



**TRINITY COLLEGE OF THE BIBLE
AND THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY**

ORIENTATION MANUAL

TAB 5

**RESEARCH/
WRITING HELPS**



TRINITY

COLLEGE OF THE BIBLE AND THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

Trinity's Information Specialist

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Welcome Trinity Student and Greetings in the Wonderful Name of Christ!

The learning experience you will receive at Trinity is only as good as your efforts to make the education useful for your ministry and sphere of influence. It is my prayer that you will be diligent in your pursuit of what God has for you in this adventure as stated in Prov. 4:4-13, Tit. 1:9; 2:1, II Tim. 1:13 and in Ps. 90:12 (The New Living): "Teach us to make the most of our time, so that we may grow in wisdom."

Distance education provides you with a wonderful opportunity to obtain your desired degree while at the same time creating challenges that may be new to you. Several challenges may be the ability to locate scholarly information relevant to your research needs, thinking critically about how it addresses your needs, and discovering where and how you can use it.

In order to help you with that process Trinity provides you with access to information resources in many different formats and can guide you to relevant resources on the Internet to further your research opportunities. You will find information about online databases in the "Library" tab of the Trinity web page at: www.trinitysem.edu or via the TOLC (<http://lessons.trinitysem.edu>) click on Hunter Theological Library on the left menu. If you do not have computer access to the Internet, please notify me when you have your information need concisely organized and ready for discussion.

Characteristics of the Internet

1. It is necessary that you realize the Internet is a dynamic and ever changing environment. What you see on a Web site today may no longer be available within a few hours.
2. It is necessary to be critical and evaluate what you find on the internet. For help: Go to the "Library" area of the Trinity home page. Then look for "*Doing Research Documents*" and note the files titled: "Tools..." for the information you need.
3. Internet information is posted by many different sources. Be aware that, for the most part, you will need to search for resources that come from recognized names in the field of your work or for articles that come from scholarly journals. Help for understanding how to discern what "the right stuff" is, may be found in the files referred to above.

"Doing Research Documents" (see #2 above)

These files (located in the "Library" section of the Trinity Web site) reflect the research process. Look these files over while doing your research as they will answer many of your questions. Should you be new to online research, please note the file "First Help" and take advantage of using the tutorial.

Live Personal Assistance

Using the contact information located above, communicate with me when you need assistance.

It is my prayer that God leads you into exactly what He wants you to learn during your Trinity learning experience and that your ministry will reflect His heart for those whose lives you touch for His glory.

In His Joy,

Ruth deGuzman Dalman
Trinity Information Specialist



TRINITY

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The Theological Journal Library CD (TJLCD)

Dear Trinity Student:

Warmest Christian greetings in the Lord!

As you begin your studies at Trinity College of the Bible and Theological Seminary, it is essential that you have access to resources that will assist you in research. I would strongly encourage you to consider purchasing *The Theological Journal Library*. This software package provides an excellent research tool that will be beneficial to students enrolled in Biblical Counseling, Biblical Studies, Theology, Church History, or Philosophy and Apologetics programs.

These CDs are very helpful, as they are a storehouse for back issues of leading evangelical, theological journals that are 100% searchable by keywords in an easy-to-use format. I have used this CD for some time now and have found it to be altogether helpful for biblical and theological studies, as well as for the history of the Church. I believe this is one of the best ways to enhance your library and your research materials. It permits you to be able to search over 60,000 pages of journal articles from the recent past for words and concepts in your current theological and biblical studies. It truly is a fine tool, and it is available directly from <http://www.galaxie.com/store/default.asp>. Together with your personal library, *The Theological Journal Library* will help boost your studies.

May the Lord richly bless your studies as you make progress toward the completion of your degree program!

In Christ,

W. Stephen Williams, Ed.D.
Vice President for Academic Affairs

INTRODUCTION TO INFORMATION RESOURCES ON THE INTERNET

Search Engines

The Internet offers varied ways to search for your needed information. The easiest and most available method is to use a “search engine” commonly known as “Yahoo, Google, etc.”

Each one has peculiar ways to help enhance your search, but knowing about them can be a challenge. There are:

1. *metasearch engines* – searches a number of engines with one query,
2. *subject search engines* – devoted to a particular subject,
3. *directory search engines* – searches directories on a theme.

Google is currently the most popular, but Dogpile is suggested as well.

Bibliographies

Bibliographies are simply a list of citations that deal with whatever it is you are searching for. Citations are the complete details you need to locate any item of information.

If you needed information on “The Gospel of John” and wanted a list of books (usually) about it, just add the word “bibliographies” to your search query.

Annotated Bibliographies

Annotated bibliographies go a step further and add a summary or an annotation about each item it lists.

Subject Bibliographies

Subject bibliographies deal with whatever topic is in your query/search statement and are sometimes separate from regular query postings that you may get with a general search without using the word “subject.”

Listings of Your State/Local and Public/Academic Libraries

These libraries are sometimes a great resource for you, depending on where you live. Here is the Web site address to locate them.

<http://lists.webjunction.org/libweb/>

International listings for all types of libraries (over 135 countries)

<http://lists.webjunction.org/libweb/>

International Listing of Online Library Catalogs

Search by country name and ‘keyword,’ then go where you want at this Web site:

<http://ww.libdex.com>

A WALK THROUGH THE HAROLD F. HUNTER THEOLOGICAL LIBRARY

Trinity has provided many varied resources for your research needs. The Hunter Theological Library is ready to serve you with multiple resources accessed via the Trinity Web site at: www.trinitysem.edu. Once you are into the Web site, click on “Student,” and then note the tabs at the top of the next page and click on “Library.” You may also access the library via the TOLC at <http://lessons.trinitysem.edu>.

Trinity’s Online Databases

FirstSearch

Online Computer Library Company (OCLC) is the publisher/vendor for a large database of smaller individual databases for your use called **FirstSearch**. For information on navigating the site simply click on the “Help” link after logging in with your Trinity student identification number. If you find yourself having trouble once you have reviewed the information provided, do not hesitate to contact The Information Specialist via email at librarian@trinitysem.edu.

Religious and Theological Abstracts (RTA)

RTA is not your usual database with citations or full text. It has citations with a summary of the item you are seeking. Click on “O.K.” to enter the database.

Doing Research Documents

The files listed here reflect the research process with basic help files immediately at the top of the list. Within these files, is a huge file titled “**Research Routings.**” **Look for it near the end of the list.** This file has a plethora of URLs or Web sites listed from general to very specific. There are resources in these files that *can be very useful* for your individual informational needs.

Should this be your first attempt to do online research, please make use of the “First Help” files and choose one of the tutorials listed. If you need assistance, please contact the Information Specialist.

If you need general, contextual, historical background, all or any of the first four postings listed are helpful. Take your time and see all that is there and available for you. Then arrow down and browse the rest of the topically arranged resources to see all the places you have searching opportunities. If you encounter any dead sites, please contact Tech Support or the Information Specialist.

