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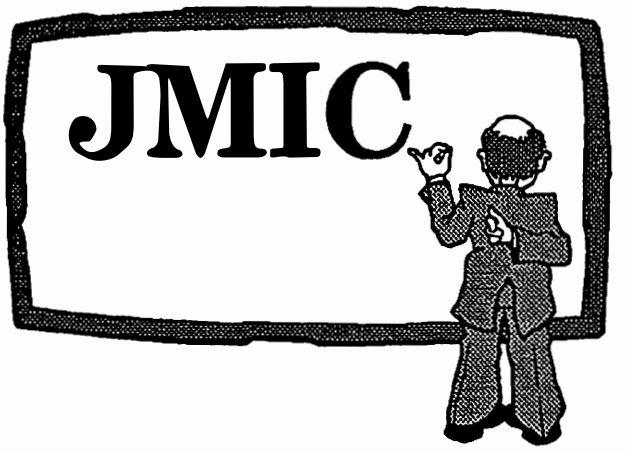

THE STYLE GUIDE:

RESEARCH AND WRITING AT THE

JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE COLLEGE

Second Edition

James S. Major

Defense Intelligence Agency
Joint Military Intelligence College
Writing Center
Washington, DC 20340-5100

"We can exercise our most sophisticated intelligence collection systems, gather rooms full of data, and analyze those data until we reach sound conclusions; but unless we effectively communicate the results of our research, we've wasted our time."

***Communicating Intelligence*, 1987**

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Preface

This book replaces both editions of *Research & Writing Form, Style, & Usage* (September 1988 and January 1990), the later edition entitled *Research and Writing: A Defense Intelligence College Guide,* and the first edition of this book, also entitled *The Style Guide.* Students in both the Postgraduate Intelligence Program and the Undergraduate Intelligence Program, as well as faculty members, have suggested revisions, for which we are in their debt. Especially valuable were the many student questions about--and suggested solutions to--the electronic citations section. Our students are light-years ahead of us in cyberspace, but we are trying to catch up.

This edition uses New Century Schoolbook font, 11 point, and footnotes are set at 10 point. It updates and expands much of the previous material, especially in chapter 8. Forms and formats of title pages, approval sheets, page mockups, and other examples are consolidated in chapters with the papers to which they apply, for convenient reference. Most appendixes in the first edition of *The Style Guide* have been removed from this edition because they were incorporated into the text of another book, *Writing with Intelligence*, August 1995, by James S. Major.

This guide follows *The Chicago Manual of Style* and the *United States Government Printing Office Style Manual* (the "GPO Style Manual").[1] Some information on note and bibliography forms for government publications came from *Citing Government Documents.*[2] You should also be aware of other basic style books such as the timeless *Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses and Dissertations* by Kate L. Turabian (now in its 6th edition, dated 1996), and *The Elements of Style* by William Strunk Jr. and E. B. White. For basic guidance on the principles of writing, students are issued *Writing with Intelligence.* The College Writing Center will provide advice and assistance concerning these and other reference works of potential use to you.

I am indebted to LTC Susan D. West, USA, for the invaluable editorial assistance she lent this project. She reminded me of the importance of having someone else look over my work. And as always, I thank my wife Joan for her continuing inspiration, her abiding faith in me, and her never-ending good cheer.

James S. Major
Washington, DC
August 1996

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[1]*The Chicago Manual of Style*, 14th ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1993); and *United States Government Printing Office Style Manual* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1984).

[2]Diane L. Garner and Diane H. Smith, *The Complete Guide to Citing Government Documents: A Manual for Writers and Librarians* (Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service, Inc., 1984).

A NOTE TO FACULTY MEMBERS:

RESPONDING TO STUDENT WRITING

You have the opportunity to guide your students through a course of study that will shape their careers as intelligence professionals for years to come. One important part of that study is writing. Responding to your students' writing can be tedious, intense, frustrating work that consumes scores of your "off-duty" hours when you'd really rather be doing something else. Or it can be rewarding, pleasurable work that you view as an essential part of your students' learning experience.

If your students are not complaining about your writing assignments, then maybe something is wrong with the assignments. Often months or even years pass before students realize the value writing played in their curriculum at the Joint Military Intelligence College. Many of our graduates are assigned to positions of great responsibility in the government; when we see them again, they invariably have words of high praise for the writing they did here, which prepared them for what they had to do "in the Real World."

