregular verbs and their past forms and past participles can be found at: http://www2.gsu.edu/~wwwesl/egw/verbs.htm.

Practice 3.3

You are thinking about applying for a job as a textbook researcher in your field of interest. The job application you need to fill out asks you to write up to two paragraphs describing your experience in your academic field. Write two paragraphs doing this. You may want to consider including some or all of the following: (1) How your interest in your field arose; (2) Education; (3) Research interests; (4) Relevant coursework; and (5) Previous job experience.

EXPLANATION 3:
Other Tenses

The **future tense** describes events or states of being that will definitely occur at some time in the future.

Form the future tense by using "will" or "shall" plus the root form of the verb.

Examples:

- I will go to Amsterdam to do some research in May.
- You shall speak to your mother with respect and deference in the future.

The **progressive tense** describes events or states that are, were, or will be in the process of occurring. There are past, present, and future progressive tenses.

Form the progressive tense by using a conjugated form of "be" plus the present participle.

Note: The present participle is formed in most cases by adding "ing" to the end of a root verb.

Examples:

- I was traveling to Spain on the TGV when I met my friend Ibrahim.
  Hint: I was in the process of traveling when the meeting occurred.
- You are making me very angry with your constant inaccurate paraphrasing.
  Hint: The anger is in the process of building.
- He will be lecturing at Harvard at the end of June.
  Hint: He will be engaged in a series of lectures in June.

The conditional tense describes events or states that are contingent on the completion of other states or events. The conditional tense is formed by using "would" plus the root. You can also form past and present conditional perfect verbs to convey different shades of meaning.

Examples:

- If I were you, I would accept that job immediately.
- If I had known about the other hotel, I certainly would not have reserved a room at the more expensive one.

Note: Conditional verbs almost always appear in sentences that include and "if" clause.

Note: Do not use conditional verbs if you are making a prediction or stating a fact. For instance, this sentence makes a prediction (not a speculation), so it does not need a conditional verb: "If Tom goes to the football game, he will lose his voice." This sentence describes a factual relationship and so does not need a conditional verb: "If you open the refrigerator door, the light goes on."

If the tenses described above do not fully convey your meaning, you can use different helping verbs to say what you mean more effectively. Optional helping verbs include can, could, should, might, must, would, and ought to. These helping verbs fit in the sentence in the same way that the "will" or "shall" does in the future tense.

Examples:

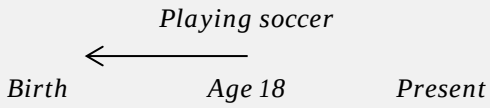
- I can write an effective sentence when I want to.
- He might go to the library if he has time after class.
- You must prove that you understand differential calculus before I can admit you to this course.
- He ought to take the SAT again to try to get a better score.

Practice 3.4

This section has provided a large amount of information that may be confusing. To help you begin to get a handle on the temporal registers inherent in all the English verb tenses, you have a drawing assignment. For each of the tenses below, write a sentence. Then attempt to render the temporal meaning of your sentence on a timeline.

For example, if your prompt is "Past," you might write this sentence and draw this diagram:

"I played soccer until I was eighteen years old."



1. Present
2. Past
3. Future
4. Past Perfect
5. Present Perfect
6. Future Perfect
7. Past Progressive
8. Present Progressive
9. Future Progressive
10. Past Conditional
11. Present Conditional

EXPLANATION 4:
Sequence of Tenses

When you write sentences in English with more than one verb, you may find that you need to make sure your verbs fit together temporally in order to keep from confusing your reader. You should not randomly shift from one tense to another without knowing exactly what you are doing.

There are a few basic rules for sequence of tenses:

1. It is generally correct to stay in the same tense throughout the sentence. Thus, any verb in present tense (or any present-tense form, such as present progressive, present prefect progressive, or present perfect) can be followed by another present-tense form. The same thing goes for past or future tense.
    a. I have been going to the store every day, and I am going again now.
    b. I go to the store every afternoon, just as I have been doing for years.
2. Usually perfect tenses precede simple tenses (i.e., past perfect comes before past, and present perfect comes before present) in time. You do not have to put the verbs in this order in the sentence, but it should be clear in what order the events occurred. Similarly, progressive tenses usually precede simple tenses.
    a. I came by your office, but you had left already.
    b. I have been studying music for eleven years, and now I am ready to perform in public.
3. Provided it makes logical sense to do so, if your main verb is in one tense, your dependent verb may move forward in time. Thus, past tense may set up present or future, and present may set up future.
    a. I have been going to the store every day, and I will go again this afternoon.
    b. I went to the store every day for years, and I still go today.
    c. Christ ascended into heaven, and He will return again in the same manner.
4. If you want to move backward in time, make sure that you do so very carefully and only when it makes logical sense.
    a. John says that he went to the store with her at exactly 3:30.
    Hint: The shift from present to past makes sense here because John is giving present-tense testimony about an event that happened.
    b. Harris argues that EFL writers may have trouble grasping concepts such as plagiarism the first time they are introduced.
    Hint: This entire sentence stays in present tense. Describe Harris's argument in present tense: this is standard convention for academic writing. The rest of the sentence stays in present because it describes a general truth about EFL writers.
    c. In her article, Harris describes a group of students with whom she conducted extensive interviews.
    Hint: This sentence moves from present to past. "Describes" is present because (again) academic conventions demand it. "Conducted" is in past tense, however, because it describes a series of interviews Harris undertook and completed.
5. In all cases, think about the logic of your sentences!

Practice 3.5

Each of the following sentences is incorrect or correct. Rewrite the sentence with the proper verb forms.

1. I am going to this church since I was a little girl.
2. You had not found me in the gymnasium even though I waited there for you.
3. He will have been writing his thesis for six years when he turned thirty.
4. In her article, Deborah Tannen argued that women learn their gender-role behaviors from society and that genetics will not dictate how people behave.
5. Have you ever seeing a boy who grows so fast?
6. Are you being seeing by the doctor now?
7. Starting in September 2005, I am a student at Liberty University.
8. Are you been here for very long?
9. I would have stopped taking this medication before today if I have known about the negative side effects.
10. I plan to take a trip to Omaha next year, but I won't do that until I will have saved the money necessary to go.

Adverbs

EXPLANATION 1

Adverbs describe verbs in much the same way that adjectives describe nouns. They explain *where*, *how*, *under what conditions*, and *when* the action or state of being occurred. Often—but not always—adverbs end in "ly."

The adverbs are underlined in the following sentences:

1. I will <u>gladly</u> go to the mission field if that is what I'm called to do.
   Hint: Ask "I will go how?"
2. The fox is a sly animal, but he moves <u>slowly</u> compared to the wolf.
   Hint: Ask "How does he move?"
3. Did you know that a cow can <u>often</u> outrun a dog?
   Hint: Ask, "When can a cow outrun a dog?"
4. He is <u>not</u> my boyfriend.
   Hint: Ask, "Under what conditions is he your boyfriend?"
5. John made it to your place today, but do know that I <u>certainly</u> intended to go too.
   Hint: Ask, "Under what conditions did you intend?" Then ask, "Go under what conditions?"

Note: "Good" is not an adverb; it is an adjective. "Well," however, is an adverb.

EXPLANATION 2

In addition to verbs, adverbs can also describe adjectives and other adverbs.

The adverbs in the following sentences are underlined:

1. My friend Marcia writes like a lawyer: although it is terse, her prose is constructed very carefully.
   Hint: "Very" describes "carefully"; it answers the question "how?"
2. The article makes a somewhat convincing case.
   Hint: "Somewhat" describes "convincing."
3. She was an extremely lovely girl; it's too bad she moved away.
4. I'd take Professor Jones: he has much more substantial things to say than anyone else.
5. You are almost certainly going to be the next American Idol.

Sometimes whole phrases can do the work of adverbs as well:

1. He went to the other side of the world in order to see Masada.
2. If you tell me that you were here yesterday, I will forgive you for only calling today.
3. Because of all your ailments, I am going to recommend a medical withdrawal.
4. You are surely one of the nicest people I have met since I got here.
5. Having a child has always been a dream of mine, even though I don't much enjoy working in the church nursery.

Practice 3.6

Looking in any version of the Bible, find Psalm 23. Rewrite the Psalm, underlining all the adverbs and adverb phrases.

CHAPTER 4

OTHER LITTLE WORDS

Prepositions

Prepositions are location words that describe where the action of the verb is directed. Prepositions generally require objects.

You can find a preposition by a simple test. If the word or phrase you want to use fits in the sentence below, it is a preposition:

The little boy crawled ____ the car.

Possible word choices include the following: against, in spite of, toward, away from, up, down, over, through, etc.

Prepositional phrases include the preposition and all words up to and including the object. Prepositional phrases can act as adjectives or adverbs within the grammar of a sentence.

The prepositional phrases are underlined in the following examples:

1. How much is the Mercedes <u>in the used car lot</u>?
   Note: The p.p. acts as an adjective because it describes which Mercedes.
2. Did he go <u>into the church</u> yesterday morning?
   Note: The p.p. acts as an adverb because it describes where he went.
3. Come here at once and explain why you put the Bibles <u>on the floor</u>.
   Note: The p.p. acts as an adverb.
4. <u>In spite of his reticence</u>, the most qualified candidate was clearly the correct choice <u>for this job</u>.
   Note: The first p.p. is an adverb modifying "was," and the second is an adjective modifying "choice."
5. Let us move <u>toward the future</u> together.
   Note: The p.p. is an adverb.

Conjunctions

We register connections between ideas with words called **conjunctions**. There are several types of conjunctions in English.

It is important to understand conjunctions and their function within sentences. Although it is fairly easy to grasp the meaning of these little words, knowing how they make the grammar of a sentence work will be very important when we begin to study punctuation in depth.

TYPES OF CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinating conjunctions are little words that join—or coordinate—things. There are only seven of these in English: and, but, or, nor, so, for, and yet.

The examples below include coordinating conjunctions:

1. John and Bill are the best of friends.
2. I did not read his book; yet I did hear his lecture.
3. He said he was sorry, but I didn't think so when I looked at him.
4. You must come see me, for you are a valued friend.
5. I went to Harvard, yet I still had trouble finding a job.

Subordinating conjunctions create a relationship between clauses. (Clauses are parts of a sentence with a subject and verb; they will be discussed in the next chapter.) Subordinating conjunctions turn the clause they introduce into a dependent clause, which means that it cannot stand alone and must refer to or describe some word or phrase in the rest of the sentence.

The examples below have the subordinating conjunctions underlined:

1. Even if you read the book tonight, you are still behind on your writing assignment.
2. He grew to be over six feet tall although both of his parents were much smaller.
3. Whenever spring arrives, I will be very thankful.
4. I told you that so that you don't have to wonder.
5. Once he has lived in other places, he will appreciate living in Virginia more.

Correlative conjunctions come in pairs and describe a relationship between parallel or equivalent items.

The examples below have the correlative conjunctions underlined:

1. Neither Paul nor Timothy says anything like that in his epistle.
2. I don't know whether to read the book carefully or just to skim it.
3. You are not as abrasive as he.

4. As Americans, we are the heirs of not only the Founding Fathers but also Bentham and Mill.
5. Please make sure that you both outline the text and write an abstract.

Practice 4.1

SUMMARY

Find a scholarly article in your field of expertise. Write a detailed, 2-3 page summary of this article. At this point, concentrate on clarity and grammatical correctness. However, do try to format your quotations properly. Please attach a reference page that cites the article you are summarizing.

CHAPTER 5

WRITING GOOD SENTENCES: GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT

Subjects and Predicates

DEFINITIONS

All sentences contain (or imply) two parts: a subject and a predicate. The **subject** is usually a noun or noun phrase, and it tells *who* or *what* the sentence is about. The **predicate**, which usually begins with the main verb and all its helpers, describes what the subject *does* or what the subject *is like*. The predicate completes the subject; the predicate says something about the subject that gives us more information.

SIMPLE EXAMPLES

Look at the following sentences below and see how the subject and predicate are marked.

Example One: Liberty University expands every year.

subject	*predicate*
Liberty University	expands every year.

Hint: "Liberty University" is what *the sentence is about; "expands every year" is what Liberty University* does.

Example Two: Liberty University is the largest private institution in Virginia.

subject	*predicate*
Liberty University	is the largest private institution in Virginia.

Hint: "Liberty University" is what *the sentence is about; "is the largest private institution in Virginia" is what Liberty University* is like.

Example Three: The third floor of DeMoss has been renovated.

subject	*predicate*
The third floor of DeMoss	has been renovated.

Hint: "The third floor of DeMoss" is what *the sentence is about; "has been renovated" describes what the third floor* is like.

MORE COMPLICATED EXAMPLES

Sometimes the subject and predicate are harder to locate, either because they are implied (and thus not stated directly) or because they are split up, such as in questions.

See the examples below to understand how to locate the subject and predicate in sentences such as these.

Example Four: Turn in your papers.

subject = you	*predicate*
[ ]	Turn in your papers.

Hint: "You," an implied subject, is who *the sentence is about; "turn in your papers" is what you* do.

Example Five: Do you ever read *The Champion*?

predicate	*subject*	*predicate*
Do	you	ever read *The Champion*?

Hint: "Do" is part of the predicate because it is part of the main verb, which is "read." Therefore, "You" is the subject because it is who *the sentence is about; "Do ever read* The Champion*" is the predicate because it describes what you* do.

EXTREMELY COMPLEX EXAMPLES

It may be difficult to find the subject and predicate in some sentences because the sentence is grammatically complex. In some cases, for instance, sentences have two main subjects and verbs. In other cases, the main subject and verb come after an

introductory dependent clause and are thus tucked away in the middle or at the end of the sentence.

The examples below show the subject and predicate in these types of sentences.

*Note: In these examples, the subject is in **bold**; the predicate is underlined.*

Example Six: Although Liberty University has yet to complete construction on its new buildings, **the campus, which occupies only a small portion of the nearly 5,000 acres owned by the school**, continues to absorb more than 3,000 new students annually, which makes for tight parking and crowded classes, along with a vibrant, diverse student body.