“Doing Research Documents” will answer key questions. You will find Bloom’s Taxonomy (2001), information on how to write a research paper, how to access Web sites for major seminary libraries, how to get to dissertations by fellow Trinity students, how to locate other dissertations, how to access some discipline specific sites, etc.

IMPORTANT THINGS YOU NEED TO KNOW ABOUT ONLINE ENVIRONMENTS

Serving the Trinity community is a privilege and a joy. We need, however, to share some information concerning the nature of the environment surrounding online information access. Please be aware of the following:

1. Web sites and address changes – Web sites disappear or move at any given time. Please report dead links to Tech Support via email at techsupport@trinitysem.edu or by telephone at: 812-858-6415.
2. Regarding Interlibrary loans (ILL)
 - a. You can use ILL via at your local academic or public library. ILL is a service provided by that library for any card-holding patron.
 - b. ILL is a service provided between participating libraries. Trinity does not currently participate as a contributing member to ILL.
 - c. Reference librarians will be glad to help you locate and suggest places close to your geographic location listing the required material in their library catalog. The Trinity librarian can help you locate materials as well.
 - d. Lending institutions (public, academic, special libraries) set up their own lending and borrowing policies; so there can be no real guarantee that any library is willing to lend to any large/small public library. It is solely at the lending institution's discretion.
3. Magazine article coverage
 - a. Because standardized computer (digital) conversion of data is fairly recent, one must expect that back (retrospective) coverage of any title will not usually be found prior to the 1980's.
 - b. There are always exceptions and many prestigious magazines keep going back further to convert. Please know this as you ask for retrospective (back) coverage of magazine articles.
4. Non-book materials – Be aware that few libraries lend non-book materials outside their usual service area.
5. All things to all men
 - a. Most libraries are service-oriented and desire to fill your informational needs. There are, however, always exceptions. We tend to function under the assumption that information will be provided when it is asked for and that any online search will produce useful results. But please realize that as the attempt is made to "be all things to all men" it is sometimes not possible.
 - b. It may be good to remember that even though we handle each request as the only one we have at the time we are serving you, there are other students you will not see/know about needing help. If you have a lengthy request, you may be asked to break it into sections or limit them and come back later with the rest.
6. Tutorials – There are tutorials written by the Information Specialist presently available at the Student Research Link site (which is hyperlinked directly to Trinity's homepage: www.trinitysem.edu). These tutorials will teach you how to do beneficial searches in each database available.

This statement and disclaimer has been prepared by and is endorsed by Trinity's Information Specialist and Trinity's Academic Department.



**TRINITY COLLEGE OF THE BIBLE
AND THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY**

**TRINITY'S GUIDE
TO
WRITING
AND
BASIC
RESEARCH SKILLS**

September 2008

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TRINITY'S WRITING STANDARDS

Writing skills are crucial to educational success at all degree levels. Academic writing differs from other forms of writing in that it usually:

- Is appropriately narrow in focus;
- Presents an argument based on sound critical thinking;
- Draws upon and properly acknowledges the work of others;
- Presents new understanding in an organized fashion.

Those students who do not meet the basic minimal writing standards, which are commensurate with their degree level, will be asked to take remedial courses or seminars.

All writing in Trinity classes will be evaluated on the basis of standard English, especially in terms of quality, creativity, effectiveness of argumentation, and accuracy of information. In addition, academic writing will be evaluated on the selection and use of appropriate supporting material. All information not original to the student must be cited in a recognized format as found in the current edition of Kate Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Use of information, material, or ideas from outside sources without proper citation is considered plagiarism and is grounds for disciplinary action.

In following good practices established for institutions of higher education, Trinity allows only typewritten work to be submitted (unless otherwise noted). Trinity encourages the use of the Trinity Online Learning Center. Trinity students who cannot utilize this technology can receive their study materials by postal mail. They can also submit all of their lessons in the same manner. In addition, they can interact with faculty and staff by telephone and also access limited research materials through the use of Trinity's Information Specialist.

Code of Ethics/Academic Integrity

Trinity assumes that all of its students desire to pursue all academic work with honesty and scholarly integrity. Breaches of academic honesty and integrity are infringements of the mutual faith and trust essential to the academic enterprise.

Activities that have the effect or intention of interfering with education, pursuit of knowledge, or fair evaluation of a student's performance are prohibited. Examples of activities include, but are not limited to, the following definitions.

1. **Cheating** – Using or attempting to use unauthorized assistance, material, or study aids in examinations or other academic work, or preventing or attempting to prevent another from using authorized assistance, material, or study aids. *Examples: using a cheat sheet in an exam; altering a graded exam and resubmitting it for a better grade, and so on.*
2. **Plagiarism** – Using the ideas, data, or language of another without specific and proper acknowledgement. *Examples: misrepresenting another's work (paper, report, article, or*

computer work) as one's own original creation and submitting it for an assignment; using someone else's ideas without attribution; failing to cite a reference or to use quotation marks where appropriate, and so on.

3. Fabrication – Submitting contrived or altered information in any academic exercise. *Examples: making up data, fudging data, citing nonexistent or irrelevant articles, and so on.*
4. Multiple Submissions – Submitting, without prior permission, any work submitted to fulfill another academic requirement. *Example: submitting the same paper for two different classes without the instructor's express prior approval.*
5. Misrepresentation of Academic Records – Misrepresenting or tampering with or attempting to tamper with any portion of a student's transcripts or academic record, either before or after coming to Trinity. *Examples: forging a Registration Form or a grade report; tampering with computer records, and so on.*
6. Facilitating Academic Dishonesty – Knowingly helping or attempting to help another violate any provision of this code. *Example: working together on an exam or others' assignments intended to be an individual project without the instructor's express or prior approval.*
7. Unfair Advantage – Attempting to gain unauthorized advantage over fellow students in an academic exercise. *Examples: gaining or providing unauthorized access to examination materials (either past or present); obstructing or interfering with another student's efforts in an academic exercise; lying about a need for an extension for an exam or paper; continuing to write even when time is up during an exam etc.*
8. Computer Crimes – Damaging or modifying computer programs without permission. *Examples: piracy of copyright protected software; hacking; constructing viruses; knowingly introducing viruses into a system; copying programs and data belonging to others, and so on.*

Citation/plagiarism issues will be reviewed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Other breaches of this Code of Ethics/Academic Integrity will be reviewed by the Academic Committee. Sanctions may be imposed, ranging from course and assignment failure to dismissal from Trinity.

HOW TO THINK LOGICALLY

Base your writing on logical thinking. Learn to use inductive and deductive reasoning in your writing. Avoid common fallacies.

