

Writing Protocols for Columbia Evangelical Seminary

Punctuation, Grammar, and Academic Style

Lecture # 5

Miscellaneous Style Points

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Two texts required for this class:

1. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*, 6th edition, by Kate L. Turabian.
2. *Working With Words: A Handbook for Media Writers and Editors*, 5th edition, by Brian S. Brooks, James L. Pinson, Jean Gaddy Wilson.

INTRODUCTION

In this lecture, I will go through some miscellaneous style points discussing things like footnotes, bibliography, page numbering, word usage, sentence length, and much more.

How to Add *emphasis added* at the end of a Quote (see *Turabian*, example # 2)

“He directed me to take the *whole* batch” (emphasis added).⁷ <— This mechanical method needs to be understood. When you add emphasis to another person’s words, you need to indicate that fact by placing the words “emphasis added” in parenthesis at the end of the sentence.

Mechanical Method

Also, note the mechanics of this construction—> (emphasis added).⁷ The period goes *after* the parenthetical note, and the footnote goes *after* the period with no intervening space. If you have added your emphasis in a verse of scripture, it would look like this: “Jesus *wep*” (emphasis added, John 11:35).⁷

Turabian actually gives three different methods that one can use to indicate the added emphasis. However, CES Writing Protocols has adopted the method above, which is reflected in *Turabian's* second method. So, again, if you use one of the *other* methods, it will be considered incorrect. An appeal to one of the other methods given by *Turabian* will not help you. The CES Writing Protocols follows only the second method given by *Turabian*.

Stronger Punctuation

Stronger punctuation takes the place of the comma. As I said above, when sentences containing two or more independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for*), a comma is *always* placed before the conjunction. However, in some constructions when there is quoted matter with punctuation, the stronger punctuation has priority over the comma.

Example of Correct—> Well, we have two choices; one is, as Tom has pointed out, “We can go left!” but I think we’d be safer if we go to the right.

Notice that after the quoted sentence “We can go left!” there is the coordinating conjunction *but* that joins another independent clause. Normally, we would place a comma before that coordinating conjunction. However, since there is already an exclamation mark before the coordinating conjunction, there is no need for a comma.

Example of Incorrect—> Well, we have two choices; one is, as Tom has pointed out, “We can go left!”, but I think we’d be safer if we go to the right. (Do not put the comma after the quote.)

Book titles to be Underline or Italicize

Book titles are to be underlined or *italicized*. As for emphasis, underlining and italicizing are the same thing. Thus, you may either underline or *italicize* book titles, not both. However, be consistent. If you use italics for the first book you reference, then you must continue to use italics thereafter throughout the paper.

Note: Chapter titles within books, or article titles in magazines are set off by quotation marks. Thesis and dissertation titles are also to be placed inside quotation marks.

Examples:

(1) I think that chapter seven, “Tight Writing,” in the book *Working with Words*, is a fantastic chapter filled with important information.

(2) The article “Searching for Life’s Beginning” by Shirley L. Barron, M.D. in *Christianity Today*, November 11, 1991, was a very enlightening article.

(3) Roger Johnson's thesis "The Sanctification Essence in Hebrews Four" was a solid work of exegesis.

Word Emphasis: Quotation Marks Are Not for Emphasis

A common error that seems to be ubiquitous is the idea that quotation marks are to be used to emphasize words. They're not. In fact, quotation marks are used (1) to indicate that words are being quoted, or (2) they are used to indicate that a word is being used ironically, or even with opposite meaning.

Example of Wrong: I really "like" that painting.

In this sentence, the writer thinks that he is emphasizing the word *like*, but he is actually doing just the opposite.

Quotation marks are used for several purposes: to show a direct quote, to indicate a chapter title within a book, to indicate a euphemism, or to indicate something is not true.

It's almost like a *wink* of the eye. When I say to my wife "I really love our 15-year-old, broken-down lawn mower," and I smile and wink, what do I really mean? I hate it.

Since the word "like" in our sample sentence is not a direct quote, a chapter title, or a euphemism, the reader might think that it is supposed to mean just the opposite, a sort of *wink*.

So, in the thinking of the reader, "like" might actually mean *hate*.

To emphasize a word, you do *not* put it in quotation marks. You *italicize* it (or underline it).

Example of Right: I really *like* that painting.

Again, you are to emphasize words by *italicizing* them. However, your writing should not be strewn throughout with italicized words. Use emphasis sparingly. One time a student's paper was so full of italicized words that his emphasis was lost.

It is sort of like preachers. If a preacher raises his voice for emphasis for certain words or phrases, you understand that there is a special emphasis on those words. However, if the preacher is just loud all the time, you never know what he is trying to emphasize.

WHAT QUOTATION MARKS DO MEAN

So, quotation marks are used to indicate that words are either being quoted or to indicate that the words are being used ironically. It often makes a word (or a phrase) mean just the opposite.

Example: My brother's wife is a "real beauty."

Which means, she's ugly.

Someone sent this one to me. Seen on a tavern door: *No One Under Age "21" Permitted*
Under that, someone else wrote on the door: **"Whoopee, beer for everybody!"**

So, do not use quotation marks to emphasize words because it gives it the wrong emphases. To properly emphasize a word, you either underline it, or place it in *italics*, not *both*.

Do Not Use One-Sentence Paragraphs in Academic Writing

In nonacademic writing a paragraph may contain only one sentence; however, generally a paragraph consists of two to ten (or more) sentences and can range anywhere from 32 to 250 words. For a paragraph to truly be a paragraph, it must develop a thought and be coherent. In other words, there should be a skillful development of a main thought. All the sentences in the paragraph should be geared to the expression of that thought in a clear fashion.

Since a paragraph is the development of a thought, it is difficult to do an adequate job in just one sentence. I have read many term papers in which students had one-sentence paragraphs. However, they generally misuse the *one-sentence paragraph*. What they typically use it for is the conclusion of the preceding paragraph. Somehow they have the idea that if they separate that final sentence from the preceding paragraph, it will have a stronger *punch* to it. In fact, just the opposite happens. The preceding paragraph is left without an adequate conclusion and the new "one-sentence paragraph" does not fulfill the requirements of being an actual paragraph. Therefore, it is generally best never to attempt to write a one sentence paragraph in any style of writing.