Hint: The initial clause of this sentence ("Although...") describes under what conditions Liberty University operates and thus serves the function of an adverb. Because it is an adverb—and therefore modifies the main verb—this clause is part of the predicate. The middle clause ("which occupies...") serves the function of an adjective and so goes with the subject of the sentence.

Example Seven: Liberty University is growing at an extremely quick rate, and **a strong infrastructure, including parking lots and roads**, will be necessary to accommodate the growth.

WHY DO I HAVE TO KNOW THIS?

Being able to identify subjects and predicates in sentences will allow you to begin to grasp the deeper structure of sentences. This will help you in several ways:

- You will be able to locate and avoid sentence-level grammar errors more easily: understanding how a sentence is put together will enable you to build your own sentences correctly.
- You will be able to make wise choices when you structure sentences in your writing. For example, short sentences with only one subject and verb are very forceful and blunt, which makes them well suited for points you want to emphasize. On the other hand, compound, complex, or compound-complex sentences allow you to make more complicated, subtle points that connect ideas in a sophisticated way.
- You will be able to vary your sentence structure effectively, so as to keep your readers interested and increase the skillfulness and smoothness of your writing.

Practice 5.1

Underline the predicate and draw a wavy line under the subject for each of the following sentences.

1. I love French fries.
2. I am going to math class now.
3. Geography and history are my favorite subjects.
4. Do you know when the bus is coming?
5. Please stop popping your gum.
6. You distract me when you stare at me like that, and I wish you would stop.
7. I love those boots you're wearing; they make you look taller.
8. Although my grandfather is growing older, he still remains vibrant and active.
9. Early in her college career, Ashley entered a beauty pageant and won a scholarship; however, as she sought to earn more scholarships by winning more pageants, her grades slipped until ironically she flunked out of college.
10. "It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife."

Subject-Verb Agreement

In all clauses, dependent and independent, your subject and your verb must agree in number and person: a first person, singular pronoun requires a first person, singular verb:

I go.
He goes.
We would have gone.

Most of the time, it is easy to figure out how to make the subjects and verbs agree. Sometimes, however, you can run into trouble. The following rules should help you decide what to do in cases that can cause confusion.

Rule #1: Don't be distracted by words that come between the subject and the verb.

Only <u>one</u> of the boys <u>goes</u> to Thomas Road on Sundays; the <u>rest</u> of them <u>prefer</u> Campus Church.
Hint: The subjects are "one" and "rest," not "boys" or "them." You can mentally cross through phrases like this when you read, which will make it easier for you to find the right verb form.

Rule #2: If subjects are joined by "and," they are plural.

He and I are planning to sign up for the philosophy class in the fall.

Rule #3: If subjects are joined by "or," "nor," "neither," or any other similar words, the verb agrees with the subject that is closest.

Jim or the girls are going to attend the reception.
Hint: "Are going" agrees with "the girls" because it is in closer proximity to the verb.

Neither the students nor the teacher is looking forward to driving in all this snow.
Hint: "Is looking forward" agrees with "teacher."

Rule #4: Collective nouns are singular unless it is obvious from context that they are intended to be plural.

The class watches Channel 1 every morning.
Hint: "Class" is singular because the members are acting as a unit.

The team are fighting amongst themselves.
Hint: "Team" is plural because they are acting as many individuals—not as a team.

Rule #5: All indefinite pronouns except "all" and "some" are singular.

Everyone in this class loves the material and hopes to take another class just like it.

Some prefer hot peppers in their chili; none prefers only salt, however.

Rule #6: If you use "who," "that," and "which" as subjects, then the verb agrees with their antecedents.

Everyone who goes to Europe realizes just how young the United States is.
Hint: "Goes" agrees with "everyone."

Snakes that bite are uncommon here in Lynchburg.
Hint: "Bite" agrees with "snakes."

Rule #7: Words that are always plural, such as statistics, politics, measles, etc., require a singular verb.

Mathematics has always been my worst subject.

Rule #8: Words and phrases such as official titles, names of companies, and official terms, and gerund and infinitive phrases, are always singular.

Star Wars is my favorite film.

Johnson & Johnson produces many excellent products for children.

"Shock and Awe" is the name given to a strategy used in the war in Iraq.

Avoiding panhandlers is increasingly difficult in crowded cities.

Practice 5.2

In each of the following sentences, circle the correct verb form.

1. All of the women in my hall **is/are** good friends.
2. Bathing dogs **is/are** not one of my favorite pastimes.
3. To travel to the Alps **sounds/sound** like a wonderful experience.
4. Proctor and Gamble **produce/produces** many of the products we have in our homes.
6. Everyone **was/were** watching the game last night.
7. None of us **thinks/think** that Peyton Manning is quite as outstanding as Terry Bradshaw yet.
8. *Pride and Prejudice* **is/are** Jane Austen's most famous novel.
9. Neither John nor Mary **is/are** coming to the potluck tonight.
10. Jerry Falwell Ministries **is/are** a major contributor to Lynchburg's economy.
11. I don't really care for people who **think/thinks** that only weak-minded individuals truly have faith.

Independent and Dependent Clauses

DEFINITION

All clauses must contain a subject and a verb. An **independent clause** expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a sentence.

A **dependent clause** requires more information and cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. Dependent clauses act as adjective, adverb, and noun phrases within the sentence, and they often start with a word such as "when" or "whatever" or "so" that signals the clause cannot stand alone.

Practice 5.3

Mark each of the clauses in the following sentences. Above each, say whether it is independent ("I") or dependent ("D").

1. Given the extremely short length of the day in December, it is preferable for you to take the dog for her walk in the afternoon.
2. Wangerin's book *Paul* changed my conception of his life; it was insightful about evidence that is in the Bible, yet it also added interesting material about Paul's personality that helped me to envision him more fully.
3. I met your friend Gertie at a conference I attended last month in Chicago.
4. Chris wrote a decent thesis, but Mary Ann went above and beyond the call of duty.
5. When I was online, I purchased a few used textbooks: they were cheaper and in better condition than those I found in the bookstore.

Fragments and Run-Ons

DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION

Sentence fragments occur when your sentence lacks an independent clause. Sometimes fragments can be quite lengthy.

- All the boys who went to Europe on the trip.
- Although you were never far from my thoughts while I was traveling.
- Whenever you're ready and finished with working on the reports I asked you to do.

Every time you have a dependent clause, make sure you know which word in the sentence it describes or refers to. If you can't figure it out, the sentence needs more information.

Run-on sentences occur when you join two or more independent clauses without proper transitions or punctuation.

- Miranda likes to ride horses she has three of them.
- Because he was a child prodigy, the cellist had a very successful career very early, however he lost his fame when he grew older.

If you have two or more independent clauses, separate them in one of these ways:

1. Put a comma after the first, and then add a coordinating conjunction before the second.
   Miranda likes to ride horses, and she has three of them.
2. Separate them with a semicolon or colon.
   Miranda likes to ride horses; she has three of them.
3. Separate them with a semicolon and add an adverb such as "however" or something else that fits the sentence.
   Miranda likes to ride horses; fittingly, she has three of them.
4. Turn half the sentence into a dependent clause.
   Because Miranda likes to ride horses, she has three of them.
5. Separate them into two separate sentences.
   Miranda likes to ride horses. She has three of them.

Note: Sometimes improper punctuation can create fragments and run-ons. We will address this in a later unit.

Practice 5.4

Each of the following sentences is either a fragment or a run-on. Correct these sentences. Note: You may need to add some information to correct the sentence fragments.

1. When you tell me that you're reading Romans for your devotions.
2. I prefer to decorate with subdued colors they always make me feel more calm.
3. My friend Michael is a strong teacher just landed a job at a university in California.
4. Although you are a very accomplished musician with a tremendous amount of experience in high-stress auditions.
5. I wondered why it seemed to take so long to arrive in Michigan when we traveled, I then realized that I had been confused about how long it takes to get there I had not factored in that Michigan is a very big state.

Modification Errors

In the previous chapter, we learned that clauses and phrases can serve the function of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs within sentences. This means that clauses and phrases need to abide by the same rules as individual words, depending on the function they perform in the sentence (modifying a verb, modifying a noun, etc.).

Errors in modification are among the most common grammar problems in English, even among generally skilled writers. Even though these errors are common, they often harm the clarity of the sentence, confuse readers, or suggest a meaning unlike what the

writer intended. For that reason, it is extremely important to learn the rules of proper modification.

Rule #1: Avoid Dangling Modifiers
Every clause or phrase acting as an adverb or adjective must modify another word or phrase in the sentence in a grammatical fashion.

- **Incorrect**: Walking into the doctor's office, the new wallpaper caught my attention.
  Note: The underlined portion SHOULD modify the adjective "I," since it describes what I was doing; however, the word "I" is nowhere to be found.
- **Correct**: Walking into the doctor's office, I noticed the new wallpaper.
  Note: The underlined portion modifies "I."
- **Correct**: As I walked into the doctor's office, I noticed the new wallpaper.
  Note: The underlined portion modifies "noticed."

Rule #2: Avoid Misplaced Modifiers
Every adjective clause or phrase should modify the noun to which it is closest. Putting the clause beside another noun can lead to confusion.

- **Incorrect**: It is a bad idea to give pizza to people on paper plates.
  Note: The underlined portion modifies "people," which makes it sound like the people are standing on the paper plates.
- **Correct**: It is a bad idea to give people pizza on paper plates.
  Note: Now it's right: the pizza, not the people, is on the plate.

Rule #3: Avoid Squinting Modifiers
Make sure it is clear which word or phrase your clause modifies. If a word, clause, or phrase is equidistant between two possible referents, confusion could result.

- **Incorrect**: Thanks to the firefighters only he was rescued.
  Note: It is unclear if only modifies "firefighters" or "he," which means the sentence's meaning is unclear.
- **Correct**: Thanks to the firefighters, he was the only one rescued.
  Note: Now "only" modifies "one"—he was the sole survivor.
- **Correct**: Thanks only to the firefighters, he was rescued.
  Note: Now the placement of "only" means that the firefighters acted alone.

Practice 5.5

Rewrite the following sentences, eliminating modification errors.

1. I almost lost 20 pounds on this diet.
2. Running across the floor, the rug tripped me.
3. I'm dumping the laundry in the basket piled up on the floor.
4. While talking on my cell phone, a state of emergency was declared.
5. I heard that your grandmother died in an e-mail message.
6. You told me that bombs were dropped on the evening news.
7. The soprano only sang the last song.
8. In the article, women use more politeness tags such as "thank you" and "please" than men.
9. Opening the cabinet, there was the cake we had stored away two years ago.
10. My friend has said she would be willing to help your students tutoring in the afternoons.

Parallel Structure

EXPLANATION

When you write sentence that includes a list, all the items in the list need to be grammatically parallel. For instance, if you want to name all the things you bought at the store, then you need to make sure that every item on your list is a noun.

- **Incorrect**: At Wal-Mart on Saturday, I bought Q-Tips, apples, spinach, and got a roasted chicken for lunch.
  Hint: All items in this list are grammatically parallel except for "got a roasted chicken for lunch."
- **Correct**: At Wal-Mart on Saturday, I bought Q-Tips, apples, spinach, and roasted chicken.
  Hint: All the items in this list are nouns, so the list is parallel.
- **Incorrect**: The greatest commandments are to love God with all our hearts, minds, and strength and loving others as ourselves.
  Hint: "To love God" is an infinitive; "loving others" is a gerund. They are not parallel.
- **Correct**: The greatest commandments are to love God with all our hearts, minds, and strength and to love others as ourselves.

When you use correlative conjunctions such as “not only...but also,” you need to make sure the words that follow each half of the conjunction are also parallel.

- **Incorrect**: I went not only to the store, but also cooked dinner.
  Hint: The prepositional phrase “to the store” and the verb phrase “cooked dinner” are not parallel.
- **Correct**: Not only did I go to the store, but I also cooked dinner.
  Hint: Now the sentence is parallel: you have two verb phrases.

Practice 5.6

The following paragraph contains a multitude of modification and parallel structure errors, as well as some sentences that are fragments and/or run-ons. Rewrite the paragraph with correct grammar. Try to preserve the original meaning as much as possible.

Going to Rome, lunch is likely to include pasta and gelato. Italian food is a treat: not only does it contain less fat than American food, but also delicious. I especially enjoy sipping an espresso walking through the streets. In addition to the food, the sites in Rome, which is known as “The Eternal City” for good reason. If you travel to Rome, history is very plainly visible. You can see the pagan history of the city in sites such as the Pantheon, the Colosseum, and visiting various plazas. Because of the influence of Christianity on the city, however, you can also visit sites such as St. Peter’s Basilica, where Catholics gather to see the Pope coming from all over the world. Those who visit Rome only want to return, I hope that I will be able to go back soon.

Comparisons

There are several ways to make comparisons in English, and their variety often leads to grammatical errors or confusion.

EXPLANATION 1:
When to Add Suffixes

Often you can affix an “er” or an “est” to the end of an adjective to create a comparison. Affixing an “er” establishes a comparison between two items, people, or groups, while affixing an “est” establishes a relationship between one item, person, or group and two or more others.

- John is taller than Dave.
- John is the tallest of the three boys.

Some adjectives cannot accept the “er” and “est” endings, and they thus have irregular forms. The most common example of this is the word “good.”

- John is better than Dave at sports.
- John is the best of the three boys.

Very long words generally cannot accept the “er” or “est” word endings. In this case, add “more” or “the most” before the adjective.

- **Incorrect**: My dog is beautifuler than yours.
- **Correct**: My dog is more beautiful than yours.
- **Correct**: My dog is the most beautiful in the neighborhood.

With a few exceptions, if you are writing a comparison between adverbs, you will have to use “more” or “most.” It is always correct to form adverb comparisons in this way.

- **Correct**: I would go more willingly to Human Resources to fill out my insurance paperwork if I hadn’t already done it last week.

EXPLANATION 2:
Other Types of Comparisons

There are other ways to write comparisons in English. For instance, word combinations like “less...than,” “fewer...than,” and “as...as” express different types of relationships between the items or people being compared.