This style guide is as much for you, the faculty member, as it is for the student. We hope that it will serve you well, by giving you one less worry in your daily teaching environment. That is, you can let the Writing Center worry about the forms and formats, the rules and regulations, the usage and composition of the language, while you concentrate on content.

Please be sure that your students--and any adjunct professors for whom you are responsible--have a copy of this book ***and that they use it.*** And in responding to student writing, please keep in mind that the Writing Center exists to support you and your students. If you have any questions about writing standards or policy at the Joint Military Intelligence College, please see us. If any of your students have particular problems with writing, refer them to the Writing Center for counseling and remedial work. Our job is to work one-to-one with students and faculty to improve the writing.

Part I:

JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE COLLEGE

STANDARDS

for

RESEARCH and WRITING

"Everything I have ever done is easier than research or writing."

Fawn M. Brodie
Los Angeles Times

CHAPTER 1

COLLEGE RESEARCH AND WRITING

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH AND WRITING

The purpose of the Joint Military Intelligence College research and writing program is to help you apply the concepts you learn to contemporary intelligence situations or important national security issues. You will be required to use scholarly research methods and write papers based on your research. Your paper may be made available to the Intelligence Community or even published. See Appendix D, "Publishing Your Writing," for more information.

Whether you are writing a thesis, a book report, or a term paper for a course, the College requires rigorous research and the highest standards of writing. This guide attempts to set forth clearly and succinctly the College requirements for writing research papers, book reports and book reviews, and theses. These standards are expected of all students in JMIC programs, resident and non-resident, graduate and undergraduate.

Part I (chapters 1-4) contains general guidance applicable to all students pursuing courses of study at the College. Part II (chapters 5-7) has specific guidance on the types of papers you will be asked to write at the JMIC. Students who are writing a research paper or term paper will use chapter 5. For guidelines on book reports, book reviews, and annotated bibliographies, see chapter 6. Those students who write a thesis will follow the instructions in chapter 7. Part III (chapters 8-15) is the style and usage portion of the manual. Chapter 8 contains guidance on bibliographic and note forms as they must be done at the College, and chapter 9 shows you how to cite the most common classified sources. The remainder of Part III contains guidance about usage and style, including cautions concerning some of the most common errors made by students at the Joint Military Intelligence College. The appendixes also contain information of interest.

OFFICE OF APPLIED RESEARCH

The College's Office of Applied Research funds student and faculty intelligence research opportunities. A substantial budget allows supported researchers to conduct on-site research practically anywhere on earth. Students have two opportunities each year to compete for this funding, in late fall and early spring. Each year, about one-third of all full-time resident students, and many weekend, reserve, and satellite campus students, use this opportunity to upgrade the quality of their theses.

THE WRITING CENTER

The Writing Center is a student service with one primary mission: to help you write more clearly, concisely, and correctly, with a sharp focus on intelligence issues, in keeping with the high standards of the College. Unlike many college writing centers, the JMIC Writing Center neither uses peer tutors nor conducts extensive one-to-one counseling. Instead, the Center is responsible for teaching graduate and undergraduate writing and briefing courses at the College. We are there to help, though, and to provide writing services.

Services Offered in the Writing Center

On file in the Writing Center and in the John T. Hughes Library are more than 1,700 past student papers--theses, seminar papers, and practicums--many dating back to the 1970s. An on-line catalog allows you to search the data base by subject, country, author's last name, keyword (in the titles only), and other categories. When you encounter a paper of interest, someone can retrieve it from the files for you. Because the papers are record copies, they must be read in the Writing Center or in the Library. But if parts of the paper are of interest to you (the bibliography, for example), you may copy it. No checkout of papers is permitted. Also available in the Writing Center are hundreds of books dealing with writing in general, writing research papers or theses, and public speaking, as well as reference books such as dictionaries, thesauruses, and military journals.

Because of the number of students at the College and the requirements placed on the limited staff of the Writing Center, we cannot read your papers. However, we can and will offer "drop-in" advice and counseling on specific areas of writing, and we are always willing to listen to any writing or briefing problem you may have. Be sure to note office hours posted on the door of the Writing Center.

SOME TIME-SAVING HINTS

You are strongly encouraged to use a word processor in preparing your papers. If you already own one, you are ready to write. The Joint Military Intelligence College uses IBM-compatible hardware and software and WordPerfect word-processing. Computer workstations are available for student use in the College.