Less is More

Concerning sentence length, use variation in your writing [8 words]. A sentence can be as short as two words, e.g., "Jesus wept" or as long as forty words (or more) [19 words]. If a paper is written with all very short sentence or all very long sentences, the writing style will be boring and mundane [23 words]. You should vary your sentence length [6 words]. However, it is good to remember that sixteen words is considered a long sentence [13 words]. Sentences much longer than sixteen words are sometimes difficult to follow [11 words]. In fact, much of your point may be lost in the maze of extremely long sentences [16 words]. Shorter sentences are generally better [5 words]. They carry punch [3 words]! Longer sentences have a tendency to lose their steam and their punch and their coherency about halfway through the point that you are trying to express to you reader, and then the reader has to keep going back to the earlier part of the sentence and reread it over a

few times just so that he or she will be able to understand the context of what it was that you were trying to say in that long sentence, so that he or she will be able to fully understand the whole point of your long and of your convoluted sentence, and then if he or she is lucky, and bright, and a good reader, and he or she doesn't mind working hard at understanding what it is that you are trying to express in that very long and drawn out sentence, while he or she is rereading the first part of your extremely long sentence, he or she won't forget the last part of your long and now quite boring sentence, that is, if you have written it in such a way that all of your grammar and all of your punctuation is correct [195 words].

The last sentence is an exaggerated example of what not to do [12 words]. In fact, as I said, sixteen words is considered long [9 words]. So, it is my opinion that varied length in writing means sentences that vary in length between two words and no more than thirty words, with the majority of the sentences being under twenty words [33 words]. In brief, if you can keep your *average* sentence between fifteen and twenty words, you will be fine [16 words]. But, remember to make some sentences shorter than the average and others longer than the average [16 words].

Note on sentence length: Sentences in English prose have gotten shorter over the years. From about the time the King James Bible was first produced in 1611 up to 1900, sentences in English prose dropped in length by nearly 60%. That is a big reduction. From 1900 to the present day, sentence length in English prose has been reduced even more. Thus, if you are in the habit of reading very old theological books or history books, you might be inclined to mimic their style and write longer sentences. *Resist that inclination.*

One of our students tried to defend his excessively long sentences by saying that long sentences were more academic while shorter sentences were nonacademic. In reality, his long sentences were anything but academic. They were convoluted, vague, and improperly punctuated. In brief, his writing was atrocious. He produced some sentences that were simply impossible to understand. In fact, when I asked him to interpret a particular sentence that *he* had written, which neither I nor several other professors could understand, he stammered for a bit, and then gave an interpretation that seemed to have nothing to do with what he had written.

Who Failed? You Did!

If your reader cannot understand what you have written, you failed. The whole point of writing something is to communicate information to others. If your readers do not understand the information, *then you have not accomplished your task.*

Concerning this issue, William Zinsser says, "It won't do to say that the reader is too dumb or too lazy to keep pace with the train of thought. If the reader is lost, it's usually because the writer hasn't been careful enough."¹

¹William Zinsser, On Writing Well (NY, NY: Harper Collins Publishers, 1990), p. 9.

Too often when I tell students, “I do not understand what you are attempting to say in this sentence (or this paragraph),” they respond by saying, “Well, I know what I mean by it.” The problem with this, of course, is that whole point of writing something is to communicate information *to others*, not to yourself. Presumably, you already know the information. Your job in writing is to make it understandable to your readers.

One student actually tried to defend his poor writing style by saying that we should not make the reader the gauge of whether or not we have accomplished our goal as writers. To this I responded by saying, “Then why write at all?” If we are not communicating information through the medium of writing, why write? What other purpose for writing could there possibly be?

The ultimate inanity (yes, inanity, not insanity—look it up) of his argument was that I, his professor, was the reader. So, in essence he was saying that it didn’t matter if I could understand what he had written. But, if I could not understand what he had written, what do you suppose his grade was going to be?

Choose The Simple Over The Complex: *Write to Express not to Impress*

Too often students think that if they can toss in a few big or unfamiliar words into their writings, then their papers will be better. In fact, just the opposite is true. In the course of writing and discussing writing, I have heard this phrase many times: “*Write to express not to impress.*”

Big and unfamiliar words do not impress your professor. In fact, instead of being impressed, I am often amused by students who attempt to use big or complex words and end up misusing them. Also, big and unfamiliar words may serve to confuse rather than enlighten the average reader. There are at least two ways to say something: (1) the obtuse and convoluted way, and (2) the clear and easy way.

Example:

1. Way one: “An ornithological specimen in digital captivity is of greater value than double said specimen in dense foliage.”—Rick Walston

2. Way two: A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

Not only does the second sentence use six fewer words, but the author has also chosen simple words over complex ones. There should be no doubt that *way two* is the better way to express this thought.

Another example:

1. Way one: “Branches from heavy foliage and jagged geological specimens may fracture my skeletal structure; however, inaccurate syntactical descriptions of my personage, heritage, or personality will never damage my psyche.”—Rick Walston

2. Way two: Sticks and stones may break my bones, but words will never hurt me. Again, “way two” is the better way to express this thought.

Another Example:

From a 1974 Fiat 124 Spyder owner’s manual:

- 1. Way one:** “Ideogram illumination intensity adjustment potentiometer.”
- 2. Way two:** Dimmer Switch.

Technical words, be they in theology, philosophy, apologetics, ministry, etc., must (occasionally) be used. So, I am not advocating that all words be simple. What I am advocating is that the nontechnical words in your papers should be just that, nontechnical.

HOW TO LIST BIBLE REFERENCES

The traditional method of showing several verses *when those verses are consecutive* would look like this, John 3:16-21 and not as John 3:16, 21.

John 3:16, 21 means that the reference is to *only two verses*, John chapter three, verse 16 and verse 21.

Learn this:

John 3:16 —> Means John chapter three and verse sixteen.

John 3:16-21 —> Means John chapter three and verses sixteen *through* verse twenty-one.

John 3:16, 21 —> Means John chapter three and verse sixteen and verse twenty-one.

Also, when showing reference to more than one chapter (and its verses) within the same book, it would have a semicolon between the chapter numbers: John 3:16, 21; 4:3-7; 5:1-2, 8.

When to Use Greek or Hebrew in Academic Papers

It seems to be a general rule of thumb that students who do not know Greek or Hebrew like to toss Greek and Hebrew words into their papers. The idea, apparently, is that they think that it makes their work look more *scholarly*. However, anyone with a parallel Greek and English Bible, or *Vine's Complete Expository Dictionary of Old and New Testament Words* can look up a word and toss it into his paper; this is no great feat. An undergraduate student handed in this bit of superfluous writing:

It is important to note that the term “Christian” (Gk. *Christianos*) was not a positive title when it was first applied to the disciples (Gk. *mathetes*) of Jesus (Gk. *iesous*). When the Greeks and the Romans called the believers “Christians,” most

often they intended it to be a derogatory term. But soon Christians adopted the title of *Christianos* and they openly called themselves slaves (Gk. *doulos*) of Christ (Gk. *Christos*) (see Romans 1:1).

Now, here's the point: writing is for the purpose of communicating information. What possible benefit does the reader receive from seeing the transliterated Greek words in this paragraph? None whatsoever. These words simply tossed into the paper showing the Greek letter equivalents serve no useful benefit.