Comparisons such as these can create confusion because your meaning can shift depending on which pronoun you use. Consider the following examples, which have ambiguous meanings:

- I have fewer students than Graduate Teaching Assistants.
- He sees as many friends as clients.

In both cases, the sentence needs clarification. The first could mean either of the following:

- I have fewer students than I do Graduate Teaching Assistants.
- I have fewer students than Graduate Teaching Assistants do.

The second could mean these two things:

- He sees as many friends as he does clients.
- He sees as many friends as his clients do.

Sometimes you can clarify your meaning by using a pronoun instead of a noun, provided the antecedent of the pronoun is clear from context:

- **Original Sentence**: I want a dog more than my boyfriend.
- **Clarified Sentence**: I want a dog more than him.
  Hint: This means "I would prefer to have a dog than to have my boyfriend."
- **Clarified Sentence**: I want a dog more than he.
  Hint: This means "I want a dog more than my boyfriend does."

Practice 5.7

Using any translation of the Bible, turn to Matthew 5:3-12, the Beatitudes. Using as many comparison words and phrases as possible, write 2-3 paragraphs in which you compare the characteristics Jesus describes as "blessed" to those that the world generally rewards.

Writing Traps

Any English teacher knows that writers make some errors more commonly than others. In addition to the writing hints described above, this section aims to warn writers of some common grammatical and linguistic traps so that they can avoid them in the future.

ACTIVE VERSUS PASSIVE VOICE

In passive voice sentences, the subject of the sentence is *not* the agent:

- The dog was found by Amelia by the side of the road.
- The project was completed by the students last night.

When To Use It

In fields such as English, writers must avoid passive voice at all costs. If you are writing a paper for a literature class, you must strive for great specificity about who or what performs the action of the verb. This reflects the values and assumptions of the field of English, which wants to give credit to authors for their creative works.

- **Bad Sentence**: In *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, it is shown that one cannot hide his sins forever.
- **Better Sentence**: In *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, Wilde shows that one cannot hide his sins forever.

In fields such as the sciences, however, passive voice is acceptable. Again, this relates to the ideological assumptions scientists make. Any experiment or observation that carries scientific weight would be unaffected by a different subject having performed it. Therefore, the agent who performs the experiment matters much less than the results.

- **Bad Sentence**: I observed three children's interactions on a playground for a period of six weeks.
- **Better Sentence**: The actions of three children on a playground were observed for a period of six weeks.

Be sure to check with your professors to see what their stance on passive voice is, since they will be able to tell you what their discipline prefers. As a rule, though, if you mean to suppress who completed the action of the verb, use passive voice. If you do not mean to do so, use active voice.

FIRST VERSUS THIRD PERSON

In formal writing, it is normal to use third-person pronouns as much as possible. Using too many first-person pronouns makes your work sound informal and personal, which is usually not the goal of a research-based article.

There are a few exceptions to this general rule. If you are describing a first-person experience (i.e., sharing your testimony, telling a relevant story, etc.), it makes obvious sense to use first-person pronouns.

It rarely makes sense to use "you" in formal writing except in some very limited scenarios. For instance, if you are writing a sermon, using the word "you" will help your hearers to personalize the message. However, in most cases, you do not need to address your listeners directly; you should instead rely on them to respond to your argument or analysis on their own terms.

Again, as a rule, check with your professors to see what they think should be done.

WORDINESS, JARGON, ETC.

Good formal writing is clear and concise. Formal writing in American classrooms is especially so. American academics value skillful use of language, but they avoid wordiness, jargon, abstraction, clichés, and excessive figures of speech in formal, academic writing. As a rule, make your point fast, make it forcefully, explain it, and conclude. Anything extra should be cut out.

This can be particularly confusing for people who grew up speaking other languages, especially those in which verbal excess is a sign of skill. For instance, in Yiddish, repetition adds to meaning. It would be perfectly acceptable to say "Henry cried with tears and tears" to express the depth of Henry's sorrow. In English, however, this sounds excessive, flowery, and redundant.

CONTRACTIONS

In general, avoid using contractions (can't, don't, wouldn't, etc.) in formal writing.

SOME CONFUSING WORDS

1. **Affect v. Effect**: Most of the time, *affect* is a verb, and *effect* is a noun. There are a few exceptions, but they are rare.
    a. The sermon affected me greatly.
    b. The sermon had a great effect on me.
2. **Lie v. Lay**: *Lie* does not require an object; *lay* does require an object. *Note: Do not be confused by the past tense of these verbs either. The past tense of* lie *is* lay*; the past tense of* lay *is* laid.
        a. I need to lie down for awhile.
        b. I lay down for an hour and felt better.
        c. Please lay the book on the table before you go.
        d. He laid the book on the table before he went.
3. **Compliment v. Complement**: A *compliment* is a nice thing someone says or does for someone else; it can be a noun or a verb. A *complement* is something that supplements something else; it completes.
    a. You gave me a great compliment when you asked me to be on this committee.
    b. Allison's publishing skills are a great complement to Emily's writing.
4. **Good v. Well**: *Good* is an adjective; *well* is an adverb.
    a. You gave me a good performance evaluation.
    b. My performance evaluation went very well.
5. **Accept v. Except**: *Accept* means to acknowledge, allow, recognize, or approve; except means to exclude. *Except* also means "with the exception of..."
    a. I accepted his candidacy for the job.
    b. Except a man be born again, he will not enter the kingdom of heaven.
6. **Principle v. Principal**: *Principle* is an adjective that refers to a rule to follow. *Principal* as an adjective means "the most important." *Principal* can also be a noun referring either to a high-ranking school administrator or an amount of debt incurred.
    a. Our guiding principle should always be love of God and others.
    b. The principal commandments are to love God and to love others.
7. **Stationery v. Stationary**: *Stationery* is a type of paper you write on. *Stationary* means immovable.
    a. The stationery was marked with the school seal.
    b. This computer station is stationary.
8. **There v. They're v. Their**: *There* is a location word. The combination "there is" also indicates that something exists. *Their* is a plural possessive adjective. *They're* means "they are."
    a. Your book is over there.
    b. There is no way I'm going to Sri Lanka this summer.
    c. Their t-shirts were worn inside out to cover up the logos.
    d. They're going to go to Madagascar in June.

9. **To v. Two v. Too**: *To* is a preposition indicating direction. *Two* is a number. *Too* means also.
    a. I'm going to Green Hall for a coffee.
    b. I am tired enough that I may need to drink two cups.
    c. c. Do you want to come along too?
10. **Fewer v. Less**: *Fewer* is used with items you can count; *less* is used with items you measure.
    a. I have fewer friends now that I'm older.
    b. I have less courage than I did when I was young.
11. **Everyday v. Every day**: *Everyday* means ordinary. *Every day* means each day of the week.
    a. These are my everyday clothes.
    b. I wear scrubs to work every day.
12. **Apart v. A part**: *Apart* means separately; *a part* means a piece or a unit of the whole.
    a. I hate spending the weekends apart from my friends.
    b. Spending time together is a part of true friendship.
13. **Roll v. Role**: Used as a noun, *roll* is a list. It is also a verb that describes a physical movement that involves turning end over end. *Role* is a part that one plays or a duty one fulfills.
    a. I'm going to take on the role of leading music.
    b. I will take the roll when everyone is seated.
    c. Stop rolling your pen around on the desk.
14. **Council v. Counsel**: A *council* is an administrative body; a *counsel* is someone giving legal advice. *To counsel* means to advise.
    a. I will present the zoning request to Lynchburg City Council.
    b. I wish to converse with legal counsel before I proceed.
    c. Can you counsel me about my finances?
15. **Further v. Farther**: *Further* means "extent"; *farther* refers to distance.
    a. Let's take this argument a step further.
    b. I climbed farther up the mountain than he did.

NON-STANDARD ENGLISH WORDS

Sometimes English speakers make up words for the sake of humor or because no existing word expresses the speaker's full intent. A good example of this is Stephen Colbert's neologism "truthiness," which describes the extent to which something seems true (regardless of whether it is). In general, in formal writing, avoid words like this. If you absolutely must use one (if, for instance, you are analyzing Colbert's use of the term "truthiness"), be sure to put the word in quotation marks. Words like *alot* and *irregardless*, however, are never correct since they are corruptions of existing word forms ("a lot" and "regardless").

If you need to use a technical term or a word from a foreign language, be sure to put it in italics and explain what you mean when you use it.

Practice 5.8

At the end of our basic grammar chapter, you wrote a summary of an article. Now find one more article that is similar (similar topic, similar field of interest, or similar methodology, etc.) and write a summary of that one as well. Then write another 2-3 paragraphs in which you compare and contrast the articles.

Consider the following before you begin to write:

1. What are the most significant similarities between the articles?
2. What are the most significant differences?
3. What produces these similarities and differences (i.e., worldview, method, etc.)?
4. Is either article more persuasive than the other? Why or why not?

A Note on ESL Trouble Spots

If English is not your first language, you may find some parts of English grammar and usage particularly challenging. Some things that non-native English speakers need to watch out for include irregular verb forms, articles, numbers, sequences, and slang.

There are many great resources available for non-native English speakers; your instructor can point you to many of them. However, the following two websites may be able to help you first:

http://esl.about.com/
http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/

** If English is not your first language, never be ashamed to ask for help or to let your instructor know when you do not understand something. It is ALWAYS the goal of Liberty University to equip its students in the best way possible for their later ministry.

UNIT II

PUNCTUATION 911

Introduction

Now that you have a basic knowledge of English grammar, you should be able to arrange your sentences in a manner that makes your meaning clear to a reader. But there is another element that you need to add in order to make your writing smooth, skillful, and clear: punctuation. Punctuation marks tell readers *how* to read your sentences—whether they should speed up, slow down, get excited, ask a question, pause, etc. Punctuation also establishes relationships between parts of your sentence.

Imagine building a house. You need many materials—wood, brick, drywall, carpeting, and so forth. All these materials are necessary and deeply important. However, all these pieces can't fit together on their own: you need nails, screws, bolts, and other little parts to hold them together. These little pieces are like marks of punctuation. It is vitally important to learn to use them properly. Otherwise, the beautiful building you're constructing might fall down.

This chapter introduces all the basic marks of punctuation in English and gives an overview of how and when to use them. As in the previous unit, if you already feel comfortable with certain marks of punctuation, feel free to do the activities quickly and move on to more challenging material. If you have trouble completing any section, be sure to ask your instructor for help.

CHAPTER 6

PUNCTUATION

Ends of Sentences: Periods, Question Marks, and Exclamation Points

The most common way to end a sentence in English is with a period (.), and all statements—unless they are extremely emphatic—should conclude in this way.

Periods are also used after abbreviations, such as Mr., Mrs., Ph.D., and e.g. Do not use a period in abbreviations of organization names, such as universities or government agencies (UCLA, UN).

Question marks are used for only one purpose, and that is to signal that the speaker or writer wants to make an inquiry. In formal writing, question marks should be used sparingly, except in very special situations (a transcript of sermon, for instance), since questions often involve making a direct address to the reader.

Exclamation points indicate that a statement should be read with extreme excitement or emphasis. They are appropriate for informal writing and correspondences, such as e-mail or personal narratives. Unless you are quoting from another source, you should use exclamation points rarely (if ever) in formal writing.

End-of-sentence punctuation may be followed by one or two spaces, depending on disciplinary guidelines. Check with your professors to see which is preferable in your field of study.

Commas

EXPLANATION

Commas are one of the most misunderstood marks of punctuation in the English language. You may have heard that if you take a breath at a certain part of a sentence, then you should add a comma to mark that place. To some extent, this is true. However, since it is not ALWAYS true, relying on the "breath rule" is often a bad idea.

The following rules will help you decide when to use a comma and when to leave it out.

1. Use a comma to join two sentences with "and," "but," or "or."
    a. E.g., You cook, and I'll do the dishes.
    [comma because both halves are sentences]
    b. E.g., I'll cook and do the dishes
    [no comma because "do the dishes" is not a complete sentence]
2. Use a comma after an introductory word group.
    a. E.g., If you cook, I'll do the dishes.
3. Use a comma between items in a series.
    a. E.g., I'd rather not do the cleaning, laundry, or dishes.
4. Use a comma to set off added information only if that information is extra or unnecessary.
    a. E.g., My mother, who is a college professor, hates her job.
    b. E.g., I am looking for a college professor who hates his job. [no comma]
5. Use commas to set off transitions.
    a. E.g., It was cloudy this morning, but, in fact, it did not rain.
    b. E.g., It was cloudy this morning; however, it did not rain.
6. Use commas to make reading easier (but only if confusion might result without the comma).
    a. Unlike Joe, Catherine loves to sing.
    b. E.g., To err is human; to forgive, divine.
    c. E.g., Well, things didn't go well; what happened, happened.
7. Use commas to set off direct address or quotations.
    a. E.g., John, would you come over here?
    b. E.g., "John," she shouted, "would you come over here?"

Practice 6.1

For each of the seven rules above, generate a sentence in which you use the comma appropriately. For instance, for #1, write a sentence in which you join two independent clauses with a comma and then "and," "but," or "or."

Colons and Semicolons

EXPLANATION

The question of when to use a colon or a semicolon often confuses writers since both marks of punctuation can perform a similar function: separating independent clauses that are not joined by a conjunction. In this case as in many others, though, learning a few simple rules can clarify matters.

When to use a **semicolon**:

1. When you want to join two independent clauses (complete sentences), and you do not want to connect them with "and," "but," or "or."
    a. John went to Wal-Mart to shop; I went to Kroger.
    b. Let m stand for mass; let a stand for acceleration.
2. When you are separating items in a list and need a stronger mark of punctuation than a comma for clarity.
    a. I bought fruits such as apples, oranges, and bananas; vegetables such as carrots, celery, and spinach; and meats such as chicken, pork, and beef.