Consider yourself fortunate to be using modern computers and word-processing systems. Most of your professors composed their master's theses and doctoral dissertations on typewriters. Imagine the frustration of being required to retype an entire paper because of a few changes. It's unlikely that your professor will have much sympathy for a paper being late because of "production problems," and mechanical errors like misspellings are becoming less excusable with modern technology to overcome such problems.

Word processing gives you the immediate advantages of speed, spelling checks, and ease of revision and editing. You must ensure, however, that your papers are formatted properly and are legible. Use a letter-quality printer. Some of the cheaper dot-matrix printers are unsatisfactory, but most modern inkjet or laser printers produce acceptable work. The College also has printers available for your use. If you have any doubt about the quality of your printer's work, ask a faculty member. One well-printed copy may be reproduced on a copying machine for multiple submissions.

If you do not own a computer or word processor, ask a faculty member about a group purchase. Students and faculty members have received excellent prices on computer hardware and software from local dealers based on volume purchases.

Make a *BACKUP COPY* of anything you write on a computer. Dogs seldom eat student papers any more, but computers occasionally do. And a "crash" of your hard drive or disk drive will ruin your day.

EXCELLENCE AND ORIGINALITY IN RESEARCH AND WRITING

Everything has been thought of before, but the problem is to think of it again.
-- Goethe

The Joint Military Intelligence College is a professional educational and research institution offering courses and programs designed to enhance the education and career

development of professional intelligence personnel throughout the Department of Defense and other government departments and agencies. In keeping with the rigorous requirements of an accredited, degree-granting institution, the College demands the highest standards of research and writing from its students.

You do not perform research when you merely "repackage" the work that someone else has done. True research is the "diligent and systematic inquiry or investigation into a subject in order to discover or revise facts, theories, [or] applications."[1] Take careful note of that definition. It will save you time when you begin to "research" a paper.

Faculty members know the expected standards. Different courses may require varied applications of research methods, and the types of papers you write may differ considerably from class to class. Basic forms and formats, however, will follow those outlined in this guide, and the fundamental standards will remain: excellence and originality.

EXCELLENCE

The surest approach to achieving excellence in research and writing is to learn what is expected of you, follow the principles of sound research and good writing, and apply yourself diligently to the task. More than many similar institutions, the Joint Military Intelligence College lets you know what is expected of you. In comprehensive course syllabi, professors stipulate their objectives and details about the schedule, reading and writing requirements, and grading policies. The College understands that you have been away from an academic environment. While that fact is taken into account, it does not diminish the standards of excellence expected of you. Your jobs and assignments have given you a unique ability to contribute, by sharing your experiences and knowledge in a classroom with peers from all the services and many civilian agencies, and by writing papers in your field of specialty. The standards for research and writing are spelled out in considerable detail, in this style guide and in your course materials. Use them. No magic formula will ease the process for you; but hard work will pay off.

ORIGINALITY

> ***Your manuscript is both good and original; but the part that is good is not original, and the part that is original is not good.***
>
> ***-- Samuel Johnson***

Is anything ***really*** "original" in writing? Even our section on originality starts out with someone else's words. Students often feel like everything worth saying about a

[1]*The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, 2d ed., unabridged, under the word "research."

subject has already been said. That problem may be especially evident as you compile the results of your research and begin to put words on paper. As you write, you may sense that you are simply regurgitating words you have read. If you have that feeling, chances are your reader will, too.

Every month thousands of books, magazines, and journals are published with millions of words in them. Are all these publications original thinking? More likely, they are different approaches to subjects that may be of interest either to a more general audience or to the reader of a specific type of publication. For example, CPT Ronnie Ford wrote his thesis on the 1968 Tet offensive in Vietnam.[2] While it was hardly a new subject, he took an original approach, viewing the offensive from the perspective of the North Vietnamese leadership and using original translations of North Vietnamese documents. His thesis was geared specifically toward the Intelligence Community, but his work received enough notice to be published later as a book.[3]

My guess is that well over 80 percent of the human race goes through life without having a single original thought. ***-- H.L. Mencken***	***Originality does not consist in saying what no one has ever said before, but in saying exactly what you think yourself.*** ***-- James Stephens***

Originality in papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College may be attained by researching and trying to answer a question that has not been addressed in other scholarly works, or by developing a different slant or hypothesis on an existing body of research. For example, you may be looking at the international drug trade and its implications for the Intelligence Community. You collect volumes of data on the problem and notice that most of the relevant literature seems to focus on the drug traffickers or the economic conditions in the countries that export drugs. You believe, however, there may be evidence that the political climate of a drug-exporting country is instrumental in its international drug dealing. By shifting the focus of your research, you may now approach the problem in a more original light.