INDUCTIVE REASONING: When you reason inductively, you begin with a number of instances (facts or observations) and use them to draw a general conclusion. Whenever you interpret evidence, you reason inductively. The use of probability to form a generalization is called an inductive leap. Inductive arguments, rather than producing certainty, are thus intended to produce probable and believable conclusions. As your evidence mounts, your reader draws the conclusion that you intend. You must make sure that the amount of evidence is sufficient and not based on exceptional or biased sampling. Be sure that you have not ignored information that invalidates your conclusion (called the “neglected aspect”) or presented only evidence that supports a predetermined conclusion (known as “slanting”).

DEDUCTIVE REASONING: When you reason deductively, you begin with generalizations (premises) and apply them to a specific instance to draw a conclusion about that instance. Deductive reasoning often utilizes the syllogism, a line of thought consisting of a major premise, a minor premise and a conclusion; for example, *All men are foolish* (major premise); *Smith is a man* (minor premise); *therefore, Smith is foolish* (conclusion). Of course, your reader must accept the ideas or values that you choose as premises in order to accept the conclusion. Sometimes premises are not stated. A syllogism with an unstated major or minor premise, or even an unstated conclusion, needs to be examined with care because the omitted statement may contain an inaccurate generalization.

THE TOULMIN METHOD: Another way of viewing the process of logical thinking is through the Toulmin method. This model is less constrained than the syllogism and makes allowances for the important elements of probability, backing, or proof for the premise and rebuttal of the reader’s objections. This approach sees arguments as the progression from accepted facts or evidence (data) to a conclusion (claim) by way of a statement (warrant) that establishes a reasonable relationship between the two. The warrant is often implied in arguments, and like the unstated premise in the syllogism, needs careful examination to be acceptable. The writer can allow for exceptions to a major premise. Qualifiers such as *probably*, *possibly*, *doubtless*, and *surely* show the degree of certainty of the conclusion; rebuttal terms such as *unless* allow the writer to anticipate objections.

FALLACIES: A deductive argument must be both valid and true. A true argument is based on generally accepted, well-backed premises. Learn to distinguish between fact (based on verifiable data) and opinion (based on personal preferences). A valid argument follows a reasonable line of thinking.

Fallacies are faults in premises (truth) or in reasoning (validity). They may result from misusing or misrepresenting evidence, from relying on faulty premises or omitting a needed premise, or from distorting the issues. The following are some of the major forms of fallacies:

Non Sequitur: A statement that does not follow logically from what has just been said; in other words, a conclusion that does not follow from the premises.

Hasty Generalization: A generalization based on too little evidence or on exceptional or biased evidence.

Ad Hominem: Attacking the person who presents an issue rather than dealing logically with the issue itself.

Bandwagon: An argument saying, in effect, "Everyone's doing or saying or thinking this, so you should too."

Red Herring: Dodging the real issue by drawing attention to an irrelevant issue.

Either...Or: Stating that only two alternatives exist when in fact there are more than two.

False Analogy: The assumption that because two things are alike in some ways, they must be related in other ways.

Equivocation: An assertion that falsely relies on the use of a term in two different senses.

Slippery Slope: The assumption that if one thing is allowed, it will be the first step in a downward spiral.

Oversimplification: A statement or argument that leaves out relevant considerations about an issue.

Begging the Question: An assertion that restates the point just made. Such an assertion is circular in that it draws as a conclusion a point stated in the premise.

False Cause: The assumption that because one event follows another, the first is the cause of the second. Sometimes called *post hoc, ergo propter hoc* ("after this, so because of this").

STYLE GUIDE

Trinity requires the use of Kate Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*, for all written work submitted to Trinity. Directions regarding style are to be followed first as they appear in the Study Guide, next according to Trinity's Lesson Submission Instructions, and finally as written in the Turabian manual. The Study Guide always takes precedence.

Use a one and a half inch left margin along with one inch right, top and bottom margins. Twelve point Times New Roman font should be used throughout. No color print should be used.

Turabian allows for three kinds of notes: footnotes, endnotes, and parenthetical notes. When footnotes and endnotes are used, a bibliography is required. When parenthetical references are used, a reference list is required. The formatting differs according to each style.

Full spellings for the books of the Bible are preferable for assignments at Trinity.

HOW TO OUTLINE

Working from an outline helps you structure the logic of your paper. It identifies main ideas, defines subordinate ideas, disciplines your writing, maintains the continuity and pacing, discourages tangential excursions, and points out omissions.

A structured outline uses indention and numbers to indicate various levels of subordination. Thus, it is a kind of graphic scheme of the logic of your paper. The main points form the major headings, and the supporting ideas for each point form the subheadings.

I. Major idea

A. Supporting idea

1. Example or illustration for supporting idea
2. Example or illustration for supporting idea
 - a. Detail for example or illustration
 - b. Detail for example or illustration

B. Supporting idea

II. Major idea

A. Supporting idea

1. Example or illustration for supporting idea
2. Example or illustration for supporting idea
 - a. Detail for example or illustration
 - b. Detail for example or illustration

B. Supporting idea

etc.

HOW TO WRITE CORRECT SENTENCES

Master the essentials of the sentence as an aid to clear thinking and effective writing. Writing a good sentence is an art, and you can master that art by developing your awareness of what makes a sentence work. As you become more familiar with the relationships among sentence elements, you will strengthen your writing skills and will be better able to make your meaning clear to your reader (i.e., your grader!).

The most common sentence problems in student writing are: comma splice and fused (or run-on) sentence, sentence fragment (or incomplete sentence), agreement, and shifts. If you are unfamiliar with these terms and others such as subject, verb, object, complement, phrase, main clause, independent clause, subordinate clause, coordinating conjunction, number, person, etc., you are strongly encouraged to research their meanings and application in a standard English grammar book. Please see the list of recommended books in this Survival Manual or consider enrolling in a local or distance writing course.

Keep a few simple principles in mind:

COMMA SPLICE AND FUSED (OR RUN-ON) SENTENCE

Do not link two main (independent) clauses with only a comma (comma splice) or run two main clauses together without any punctuation (fused sentence). Examples:

Comma Splice: The wind was cold, they decided not to walk.

Fused Sentence: The wind was cold they decided not to walk.

To correct comma splices and fused sentences: 1) Place a period after the first main (independent) clause and write the second main clause as a sentence; 2) use a semi-colon to separate main clauses; or 3) insert a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, for, nor, so, yet) after the comma; or 4) make one clause subordinate to the other.

Revisions:

The wind was cold. They decided not to walk.

The wind was cold; they decided not to walk.

The wind was cold, so they decided not to walk.

The wind was so cold that they decided not to walk.

SENTENCE FRAGMENT

Avoid sentence fragments. The term fragment refers to a group of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period. Although written as if it were a sentence, a fragment is only a part of a sentence – such as a phrase or a subordinate clause.

Examples: Larry always working in his yard on Saturdays.
 Because he enjoys his flowers and shrubs.
 Which help to screen his house from the street.
 For example, a tall hedge with a border of petunias.