When to use a **colon**:

1. When you want to join independent clauses and the second clause further explains or clarifies the first.
    a. My mother has summers off: she is a professor.
    b. It looks like it might snow: I think I'll wear a coat.
2. When you want to explain an independent clause further but do not want to construct a dependent or independent clause.
    a. I'm engaged right now in my favorite activity: eating.
    b. The MVP of the Superbowl was a deserving player: Peyton Manning.
3. When you want to introduce a list that is not immediately preceded by a verb.
    a. Please read the Gospels for next time: Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John.
    b. For next time, please read Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John.
    Hint: No colon is necessary because "read" precedes the list.

Note: Colons and semicolons are powerful marks of punctuation that can help you connect ideas in interesting ways. However, it is fairly easy to write around a colon or a semicolon; you can eliminate the need for them by rephrasing your sentences or using commas with conjunctions. If you do not know how to use them correctly, it is better not to use them and to practice until you learn.

Practice 6.2

Each of the following sentences lacks punctuation altogether. Using periods, commas, semicolons, and colons, punctuate the sentences appropriately. Note: There may be more than one correct answer.

1. When I was a young girl my mother used to take me to church I was reluctant to go then but now I enjoy it
2. My favorite books include *Anna Karenina* and *War and Peace* because I really love Russian authors
3. I did want to go to the committee meeting today it's just that I had a dental appointment and I couldn't make it to both
4. I am afraid of wild animals in all forms dogs cats and babies
5. Virginia Woolf 's novels grow more experimental over time while *Mrs. Dalloway* is fairly traditional *The Waves* exemplifies stream-of-consciousness narration to such an extent that novelistic conventions such as character plot and point of view are partially lost

Apostrophes

EXPLANATION

Apostrophes have two functions in English: to signal that one or more letters have been left out of a word (contractions), or to indicate possession.

CONTRACTIONS

In informal English, pronouns and helping verbs can often be combined into one word. For instance, I + have = I've; You + would = You'd; He + will = He'll. Some helping verbs may also combine with each other. For instance, would + have = would've.

Avoid contractions in formal writing, but feel free to use them as much as you want in personal correspondence or other similar situations.

POSSESSION

Some words (such as personal pronouns) have possessive forms. The possessive form of "he," for instance, is "his." For other words, we must form a possessive using an apostrophe and (usually) an "s."

How to form possessives:

For nouns that do not end in "s," add 's to the end.

- The boy's book
- The child's toy

For nouns that end in "s," either add 's to the end, or simply add an apostrophe.

- Charles Dickens's novel
- Charles Dickens' novel

Note #1: Because the plural the possessive forms of many words are pronounced the same, often people will add an apostrophe to a word when they actually mean to make it plural. Do not add an apostrophe unless you want to make a possessive form.

Note #2: The possessive form of the pronoun "it" is "its." "It's" means "it is." This can be confusing, so be sure you memorize the correct forms. "Its' " is not a word.

Practice 6.3

Add or remove apostrophes as needed from the following sentences.

1. I am a big fan of Jane Austens novels; *Emmas* heroine is one of my favorite characters.
2. Its clear that the dog needs it's own bed if its' going to be happy at night.
3. I didnt tell you that I wouldve gone with you to Kohls if youd asked me.
4. Youre an amazing person; its too bad we didnt meet earlier when I was working at Davids Place.
5. Dr. Jones office is located in the old science building; to get there, follow the sidewalk out of the back doors and go straight until you go through the double doors.

Quotation Marks and Italics

EXPLANATION 1:
Quotation Marks

Quotation marks are used in a variety of situations in English, but three scenarios are most common: to set off dialogue or words taken directly from another source, to emphasize a word, or to set off some titles. Understanding when to use quotation marks is fairly easy; punctuating around them, however, can be tricky.

Direct Quotations

Any time you use another person's words within a text that you are writing, you need to enclose those words in quotation marks. Scenarios like this include the following:

- *Quoting from a scholarly article*
  According to Pearson, his "reputation as a poet remained greater than his reputation as a novelist."
- *Quoting a passage from a novel*
  "I will live at once in the Past, the Present, and the Future!" says Scrooge in the final pages of A Christmas Carol.
- *Quoting from the Bible*
  "In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth" (Genesis 1:1).
- *Transcribing dialogue*
  John said to me, "You're going to have to get over your ideas about traveling to Greece this summer," and I suspect he is right.

Emphasis Quotations

If you want to emphasize a key term within a work, introduce a technical term for the first time, or set off a word or phrase, you may want to consider enclosing it in quotation marks. Do this sparingly!

- Dickens refers to this complex as "the attraction of repulsion."
- It turns out that my "friend" was actually telling lies about me behind my back.

EXPLANATION 2:
Quotes in Quotes

If you have a situation in which you need to set up a quotation within another quotation, the inner quotation should be marked by single quotes (‘ and ’ instead of “ and ”).

- According to Jones, “Brontë’s aversion to traditional narrative form stems from her dismissal of her early ‘errant Romanticism’” (25).

EXPLANATION 3:
Punctuating around Quotations

As the examples above demonstrate, punctuating around quotation marks can seem complex and intimidating. However, there are rules to follow that will make your job much easier:

Introducing a Quotation

1. Introductory phrases such as *According to* and *Smith argues* are always followed by a comma. The only exception is if the phrase ends in “that.”
    a. According to Sterne, “The world is big with jest.”
    b. Sterne argues that “The world is big with jest.”

End of Quotation, End of Sentence

2. If the quotation ends in a ? or !, then you should ALWAYS include it within the quotation marks.
    a. John asked, “Do you want to go to Paraguay with me?”
3. If the sentence ends with the quotation, insert the appropriate mark of punctuation—a period, question mark, or exclamation mark—within the quotes.
    a. He retorted, “Not while I’m around!”
    b. The controversy has to do with “unauthorized practice in the field of law.”

End of Quotation, Middle of Sentence

4. If the sentence goes on after the quotation ends, include a ? or ! in the quotation if appropriate. Otherwise, finish the quotation with a comma.
    a. He retorted, “Not while I’m around!” and that made me very angry.
    b. The controversy has to do with “unauthorized practice in the field of law,” which is defined in one of my textbooks.
    c. “Will you go to Paraguay with me?” John asked.
    d. “No, I will not go to Paraguay with you,” I replied.

Quotations With Citations

5. If you are writing a research paper and need to add in a citation after your quotation, your format should determine how you handle it. A brief summary is included below:
    a. Footnote (Chicago, Turabian): According to Y, "Here is your quotation."[1]
    b. Parenthetical (MLA): Set up your quotation, "Here is your quotation" (Author page).
    c. Parenthetical (APA): Set up your quotation, "Here is your quotation" (Author, year, p. number).

Fitting a Quotation Into a Sentence

6. Sometimes the quotation you find may not fit grammatically into the sentence you have written. In this case, you may change a word or two of the quotation (usually a verb conjugation or pronoun form) without changing the meaning or the content. You indicate that you have made a change by putting the new words in brackets ([xxx]).
    a. **Original**: Johnson argues that "he was underappreciated in his own life" (25).
    b. **Revised**: Johnson argues that "[Shakespeare] was underappreciated in his own life" (25).

Capitalization

7. Depending on what citation format you are using, you should handle capital letters at the beginnings of quotations differently. For example, let's say you have a quotation that begins with a small letter. You want to make it a capital letter, so you would handle the quotation in these ways:
    a. MLA: Don't change anything without putting it in brackets. Thus, "his" would become "[H]is" in your quotation. Some teachers of MLA permit you to change initial capital letters in quotation, but it is always okay to mark that you have done so.
    b. Turabian and APA: Fit the quotation into your sentence. If the quotation can stand alone, begin it with a capital letter. If it cannot, then run it into the rest of your sentence without capitalization. Again, as with MLA, check with your professors about their personal preferences. Even professional journals differ occasionally on capitalization rules, so there is no shame in asking.

Note: You can avoid the whole problem of capitalization by leaving it is as it is. If you try NOT to change capitalization, you must fix your sentence so that it will go around the quotation (instead of forcing your quotation to go into your sentence).

---

[1] Author's First and Last Names, *Title of Book: Subtitle of Book* (Place of Publication: Publisher's Name, Date of Publication), ##-##.

Quotations With Errors

8. If a quotation has an error, a typo, or an inappropriate word in it, you may indicate that you believe there is a mistake by writing [sic] after the errant word or phrase. Do this sparingly!
    a. Gayla McGlamery's article "'This unlicked wolf club' [sic]: Anti-Catholicism in Charlotte Brontë's *Villette*" was originally published in a French-language journal.
    Note: It should be "unlicked wolf cub."
    b. Joseph Conrad's novel *The Nigger* [sic] *of the Narcissus* has come under fire for its offensive title.
    Note: In this situation, the [sic] is optional; however, if you want to dissociate yourself from any possible racism in Conrad, the [sic] allows you to do so.

Quotations With Omissions

9. Sometimes a quotation is just too long. In these cases, you may mark the section that you left out with an ellipsis, three periods separated by spaces.
    a. The David Crowder song urges its listeners to "Come and listen to what . . . He has done for me."
    b. Paul Dombey believes that "the earth was made for Dombey and Son to trade in. . . . A.D. stands for *anno dombei*" (Dickens 43).
    Note: Four dots occur here because the first part of the quotation occurs at the end of a sentence.

Quoting Poetry and Song Lyrics

10. If you quote from a poem, song, or any other text with end-stopped lines, and your quotation is three or fewer lines long, you should separate lines with slashes (/).
    a. The song "Amazing Grace" fits my testimony well: "I once was lost/But now I am found/Was blind but now I see."
    b. Stevenson's *Epitaph* concludes with these well-known lines: "Home is the sailor, home from sea/And the hunter home from the hill."

EXPLANATION 4:
Italics

We use italics in four main situations in English: (1) To give emphasis, (2) To set off a foreign word, (3) To set off some types of titles, and (4) To set off names of spacecraft, ships, etc.

Examples:

- Lacan calls this developmental stage *the mirror stage*.
- I was *not* there last week when you called.
- There was a certain *je ne sais quoi* in his manner.
- Neitschean *ressentiment* is a theme in the works of Derrida.
- The *Discovery* flew into Houston at midnight.

EXPLANATION 5:
What to Do with Titles

People often do not know whether to enclose titles of works in quotation marks or to italicize them. You can follow two rules of thumb (but be sure to study the specific cases below too!).

1. Long works are *italicized*; short works are "quoted."
2. Italicize the *whole*; quote the *part*.

Italicize the following:

- Books (*The Catcher in the Rye*)
- Magazines (*Time*)
- Films (*The Two Towers*)
- Long poems, plays, musical works, albums, radio shows, and television programs
  - *The Prelude*
  - *The Little Foxes*
  - *Rhapsody in Blue*
  - *Jagged Little Pill*
  - *Les Temps Perdu*
  - *Seinfeld*
- Visual art, comic strips, software, and web pages
  - *Mona Lisa*
  - *Calvin and Hobbes*
  - *Word Perfect*
  - *Wikipedia*

Quote the following:

- Short stories ("The Gift of the Magi")
- Articles ("Some Thoughts on Richard Dawkins")
- Individual episodes of TV shows, scenes in films ("At the Castle")
- Short poems and songs ("The Charge of the Light Brigade," "Facedown")
- Individual articles or sections of larger web pages ("Mammals," "FAQ")

When not to punctuate:

- If a piece has an unofficial title, do not punctuate it. For instance, we might refer to the Graveyard Scene in *Hamlet* or the Red Room scene in *Jane Eyre*, but since Shakespeare and Brontë never gave the scenes those titles, they do not belong in quotation marks.
- Do not punctuate the names of book sections unless they are official and original. For instance, Introduction, Preface, and Acknowledgements, may appear at the tops of sections, but they are descriptors of the selection's official role within the work—not official titles.
- Do not punctuate titles that merely describe a section's location within the whole, such as V.ii or Act V, Scene ii. Again, the title is merely descriptive.
- Do not punctuate the name of the Bible or of any of the books contained therein. The same goes for other official holy books (the Koran, the Book of Mormon, etc.).
- Do not punctuate the name of collections of texts unless it was assigned by the author. You may refer to *The Chronicles of Narnia* since that is Lewis's name for the series, but do not punctuate unofficial collection titles such as the Dead Sea Scrolls.

Capitalizing Titles

There are a few main rules for how to capitalize titles in English:

1. The first and last words of a title are always capitalized.
    a. *The Catcher in the Rye*
2. All important words (nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) are always capitalized. Smaller words (conjunctions, prepositions, articles) MAY be capitalized but only if they are very important to the meaning of the title. There is some flexibility in this rule since "importance" is hard to quantify objectively.
    a. *Of Mice and Men*
    b. *Everything That Rises Must Converge* or *Everything that Rises Must Converge*
    c. *The Man who Came to Dinner*
3. Untranslated titles of foreign works obey the rules of capitalization of the original language.
    a. *Cien años de soledad*
4. If the author makes a deliberate choice to disobey capitalization rules, preserve the author's original capitalization.
    a. e.e. cummings is the poet who wrote "if i should sleep with a lady called death."

Practice 6.4

Generate a sentence for each of the following scenarios:

1. You are relating something a friend of yours said in an e-mail.
2. You are quoting from a scholarly article.
3. You are repeating what your friend Karen said about her friend Joan.
4. Your friend John misquoted the Bible.
5. You want to quote from a favorite textbook of yours, but the selection is too long.

Now answer each of the following questions in sentence form:

1. What is your favorite song?
2. What movie did you see most recently?
3. What is your favorite scripture verse?
4. If you were to write a play about your life, what would you call it?
5. If you were to write a book in your field, what would its title be?
6. What is your favorite CD?
7. If you had a boat, what would you name it?
8. What is your favorite Bible story?

Other Marks of Punctuation

EXPLANATION 1:
Dashes v. Hyphens

Many people confuse hyphens (-) and dashes (—). The two marks of punctuation look similar, but they serve very different functions.

Hyphens are formed by hitting the hyphen key (just to the right of the 0 on your keyboard) *one* time.

Hyphens are used to connect two or more words to combine them into an adjective that comes immediately before a noun.

- My *piano-playing* grandmother just turned ninety-two.
- Our *well-trained* tutors can help you with your writing.
- Our tutors in the GWC are *well trained*.
  Note: no hyphen is required here, since this adjective does not precede a noun.