The only time that you should use Greek or Hebrew words in your term papers is when the word in Greek or in Hebrew actually gives a *fuller* meaning that is not obvious in English, *and* when *that is the point* that you are trying to communicate to your reader.

Note: Obviously, for those doing actual Greek or Hebrew exegesis, or for those students doing studies specifically in the languages, this limitation does not apply. But, for those students who are not specifically doing their term papers on a topic about the Greek or Hebrew language, they should not use Greek or Hebrew words in their papers, unless there is a significant point not expressed in English that they are attempting to bring forth from the Greek (or Hebrew).

For example, **do not write**, "John says that Jesus is the Word (Gk. *logos*) of God" unless there is a specific nuance or connotation that you are going to develop from the Greek word *logos* that is not readily apparent in English.

Therefore, if you are not specifically going to develop a point about the Greek or Hebrew word, do not put it in your paper. It ends up being "dead wood."

Read, Edit, Reread, and Re-edit your Papers Before You Turn Them In

All writers have what is called "dead wood" in their writing, at least in the early drafts. *Dead wood* in writing is unnecessary and superfluous words and phrases.

Let's take the dead wood out of that last sentence:

Dead wood is unnecessary words. (Ah, that's much better.)

Dead wood is also called verbosity or wordiness. As an example, how would you get the *dead wood* out of this next sentence? "Remove each and every word for which you do not have any use." How about this? —> "Remove useless words."

Here is another one. (This is cop-talk.) "The vehicle was traveling at a high rate of speed." How about this? —> "The car was going fast."

Change this one: "The books that I am interested in are the theology texts." How about this? —> "I am interested in theology books."

Sometimes getting rid of *dead wood* is simply converting lengthy phrases to shorter ones.

Examples:

- “At this point in time” to “Now”
- “All of a sudden” to “Suddenly”
- “In the not-to-distant future” to “Soon”
- “Every now and then” to “occasionally”

Also, adverbs are sometimes dead wood. For example, what is the difference in meaning between these two phrases:

- “He effectively changed directions and began heading the opposite way.”
- “He changed directions and headed the opposite way.”

The adverb *effectively* is simply unnecessary. It adds nothing to this sentence, except *dead wood*.

And, what’s the difference here?

- “It is really true.”
- “It is true.”

The adverb *really* is often superfluous. How much more true can true be?

The adverb *very* is also often superfluous. A student wrote in a term paper that “Jesus Christ is very unique.”

A thing or person is either unique or not unique; therefore, it is incorrect to say that something is *very* unique or *more* unique than something else.

**NEVER SEPARATE THE SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE
FROM ITS VERB WITH A COMMA**

This is a parenthetical departure, but at this point I need to make another important comment. Too often inexperienced writers separate the subject of the sentence from its verb with a comma. Here are a couple of examples (both the subject and verb are underlined in each example):

- Wrong: The gigantic dog’s huge paws, walked slowly through the mud.
- Wrong: The mailman’s bag, was completely full.
- Wrong: The snowman’s nose, began to melt.

(In these three examples, the commas should be removed.)

Memorize this: *Never separate the subject from its verb with a comma.*

Do Not Use Abbreviations in The Text

Do not use abbreviations in the text of your academic papers (do so only in footnotes and appendices). For example, you should write out such words as New Testament and Old Testament. Don't use N.T. and O.T. Also, in the text of academic papers, church denominations should be spelled out. For example, it should be the Assemblies of God, not AG. It should be the Evangelical Free Church, not EFC, and so on.

Bible books should also be spelled out in the text. Thus, it is Genesis, not Gn. It is Matthew, not Matt., and so on.

However, when a word is cumbersome long and has become *well-known* by its abbreviated form, you may use the abbreviation.

Example: deoxyribonucleic acid is DNA. However, even when you do use abbreviations of this sort, the first time you use the word, you should spell it out and then indicate that you shall be using the abbreviated form there after.

Example: "Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) carries genetic information in the cell. DNA consists of two long chains twisted into a double helix."

DO NOT USE CLICHÉS

Clichés are old, tired, worn-out phrases that reveal your lack of creativity. In academic writing, the writing style should be direct prose, and not symbolic nor cliché. One apologetics student once wrote that "*Christianity takes a back seat to no other religion.*" So, in the margin I wrote, "Well, then, does Christianity take the front seat to other religions?"

Another student wrote that "Christianity has everything a person needs, *the whole enchilada*, if you will." In the margin, I wrote, "Christianity offers people a Mexican lunch?"

Words paint pictures, and since academic writing should not be symbolic but straight prose, think of the words literally and see if it makes sense. If you have to interpret the word or phrase to mean something other than their literal meanings, then, in all likelihood, you should not use the word or phrase.

Often, people do not know what a cliché is. A cliché is an analogy that has been overused to the point that it indicates that its user is a lazy thinker. Here are just a few clichés to help you see what they are (some web sites have listed thousands of them):

a kick in the seat of the pants
can't get a fair shake
a labor of love
winners never quit and quitters never win
at the drop of a hat

eat your hat
a Copernican revolution
the road less traveled
in the doghouse
as big as a whale

there's more than one way to skin a cat
music to my ears
only in America
armed to the teeth
run the risk
rats abandon a sinking ship
to be or not to be
spilt ink
a felt need

the whole nine yards
run circles around
give and take
worth his salt
more or less
mad as a wet hen
Not worth the paper it's written on
sign of the times
a foregone conclusion

Do Not Use Academic Titles

Do not use academic titles in academic papers. When you are quoting from someone's work, and that person is a doctor, do not use his academic title in your paper. So, instead of saying something like: "Dr. Robert Long argues convincingly for the doctrine of the Trinity in his book, *Trinity Issues*." Rather, you would simply write: "Robert Long argues convincingly for the doctrine of the Trinity in his book, *Trinity Issues*." And, then from that point on throughout your paper when you refer to Robert Long, you will simply refer to him as either "Long" or "Robert Long."

Confused Abbreviations

Inexperienced writers quite often confuse abbreviations. Please learn these.

etc., (etcetera) - means "other unspecified things of the same class" or "and so forth." It is not a sort of "catch all." For example, this is incorrect: "Bring sandwiches, a toothbrush, gloves, etc." Why does etc., not work here? Because, these are not items of the same class. What does a toothbrush have in common with gloves ?

So, as the reader, I do not have to already know everything in your *etc.*, but I should have a strong clue as to what the *etc.*, includes because of the class, or type of items that you have listed.

Example of wrong: "Dad was upset at the plumber, and mom was late to work, etc."

Example of right: Galatians chapter five says that "the fruit of the Spirit is love, joy, peace, etc." Here, the class is identified, "the fruit of the Spirit."

e.g., - means "for example" (this is often confused with "i.e.")

i.e., - means "that is" (this is often confused with "e.g.")