Eliminate fragments by making them into complete sentences or by connecting them to existing sentences. One way to eliminate many sentence fragments is to be sure that each word group has at least one subject and one predicate.

Corrections: Larry always works in his yard on Saturdays.
He enjoys the flowers and shrubs.
OR: He enjoys the flowers and shrubs that help to screen his house from the street – for example, a tall hedge with a border of petunias.

AGREEMENT

Make a verb agree in number with its subject; make a pronoun agree in number with its antecedent.

A singular subject takes a singular verb, and a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Singular: The **car** in the lot **looks** shabby. [*car looks*]
Plural: The **cars** in the lot **look** shabby. [*cars look*]

When a pronoun has an antecedent (an antecedent is the noun to which the pronoun refers), the noun and pronoun should agree in number.

Singular: A **dolphin** has **its** own language. [*dolphin – its*]
Plural: **Dolphins** have **their** own language. [*dolphins – their*]

SHIFTS

Avoid needless shifts in person and number.

Shift: If a **person** is going to improve, **you** should work harder. [shift from third person to second person]

Better: If **you** are going to improve, **you** should work harder. [second person]
OR: If **people** are going to improve, **they** should work harder. [third person]
OR: If **we** are going to improve, **we** should work harder. [first person]

GENDER REFERENTS

Avoid awkward “his/her” and “he/she” gender constructions.

Awkward: The client is usually the best judge of his or her counseling.

Better: The client is usually the best judge of the value of counseling. [Omit gender referents.]
OR: Clients are usually the best judges of the value of the counseling they receive. [Change to plural]
OR: The best judge of the value of counseling is usually the client. [Rephrase the sentence.]

HOW TO WRITE GOOD PARAGRAPHS

A GOOD PARAGRAPH IS A MINI-ESSAY. IT SHOULD DEMONSTRATE THREE COMPONENTS:

1. *Introduction*, i.e., a topic sentence
2. *Body*, i.e., supporting details
3. *Conclusion* or a transitional sentence to the paragraph that follows

A GOOD PARAGRAPH IS CHARACTERIZED BY UNITY, COHERENCE, AND ADEQUATE DEVELOPMENT.

Unity: State the main idea of the paragraph in a clearly constructed topic sentence. Make sure each sentence is related to the central thought.

Coherence: Arrange ideas in a clear, logical order. Provide appropriate transitions to the subsequent paragraph.

Adequate development: Develop your paragraphs with specific details and examples.

STRATEGIES FOR ADEQUATE DEVELOPMENT

Elaborate: Spell out the details by defining, or by clarifying and adding relevant, pertinent information.

Illustrate: Paint a verbal picture that helps make or clarify your point(s). Well illustrated pieces are easier to read and follow than those on a high level of abstraction.

Argue: Give the reasons, justifications, and rationales for the position or view you have taken in the topic sentence. Draw inferences for the reader and explain the significance of assertions or claims being made.

Narrate: Relate the historical development of the phenomenon at issue.

Process: Describe how something works.

Describe: Observe without preconceived categories.

Classify: Organize phenomena or ideas into larger categories that share common characteristics.

Analyze: Divide phenomena or ideas into elements.

Compare

and Contrast: Show similarities and differences between two or more phenomena or ideas.

Relate: Show correlations and causes. (Beware of logical fallacies, however!)

A paragraph should be neither too short nor too long. A good paragraph in a Trinity exercise should be about 5-6 sentences long. As a general rule, avoid single-sentence paragraphs. If your paragraphs run longer than a page, you are probably straining the grader's thought span. Look for a logical place to make a break or reorganize the material. Indent each new paragraph five spaces.

HOW TO WRITE A WHOLE COMPOSITION

The following is a general structure to follow for many kinds of writing. Adapt it to specialized assignments as appropriate.

I. INTRODUCTION

The introduction is intended to draw the reader into the body of material to follow. It should begin with a general statement or question, sometimes called the "thesis statement" or "thesis question," followed by a quick narrowing down to the main theme to be developed in the body. Set the stage quickly, give appropriate background, then move right into a transition sentence that will set up the reader for the body.

II. BODY (ARGUMENT)

The body of a written piece is where you elaborate, defend, and expand the thesis introduced in the introduction. The body should support your main contention with supporting evidence and possible objections. A good body presents both sides of a case, pro and con. As you make your case, save your best argument for last. When presenting contrary views, be sure to set forth the strongest arguments so you can avoid being charged with erecting a "straw man." The body includes three components:

- Elaboration:* Spell out the details by defining, or by clarifying and adding relevant, pertinent information.
- Illustration:* Paint a verbal picture that helps make or clarify your point(s). Well illustrated pieces are easier to read and follow than abstract ones.
- Argumentation:* Give the reasons, justifications, and rationales for the position or view you have taken in the introduction. Draw inferences for the reader and explain the significance or assertions or claims being made.

When moving from one sub-point or argument to another, use connecting or transitional words and phrases that enable your reader to easily follow the flow of your thinking. The following is a partial list of logical connectors that you can use:

- exceptions* - but, alas, however, etc.
- illustrations* - for instance, for example, etc.
- conclusions* - thus, so, therefore, consequently, etc.
- comparisons* - similarly, by contrast, etc.
- qualifications* - yet, still, etc.
- additions* - moreover, furthermore, etc.

III. CONCLUSION

Make your final appeal to the reader, a finishing, all-encompassing statement that wraps up your presentation in a powerful or even dramatic fashion. Normally a single paragraph, brief and concise, will suffice. The purpose of the conclusion is to leave the reader with an idea or thought that captures the essence of the body while provoking further reflection and consideration.

HOW TO MASTER DICTION, RHETORIC, AND STYLE

DICTION

Diction refers to precision and clarity in word choice as well as appropriate levels of usage. Make certain that every word means exactly what you intend it to mean. Eliminate ambiguity and avoid informal, colloquial, regional, dialectical, nonstandard, archaic, and cliché expressions.

RHETORIC

Rhetoric is the art of using language effectively. Rhetoric involves the writer's purpose, the consideration of audience, the arrangement and organization of thought, smoothness, clarity, logic, and economy of expression.

Purpose. The clearer your purpose, the better your writing is likely to be. The purposes of nonfiction writing may be classified as expressive, expository, and persuasive. These purposes are often combined in an extended piece of writing. Expressive writing emphasizes the writer's subjective feelings and reactions. Expository writing focuses the reader's attention on the objective world. Persuasive writing is intended to influence the reader's attitudes and actions. Most writing is to some extent persuasive; however, it is usually called persuasive if it is clearly arguing for or against a position.

Audience and Occasion. Keep in mind the audience and the occasion for which you are writing. Your understanding of audience and occasion will determine your choice of words, examples, details, and tone. Tone is a reflection of your attitude toward your subject. It must be appropriate to your purpose, audience, and occasion.