In most writing, **hyphens** are used with numbers.

- They are used to connect compound numbers up to ninety-nine.
  Note: Numerals are acceptable in some academic fields, especially the sciences or other fields that deal with technical data; you should check to see the conventions of your own major field of study to be sure.
  Forty-four women
  Sixty-five dogs
- They are used in fractions.
  One-fourth of our students are from other countries.
  One-half of our buildings on campus were built recently.

Hyphens are used to set off prefixes and suffixes such as "all" or "in law" or "elect."

- Our God is *all-knowing*.
- My *mother-in-law* has arthritis.
- The *Senator-elect* from Massachusetts has much to learn about maneuvering in Washington.

Dashes are formed by hitting the hyphen key *two* times. Programs such as MS Word will connect your two hyphens into a longer dash. Do not place spaces around dashes when you write.

Dashes set off extra material that contains commas.

- The ingredients of pizza—dough, cheese, tomato sauce, and toppings—are very easy to find at the grocery store.

Dashes set off a dramatic shift or emphatic movement in your thought.

- I was very much enjoying the lovely snow storm earlier this week—and then I wrecked my car.
- I have compiled a list of the worst possible names for our son—Adolph, Judas, and Vladimir are at the top.

Dashes are used to set off extra material in a sentence that you want to emphasize:

- My mother—a professor—has always held me to a high academic standard.
- I would advise you—only a first-year faculty member—not to apply for early promotion.

Parentheses also set off extra material in a sentence, but they draw less attention to it than do dashes.

- The Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) created this course.
- I did my exercises (jogging, stretching, and weight-lifting) yesterday before I ate dinner.

Note: Do not overuse dashes. Unless you have a clear reason for using them, it is best to rely on less emphatic and intrusive marks of punctuation.

Practice 6.5

Find a secular scholarly journal in your field. For example, if your field is English, you might look at Victorian Studies *or the* PMLA. *You can find journals by using LU's "journal finder" link on the library web page. Avoid publications such as* First Things *for this assignment since they are more interdisciplinary.*

Once you have found a journal, skim an entire issue, focusing on the following questions:

1. What sorts of topics are appropriate for this journal?
2. What formatting guidelines do contributors to this journal follow?
3. If I were to write an article to send to this journal, what should it look like?

Then write 5-7 pages in which you do the following:

1. Giving evidence from the articles in the journal, summarize your ideas about what sorts of scholarship the journal you chose values.
2. Speculate a little about what sorts of articles the journal would not appreciate.
3. Consider whether a Christian would have any difficulty placing an article in this journal. Why or why not? If you think that a Christian would find publication in this venue difficult, consider as well what steps he or she could take to gain a hearing in the secular sphere (without also compromising his or her faith).
4. Try to cite your sources as best you can. We'll work on documentation in more detail later.

UNIT III

RESEARCH PAPER 911

Introduction

The final chapters of this book deal with higher-level skills you will need as you begin thinking about your final project for this course: a research paper. These units deal with critical thinking skills, research, and the technical requirements of your discipline.

These are the skills that distinguish an undergraduate-level paper from a graduate-level paper. Graduate students need to express their thoughts clearly with proper grammar and punctuation. But they also need to start with a bigger, better idea than their undergraduate counterparts do.

Let's return to the building analogy we used before. If grammar gives you the building blocks of your paper—bricks, wood, pipes, shingles, and other materials—and punctuation helps you hold those materials together (like nails, screws, and bolts), then this unit deals with something more abstract and conceptual. It deals with the plan you have for your building.

A good paper is tightly constructed: all its arguments are well supported, and all its research is solid. In addition, a good paper has a clear and obvious structure: you enter it through a clear, well-composed introduction, you move from section to section, and you exit knowing where you have been and what you have seen. Navigating through a poorly constructed research paper is like moving through a badly-designed house: windows are in the wrong places, floors have holes in them, rooms are laid out in ways that don't make sense, and walls lean. But navigating through a well-designed paper—like touring a beautiful home—can be deeply satisfying.

Please read these units carefully, since they deal with high-level skills that you probably need to sharpen. Constructing a solid, successful paper is a process of much trial and error. However, with practice, it can be done.

CHAPTER 7

THINKING LIKE A WRITER

What Is Logical Thinking?

You can know all the grammar and punctuation in the world and still be an unsuccessful writer. That is because good writing grows directly out of good thinking: knowing what others have said in relation to your topic, knowing what you want to say in response to them, and knowing how to present your thoughts in a clear, graceful fashion.

This chapter is devoted to the ***logos***, a word that lies at the root of our word "logic." You may know this term from your studies of the Bible: it means "word" in Greek, and it refers to the message. "In the beginning was the Word"—the *logos*. Christ both delivers and lives the Gospel message: the *logos* is both a word and a mechanism for delivering it. When we think logically, then, we need to know what we want to write, and we need to know how to write it to make sure it reaches its destination safely.

What You Say: Claims and Evidence

EXPLANATION

Academic writing contains a combination of various types of content: claims, evidence, and transitions.

Claims are the points you want to prove, interpretations you want to offer, and assertions you want to make. They usually appear in topic and concluding sentences, in your introduction and your conclusion, and in your thesis statement.

Evidence is the material you use to back up your claims. Depending on your field of study, more than one type of evidence may be used:

- Quotations from books, poems, or other texts
- Citations from critical articles
- Data from studies
- Personal experience
- Historical facts
- Scripture
- Logical argumentation

Evidence usually appears in the middles of paragraphs, and it immediately follows and/or sets up the claim it supports.

Remember: you need sufficient evidence to support every claim you make. *While a claim such as "It will snow today" requires very little evidence (a weather forecast, observational data, etc.), a claim such as "Henry's psychological problems result from his dependence on his father" may take much more extensive proof.*

TRANSITIONS

Any time you move from one claim to another, you need a **transition**. Transitions can be very simple—just one or two words—or they can go on for whole paragraphs. As with evidence, you need to decide how strong and extensive your transition needs to be. If claims follow logically one from another, a very small transition should get the job done. If, however, you need to introduce a major shift in thought, topic, or idea, you will need a more extensive transition.

Everything in your papers should fit one of these categories. Sometimes especially hard-working sentences can do more than one thing at once—even all three.

Practice 7.1

CLAIM OR EVIDENCE?

Mark each of the following statements as "claim" or "evidence," and then say why. If you can make an argument either way, then go ahead and do so.

1. *Kindred Nature* is a book written by Barbara T. Gates.
2. "There is therefore now no condemnation to them which are in Christ Jesus, who walk not after the flesh, but after the Spirit" (Romans 8:1).
3. Biologists at the University of Essex are working on a concept that could revolutionize the study of science: cellular altruism.
4. The present study demonstrates the effectiveness of a healthy diet and exercise in preventing heart disease.
5. David's wife Michal betrayed him because she chose her father's affections over her husband's.

Practice 7.2

CHOOSING EVIDENCE

For each of the following scenarios, write a bit about what sorts of evidence you think will be most persuasive. If you need very little evidence, feel free to say so. If you need a good deal of evidence, point that out as well.

Keep in mind that you need to consider your audience when you choose evidence. An atheist is not going to be convinced by Scripture; neither is a psychologist going to be convinced by a literary quotation. Choose your evidence well!

1. You have a friend who is of Jewish heritage; however, she has no religious belief. She asks you why, if God is good, He permitted the Holocaust to happen. What would you tell her?
2. You want to convince your professor that the reading load he has assigned is too heavy, given that you also have to write a research paper. You are asking him to eliminate one book from the class assignments so that you can concentrate on your own research.
3. You are writing an article for a theological journal arguing that heaven and hell must be understood as literal, physical places (as opposed to metaphorical or symbolic states of mind).
4. You want to start exercising for 30 minutes per day, but your wife doesn't want to. How would you kindly convince her to join you?
5. You are reviewing a book manuscript for a university press. Although the book is skillfully and stylishly written, you think it may obscure or leave out some important facts that need to be pointed out. How would you point this out (without suggesting the book is bad and shouldn't be accepted)?

Organization

EXPLANATION 2:
Some Types of Writing Assignments

There is more than one right way to organize a paper. All papers must have introductions, material sufficient to develop the main ideas adequately, and conclusions. Beyond that, though, papers may follow any number of formats.

Some sorts of papers follow fairly rigid formatting guidelines.

For example, literature reviews usually involve the following parts in this order:

1. Introduction of topic
2. Thesis that summarizes current trends in scholarship in a field
3. Survey of sources arranged in one of the following ways:
    a. Chronologically (earliest to most recent)
    b. Thematically (articles on similar topics grouped together)
    c. Methodologically (articles using similar research methods grouped together)
4. Conclusion in which you do any or all of the following:
    a. Reprise information you mentioned above
    b. Point out gaps in current scholarship
    c. Analyze trends in current scholarship
    d. Suggest questions for further study

Argumentative essays usually follow this Aristotelian format:

1. The *exordium* or introduction: get the reader's attention; offers the enthymeme (a claim + a reason for believing it), a preliminary version of the thesis.
2. The *narration*: background information
3. The *explicatio* or definition of issues: defines terms as needed, delimits scope of study
4. The *partitio* or thesis: states the thesis in expanded form
5. The *confirmatio* or proof: supports and develops the thesis; offers evidence
6. The *refutatio* or refutation: answers opposition, possible arguments against your position, etc.
7. The *peroratio* or conclusion: summarizes the arguments, suggests a course of action, or applies the thesis to a practical situation.

Finally, a good lab report or write-up of a study will usually contain the following parts:

1. Title page
2. Abstract (summary of your study)
3. Introduction (states the point of the experiment and provides necessary background information)

4. Methods, Materials, and Equipment (if relevant)
5. Experimental Procedure (what you did and how you did it in, arranged in chronological order)
6. Results (presentation of your findings)
7. Discussion (reiterates what you found out and how you found it, describes the significance of your work, or places research could go in the future, acknowledges weaknesses of your study, compares your results to other studies, accounts for discrepancies, etc.)

The three organizational structures suggested above can often be adapted to fit other modes of writing. For example, a good argumentative essay could serve as the basis for a sermon. A good literature review could be folded into a dissertation. Finally, a good lab report can be shifted to describe any sort of analysis or experiment designed to produce new data.

EXPLANATION 2:
Some Hints for Organizing Your Work

Every writer needs to find his or her own way to organize sources, research, findings, and other data in order to present them most effectively. However, some ideas may help you:

1. Keep your notes on cards or in a bulleted list. When you want to present your work, put the cards or bullet points in order, and then write your paper, moving from the first through the last, focusing always on the sorts of claims that might emerge from your evidence. In this way, sources form the backbone of your paper.
2. Write an outline of your major points. Instead of arranging your sources in order, arrange your arguments in order (perhaps following the rules of classical rhetoric above). Then choose pieces of evidence to back up each point you want to make.
3. Write like a journalist. Especially when you are reporting objective findings, you may want to consider following the "who, what, where, when, why, and how" method. Make sure you answer all the basic questions above, and do so in an order that makes logical sense.
4. Move from simple to complex. Begin with a simple example, and then complicate your examples as the paper moves on.
5. Derive a principle from complex examples. Summarize a series of confusing examples, and then find what they all have in common.
6. Write a topic-sentence outline. If you write an outline of all your main points, then those points can be converted into topic sentences for important paragraphs within your paper.

EXPLANATION 3:

Some Rules to Follow

You should always follow these rules when you think about organizing your papers:

1. Get to your main point as quickly as possible.
2. All claims must have evidence.
3. All evidence should relate to a claim.
4. If evidence does *not* back up a claim, you need to explain why and/or otherwise account for it.
5. You must provide enough background information to set up your question, but don't provide so much that your reader loses *your* point.

Note: You must be able to step back enough to see the significance of what you are doing within the larger scholarly community. If you cannot express this, your organizational structure will suffer because you will not foreground the right points.

Practice 7.3

Find a scholarly article in your field from a different publication than you have looked at previously. Working paragraph by paragraph (and sentence by sentence if necessary), write an outline of the article.

Transitions

As the section above suggests, every paragraph in your paper should have a purpose. That purpose should be easily detectable from the topic sentences in each paragraph. Moving from one paragraph to another—or from one big idea to another—often causes writers problems. To correct that problem, you need to be very aware of the sorts of transitions you use and choose them wisely.

Remember three rules:

1. The bigger the shift, the stronger the transition. If you are writing a short argumentative piece with two main points, you can probably move from point #1 to point #2 simply by saying "In addition" or something similar. If you are changing from one major point to another, though, you may need a one- or two-sentence transition.

2. Do not include transitions just because you can. A high level of self-awareness is necessary when choosing transitions. You need to think about what you know, what your reader knows, and how much you need to tell your reader to help him understand your topic as you do. If you do not need a transition between ideas, leave it out. If you do, put it there.
3. If you cannot write an adequate transition, your paper needs to be restructured. Transitions are a great litmus test for organizational and structural problems. If you find that it takes more than a paragraph to transition between major ideas, then your paper is likely out of order. Remember that structure—like sentences, grammar, and major ideas—is fluid over the course of composition. You may need to rearrange to make your points most clearly.

EXPLANATION:

Five Types of Transitions

1. **Linguistic Tags:** These are only one word (or at most a phrase) long. They are used when simple relationships exist between ideas. Examples include (but are not limited to) the following:
    a. Lists/sequence: first, next, then, finally, furthermore
    b. Comparison: also, in the same way as, just as
    c. Contradiction: however, on the other hand, despite
    d. Complication: granted, besides
    e. **Example:** for example, for instance
    f. Summary: in conclusion, all in all, in sum
2. **Repetition:** These transitions involve repeating key terms, phrases, and words in a way that emphasizes the relationship between key parts of your essay. It is a stronger transition than those listed above and assumes less understanding on the part of the reader.
    a. For instance, if in your thesis you mention the Oedipal Complex, you will want to cite the term Oedipal Complex in many topic sentences throughout your paper. This lends coherence to your paper and shows the movement of your thought in a very obvious way.
3. **Parallelism:** Using word groups such as “Just as...” or “In the same way that...” establishes relationships of equality between items. So also can you write sentences that establish parallel relations.
    a. For instance, a paper with a thesis like this may set the course of the whole paper: “The articles surveyed here demonstrate three trends in literary scholarship: increased attention to historical data, decreased use of literary theory, and a renewed interest in close reading.” The parallel phrases that come after the colon set your structure and thus should appear later on in your topic sentences.