Also, a comma follows these last two abbreviations. One thing that should be kept in mind as you write is that these sorts of abbreviations should *not appear in the regular text* (i.e., body of the paper) but should be confined to parenthetical references in the text (i.e., body of the paper). Just like it was in the last sentence.

ibid., - means “in the same place”

cf. - means compare (and should not be used to mean “see”)

Like *Ibid.*, this abbreviation, *cf.*, should not appear in the regular text, but should be confined to “notes and other scholarly apparatus.”

see - means to refer to; read.

ff - means “and following” (example: John 3:16ff means John chapter three, verse 16 and the following verses.)

[sic] - means “so, thus,” and it should be italicized or underlined and placed in brackets [*sic*]. [*Sic*] is to be used when you are quoting someone who has made a mistake in grammar, spelling, or whatever, and you wish to make it clear that you are quoting the person correctly, and that it is he who made the mistake, not you. However, the [*sic*] should not be overused. For example, in some very old works, people spelled words differently than we do today. So, when quoting from something archaic, do not litter your quote with [*sic*].

BLOCK QUOTATIONS

When you have four full lines or more of material to quote, you should place the material into a block quote. Thus, no block quote should be shorter than four full lines of text. The block quote should be single-spaced. Also, do not put beginning and ending quotation marks around a block quote. Below (on the following page), I have given a sample that will show you several important things, including a proper block quote. Here are the several things that you should pay special attention to:

1. Notice how the writer refers to himself in third person as “this researcher.” That is how you refer to yourself in an academic paper (or as, “this student”). Remember, refer to yourself only when it is absolutely necessary. In fact, it is best if you spend some time rewriting the sentence in such a way that you do not need to refer to yourself at all.

2. Note that the text material is double-spaced except for the block quote, which is single-spaced.

3. In this sample below (on the following page) are two types of quotes: a block quote and an in-text quote. The in-text quote does have the necessary quotation marks around it.

4. The block quote does not have beginning and ending quotation marks around it.

5. When you have a quote within a text-quote, you set off the inside quote in single

quotation marks. However, a quote within a block quote takes the regular double quotations marks.

6. Both of these quotes, the in-text quote and the block quote, have their proper footnotes (learn how they are done).

7. All writing in academic papers must have the ragged right edge, as the sample shows.

Here is the sample . . .

=====
It is the opinion of this researcher, and the position of this dissertation, that much of the truth about psychological types is harmonious with the Motivational Gifts theory. Just as there are various psychological (personality) types, so there are differing gifts which in essence make up differing personality types. Gary Harbaugh says that, “In discussing gifts it is indeed possible to integrate ‘psychological insight’ with theological understanding.”² Further, Harbaugh sees human personalities as gifts from God. He states:

. . . in the giving of a particular gift to a particular person, God takes the whole person into consideration. What makes my serving different from someone else's serving is that my service comes through *me*, it is expressed through my “personhood.” My personhood includes my personal history, my life situation, and my past and present struggles. No one else can give precisely what I do, because, in giving me a gift, God has called me to use my unique personhood in the passing on of that gift to others. What we shall consider more completely is the way in which our individual personalities are, in a very special way, the bearers of our gifts from God.³

At the end of the in-text quote, note the punctuation—> with theological understanding.”²

Learn the order: First comes the period. Then comes the quotation marks. Then comes the footnote number. Note also that there are no spaces between these three items. Note the footnotes at the bottom of the page. Learn from it these things:

1. The footnote is indented to the same space as the regular paragraphs in the body of the work.

Indentations:

Paragraphs = seven spaces (from the left margin)

Block quotes = four spaces (from the left margin)

Footnotes = Seven spaces (from the left margin)

²Gary L. Harbaugh, God's Gifted People (Minneapolis, MN: Augsburg Publishing House, 1988), p. 20.

³Ibid., p. 17.

2. The author's name is given in its natural order, first name first, etc.
3. The book title is underlined (or *italicized*).
4. The city and state are given, then colon, the publisher, and then the year of the copyright. All of this is in parenthesis.
5. The page number is given.
6. The block quote is from the same text but located on a different page number. Thus, it is "*Ibid.*" *Ibid* means "in the same place." *Ibid* is used in footnotes to refer to the book, chapter, article, or page cited *just before*.
7. Though the spacing for the footnote is single-spaced, and not double-spaced like the text, the space *between* the footnote entries is double-spaced.

HOW TO INDENT

Paragraph indentations should be 7 spaces from the left margin (you must be consistent throughout your paper).

Example:

1234567

The basis of this particular study of the gifts in Romans chapter twelve verses six through eight is from theoretical and empirical evidence rather than exegetical evidence. Some have proposed a theory which would identify these particular gifts as being synonymous with personality types. Further, according to this theory, these particular gifts are called Motivational Gifts.

Others who hold the *tabula rasa* position would argue that one's personality is the result of being shaped by one's environment. However, Carl Jung points out that this *tabula rasa* argument,

Block quote indentations are 4 spaces from the left margin

1234

becomes quite flimsy in the face of the equally incontestable fact that two children of the same mother may exhibit contrary attitudes at an early age, though no change in the mother's attitude [nor environment] can be demonstrated. Although nothing would induce me to underrate the incalculable importance of parental influence, this familiar experience compels me to conclude that the decisive factor must be looked for in the disposition of the child. Ultimately, it must be the individual disposition which decides whether the child will belong to this or that type [personality] despite the constancy of external conditions.⁵

Footnotes: First line is indented the same number of spaces as the paragraphs in the body of the work; the other lines come back to the margin.

1234567

⁵Carl G. Jung, *Psychological Types* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976), p. 332.

The 747 Indentation Guidelines

For the sake of memorization, think of “Seven-forty-Seven.”

- 7 spaces for paragraphs
- 4 spaces for block quotes
- 7 spaces for footnotes (first line only).

THE DREADED COMMA

It is very interesting that people with some college background often become upset or offended when it is pointed out that their commas are incorrect in their writing. Some people seem to have the idea that commas are personal issues of punctuation and what is right for one person may not be right for another person. In fact, one of my students argued with me concerning the correction that I had made on his paper concerning his comma use by saying, “Well, that’s your style. I have a different style.”

Commas are rarely a matter of style. The placement of commas is far more a science than it is an art, and like $2 + 2 = 4$, so in many situations, the use of commas in proper punctuation is an absolute.

I dealt with commas in lecture one under *General Rules of Punctuation*. If you aren’t sure where commas go, please go back and read the notes on the comma from lecture one.

Comma with Date, Month, and Year

This is one of those situations where *Turabian* gives a couple of options. However, CES Writing Protocols calls for the second option that *Turabian* gives to be used in CES academic papers. Option two puts the month first, day second, and year third: For example, “On June 3, 2015, the graduation ceremony will be in Pittsburgh.”

The Abbreviations of Sr., Jr., III, and IV

An interesting, but virtually unknown, fact is that the abbreviation of junior or senior should not have a comma before it.