Arrangement and Organization of Thought. Thought units—whether single words, a sentence or paragraph, or longer sequences—must be orderly. You must aim for continuity in words, concepts, and thematic development from the opening statement to the conclusion so that readers (i.e., graders) will understand what you are presenting.

Continuity can be achieved in several ways. Punctuation marks contribute to continuity by showing relationships between ideas. They cue the grader to the pauses, inflections, subordination, and pacing normally heard in speech. Neither overuse nor underuse one type of punctuation, such as commas or dashes.

Continuity is also achieved through the use of transitional words. A pronoun that refers to a noun in the preceding sentence serves as a transition and also helps avoid repetition. Other transition devices are time links (then, next, after, while, since); cause and effect links (therefore, consequently, as a result); or contrast links (however, but conversely, nevertheless, although, whereas).

Smoothness, Clarity, and Logic of Expression. Aim for clear and logical communication. Sometimes when you spend much time close to your own material, you lose objectivity and may not see certain problems, especially inferred contradictions. Avoid setting up ambiguity, inserting the unexpected, omitting the expected and suddenly shifting the topic, tense, or person. These devices can confuse or disturb graders.

Economy of Expression. Say only what needs to be said. Tighten overly long papers by eliminating redundancy, wordiness, jargon, evasiveness, circumlocution, and clumsiness. Weed out overly detailed descriptions, gratuitous embellishments, elaborations of the obvious, and irrelevant observations or asides. Use no more words than are necessary to convey the meaning. Direct, declarative sentences with simple, common words are usually best. Short words and short sentences are easier to comprehend than long ones (although variety in sentence length can be helpful for readers). Similar precautions apply to paragraph length. Single-sentence paragraphs may be abrupt. New paragraphs provide a pause for the grader – a chance to store one step in the conceptual development before beginning another. If your paragraphs run longer than a page, you are probably straining the grader's thought span. Look for a logical place to make a break or reorganize the material.

STYLE

Style is the author's individual choice and arrangement of words, sentence structures, and ideas as well as less definable characteristics, such as rhythm and euphony. To a limited extent, style can be thought of as the written expression of a writer's personality and quality of thought. In academic writing, personality may need to be subordinated to clarity, simplicity, orderliness, and sincerity.

SOME STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE YOUR WRITING

1. Write from an outline. Sometimes coming up with an outline might prove difficult. In those cases, simply write on a piece of paper *whatever* comes to mind regarding a topic—questions, impressions, feelings, reservations, etc. From this free-style exercise, you should note how various thoughts might be rearranged into an outline. Then write your essay from this initial outline. At this stage do not be concerned about punctuation, spelling, or diction. Then go to suggestion #2.
2. Put the paper aside and reread it later. If you read the paper aloud, you have an even better chance of finding problems. After this, proofread the essay to correct spelling and grammar. Change sentences around as needed to make your paragraphs clearer.
3. Get critiques from one or two colleagues.
4. Hire professional editorial help if necessary.

HOW TO USE HEADINGS

A system of levels of headings and subheadings can be used to correspond to the levels of subordination in an outline (i.e., the major ideas in your outline can be given a first level heading, the supporting ideas can be given a second level heading, and so on). There should always be some intervening text between subheadings. Organizing your work in levels of subordination that are identified with appropriate levels of headings will make it easier for you to write your paper and will make it easier for your grader to understand your points.

Trinity requires students to use the headings style of Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. However, some study guides might specify how your essay should be formatted. Any specifications from the study guide take precedence over Turabian.

KATE TURABIAN STYLE LEVELS OF HEADINGS

Level 1: Centered Heading, Underlined or in Boldface, Capitalized Headline Style

Level 2: Centered Heading, Not Underlined or in Boldface, Capitalized Headline Style

Level 3:

Side heading underlined or in boldface, capitalized sentence style

Level 4:

Side heading, not underlined or in boldface, capitalized sentence style

Level 5:

Heading indented and run into (at the beginning of) a paragraph and underlined or in boldface, capitalized sentence style.

HOW TO USE OUTSIDE SOURCES

Writing a research paper usually takes much more time than writing an essay based on what you already know. The distinctive feature of a research assignment is that it requires you to develop a subject in depth by drawing upon outside resources and acknowledging these sources responsibly.

You have several options for including material from other writers. You may quote their exact words, paraphrase them, or summarize them. Whatever option you choose, make sure that you use resources responsibly. Words or ideas taken from other writers should not be distorted in any way, and credit should be given whenever appropriate.

PLAGIARISM. Failure to cite a source, deliberately or accidentally, is plagiarism -- presenting as your own work the words or ideas of another. After you have done a good deal of reading about a given subject, you will be able to distinguish between common knowledge in that field and the distinctive ideas or interpretations of specific writers. If you are in doubt about whether you need to cite a source, the best policy is to cite it.

DIRECT QUOTATIONS. A quotation should contribute an idea to your paper. Select quotations only if they are important and make them an integral part of your text. Direct quotations must be accurate in all details. Pay close attention to form, punctuation, and spacing.

PARAPHRASE. A paraphrase is a restatement of a source in about the same number of words. Paraphrasing enables you to demonstrate that you have understood your reading; it also enables you to help your audience (your course assessor!) understand the results of your reading. The most common reason for paraphrasing is to restate difficult material more simply.

Your restatement of someone else's words should honor two important principles: your version should be almost entirely in your own words, and your words should accurately convey the content of the original passage. If you simply change a few words in a passage, you have not adequately restated it. As a general rule, begin paraphrases with a phrase that indicates you are about to restate another writer's words, e.g., "Moffatt argued that . . .".

Paraphrase whenever doing so will make your sources clearer or your paper flow more smoothly; *quote* when you want to retain the beauty or clarity of someone else's words.

SUMMARY. A summary is a concise restatement (shorter than the original source). Summarizing enables writers to report the work of others without getting bogged down in unnecessary detail. When you summarize, you may find it useful to retain a key phrase from your source, but if you do so, put quotation marks around the words you use.

Paraphrase when you want to restate a passage so that it is easier to understand or fits more smoothly into your paper; *summarize* whenever you can save space by condensing a passage (or in some cases, an entire work).

USE THE FOLLOWING CITATION STYLE AND APPLY IT CONSISTENTLY IN YOUR WORK:

Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*, current edition (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

HOW TO WRITE A CRITICAL PAPER

“CRITICISM”:

n. The art, skill or profession of making discriminating judgments and evaluations.

THE ESSENCE OF CRITICAL THINKING

Ask Four Basic Questions as You Read/Listen:

- 1) What is the book/message about as a whole?
- 2) What is the author/speaker saying in detail, and how is it said?
- 3) Is the book/message true, in whole or in part?
- 4) What is the significance of the book/message?