4. **Cross-Referencing:** Here, you use pronouns such as "this" to refer to everything (or many things) you have discussed previously. This is a strong transition that often occurs during major shifts in thought or strategy: when you move from a summary to a response, for example, you may want to use a cross-reference.
    a. If you spend the first two paragraphs of a literature review setting up a problem that all the articles you survey discuss—finding space for low-income housing developments in suburbs, for instance—when you begin a new section, you may use "This problem..." or "This complex of issues..." or "This logistical challenge..." to refer to everything you have discussed before.
5. **Revisiting:** Sometimes you will need to make a *very* strong transition between sections of your paper. In this case, you may want to review what you have said so far (without going on too long) in order to establish the way in which your argument has been moving. This is a *very* strong transition and should only be used in cases where your reader may be lost in your line of reasoning without a review of your major points.

Practice 7.4

Look again at the article you just outlined. Mark all the transitions in the article, and then try to decide which sort of transition each is.

Logical Fallacies

As Christians, we must make it our responsibility to produce research, writing, and argumentation that fit the highest ethical standards. We will discuss research ethics more when we talk about documentation. However, there are also ethical and unethical ways to write a paper.

The following is a list of things that you should *not* do when you are writing. We call these "logical fallacies" because they are argumentative moves that are either unfair or deceptive. Be careful that you don't do these accidentally!

Begging the Question or **Circular Reasoning:** Supporting a claim with a claim.

- Abortion is murder because it involves killing a human being.
- Liberty University is the world's most exciting university because so many amazing events happen there.

Asking an Unfair Question: Making your opponent look bad by asking him a slanted question.

- Have you stopped beating your wife yet?
- Mr. Bush, are you ready to stop the blood-bath in Iraq?

False Either-Or: Setting up alternatives and then forcing your reader to choose between them (and suppressing other options).

- Either we embrace stem cell research now, or science will forever suffer.
- Either we must choose to read Genesis literally, or we must throw out the authority of Scripture altogether.

Slippery Definitions: Defining a term in more than one way over the course of your analysis or associating it with more than one set of connotations. In some cases, you can do this if you point out what you're doing; never do it without alerting your reader to the fact, however.

- Defining "angel" in theological terms and then applying the term to humans who do kind deeds.
- Using definitions of a key term from two sources or schools of thought on the topic without distinguishing between them. For instance, in the field of film studies, the term "cinematic gaze" has been defined given various connotations, ranging from a gender stereotyping to voyeurism to capitalism.

Post Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc ("After this, therefore because of this"): Suggesting that because a happens after b, then b must have caused a.

- The average number of cars per family has risen from 1.1 to 3.2 since 1960. Similarly, the level of the Pacific Ocean has risen a total of 2.1 inches since 1780.
- John began drafting his paper three weeks in advance; as a consequence, he wrote a disorganized paper.

Slippery Slope: Suggesting a chain of causes or effects that extends beyond provable causal relations.

- If teen girls are given this new vaccine, they will not contract the virus that causes cervical cancer. As a result, they will have greater self-esteem, their quality of life will improve, and they will be more productive citizens.
- Should the Section 8 housing development be built off Timberlake Road, traffic will increase at a few key intersections. Schools will also be overloaded, which will cause the quality of education to drop and ultimately lessen the number of students who succeed in college.

Hasty Generalization: Deriving a too-broad claim from limited data.

- Students in my freshman composition class do not know much about basic grammar; high school teachers are not preparing them for college.
- Women from the Middle East tend to be highly subordinate to their husbands; when they come to the U.S., these women always find adjustment difficult.

False Analogy: Saying that something is like something else when that is not actually the case.

- The girls who were at the slumber party said they had a bad time because everyone was fighting with each other; it was like Shiloh.
- The Internet is a garbage dump: there may be good stuff in there, but most of it is trash.

Non sequitur ("Does not follow"): Implying that a logical, sequential relationship exists between two things, points in an argument, etc. A non sequitur means your argument is breaking down logically.

- Our daughter has a teenager babysitting her tonight; we'd better call at least six times to make sure she is okay.
- My teaching load is very heavy, and I don't have time for extra reading; doing my devotions is not an option right now.

Appeal to the People: Using buzz words and commonly understood symbols to make your argument for you. Note: Every culture has its own buzz words.

- I don't care to think too much about why I believe as I do: it's not a religion; it's a relationship.
- Human rights are an irrelevant category for this analysis; what we're talking about is freedom.

Appeal to Ignorance: Presenting evidence the audience can't see for itself

- "Many studies have shown that..." with missing or improper citation of the studies.

Appeal to Irrationality: Use of argumentative tactics such as the following: (1) "Everyone does it"/Bandwagon; (2) "We've always done it this way"

- "Mom, I know the legal drinking age is 21, but I'm in a fraternity!"
- "I would prefer that you not e-mail me if you have questions. Please write me a letter instead: paper and pens have worked well since the Middle Ages, and they still function properly."

Provincialism: Suggesting the known is better than or preferable to the unknown.

- It is a bad idea to move the Sunday morning service to 10:30; we've never done it that way before, and we might lose some people.
- I want to write my term paper on *Hamlet*; I read it in high school, and I know I like it.

Red Herring: Using a distracting detail to throw a reader off the course.

- I hope that Senator Clinton's plans for what she would do as president are more developed than her health care initiative; I also hope what happened to Vince Foster doesn't happen to me.
- According to Scripture—KJV, not NIV, which is a bad version—"God so loved the world that He gave his only begotten son."

Appeal to False Authority: Using a non-authority or non-expert as a scholarly source or using an expert in an inappropriate way.

- This essay explores the way in which Hamlet's desire for a father informs the way he relates to his mother. Following Rev. Stephen Willis, I will argue that Hamlet's family problems derive from the way he relates to his heavenly Father.
- **Example:** Using Freud in a modern psychological study (Freud is fine, but he's no longer the pinnacle of scientific thought).

Ad Hominem ("To the man"): Attacking the person you're arguing against rather than his or her position.

- This author, who seems to be a liberal, argues against the concept of liberal arts as we understand it at Liberty University.

Straw Man: Setting up an inaccurate version of your opponent's argument and attacking it (instead of attacking your real enemy).

- **Example #1:** Inaccurately summarizing your opponent's argument
- **Example #2:** Leaving out or misinterpreting important data your opponent uses

Practice 7.5

FINDING LOGICAL FALLACIES

Identify whether each of these statements is valid or a fallacy. If the statement is a fallacy, then identify which fallacy the statement commits. In any case, explain your answer.

1. The mayor wants to put up a plaque of the Ten Commandments at the local courthouse. We can't do that because mixing religion and government is un-American.
2. While Bin Laden wasn't a major terrorist threat under the Reagan administration, under the Clinton administration he became our nation's greatest enemy. This evidence clearly shows that President Clinton's weak foreign policy allowed terrorism to blossom.
3. In 2000, the Supreme Court was forced to choose between democracy and its own conservative political interests. When the Supreme Court picked George Bush although the people had chosen Al Gore, the Court chose against democracy.
4. Either the recent tuition hike at LU was financially necessary, or it wasn't—there's no in between.
5. Texas Tech made the Sweet Sixteen a few years ago, while IU got knocked out early in the "Not Invited Tournament." This shows that the older and more experienced Bobby Knight is a more effective coach than the relatively youthful Mike Davis.
6. Consumer spending plunged as the nation became anxious after September 11th, triggering the recession that followed shortly thereafter.
7. If you live in Indiana, you were probably born there.
8. George Bush supports oil drilling in Alaska only because his family is in the oil industry.
9. If we ban partial-birth abortion, we will erode a woman's right to choose and will end up back in the days of back-alley abortions.
10. Like Benedict Arnold, those who protest the war on terrorism are treasonously supporting another country's interests instead of our own in time of war.
11. Today a poll showed that 63% of Americans oppose partial birth abortion, revealing, to the surprise of many on Capitol Hill, that the majority of Americans are pro-life.
12. We had just cause for war with Iraq. Sources whose identity we cannot disclose for security reasons say that Hussein was connected to the 9-11 attacks.
13. Stephen King is a rotten novelist—his novels are always long, published quickly on the heels of each other, and similar in theme and characters.
14. Since the Bush regime was elected with a minority of the popular vote, it is no more democratic than the Hussein regime.
15. President Bush thinks that now that Iraq has had democratic elections, it will soon become a peaceful, flourishing democracy with a vibrant and diversified economy.

Practice 7.6

WORKING TOWARD A LITERATURE REVIEW

You have already written a summary and a compare/contrast of two articles in your field. At this point, your assignment is to start building a literature review. To that end, find two more articles on a topic similar to those you found for the assignments in Chapter III. (If you cannot find two more articles, you may need to broaden your field of interest.)

1. Write short summaries of each of these two articles.
2. Draft a list of trends (commonalities) you notice in the articles.
3. Draft a list of differences you notice. Where do they come from?
4. Draft a list of weaknesses you notice in any and all of the articles.
5. Draft a list of places further research in this area could go. If you were doing a study in this area, what would you undertake?

What Is Critical Thinking?[2]

Thinking or thought refers to the process of considering an issue in the mind, whereas logic is the science of thinking. Although two people may think about the same subject, their conclusions may differ, even if both people are using their logical skills to arrive at them. The ability to think logically about a subject is a first step toward **critical thinking**. In its fullest form, critical thinking involves putting into practice what we have already learned about logic in order to create new and original information, conclusions, and ideas.

Critical thinking also involves your emotions and values. In other words, there is an "affective" component to critical thinking. There are two sides of thinking—the objective and subjective sides, the head and the heart. You need to understand what emotional reactions and responses you have about the subject matter. Your emotions proceed from your beliefs, yielding a valuable insight into what you most deeply believe about a subject.

Professors read papers and essay questions looking for critical thinking on the part of the student. One means by which professors judge a student's critical thinking is by the focus of the paper. In other words, you must be intentional in your writing. For example, when you are writing a paper, you need to ask yourself many questions in order to accomplish the assignment. What information is most important to include in

[2] This section, as well as the sections on inductive reasoning and Bloom's taxonomy, includes portions adapted from an unpublished piece written by Dr. John Thomas, LU Department of Counseling. We are grateful for his assistance.

the paper? What can be left out without impacting the points you are trying to make? What thoughts do you have about the subject matter? How did you arrive at your opinions? What assumptions are you making? How can you establish your argument in order to help others think about the subject matter differently?

Critical thinking involves several levels and types of understanding, any or all of which you should use strategically to produce an original argument, analysis, or interpretation.

Another way of putting this relies on terms we have seen in the section above: critical thinking involves producing a convincing *main claim*—or a thesis—and a structure of proof, reasoning, and analysis to back it up. Your thesis should say something about what you believe in a way that your audience will find convincing.

Thesis Statements

WHAT IS A THESIS?

All papers should have a **thesis statement**. Depending on the type of paper you are writing, the thesis may be more or less argumentative, more or less personal, and more or less risky. However, all papers should have a unified point or main idea that they want to discuss in a fresh, insightful way.

In most American university classrooms, instructors will look right away for a statement of the paper's main point. The strength of your thesis will in many ways determine the strength of your paper, so learning to write a good thesis is very important if you want to succeed as a scholar. The following list provides some characteristics of good thesis statements.

Good thesis statements:

- *Are clear and concise*
  They say what they mean in a way that readers can understand. They do it as quickly as possible, and they do it forcefully.
- *Set the course of your paper*
  A good thesis will launch the rest of the paper. It is the major claim that the rest of your paper will prove, discuss, or amplify. If your thesis is even slightly off topic, your paper will suffer.
- *Appear at the beginning or the end of your introduction*
  Usually the best place for the thesis is at the end of your introductory paragraph (in short papers) or at the end of your introductory section (in longer papers). These are two of the most important places in your paper. Thus, it makes sense to put a thesis there.

- *Must be proven (i.e., are claims—not facts or evidence)*
  Thesis statements should be slightly risky—or at least should require more discussion to be fully convincing. Otherwise there is no point in writing your paper!
- *Are echoed and referred to throughout your paper*
  Your topic sentences throughout the paper should refer back to, further explain, and elucidate your thesis statement.
- *Are the product of much drafting and much analysis*
  You will likely not write a good thesis statement in your first or even second draft of a paper. Often you will find that you will not know exactly how or what you want to argue until you have almost completed your analysis. That's okay! Revise your thesis as you go, and your paper will show the benefits of your recursive thinking.

The following paragraph is drawn from the introduction to an article written by an LU Faculty member. The thesis is in **bold**.

> Charlotte Brontë's *Villette* (1853) is not a conversion novel—or at least it is not one in the usual sense. It does not, as typical novels of conversion do, work to bring about the movement of the solitary, prickly heroine Lucy Snowe from a flawed paradigm into a correct one—from say, atheism to Christianity, from rags to riches, or from solitude to sociability. It does not, like the more typical Victorian conversion novel *Dombey and Son*, teach the protagonist how much more valuable hearth, home, and domestic feeling are than money. *Villette* does not move Lucy from one religious creed to another, à la Froude's *Nemesis of Faith* or Gaskell's *Mary Barton*. It does not even suggest that there is anything wrong with Lucy Snowe that the narrative can set about to fix. Although sometimes high-strung, uncontrolled, and painfully self-sympathetic, Lucy is not a sinner in need of salvation. Lucy does indeed develop and mature over the course of the narrative, and she does come to have a more coherent identity, but all of this occurs without any fundamental shift in her creed. **Yet *Villette*—if not Lucy Snowe—is itself a convert, for, as Brontë casts off the conventions of both realism and the Gothic in favor of a more typological understanding of the worlds of Lucy Snowe and England in the 1840s, she places a radical generic revision at its core.**

Note the following about this thesis:

- It does not contain any proof. It is a strongly argumentative claim.
- It sets the course of the essay, which will discuss realism, the Gothic, typology, and English culture of the 1840s.
- It is a fairly lengthy sentence, but it does not waste any words.
- It appears in a prominent location.