Example of Wrong: Robert Hamilton, Sr. Robert Hamilton, Jr.

Example of Right: Robert Hamilton Sr. Robert Hamilton Jr.

You can imagine the response of someone who has a “Jr.” or “Sr.” abbreviation in his name and has been adding the comma before the abbreviation for years when he is told that he has been writing his own name wrong. The reason no comma is in the name is because the terms “Sr.” and “Jr.” are restrictive clauses. For an explanation of *Restrictive Clauses* see lecture one.

Degree Titles With Names and How to Space the Letters

However, degree titles do have commas before them because they are nonrestrictive clauses.

Example of Wrong: Robert Hamilton M.B.A. Robert Hamilton
Ph.D.

Example of Right: Robert Hamilton, M.B.A. Robert Hamilton, Ph.D.

Also, there are **no spaces between the letters** of degree titles; thus, it is Ph.D. not Ph. D.

The Initials of a Person’s Name: Proper Spacing

There *must be spaces and periods between initials in a person’s name.*

Example of Wrong: R.F. Hamilton

Example of Right: R. F. Hamilton

Note: Just as you would not run a person’s first and middle names together, like this, RobertFrank Hamilton, neither should you run his initials together. Just as there are spaces between a person’s name, so there should be spaces between a person’s initials.

Ellipses

I will make only a couple of important points; however, you should read *Turabian* on this issue for a fuller explanation.

1. There are spaces before, between, and after the periods (or dots) in an ellipsis. Too often people simply place three dots...like this as their ellipsis. This is incorrect. An ellipsis has spaces before, between, and after the dots . . . like this.

2. Ellipses take the place of words that have been left out from the midst of a sentence. Example: Ellipses take the place of words that have been left out . . . of a sentence.

3. If the ellipsis is indicating the removal of a whole sentence (or whole sentences), the ellipsis follows after the last sentence’s terminal punctuation; thus, you would have four dots in a row.

Example:

For God so loved the world that he gave his one and only Son, that whoever believes in him shall not perish but have eternal life. . . . Whoever believes in him is not condemned, but whoever does not believe stands condemned already because he has not believed in the name of God's one and only Son (John 3:16, 18).

Note that there was the regular ending period after verse 16, a space, then three dots, which took the place of verse 17, and then a final space, and then the next sentence, verse 18.

Note also that the text citation is John 3:16, 18, and not John 3:16-18. The reason why is because 16-18 would include verse 17, but verse 17 was left out.

HOW TO DO FOOTNOTES

CES and *Turabian* differ on some aspects of footnote style. You will go by the CES style.

CES Style: Author, *Book Title* (City, State: Publisher, Year), p. #.

Sample Footnotes:

¹Rick Walston, *The Speaking in Tongues Controversy* (Fairfax, VA: Xulon Press, 2003), p. 80.

²Robert Morris, *Psychological Types* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976), pp. 332-333.

Ten Things To Know About Footnotes

First, the first line of the footnote is to be indented 7 spaces (just like the normal paragraph indentations in the body of your paper).

Second, footnotes are to be single spaced.

Third, the space between the footnote entries is to be double spaced.

Fourth, there is no space between the footnote number and the first letter of the author's name.

Fifth, the book title is *italicized* (or it can be underlined, pick one style and be consistent).

Sixth, both the *city and the state* of the publisher are listed. (On occasion, the state is not clearly printed in the front matter of the book. This is especially true of books published outside the U.S. When that is the case, i.e., the state is not known, you should attempt to find it, and if you cannot, then you may simply leave the state out of the footnote.)

Turabian typically does not list the state in her format. *However, apparently there was some confusion there, because even in her book, she is not consistent.* In her book she typically does not list the state, but sometimes she does.

Seventh, the state is abbreviated with the normal abbreviations of states following the U.S. Postal Office designations—i.e., two upper case letters. (Do not abbreviate states with several letters like, “Cailf.” or “Mass.” or “Minn.” or “Wash.”) Here is a list of the states with appropriate abbreviations:

ALABAMA	AL
ALASKA	AK
ARIZONA	AZ
ARKANSAS	AR
CALIFORNIA	CA
COLORADO	CO
CONNECTICUT	CT
DELAWARE	DE
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	DC
FLORIDA	FL
GEORGIA	GA
HAWAII	HI
IDAHO	ID
ILLINOIS	IL
INDIANA	IN
IOWA	IA
KANSAS	KS
KENTUCKY	KY
LOUISIANA	LA
MAINE	ME
MARYLAND	MD
MASSACHUSETTS	MA
MICHIGAN	MI
MINNESOTA	MN
MISSISSIPPI	MS
MISSOURI	MO
MONTANA	MT
NEBRASKA	NE
NEVADA	NV
NEW HAMPSHIRE	NH
NEW JERSEY	NJ
NEW MEXICO	NM
NEW YORK	NY
NORTH CAROLINA	NC
NORTH DAKOTA	ND
OHIO	OH
OKLAHOMA	OK
OREGON	OR
PENNSYLVANIA	PA
RHODE ISLAND	RI
SOUTH CAROLINA	SC
SOUTH DAKOTA	SD
TENNESSEE	TN
TEXAS	TX
UTAH	UT
VERMONT	VT
VIRGINIA	VA
WASHINGTON	WA
WEST VIRGINIA	WV
WISCONSIN	WI
WYOMING	WY

Eighth, there is a colon after the two upper case letters for the state.

Ninth, the “p.” is given to denote the word “page.” When the footnote is citing multiple pages, it must be written as “pp.”

Tenth, the footnote must appear on the same page as the quotation to which it refers.

Here are a few more samples of footnotes. The first one is a simple footnote from a book.

C. Peter Wagner, *Spiritual Gifts Can Help Your Church Grow* (Ventura, CA: Regal Books, 1979), p. 160.

Once a full listing for a book has been given in a footnote, it can be simply abbreviated thereafter. A sample abbreviation for C. Peter Wagner's book *Spiritual Gifts Can Help Your Church Grow* would look like this:

Wagner, p. 161.

Note that all that is necessary is the last name of the author, and the page number of the book.

However, if you are quoting from two or more different books by the same author, then you must make sure that the different texts are clear in the abbreviation. For instance, if you were quoting from three different books by C. Peter Wagner, your abbreviations would include either all or a portion of the book titles to indicate which of the Wagner texts you are quoting from.

Examples:

¹Wagner, *Spiritual Gifts Can Help*, p. 160.

²Wagner, *Blazing The Way*, p. 213.

³Wagner, *Lighting The World*, p. 23.

Next, if you are quoting from two authors with the same last name, you will need to add their *first names* in the abbreviated format to distinguish between them. Here are two authors with the same last name. The first mention of their books has the full data. After that, they can be abbreviated, but, so as to tell them apart, their first names have been included.