ELEMENTS OF A CRITICAL PAPER

The following is a general structure to follow for the *body* of a critical paper. Be sure to include a suitable introduction and conclusion, as described in the previous section, *How to Write a Whole Composition*. Adapt it to specific assignments as appropriate.

PART ONE: DESCRIPTION

Classify the book/message according to kind and subject matter.

Very briefly, state what the whole of the book/message is about.

Enumerate the major parts of the book/message in their order and relation.

Define the problem or problems that the author/speaker is trying to solve.

PART TWO: INTERPRETATION

Find the important words (terms) in the book/message and determine the author's/speaker's meaning of these terms, with precision.

Identify the most important sentences (propositions) in the book/message, the ones that express the judgments on which the whole book/message rests. These are the foundational affirmations and denials of the author/speaker. They must be either premises or conclusions. State them in your own words.

Construct the author's/speaker's arguments, beginning with any assumptions and/or self-evident propositions. An argument is the author's/speaker's line of reasoning aimed at demonstrating the truth or falsehood of his or her claims, that is, the coherent series of reasons, statements, or facts that support or establish a point of view. If the arguments are not explicitly expressed in the book/message, you will need to construct them from sequences of sentences.

Determine the author's/speaker's solutions to the problem or question that he or she posed. Ask: Which problems were solved and which were not? Did the author/speaker know which were not solved?

PART THREE: CRITICISM

General Pointers.

From this point on, you will have a chance to argue with the author/speaker and express yourself, but keep in mind the following general maxims of scholarly etiquette:

Do not say that you agree, disagree, or suspend judgment until you have adequately interpreted the book/message. Do not begin criticism until you are able to say, with reasonable certainty, “I understand,” i.e., I have done an adequate job with parts one and two. Complete the task of understanding before rushing in.

When you disagree, do so reasonably and not contentiously.

Three conditions must be satisfied if controversy is to be well conducted:

Make an attempt at impartiality by reading/listening sympathetically.

Acknowledge any emotions that you bring to the dispute.

State your own assumptions explicitly.

Determine, wherever possible, the *origins* and the *consequences* of the author’s/speaker’s arguments.

Try to locate the origins of the author’s/speaker’s ideas in the larger picture of history. What movements, currents of thought, or other thinkers might have influenced him or her? Then carry the author’s/speaker’s ideas to their logical conclusions. To the best of your ability and given the academic background that you already possess, relate the author’s/speaker’s ideas to those of other authors with whom you are familiar.

Judge the *soundness* of the author’s/speaker’s arguments.

As called for, show where the author/speaker is *uninformed*. To support your remarks, you must be able to state the knowledge that the author/speaker lacks and show how it is relevant, i.e., how it affects the conclusions.

As called for, show where the author/speaker is *misinformed*, where assertions are made that are contrary to fact. This kind of defect should be pointed out only if it is relevant to the conclusions. To support your remark, you must be able to argue the truth or greater probability of a position contrary to the author/speaker.

As called for, show where the author/speaker is *illogical*, where there are fallacies in reasoning. You may refer to the previous section “How to Think Logically” for a detailed description of logical fallacies.

If you have not been able to show that the author/speaker is uninformed, misinformed, or illogical on relevant matters, you simply cannot disagree. You must agree, at least in part, although you may suspend judgment on the whole. If you have been convinced, you should admit it. If, despite your failure to support one or more of these critical points, you still honestly feel unconvinced, perhaps you should not have said that you understood in the first place!

Judge the completeness of the author's/speaker's arguments.

Define any inadequacy precisely. Did the author/speaker solve all the problems he/she started with? Did the author/speaker make the best use of available materials and resources? Did the author/speaker see all the implications and ramifications of the problem? Did the author/speaker make all essential or relevant distinctions in his or her presentation?

Judge the value of the book/message.

Your final evaluation must be concerned with the truth and significance of the book/message for a given purpose, i.e., its *value*. This judgment must be based on definite criteria. These criteria should be internal (soundness and completeness) as well as external (relevance to some purpose).

PART FOUR: (OPTIONAL) INTEGRATE THE ACADEMIC AND THE PERSONAL

Engage the key idea(s) that are most provocative and alive for you. Consider how your experience is similar to or different from what you read. Identify any spiritual issues as they arose for you and your way of responding to or struggling with them. Describe which key ideas, if any, might be applied in your ministry.

HOW TO WRITE A RESEARCH PAPER

STEP ONE: CHOOSE A TOPIC

Select a specific, focused topic to research. Where do topic ideas come from? If ideas are not suggested in your study guide, you can often find a topic by looking through your textbooks, particularly in the sections that list suggestions for further reading and study. You can go through lecture notes, examine books and articles in the library, look through subject catalogs, or refer to encyclopedias. Often the most interesting topics for you personally are drawn from your own experience – your personal knowledge, interests, and beliefs.

STEP TWO: NARROW YOUR TOPIC BY DEVELOPING SOME RESEARCHABLE QUESTIONS THAT YOU WOULD LIKE TO ANSWER

Rather than beginning with a preconceived thesis (a truth claim) that you then must rationalize, narrow your topic by developing a set of questions related to it. You might start with the classic journalists' questions Who? What? When? Where? How? Why? Or ask, What is positive about "X"? What is negative? What is merely interesting?

Consider your topic from different perspectives. The static perspective focuses on what is. The dynamic perspective looks at action and change. The relative perspective examines relationships and systems. Ask, for example: How can "X" be systematically described? How has "X" changed over time? What other factors are related to "X"? How is one element of "X" related to another?

Other strategies for question development can focus on narration, process, cause and effect, definition, classification and division, or comparison and contrast. For example: In what sequence of events does "X" manifest? What precedes and what follows "X"? Is it possible to say what causes "X"? How can "X" be systematically defined? What classes and subclasses of "X" exist, and how are they significant to the whole of "X"? How does "X" compare and contrast with "Y"?

Some ideas will seem worth pursuing; others will seem inappropriate for your purpose, audience, or occasion. You will find yourself discarding ideas even as you develop new ones.

STEP THREE: SURVEY THE FIELD

Create a tentative bibliography of your topic by searching relevant databases, library catalogues, and existing bibliographies in books. For searching computerized indexes, carefully choose key words that best capture the essence of your topic. Seek the help of a local professional librarian or Trinity's Information Specialist if necessary.

Skim all of the works on the tentative bibliography to acquire a clearer idea of the topic and to ascertain which facts are most useful for your paper.

Find the passages in the books and articles that are most germane to your needs. Revise your research questions in light of what your literature survey reveals. Search and revise again if necessary.

STEP FOUR: WRITE THE PAPER

The following is a general structure to follow for many kinds of research papers. Adapt it to specific assignments as appropriate.

Introduction. Announce the subject, set the tone and gain the reader's attention and interest. Provide some general information on the background of your topic.