Practice 7.7

Write a sentence or two about each of the following thesis statements. If they are weak, explain why. If they are good, explain why as well.

Note: These statements come from many places on the political, religious, and ethical spectrum. Your job is not to critique the views expressed in these statements, but to critique their adequacy as thesis statements. Remember, just as your beliefs might offend someone from a different religious background, so also might someone else's do the same to you. On the other hand, you may agree with many of these statements but find them to be poor as thesis statements. Focus on the quality of the statement as a statement—not on the quality of the opinion expressed.

1. It is clear that abortion ends a life.
2. Abortion is murder.
3. Abortion is the most basic of rights available to women.
4. Opponents and proponents of abortion have never had a chance to vote on its legality.
5. Abortion is legal in the U.S. today less because we believe in a woman's right to end a pregnancy than because we have an impoverished understanding of personhood.
6. I believe that we need to educate ourselves better about genetically modified foods.
7. Some genetically modified foods are harmful; others are not.
8. Like it or not, our food is genetically modified, so we'd better just live with it.
9. This paper presents the results of my study of electronic surveillance in the workplace.
10. The changes in the LU dress code have had overwhelmingly positive effects: students are more comfortable in class, parents find it more affordable to clothe their children for college, and LU students appear more friendly and accessible when they enter the Lynchburg community.

WHERE DO THESIS STATEMENTS COME FROM?

Effective thesis statements are the product of good critical thinking. Rarely do they emerge fully formed in an early draft of a paper. Rather, they are the product of much research, reasoning, and revision. Nevertheless, there are some steps you can take to make the process of writing a thesis statement easier.

Step One: Reading

Read your assignment over and over again until you have a good sense of its goals and purposes. If you cannot tell these, talk to your instructor and find out what he or she hopes you'll accomplish as you write this paper.

Once you know what sort of assignment you are doing, you will know the sort of thesis you should have. If your assignment is to write a summary, for instance, it makes sense for your thesis to look something like this: "In X article, Y author argues that..." By contrast, if you are writing up your findings after you've completed a study, your thesis should explain what the main thing was that you found, learned, or demonstrated.

If you need examples of similar assignments, ask your professor. He or she should be able to provide you with good versions of the assignment you are doing.

Step Two: Research

In the sciences and social sciences, research tends to be of two types: qualitative and quantitative. In other fields such as English or history, however, it is more meaningful to discuss research in terms of source materials—primary versus secondary sources, archival sources, or theoretical sources. You may not know what sort of research you should do when you start an assignment, but you should at least know what sorts of issues and questions you are interested in discussing. Then, as you begin investigating your topic, your research methodology should begin to emerge on its own.

We will discuss more about research strategies in the next unit. For now, remember the following:

1. Formulate a research question—a topic you want to know more about and that is of an appropriate size for the assignment.
2. Run your research question past your professor and ask for feedback.
3. Ask your professor for good sources on the topic. Get those sources, and then read all relevant material that those sources cite.
4. Use LU's databases and library resources to produce other information you might find helpful.
5. Meet with a research librarian for further research assistance.
6. Every time you find something useful, *write it down, along with necessary information to cite the source later on!*

Step Three: Reasoning

Once you have completed your research, read through everything you have and look for patterns and important points you absolutely must include. Write these down. Then the thinking and reasoning process begins. Keeping in mind the guidelines of your assignment, work to connect the information you have to your own ideas in ways that make logical sense and that demonstrate your mastery of the material you discuss.

To arrange your thoughts, it may be helpful to reflect on the discussions of types of reason below.

Understanding Deductive and Inductive Reasoning

DEDUCTIVE REASONING

Deductive reasoning describes a process in which general laws or rules are applied to particular situations. It is simply the process of reasoning particular conclusions from general principles that are assumed to be true. This sort of reasoning is better suited to theoretical arguments.

For example, Thomas Carlyle operates off what is known as the Great Man Theory of History—the idea that important people (not events, economics, or other impersonal phenomena) move history forward. Thus, in his book *On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History*, he chooses particular examples to prove his main point: that men make history. The claim-outline method described above in the section on organization involves this sort of reasoning.

INDUCTIVE REASONING

By contrast, **inductive reasoning** is arriving at general principles from particular conclusions; it involves moving from the particular to the general, the small and knowable to the larger and more abstract. This sort of reasoning is best suited to observational or experiential studies. The notecard method described above relies on inductive reasoning.

For example, say you have a collection of surveys. Looking at the patterns in the participants' responses, you will draw conclusions, point out trends, and suggest patterns that may help us to make sense of the data. Your thesis statement will point out what trends you see in the data you present.

SUMMARY

These types of reasoning are not contradictory; rather, they simply structure the way you express an argument. Any argument can be expressed either inductively or deductively; you need to decide which you want to do, though, and do it consistently.

Agreeing, Disagreeing, and Other Ways to Respond

You may be able to formulate your own thesis by doing a series of exercises that help you to respond more critically to your source materials. For every outside source that you encounter, ask yourself this question: "Do I agree, disagree, or both?" Once you have figured that out, then spend some time thinking about how and why you react

as you do. A simple “yes” or “no” in response to your sources isn’t critical thinking. Critical thinking involves agreeing or disagreeing for your own reasons.

WAYS TO AGREE

1. Point out that you agree but that your reasons are different.
2. Add information to your source’s argument.
3. Apply your source in a different context.
4. Point out that your source is important for a new and interesting reason.

WAYS TO DISAGREE

1. Point out that your source argues unfairly (perhaps find a logical fallacy) in his/her argument.
2. Point out that your source leaves out or overlooks other relevant information.
3. Point out that your source contradicts himself or herself.
4. Point out that your source has the wrong focus, which skews his/her argument.

WAYS TO DO BOTH

1. Agree with some but not all of the argument.
2. Agree with some data but don’t accept the overall conclusion.
3. Agree with the conclusion but not the method of getting there.
4. Agree with the source but moderate your agreement with contradictory evidence from other sources.

Once you have figured out your opinions about your various sources, you should be able to scan over your notes and see some patterns emerging. Based on these patterns, you should be able to set a course for your essay. For instance, if you agree with half your sources and disagree with half and in most cases your reasons have to do with ideological assumptions, then perhaps a thesis dealing with those ideological assumptions would be in order.

Bloom’s Taxonomy and Critical Thinking

In 1956, Benjamin Bloom led a group of educational psychologists in creating a taxonomy for categorizing the types of learning that occur in educational settings. Through his research, Bloom found that over 95% of test questions required students to simply recall information, considered the lowest level of learning. The result of their work was a learning taxonomy involving six levels of learning, beginning with recall through increasingly more complex and abstract cognitive levels until the student arrived at the ability to evaluate. Bloom’s six levels are identified below from the lowest level of learning to the highest mental level. Each level includes examples of question “leads” to help you understand how the wording of a question is directed toward a particular learning level:

- **Level 1 = Knowledge:** arrange, tell, identify, show, define, duplicate, tabulate, label, list, memorize, name, order, quote, recognize, relate, recall, remember, repeat, reproduce, state, who, what, when, where, and why. The lowest level of learning involves remembering previously learned material. Knowledge demonstrates the competence of certain major ideas, dates, events, places, or information.
- **Level 2 = Comprehension:** classify, describe, discuss, explain, express, identify, indicate, locate, associate, distinguish, estimate, recognize, report, restate, review, select, translate, summarize, interpret, predict. Comprehension demonstrates the understanding of information, the ability to grasp meaning. It involves translating knowledge into a new context.
- **Level 3 = Application:** apply, choose, demonstrate, dramatize, employ, illustrate, interpret, operate, practice, schedule, sketch, solve, use, modify, relate, write, discover, and experiment. Application involves the use of information or principles in new situations. It involves solving problems. Application asks such questions as: "How is...an example of...?" "How is...related to...?" "Why is...significant?"
- **Level 4 = Analysis:** analyze, apprise, calculate, categorize, classify, compare, connect, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, divide, examine, experiment, explain, inter, question, and separate. Analysis requires the ability to see patterns, organize parts, recognize hidden meanings, and identify components. Analysis involves such questions as: "What are the parts or features of...?" "Classify...according to..." "Outline/diagram..." "How does...compare/contrast with...?" "What evidence can you list for...?"
- **Level 5 = Synthesis:** arrange, assemble, combine, collect, compose, construct, create, design, develop, formulate, generalize, integrate, invent, manage, organize, plan, prepare, propose, rearrange, set up, what if, and write. Synthesis requires the ability to use old ideas to create new ones, generalize from given facts, relate knowledge from several different areas. Synthesis asks such questions as: "What would you predict/infer from...?" "What ideas can you add to...?" "How would you create/design a new...?" "What might happen if you combined...?" "What solutions would you suggest for...?"
- **Level 6 = Evaluation:** appraise, argue, assess, attach, choose, compare, conclude, convince, decide, defend, discriminate, estimate, evaluate, judge, predict, rate, recommend, select, support, and value. Evaluation requires the ability to compare and discriminate between ideas, to assess the value of theories, to make choices based upon reasoned argument, to verify the value of evidence, and to recognize subjectivity. Evaluation asks such questions as: "Do you agree...?" "What criteria would you use to assess...?" "What do you think about...?" "How would you decide about...?"

Essays you write should fit the level of work the assignment requires. If your Seminary professor asks you to write a summary, you should demonstrate that you can think on levels 1 and 2. If the same professor asks you to write a book review, however, you will need to demonstrate many different sorts of thinking skills, up to and including level 6. You know you are demonstrating thinking on an appropriate level by honestly asking yourself what the purpose of your essay is. If you were to write a book review and you did not appraise, argue, assess, and so forth, your paper does not meet assignment guidelines.

The essays prompts below correspond to each of the following levels of thinking:

Level 1: Write one paragraph in which you identify the major events of September 11, 2001.

Level 2: Write one page in which you summarize Psalm 23's main ideas.

Level 3: Many scientists have noted that teenage and pre-teen girls often face extreme pressure to develop adult body images. Choosing an example from popular culture, demonstrate the truthfulness of this claim.

Level 4: Choosing two examples from culture, one from the present day and one from the 1980s, compare the representations of teen girls in the two eras.

Level 5: Given that encouraging teen girls to develop adult body images too early can be quite harmful, propose changes in a particular ad campaign that would put forward a healthier body image for teen girls.

Level 6: After viewing an ad campaign for Bratz dolls, judge whether these provide helpful or harmful images for young girls and explain why you arrived at this conclusion.

What Characterizes Critical Thinking?

Critical thinking is not rocket science. But it can be helped or hindered by the way in which you cultivate your own academic and personal traits.

Good traits to cultivate:

1. **Knowledge:** the more you know, the more material you have to draw from.
2. **Intellectual Humility or Open-mindedness:** consider all possibilities; concern yourself with finding truth rather than supporting your position.
3. **Intellectual Fairness:** treat your sources with respect; evaluate data honestly; do not skew or suppress data to back up your points
4. **Curiosity:** the more you want to find out, the more willing you'll be to research it thoroughly
5. **Active Listening to Others:** hearing others' perspectives in order to improve your research and writing may be a humbling experience, but it will ultimately

make you a more successful writer.

6. **Christian Ethics:** remember that in all cases you want to work with—not against—the kingdom of God. This means telling the truth, but it also means doing it in love. If your work gives offense, that is fine. But be sure it is the Gospel—and not your nasty personality, your shoddy research, or your unfair argumentative style—that raises eyebrows.

Practice 7.8

LITERATURE REVIEW

The goal of a good literature review is to summarize relevant articles and studies on a topic in a way that sets up further research. These are the primary goals of a literature review:

- Resolve conflicts amongst seemingly contradictory previous studies.
- Identify areas of prior scholarship to prevent duplication of effort.
- Point the way forward for further research.
- Place one's original work (in the case of theses or dissertations) in the context of existing literature.

See http://library.ucsc.edu/ref/howto/literaturereview.html for further discussion. This implies that a literature review should contain the following parts:

1. An introduction with (1) a definition of your field of study or topic, and (2) a thesis relating to the literature reviewed.
2. Comparisons of the works studied (body).
3. Critiques of the articles if relevant (body).
4. Statements of possibilities for future research (conclusion).

Write a literature review using the articles you found for your previous assignments. This literature review should serve as background research for a paper you will write before this class is over, so spend much of your time looking for spaces where you could fit further research.

CHAPTER 8

WRITING IN YOUR DISCIPLINE

Ethos and Pathos

In the last chapter, we discussed the *logos*—the message that you want to deliver—and learned some strategies for packaging your ideas in an organized, clear, and thoughtful fashion. It is important in any field of study to know what you want to say and to say it skillfully. However, each field of study has its own code about how a professional presents himself or herself in writing. This unit deals with discipline-specific writing and researching skills that can add to your credibility as a scholar and professional in your field.

In addition to the term *logos*, we need to add two more Greek terms to our vocabulary: *ethos* and *pathos*. ***Ethos*** refers to the way you come across—what your audience thinks about you when they read your work. ***Pathos***, which is intimately related to both *ethos* and *logos*, refers to the effect your work has on your audience: it is their intellectual and emotional response to what you write. You can take steps to control both *ethos* and *pathos* when you write. This chapter deals with the relationships you establish with your audience and offers a series of exercises that should help you to increase your professional credentials and to gain the sympathy of your readers.

Characteristics of Good Writing

All academic papers should contain the following parts. If you are missing any of them, your message will be harmed, and your paper will be weakened.