¹Norman A. Geisler, *Chosen But Free* (Minneapolis, MN: Bethany House Publishers, 1999), p. 103.

¹³Norman Geisler, *Chosen*, pp. 124-125.

⁷Mark P. Geisler, *Issues of Free Will* (Tappanville, FL: Everlasting Regal Books Press, 2004), pp. 112-113.

¹⁷Mark Geisler, *Issues*, p. 11.

Footnote from a book by two or more authors

¹Norman A. Geisler and Paul D. Feinberg, *Introduction to Philosophy* (Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House, 1980), p. 63.

¹Rick Gant, Paul Jones, and Larry Towers, *Introduction to Christian Philosophy* (Ventura, CA: Regal Books, 2004), pp. 102-122.

If the book has more than three authors, follow same format as the last example.

Footnote from a dictionary

⁹*The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, executive ed. Anne H. Soukhanov, s.v. "syndrome," (Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co, 1992), p. 181.

Footnote for a Thesis or a Dissertation

Note: since the thesis or dissertation is not a published book, it is placed in quotation marks; it is not *italicized* nor underlined.

¹³Randy Powers, "Semantic Studies of the Psalms of David" (Ph.D. diss., University of Chicago, 2005), p. 10.

Footnote from the World Wide Web (Provide the following information):

Author's name; Title of document, in quotation marks; Title of complete work (if relevant), in italics or underlined; Date of publication or last revision . . . if unknown, leave blank; URL, in angle brackets; Date of access, in parentheses

Personal site

1. Joe Smith, "Homepage," 12 May 1999 <<http://www.joesmith.html>> (12 June 1999).

Professional site

1. Columbia Evangelical Seminary, *Coffee Talk # 23*, "Comma Sense," April 4, 2001, <<http://www.columbiaseminary.edu/coffeetalk/023.html>> (14 August 2005).

Concerning the "Ibid"

Ibid. is the abbreviation of *ibidem*, the full Latin word meaning "in the same place." The abbreviated form in particular is a convention of scholarly footnoting: when you wish to cite a work and a page for which you have just given a reference, *ibid.* does the job succinctly. Thus, *Ibid.* refers the reader to the immediately previous reference citation.

If the footnote is from the same, immediately previous footnoted text but a different page number, then you need only to put in *Ibid.*, (note that a comma comes after the period when there is a page number that follows) and the page number.

Example: *Ibid.*, p. 23. If, however, it is from the same text and also the same page as the immediately preceding footnoted text, then all you need is *Ibid.* (no page number nor comma is necessary in that case. See examples below.)

Examples:

¹³C. Peter Wagner *Spiritual Gifts Can Help Your Church Grow* (Ventura, CA: Regal Books, 1979), p. 160.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. 189.

¹⁶*Ibid.* See also Ken Hutchinson *Church Growth Issues* (Lomax, WA: Tulip Books, 2005) for a Reformed perspective concerning issues of God's sovereignty and church growth.

You must remember that *Ibid.* refers the reader to the previous reference citation, indicating that the footnoted item comes from the same source as the immediately previous citation. Therefore any added information that you put in the footnote will be an additional comment regarding the topic. *Ibid.*, therefore, comes first in the note, not at the end.

Reference Taken from a Secondary Source

When citing the work of one author as found in the work of another author, both works must be mentioned in the footnote.

Example:

²Bonnie Moore, *Issues of Light and Dark* (Lomax, WA: Tulip Books, 2005), p. 78, citing Michael B. Smith, *Sincerity and Sin* (Lomax, WA: Tulip Books, 2000), p. 37.

Content Footnotes (aka Substantive Notes—*Turabian* 8.149, 6th ed, and 9.143 5th ed)

Sometimes students will want to develop or explain certain concepts or items that do not fit exactly into the text. They often feel that this is where the content notes (i.e., content footnotes) come in. I have seen some students papers filled with content notes.

However, in academic writing, *most everything* that is worthy of incorporation into the work should be in the main body of the text.

If, however, the information is so peripheral that it rates only a lowly footnote, then leave it out, unless it helps the reader better understand the citation or why the information in the text was important enough to be cited.

In brief, then, think of it this way. If it is not important enough to be in the text, it probably should not be in a footnote either. And, if it is important enough to be in a footnote, then it should probably be incorporated into the body of the paper.

Bibliography Samples: Author. *Title*. City, ST: Publisher, Year. (note how second line is indented)

Geisler, Norman L., and Feinberg, Paul D. *Introduction to Philosophy*. Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House, 1988.

Grudem, Wayne. *The Gift of Prophecy in the New Testament and Today*. Wheaton, IL: Crossway Books, Good News Publishers, 1988.

INTERPOLATIONS

Interpolations (in-terp-a-lations) are insertions (additions) of your material or thoughts into a text. When you add an interpolation into a quote, you show your addition by the [use of brackets].

Example of John 3:16 with interpolations:

For God so loved the world that he gave his one and only Son [Jesus Christ], that whoever [that includes you] believes in him shall not perish [be thrown into eternal hell] but have eternal life [with God in heaven].

Some people confuse the use of the [brackets] with the use of (parentheses).

Brackets are to be used when you are inserting your thoughts or clarifications into someone else's quote.

Parentheses are to be use when you are inserting your thoughts or clarifications into your own writing.

Do Not Overdo Interpolations

Neither interpolation (brackets or parentheses) should be overdone. The ridiculous insertions demonstrated above in John 3:16 are interpolations run amuck. Interpolations should be helpful to the reader to help him understand a sentence. One student paper had so many interpolations in it that they become more annoying than helpful. On one page alone, the student had placed nearly a dozen interpolations! Typically, it would be odd to see that many interpolations in an entire term paper.

Next, do not assume that your reader must have you help him with every odd or archaic statement by the person you are quoting. For example, if you know what the archaic term means, it is likely that your reader will too.

Example: In 1866, Xavier Sullivan said, "The oft quoted passage of John 3:16 still brings me peace."

Now, how many of you know what the term "oft" is, especially in the context of the sentence above? Probably every person reading this right now knows what "oft" means in this context. Since that is the case, you do not have to give an interpolation to make it clear to your reader.

Example: In 1866, Xavier Sullivan said, "The oft[en] quoted passage of John 3:16 still brings me peace."

It is simply unnecessary and superfluous to put an interpolation in this quotation. Only use interpolations when you are certain that without them, your reader would not know what was being said.

Governing Rule: If *you* had to research it to learn what it meant, then use an interpolation. If you knew as soon as you read it what it meant, then your reader will too, and no interpolation is necessary.

GENERAL FORMATTING ISSUES

Text Pagnation: (paj-a-nation) The system by which pages are numbered.

I am constantly amused by how simple this is, and yet so many people can't seem to get it right.

Here it is: Page numbers go at the top right corner of the page (one inch from the top) except on title pages (where they go at the bottom center—one inch from the bottom).