Statement of the Problem. Announce the purpose of your study. Give the reader a firm sense of what you're doing and why. List the questions that you will address. List your assumptions, those self-evident conditions that you take for granted. Describe your rationale, the underlying principles, and the logical basis for your study. Define the scope of your work and discuss any weaknesses that you can perceive in your approach. Define the key terms that you will use in your paper. Stipulate meanings for ambiguous terms.

Summary of Investigation. Identify the principal works and authors, the main ideas dealing with your topic, and any generally accepted concepts and explanations. Organize your review by themes, systematic propositions, historical sequences, or other important ideas relative to the research questions that you asked. Take note that this is a creative exercise. Do not merely cite a reference, write a few sentences about its content, and then repeat the procedure for the next reference. Organize your summary of the thinking on your topic in such a way as to clarify for your reader the commonly accepted ideas, the current points of debates, and aspects of the topic yet to be investigated adequately.

Analysis of Findings. You must do more than ask and answer questions. You must show how your questions are answered differently and try to say why. You must be able to point to books and articles that support your classification of answers. In a research paper, the solution to the problem or the answer to the question often is found in the ordered discussion itself rather than in any set of assertions about it. Once again, identify any contradictions, gaps, uncertainties and controversies that you uncovered. Sort, arrange, and define the issues that arise. If a question is clear, and if you can be reasonably certain that authors answer it in different ways, then an issue has been defined. It is the issue between the authors who answer the question in one way and those who answer it in another opposing or variant way. Classify the authors according to their views on the issues. An issue is truly joined when two authors who understand a question in the same way answer it in contrary ways. Remember, however, that differences in answers can often be ascribed as much to different conceptions of the question as to different views of the subject.

Maintain objectivity. Remember that none of the opinions in conflict may be wholly true. Try to see all sides fairly. Make a deliberate effort to balance question against question, to forgo any comment that might be prejudicial, and to check any tendency toward overemphasis or underemphasis. Avoid animosity and *ad hominem* arguments. Do not cite authors out of context. Accompany interpretation of authors' views with actual quotations from their texts.

Conclusion. Ask yourself, “What conclusions and implications can I draw from my study?” Synthesize new information and personal insights in a way that is uniquely yours. Draw on your own insights, make connections, note similarities, discern what is true. Evaluate your findings with respect to your own theological and philosophical perspectives. However, avoid polemics, triviality, and weak theorizing. Make suggestions for future studies if appropriate.

TRINITY'S GUIDELINES FOR GENERAL RESEARCH PAPERS

Research papers should follow the guidelines of formal academic writing. Prepare an essay that introduces a topic and then presents a thesis (argument) about a particular issue. The body of the paper should be a formal expository argument supporting the thesis. The thesis is derived from your academic research and analytical thinking about the research. Remember that evaluators have strong feelings about maintaining the standards of formal academic writing. Thus, poor writing influences the evaluator's ability to assess the depth of learning the student is attempting to convey.

It is important when exploring or developing the ideas and concepts of others, to correctly attribute your research sources using an appropriate documentation style. Although you can offer your own interpretations and ideas in your essay, you also need to refer to expert research sources and writers in the field under discussion. Remember to paraphrase your source material rather than to have extensive and frequent quotes.

The point here is that the evaluator is not interested in reviewing extensive excerpts from various texts that are inserted for "filler." Unsuccessful essays are those that take voluminous excerpts from texts and then connect them with a few narrative statements written by the student. Inferior essays also tend to wander aimlessly through the narrative, rather than be characterized by clear and concise writing.

Successful essays, in contrast, exhibit critical thinking skills and academic discipline. Analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and logical development are the key skills the student applies to interpret ideas, works of literature, or historical events into a meaningful structure. Research and reading of multiple and conflicting sources are essential to the development of adequate essays. An essay that merely recounts events or facts, summarizes other people's ideas, or reports on a book's characters or plot is not fully developed.

Clearly, then, a number of reputable scholarly sources should be consulted. A portion of these should be recent publications (published within the last fifteen years) that provide a broad overview of your topic. An additional number of sources may be more narrowly focused on the particular issue under consideration. Knowledge of current theory and recent research is necessary. Use scholarly literature that describes recent theories and research. The student's own experience may be used to support the thesis in the essay, but it should play a secondary role.

Students should carefully and deeply probe a specific topic or the content of a scholarly work. Essays should be well-developed, well-organized, interesting, original, and supported with reference to criticism. They should reflect an understanding of the time period or of the genre (type of literature) or of a particular theme. They should reflect critical thinking and awareness of the theory related to the content. They should follow the guidelines of formal academic writing.

Generally speaking, formal academic writing (research papers) is done in third-person, not first-person or second-person.

Graduate and post-graduate papers differ from undergraduate papers in several ways. First, graduate and postgraduate essays contain more discussion and insight into the theory and background of the field. These essays may, if appropriate to the course, discuss several different theoretical approaches and provide more discussion about emerging and state-of-the-art issues, ideas, and practices. These essays will contain more citations and references.

Students need to back up their opinions with sources that demonstrate the validity of their approach as well as demonstrate opposing points of view. Students should be just as concerned with the quality of the sources in a reference list as in the quantity of sources. The evaluation of the quality of a source is based on its contribution to current theory, the timeliness of the source, and the depth of information the source provides.

TRINITY'S GUIDELINES FOR ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Annotated bibliographies, especially those done by graduate and post-graduate students, need to do more than give a brief synopsis of the work's contents. They need to discuss – in a concise but substantive fashion – the entry's relative strengths and weakness, especially in comparison with the representative body of literature in the field.

Your annotations should include the following elements. You should name the author of the source (or if it is anonymous use terms like “the author” or “the writer”) followed by a rhetorically accurate verb (such as asserts, argues, suggest, believes, reports, insists, indicates, contends) and a ‘that’ clause containing the major proposition (thesis statement) of the work. Then explain how the author develops or supports the thesis, usually reflecting the order of development in the work. You should also state the author's apparent purpose followed by an ‘in order to’ phrase. Finally, you should describe the intended audience of the source. You will also want to evaluate the usefulness, reliability, strengths and weaknesses of the source. You should use a standardized referencing format.

Example:

Goodall, Jane. “Primitive Research is Inhumane.” In *Animal Rights: Opposing Viewpoints*, edited by Janelle Rohr, 95-100. San Diego: Greenhaven, 1989.

Goodall argues that most laboratories using primates engage in inhumane practices. She supports her argument through detailed descriptions of lab environments and draws special attention to the neglect of psychological comforts which these primates endure until they sometimes become insane. Her purpose is to speak on behalf of the chimpanzees (because they cannot speak for themselves) in order to persuade her readers to see that if we do not fight for improvements in lab care “we make a mockery of the whole concept of justice.” Goodall writes for a non-specialist audience interested in the issues of animal rights; there were no extensive footnotes or bibliography, and the diction was aimed at a well-educated but general audience. This source was a useful introduction to the topic and seems reliable, but was fairly short and very basic. Goodall is a well-known primate researcher and is passionate in her defense of primates, but did not present all points of the issue or counter arguments.