1. A clearly defined topic that is the right size for the project
2. A strong, clear thesis
3. An obvious organizational structure
4. Appropriate evidence for every claim
5. Clear, methodical critical thinking

This chapter will discuss the following parts of a paper that should also be present (although various disciplines define these parts differently):

6. Appropriate vocabulary, terminology, and word choice
7. Properly documented research
8. Evidence of your topic's relevance to your field of study

Discipline-Specific Language

Each discipline has its own set of technical vocabulary and specialized language that it uses to discuss its concepts with specificity and precision. The way you use this specialized language marks you: if you know how to use it, you are considered a member of the scholarly community; if you don't, you will have to work much harder to prove your credentials.

During your time in graduate school, you will have to acquire the language that is specific to your profession. For instance, if you are getting an MA in English, you will need to know terms such as the following: deconstruction, metonymy, trochee, and bricoleur. Moreover, you can assume that your audience knows these terms as well. Using terms like these properly grants you membership to a club: your profession of choice.

Beyond this, however, each discipline permits certain sorts of writing moves and discourages others. For instance, the use of first person pronouns may or may not be appropriate for your discipline and for the assignment you are completing. Passive voice may be encouraged or discouraged depending on your field of study. Finally, the way you render items such as numbers, abbreviations, and technical names varies depending on the sort of writing you intend to do.

Generally you will acquire your knowledge of discipline-specific language as you go through your program of study. However, there are a few rules to keep in mind that will help you to judge rightly how and when to use technical vocabulary, discipline-specific styles, and so forth:

1. **Think of your audience.** If you are writing about psychology for psychologists, then you can assume they have enough knowledge of your field to understand your use of vocabulary. On the other hand, if you are writing for a large audience, make sure you define all your key terms. For instance, a minister—even if he has a theology degree—should avoid using theological vocabulary in a sermon he preaches to his congregation unless he in tends to define his key terms first. On the other hand, if this minister writes a paper in a theology class, he can feel free to use as much technical vocabulary as he needs to make his point clear.
2. **Look at journals.** If you are unsure about how to handle a key term, look at how recently written professional articles use the term. You can find these through LU's databases or through publications in your field of study.

3. **Ask your professors.** If you do not know how to use a term, whether to use first person or third, or whether to write numbers out or use numerals, ask your professors. They are good sources on information such as this.
4. **Know when to define your terms.** If a term can be defined in more than one way within your field of study, make sure you cite another scholar or thinker who understands the term in the same way you do. For instance, if you are studying theology, you cannot simply use "grace" as a broad term and assume your audience knows what you mean; you must make sure to specify exactly how the term should be read.
5. **Don't use jargon just because you can.** All writing—even technical writing within a discipline such as engineering—benefits from its author having done his or her very best to make sure the work is clear, understandable, and accessible. If you need to use a technical term to make yourself clear, do so. If you don't need it, though, just say what you mean in the clearest way possible. Your readers will thank you.

Practice 8.1

Look at the articles in your literature review one more time. Then do the following:

1. Make a list of all technical terms you find, and then write a brief definition for each.
2. Mark which of these technical terms the authors you review define, either by offering an explicit definition or by citing another scholar's work on the topic.
3. Then note the following:
    a. Do your articles use first-person pronouns?
    b. Do they use passive voice, active voice, or both?
4. Write one paragraph in response to the following: Did you find these articles accessible, clear, and easy to understand? Why or why not?

Research Resources

EXPLANATION

Any field of study has multiple sources of good information, and many of them are available through the LU library. This section provides a brief introduction to some of LU's best library resources.

Books or Stand-Alone Works (sound recordings, movies, etc.): There are several ways to find books or other non-periodical sources at LU.

- *Books LU owns:* Go to http://www.liberty.edu/library. Type the title, author, or keyword in the LUCAS search bar.

- *Books LU does NOT own (but that you already know about):* Using Amazon, bn.com, or information from a bibliography, get the book's name, author's name, city of publication, press, edition, and year. Then from the page you were just on, click the Interlibrary Loan link and fill out the form. Your book will arrive shortly.
- *Books LU does NOT own (and that you don't yet know about):* Worldcat is your best source for books outside of LU's search parameters. If you want to learn every thing you can about a subject, or if you need older or lesser known sources (for a dissertation, for instance), you should do a Worldcat source. To do this, go to the main library page. Click the "Library Research Portal" link and then the "Books" tab. A link for Worldcat will appear on the left side of the screen.
- *Ebooks:* LU has an extensive collection of electronic books. You can access these from the "Books" tab. Netlibrary is the most basic source for ebooks; however, LU has other collections as well that you may or may not want to explore depending on your research interests.

Articles: LU's collection of periodical materials is much more extensive than its collection of books, so you can hope to do quite well with your research in this area. To access LU's periodicals, go to the main library page. Then click "Library Research Portal" and then the "Journals" tab.

- *Databases in Your Field:*
    - In the pull-down menu on the left side, you will see a variety of subject fields represented. If you select your area of interest, a list of databases that may be useful to you will appear. Most of your research will be done using these databases.
    - In many databases, you can limit your results to full-text. You should do this if your deadline is quickly approaching, since it means you will not be able to get the articles in time to use them in your research. However, if you research early, do NOT click this box. If you find an article that you would like to read but that LU does not have, you can file an Interlibrary Loan form for a journal article (just as you can for a book). The article will arrive as a link or in PDF form by e-mail within a few weeks (and often much more quickly).
    - Before you decide that LU does not possess a journal, make sure to check LU's Journal Finder. There is a link to Journal Finder on the "Journals" tab (see "Find Scholarly Journals"). If LU owns a journal in print form, this will let you know.
- *General Databases:*
    - For very general research, databases such as Academic Search Premier and LexisNexis can be of help to you. They can also be helpful when you are looking for a topic: since they are not field-specific, some times the information in them will be more accessible (and hence easier to wade through). These are all directly linked from the "Journals" tab.

Web Resources: Be very wary of information you find on the Internet. In fact, it is best to use the library's print and database sources before you begin running web searches (some faculty actually ban web searching altogether). Not only is there a vast amount of unreliable information on the Internet, but the information there tends to be of lower scholarly quality than work produced in scholarly journals. However, there is good information on the Internet. Many journals are online, and using them for your research is wise. In addition, LU has compiled a list of helpful online resources that can be accessed through the "Web" tab on the "Library Research Portal" link.

Practice 8.2

Using the topic you used for your literature review, go to the list of databases in your subject area. Run a search on your topic in each of the databases and chart how many and what type of results you get with each database.

If there are any articles here that you should have read earlier, it's not too late to do so! You may need them for your research paper.

Citation

The most common citation styles used in the academic disciplines are MLA, APA, and Turabian (modified Chicago). Some fields (such as law and scientific fields) may use other citation formats. Your professors will be able to tell you what sort of citation is preferable in your field of study. It is possible you will eventually need to know more than one citation format. For instance, if you are getting an MA in English, you will most likely learn MLA formatting, but if you want to publish in certain journals, you should also learn Chicago.

The best way to learn to do citation is to practice. In this section, you will make a brief citation reference sheet for yourself, which you will use as you write your final paper. The sheet you make here will not be exhaustive. Rather, it is designed as a quick reference guide

Practice 8.3

Using books or articles you find at LU (or sources you have in your possession), write a citation in an appropriate format (MLA if you're in English; APA if you're in counseling, etc.) for each of the following types of references.

- A book written by a single author
- An article in an edited book
- An article in a print-format journal
- An article downloaded from LU's databases
- A web page
- An electronic book
- A reference work (dictionary, concordance, etc.)
- A book with multiple editions
- A common genre of writing in your discipline (e.g., a book review in English or History, a case study in counseling, a scientific study in nursing, a legal brief, etc.)

Practice 8.4

Find out what your field of study's formatting guidelines want you to do with each of the following (or if they are even necessary). Note your answer briefly.

- Title pages
- Abstracts
- Tables of contents
- Appendices
- Page numbers
- In-text citations or footnotes
- Works cited or bibliography
- Long quotations
- Margins, font, and spacing

Find Out What's Interesting

With any sort of academic research, you need to be aware of trends and patterns in your field of study. You do not necessarily need to write articles and studies that are exactly in line with current trends. However, you need to be aware of what these trends are so that you can locate your research in relation to them. It is especially important to understand current trends if you are doing anything out of the ordinary (which, as a

Christian scholar, you probably are). *Note: Trends may be topical (people might be writing about a certain thing), they may be methodological, or both.*

There are several good ways to do find out current trends:

- Survey the articles in the leading journal(s) in your field. Look at what they address and the methodology that the scholars use to produce and present their work.
- Read book reviews. Often journals will contain advertisements for and reviews of the most current scholarship in your field.
- Go to international conferences (or, at the very least, read conference programs on the Internet).
- Look at Dissertation Abstracts. This is the easiest way to find current research. From the Research Portal, click the Journals tab. On the lower right-hand side of the screen, you'll see a link that reads "Find dissertations or theses." Click this, and you'll find links to Dissertation Abstracts, TREN (if you're in the Seminary, this may help you), and other tools to let you see what young, up-to-date scholars find most interesting. You may even be able to view these dissertations in full-text form online.

Practice 8.5

Using the topic that you have chosen for your literature review and research thus far, run a search in Dissertation Abstracts. See if there is anything related to what you are doing. If so, make sure you are familiar with the information in these dissertations. If not, do a more general search in your field of study (that way you will know what current work in your field looks like). Be prepared to make adjustments to account for this new information you have found.

Final Thoughts

You have reached the end of this crash course in graduate-level writing. To this point, you should have either reviewed or learned about all of the following:

- Grammar
- Punctuation
- Logic and Organization
- Critical Thinking
- Discipline-specific Language
- Citation
- Research Resources

All of these skills should help you to write with more confidence, knowledge, and correctness. However, by themselves, these skills guarantee nothing. Unless you are willing to work hard, revise through many drafts, and continue the process of learning as you go, your writing will never reach a level of true excellence. Now, all you have to do is write your final research paper.

Keep these principles in mind as you write your rough draft:

1. Concentrate on clarity: write clear sentences about clear ideas.
2. Never lose your focus, and keep your thesis and topic sentences on track.
3. Document everything.
4. Every claim needs evidence, and all evidence needs claims.
5. Revise, revise, revise!
6. If in doubt, ask.

Finally—and most importantly—remember that we only have the ability to do creative work of this sort because God gives us the ability to do so. To make something, even if it is just a small research paper, is to exercise one of our highest abilities, and when we do so, we must do it for His glory.

CHAPTER 9

THE RESEARCH PAPER

This is the assignment that this entire class has prepared you to complete. It is also the first of many research papers you will be writing during your college career. Ideally you have already written much of what you will need for this assignment: your summaries of articles and parts of your literature review should be useful here.

Review the following assignment and then complete it in the phases suggested below. Your instructor will give you specific due dates. However, it is up to you to begin working early so that you will know if you need to get additional help from your professor, the GWC, or LU's librarians.

Phases

I. Choose a topic
II. Research your topic
III. Write your literature review
IV. Draft an outline of your paper
V. Complete a rough draft of your paper
VI. Peer review another student's paper
VII. Complete a final draft of your paper
VIII. Write an abstract of your paper
IX. Survey the main points of your paper in PowerPoint form
X. Present your PowerPoint to your classmates

Assignment

Using the research you have done so far in this course, complete a 10-15 page paper in which you add something new to the research you have encountered thus far. Examples of possible paper topics include the following (but feel free to define your own as you see fit):

English: Choosing a literary text that is of interest to you, present an original, thesis-driven argument about the text in which you offer an interpretation of it or a new way of reading it. Demonstrate familiarity with current criticism on the topic.

Counseling: Present the results of a survey, study, or experiment you complete. Locate your data in relation to other current research on the topic.

Seminary: Focusing on one particular theological concept, trace its development in specific Christian thinkers over time. Mount an argument about how this concept should be understood.

Grades and Learning Outcomes

A grade of "Pass" on this assignment assumes that you will successfully achieve the learning outcomes listed below.

1. The student will choose a topic appropriate for his/her field of study.
2. The student will thoroughly research this topic and cite this research appropriately.
3. The student will complete a literature review.
4. The student will outline, draft, and revise a final paper.
5. The student will complete an abstract and PowerPoint presentation on this topic.
6. The student will present his/her findings in class.
7. The student will produce a focused, coherent paper that demonstrates good organizational skills.
8. The student will employ appropriate critical thinking strategies.
9. The student will use correct grammar and punctuation.
10. The student will demonstrate familiarity with the technical requirements of his/her discipline.

Paper

TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS

Length: 10-15 pages
Bibliography: Citation format appropriate to your field of study
Title page: Requirements appropriate to your field of study
Font and Margins: 12 point Times New Roman, 1 inch margins

NOTES

1. At all stages, stay in contact with your instructor. He or she will guide and direct you through this process as much as you need.
2. Don't be afraid to draft, redraft, and draft again. Draft until you get it right!

3. Don't worry if your topic shifts a bit as you're writing; that's the process of critical thinking working. If your paper pulls you in a particular direction, go there.
4. You may find your introduction and transitions need to be revised many times as you draft. This is normal.

Abstract

TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS

An abstract is a brief summary of your research. It presents your thoughts in an abbreviated and accessible form for a reader unfamiliar with your work. You will have to write abstracts in any of these situations:

1. When you complete your dissertation, you include an abstract in the early parts of it so that it may be listed on Dissertation Abstracts International.
2. When you submit a paper proposal to a conference, you will usually include an abstract (indeed, often the abstract *is* the proposal).
3. When you publish a paper, you will often have to include an abstract of your paper with the paper itself. This allows readers of the journal to decide if they want to read your article.

PowerPoint

TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS

Your PowerPoint should present your research for a reader unfamiliar with both your field of study and with your work. Its goal is to explain what you have studied in vocabulary that is as non-technical as possible. There is no minimum number of slides, but do please keep the following principles in mind

1. Your slides provide an outline of your talk—not the text of it (do not read your PowerPoint aloud).
2. Do not put too much information on any one slide. It's hard to read from the audience.
3. If you need to use technical terminology, define it.
4. Be sure to provide a brief list of your most important sources.
5. Keep distracting graphics, sounds, and fonts to a minimum.

If you do not know how to use PowerPoint, see your instructor. He or she will give you a crash course. It should take no more than 10 minutes to present your PowerPoint.