What is a title page? In a thesis or a dissertation, the title pages are the first page of each chapter. On title pages, the page number goes at the bottom center, or, if you prefer, you may simply put no page number at all on title pages. On a term paper, the title page is the first page of your actual text, not the page on which you list your student name, class title, and so on.

Let's recap: Page numbers go at the top right of every page except for title pages, i.e., the first page of each new chapter.

Front Matter Pagination

Now, the page numbering system for the Front Matter is a little different. Front Matter is the printed material in the front of the book (or thesis or dissertation) before the actual text. It includes title, copyright pages, dedication, foreword, preface, table of contents, etc. Lower case Roman numerals are to be use at bottom center of each page. (For information about how to number the Front Matter, see *Turabian*, 1.7-1.32, 6th ed., and 1.6-1.30 for the 5th ed.)

Margins

Top, bottom, and right margins are to be one inch each. The left margin is to be 1.5 inches. I remember that a dissertation I submitted came back to me with red ink marks indicating that my top margin was 1/64th of an inch under the necessary one inch. Every page of my 200-page dissertation had to be changed and reformatted.

Ragged Right Edge

In academic papers, do not justify the right margin.

Footnotes Use The Ragged Right Edge Too

Even footnotes at the bottom of the pages are to be ragged right edge.

Double-Spacing

Your text should be double-spaced. However, block quotes are to be single spaced. Footnotes are to be single-spaced with a double space between entries.

Spelling

It seems that something this basic would not have to be mentioned in a class on writing protocols. Correct spelling, it would seem, would be an obvious requirement.

However, it is not uncommon for term papers to be handed in with incorrect spelling. If you have a spell-checker on your computer, use it, and use it often. If you do not

have a spell-checker on your computer, either buy one and use it, or submit your papers to a pre-reader before sending it to your mentor.

Please note this: if you do not think that your paper is worth the extra time and work it will take to make sure that you have written it correctly and spelled all the words in it correctly, do not be surprised to find out that your mentor agrees with your assessment and gives you a low grade.

Passive Voice

When writing term papers, theses, and dissertations, do not use the passive voice. Many people slip into the passive voice in academic writing because they are aware that they cannot use the first-person, personal pronouns, i.e., I, me, my, mine, we, ours. So, instead of writing something like, “Through my research, I discovered that the most ancient extant manuscript is over 1,000 years old,” the writer will write something like this, “Through research, it *was discovered* that the most ancient extant manuscript is over 1,000 years old.” But, you should avoid both the passive voice and the first-person, personal pronouns.

Contractions: Don’t use’em

Contractions are words like “don’t” for “do not,” or, “can’t” for “cannot,” and “won’t” for “will not.” Contractions are appropriate only in *informal* writing, such as letters and memos and quoting of speech. Thus, we would obviously not tolerate “ain’t,” but neither will we allow “aren’t” and “you’re,” etc.

Please note that I said that “contractions are appropriate in quoting of speech.” Thus, if you are quoting an author in your term paper, and he has used a contraction, then quote it just as it is in the quote. You are not responsible for his writing style, only yours. Some students have actually written [*sic*] after contractions. Don’t do that. Contractions are not wrong, as the [*sic*] would indicate.

Exclamation Mark (aka, exclamation points)

Don’t over use exclamation marks. Too many writers pepper their writings with exclamation marks. In fact, exclamation marks are not appropriate in academic writing. Here’s why: Exclamation marks typically show some sort of emotional outburst. What is the difference between these two example sentences:

“The Bible is the most truthful book ever written!” (Exclamatory sentence)

“The Bible is the most truthful book ever written.” (Declaratory sentence)

The first sentence is loaded with emotion and opinion.

The second sentence is a simple statement of fact.

In writing academic papers, your job is to “state and defend.” So, you might make the statement, “The Bible is the most truthful book ever written,” and then you would go on to defend—or prove—that statement.

Here is another one:

“Jesus is Lord!”

“Jesus is Lord.”

The first sentence belongs in your preaching, and the second one belongs in your academic term paper.

Another thing that the exclamation mark might indicate is amazement. Example: “After all that undeniable evidence, the atheist still did not capitulate!”

However, it is not your job as an academic writer to express your *emotion* or *amazement*. When you do that, you are telling your reader how he is supposed to feel about something. And, that not your job either.

STATE AND DEFEND

It is vitally important that students realize that their job in writing a Research Paper is simply to *State and Defend*. You are to *state* your position, for example, “Jesus is Lord,” and then you are to give the evidence for your claim. Your job is simply to *state and defend*.

I cannot tell you the number of student papers that I have read in which students made all sorts of assertions without defending them. One student once asserted that “*Most Christian scholars today are more concerned with the approval of men than the approval of God.*” “Most”? I thought to myself, “*Wow, that’s a big assertion.*” You see, he had given no proof for his assertion, and he had to remove it from his paper.

If you have done your job well in arguing your position without emotion and unfounded assertions, then your reader will be excited about your conclusion. You do not have to exclaim that “*Jesus is Lord!*” If you have adequately given the evidence for your claim and you have done your job well, *your reader* will exclaim, “*Jesus is Lord!*” And, that’s the real goal of your paper: to convince your readers of your position, to persuade them with the evidence, not emotion, that your position is the right one.

With that in mind, one other aspect of argument must be missing from your academic papers: sarcasm. I have read students’ papers in which they attempted to use sarcasm instead of logical argumentation to discredit their opponent’s position. In reality, sarcasm does just the opposite. Rather than discrediting the opponent’s position, it discredits the person who is using the sarcasm. Academic papers should be devoid of both emotion and sarcasm.

Next, do not *ask questions of your reader*; just **State and Defend**. This is much the same as you would see in a scientific report or a news report. For examples of this, read articles in professional newspapers. The author never refers to himself nor does he address his readers directly or indirectly by asking questions. Let us not misunderstand this protocol: one of our mentors wrote this to me:

What I have experienced with at least two of my students is that they place their firm conclusions at the beginning of their papers (presumably due to this protocol), and then proceed to defend that position. To me that's just bad style because the student's adopted position is presented *a priori* as a foregone conclusion, and it lacks the subtlety that is necessary in "sneaking up on" the reader. In my opinion (and this is what I teach my students), the reader should be allowed to come to his own (and, hopefully, the writer's) conclusion after having been led to it by the evidence. An effective writer wins converts to his position by first assuming (and presenting) a level playing field, by understating his case, and by subtly dismantling opposing views along the way until all that is left as a viable option is the writer's own view. If, instead, he tells the reader what the conclusion is before he even presents the evidence, he will have lost those in his audience who are predisposed toward an opposing view because they will now read his thesis through a defensive and critical wall. Is there flexibility on this rule, and room for personal style?