In these annotations you should concentrate on analyzing the source to discover how credible it is and the persuasive strategies used by its author. The annotations should help you keep track of your sources as well as encourage you to read carefully and thoroughly. Additional questions you might consider in writing your annotations:

- 1) Is the author “qualified” to write on the subject and in what way?

- 2) Does the author have a bias or agenda or make assumptions that affect his or her data or argument?
- 3) What method of collecting data to support claims is used by the author? Interviews? Library research? Laboratory experiments? Case studies? Questionnaires?
- 4) How does this study compare to similar studies? Does it agree or disagree with conventional wisdom, established scholarship, government policy, and so on? Are there other works to which this one is specifically indebted or against which it reacts?

Your annotations should be detailed but also succinct, probably no more than 300 words. As in the example, you should give bibliographic information in an approved style for a list of works cited.

TRINITY'S GUIDELINES FOR BOOK REVIEWS

There are two keys to writing a good book review. First, you must summarize the author's position on the topic so that the reader has a basis for evaluating your critique. The key is to say enough so that the reader has a firm understanding of the author's argument, but avoid adding so much detail that there is insufficient room for the critique.

The second and *most important key* to the paper is the analysis of the author's opinion. The student should discuss whether, based on the author's logical and evidentiary support, his or her position is justifiable. For example, consider the article entitled "Is Business Bluffing Ethical" from the *Harvard Business Review*. The author argues that a number of practices that society considers unethical are not unethical in the business world. His evidence for this argument is that businesspeople routinely engage in such practices and do not consider them unethical. Two examples of such practices he cites are deceptive labeling of food packages and the neglect of known safety hazards when corporations manufacture products.

The author's case is defective on two grounds:

1. Many of the practices he cites, including those noted above, are in fact considered unethical by many people in business. Therefore, his basic factual premise is incorrect. [Here, I am challenging the author's evidence. I would cite evidence disputing the author's statement that businesspeople consider such practices ethical.]
2. Even if it is true that businesspeople consider such practices ethical, that does not mean that in fact they *are* ethical. One could conclude alternatively that many business practices are not ethical. To conclude that the practices *are* ethical, one must cite ethical principles, not merely common practice. [Here, I am challenging the author's logic.]

In your paper you would expand on these two points with additional evidence and argument. Note again that the above points critique the author's *evidence* and his *logic*. That should be the focus of your paper, whether you agree or disagree with the author (and critiquing an author does not mean that you must disagree): merely saying that you agree or disagree, or that the author's points are valid or invalid, is unhelpful. You need to ask yourself *why* you agree or disagree: how is the author's logic coherent or flawed; do his or her examples and evidence stand up to scrutiny, or does other evidence contradict them? Although you are not required to do additional research on the topic of the article, you may do so, and you may turn up evidence that either supports or contradicts the author's point. Or you may have evidence from your own experience and knowledge of the topic.

After you have written your paper, review the conclusions you have drawn. Then take the "why" test. For each conclusion ask yourself, *Why* is this conclusion true? *Why* do I know this to be the case? Then ask yourself, is the answer in your paper? If it is not, you have not supported your conclusion. Supporting your conclusions with persuasive argument or evidence

is the key to writing an effective paper. The following are common mistakes in writing a paper such as this:

- Making assertions (conclusions) without supporting them. This is the most common flaw in such papers; always use the “why” test.
- Writing a summary of the article but not critiquing it.
- Writing an essay on the topic rather than specifically critiquing the author’s position.
- Not summarizing the article sufficiently so that the reader can understand your critique (or, putting in too much detail).

SUGGESTIONS FOR PROOFREADING LESSONS

1. Take a break upon completion of your writing before proofing.
2. Use the spell checker and grammar checker only as an initial proofing.
3. Print the pages you are proofing. It is easier to spot mistakes on a printed page than on the computer screen.
4. Slow down and read the pages looking for errors. Reading to catch mistakes is different than reading for content.
5. Read aloud and read one word at a time. Reading what is actually on the page will aid in spotting errors.
6. Use a ruler or blank sheet of paper as a cover to aid in focusing on only one line of text at a time.
7. Proofread more than once. Each time you proofread, concentrate on a different area such as font size, spelling, or subject verb matching tense. Also be aware of those mistakes you know you tend to make.
8. Check page numbers, headers, and footers, as well as any graphics, tables, or charts.
9. When you correct an error, reread your text to make sure your corrections still fit with the rest of the text.
10. Double check your instructions to make sure you have completed every step correctly.

HELPFUL RESOURCES

ACADEMIC STYLE MANUAL

Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Current edition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION TEXTBOOKS

Baugh, L. Sue. *How to Write Term Papers and Reports*, 2nd ed. VGM Career Horizon /NTC Publishing Group, 1996.

Hodges, John C., Mary E. Whitten, Winifred B. Horner, Suzanne S. Webb, and Robert K. Miller. *Harbrace College Handbook*. Current edition. San Diego: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

Hopper, Vincent F., Cedric Gale, Benjamin W. Griffith, and Ronald C. Foote. *Essentials of English*, 5th ed. Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 2000.

Strunk, William Jr., Charles Osgood, and E. B. White. *The Elements of Style*, 4th ed. Macmillan, 1999.

OTHER HELPFUL BOOKS

Adler, Mortimer J., and Charles Van Doren. *How to Read a Book: The Classic Guide to Intelligent Reading*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1972.

Alford, Robert R. *The Craft of Inquiry: Theories, Methods, Evidence*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1998.

Booth, Wayne C., Gregroy G. Colomb, and Joseph M. Williams. *The Craft of Research*, 3rd ed. (Chicago Guides to Writing, Editing and Publishing). University of Chicago Press, 2008.

ONLINE WRITING HELP

NOTE: Web sites change from time to time. It may be necessary to do your own Internet searches to find suitable help.

Paradigm Online Writing Assistant
www.powa.org

Online English Grammar
www.edufind.com/english/grammar

Purdue University Online Writing Lab
<http://owl.english.purdue.edu>

Researchpaper.com: Resources for writing research papers.
www.researchpaper.com

Writing and Presenting Your Thesis or Dissertation
www.canr.msu.edu/aee/dissthes/
Electronic Citation

The Columbia University Press Guide to Online Style
www.columbia.edu/cu/cup/cgos/

PROFESSIONAL EDITORS

You are encouraged to master the art of scholarly writing on your own. The world will expect you, as a college or seminary degree holder, to be an effective writer. In tough cases, it is possible to hire professional writing, editing, proofreading, design and documentation help. However, Trinity does not recommend, endorse or guarantee the work of any professional editing company. If you choose to employ a professional editor, you are responsible for the choice, the cost, and the quality of outcome.