State and defend is not a prescription for presenting the conclusions at the beginning of papers. The state and defend refers to the fact that (1) students are not to address their readers with questions, and (2) that assertions without proof will not be accepted. However, *state and defend* is not promoting the idea that the student should present his position *a priori* as a foregone conclusion. Our mentor is right. Part of the art of academic writing is that the student subtly--*but with evidence* and not just empty assertions, outbursts of emotions, or sarcasm—leads his reader to his logical conclusion.

THE FOURTEEN ANATHEMAS IN ACADEMIC WRITING

Anathema: Something greatly reviled, loathed, or shunned.

1. *Commas and periods outside the quotation marks*
2. *Exclamation marks (or exclamation points)*
3. *Sarcasm*
4. *Emotional outbursts*
5. *Wrong pagination*
6. *Wrong margins*
7. *Misspelled words*
8. *Extremely long sentences*
9. *Misuse of commas*
10. *Use of first and second person, personal pronouns*
11. *Use of clichés*
12. *Improper style in footnotes*
13. *Assertions without a proper defense*
14. *Writing in the passive voice*

Lecture 5, Exercise

Exercise: Just read and follow the instructions in each question.

1. True or False: When sentences containing two or more short independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction (e.g., *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *for*), no comma is needed.
2. Punctuate this sentence correctly: John arrived early and Mary came later.
3. Which of the following reflects the correct mechanical method of the addition of emphasis added? (aka, emphasis mine, but it should be emphasis added in academic papers)
 - a. "He directed me to take the *whole* batch" (emphasis added).⁷
 - b. "He directed me to take the *whole* batch"⁷ (emphasis added).
 - c. "He directed me to take the *whole* batch." (emphasis added)⁷
 - d. "He directed me to take the *whole* batch."⁷ (emphasis added)

and . . . which of these is correct

- a. "Jesus *wept*" (emphasis added, John 11:35).⁷
 - b. "Jesus *wept*"⁷ (emphasis added, John 11:35).
 - c. "Jesus *wept*." (emphasis added, John 11:35)⁷
 - d. "Jesus *wept*."⁷ (emphasis added, John 11:35).
4. Punctuate this sentence correctly:

Well, we have two choices one is as Tom has pointed out "We can go left!"
or we can go right.
 5. Underline or Italics can be used for two things: what are they?
 6. True or False: You should avoid writing one-sentence paragraphs in academic papers.
 7. How many words does it take to be considered a long sentence?
 8. If your reader cannot understand what you have written, who failed?
 9. Fill in the blank: "Write to express not to _____."

10. True or False: It is okay to use clichés in academic term papers.
11. What is “dead wood” in writing? _____
12. True or False: You may use abbreviations in the text (i.e., the body of the paper).
13. True or False: You may use the abbreviation of “Dr.” in academic term papers.
14. True or False: The abbreviation etc., is a sort of “catch all” that you can use at the end of sentences.
15. True or False: e.g., - means “that is” while i.e., means “for example.”
16. True or False: The word *sic*, which means “so, thus,” should be italicized and placed in brackets, like this: [*sic*]
17. Fill in the blank: When you have _____ full lines or more of material to quote, you should place the material into a block quote.
18. If a writer of an academic term paper must refer to himself, he must use the _____ person, personal pronoun.
19. The main text material (i.e., the body of the paper) of a term paper is _____-spaced.
20. A block quote must be _____-spaced.
21. True or False: The block quote does not have beginning and ending quotation marks around it.
22. In the main text, when you have a quote within a quote, you set off the inside quote in _____ quotation marks.
23. When you have a quote within a block quote, you set off the inside quote in _____ quotation marks.
24. All writing in academic papers must have the _____ right edge.

25. Fill in the punctuation and fix anything that may be wrong in this footnote:

¹Gary L Harbaugh God's Gifted People Minneapolis Min Augsburg Publishing House 1988 p. 20.

26. Noting the mechanics at the end of a quote, which is correct?

- a. "We all need theological understanding."¹
- b. "We all need theological understanding".¹
- c. "We all need theological understanding".¹
- d. "We all need theological understanding¹".

27. Fill in the blanks: Concerning Indentations . . .

- Paragraphs = _____ spaces (from the left margin)
Block quotes = _____ spaces (from the left margin)
Footnotes = _____ spaces (from the left margin)

28. Book titles and magazine titles must be either _____ or _____.

29. True or False: *Ibid.* means "in the same place" and is used in footnotes to refer to the book, chapter, article, or page cited just before.

30. Footnotes are to be _____-spaced, but the space between the footnote entries is _____-spaced.

31. True or False: Commas are unique punctuation marks in that they are to be used according to one's personal style and preference. Thus, commas are personal issues of punctuation and what is right for one person may not be right for another person.

32. Which is the correct use of the commas with the title "Jr."?

a. Rick Walston is the 5th great grandson of Rob Morris, Jr., the financier of the American Revolution and signer of the Declaration of Independence.

b. Rick Walston is the 5th great grandson of Rob Morris Jr., the financier of the American Revolution and signer of the Declaration of Independence.

33. *This one was accidentally skipped over in the audio lecture.*

34. True or False: There are no spaces before, between, or after the periods (or dots) in an ellipses.

35. True or False: Every time a quote is taken from a book, the footnote must give the full citation of it.
36. Concerning interpolations: **Brackets** [] are to be used when you are inserting your thoughts or clarifications into _____.
37. Concerning interpolations: **Parentheses** () are to be use when you are inserting your thoughts or clarifications into _____.
38. Where do page numbers go in an academic paper? _____
39. How wide are the margins to be on academic term papers: Top margin _____ . Bottom margin _____ . Right margin _____ . Left margin _____ .
40. True or False: Academic papers should have the justified right margin.
41. I, me, my, mine, we, ours are called _____ person, _____ pronouns.
42. True or False: The passive voice is acceptable in academic papers.
43. True or False: You ain't suppose to use contractions in academic papers.
44. True or False: Exclamation marks should be used often in academic papers because they indicate a "punch" that simply is not in normal writing.
45. True or False: Sarcasm is a good tool use in academic papers because it discredits the opponent.
46. Your job in writing your academic paper is to _____ *and* _____ your position.
47. True or False: You only need to make assertions in your paper. You do not have to provide proof or evidence for your assertions because only secular writers do it that way. As Christians, we don't have to provide proof or evidence for our assertions.

48. Fill in the blanks The Fourteen Anathemas in Academic Writing

1. Commas and periods _____ the quotation marks.
2. Exclamation _____.
3. Sar _____.
4. Emotional _____.
5. Wrong _____.
6. Wrong _____.
7. Misspelled _____.
8. Extremely _____ sentences.
9. Misuse of _____.
10. Use of _____ and _____ person, personal pronouns.
11. Use of _____.
12. Improper style in _____.
13. Assertions without a _____.
14. Writing in the _____ voice.