It is important for you to consider your approach to a problem early in your research. Narrowing your focus and zeroing in on a specific problem will help you uncover an original slant to pursue in writing the paper. (Read more about problem defining in chapter 2.)

---

[2]CPT Ronnie Ford, USA, *Tet 1968: Understanding the Surprise*, MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, 1993).

[3]Ronnie E. Ford, *Tet 1968: Understanding the Surprise* (London: Frank Cass, 1995).

PLAGIARISM AND ACADEMIC INTEGRITY

> ***Adam was the only man who, when he said a good thing, knew that nobody had said it before him.*** ***-- Mark Twain***

Academic Integrity[4]

You are expected to uphold the high standards of conduct required by your agency or service. The College will take disciplinary or administrative action in cases of substantiated violation of academic standards of integrity. Instances of academic misconduct, such as plagiarism or giving or receiving inappropriate help during an examination, will be referred to the College Academic Advisory Board. The Academic Advisory Board has cognizance over all cases and allegations of academic dishonesty. ***At best, you can expect a grade of F for any work proven to be in violation of academic standards; other penalties might include a letter of reprimand or dismissal from the program.*** Academic dishonesty, including cheating, plagiarism, or other academic misconduct, will not be tolerated. You can avoid unintentional plagiarism by carefully following accepted scholarly practices. Notes taken for research projects should accurately record sources of materials to be cited, quoted, paraphrased or summarized, and research or critical papers must acknowledge these sources in footnotes.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the intentional or unintentional presentation of another person's idea or product as one's own without proper credit. It is an act of theft, punishable by law. Plagiarism is involved in ***all*** of the following practices:

- Directly copying all or parts of a paper without using quotation marks and scrupulously acknowledging the sources.

- Submitting a paper someone else has written, whether that paper has been bought or borrowed or written for the student by an articulate friend.

- Using another's phrasing with occasional slight modification but without quotation marks to indicate the unchanged phrasing, *even though a footnote indicates the source of ideas*.

- Using someone else's striking phrasing, without quotation marks, in a paper which is mostly original. (The key terms pertaining to the subject, however, can and should be used freely by all who write about the subject.)

---

[4] This section is based on JMIC Policy Memorandum 100-2, "Academic Dishonesty," 17 May 1995, and on class notes developed for MSI721/Research, Analysis, and Writing.

- Using someone else's organizational pattern without acknowledgment, except for an inherent pattern like chronology. (Even with acknowledgement, a borrowed pattern may suggest insufficient thought about the subject.)

- Using someone else's illustrative analogies, allusions, or other figures of speech as if they were one's own. (Using the same examples is also dubious, and in addition suggests that the student does not understand the subject clearly enough to think on his own.)

- Presenting someone else's ideas or opinions as one's own, or borrowing specific facts, without acknowledging the sources.

Carelessness or sloppiness is no excuse for plagiarism. One PGIP student, pressed for time at the end of a quarter and faced with a printer malfunction (of course!), turned in a paper he later said was a "draft." That paper contained multiple instances of plagiarism--direct copying of words from sources, with only slight modification, improperly cited. Although he regretted his admitted "sloppiness," he was charged with plagiarism.

Why Is Plagiarism Wrong?

A poll of college students by Barry Kroll found three popular responses to this question: (1) fairness to the author, (2) responsibility to one's education, and (3) ownership of ideas.[5] Plagiarism is deception in its most destructive sense. It undermines the institution and the community of students gathered to learn at that institution and elsewhere, and it impugns the character of the individual.

When Should You Document?

When you incorporate ideas or phrasing from any other author in your paper, whether you quote or not, you need to be honest and complete about indicating the source. Document any fact or opinion that you read in one of your sources, whether you first discovered the idea there or have assimilated it so thoroughly that it seems to be your own. There are two exceptions to this rule: You need not document (1) facts that are common knowledge (John Hancock signed the Declaration of Independence) or (2) facts that can be verified easily and would not differ from one source to another (one hectare = 100 ares or 10,000 square meters). Under most circumstances, these kinds of materials would not need to be documented. On the other hand, material available in only one source or in a limited number of sources (a fact about changes in birth rate in China during 1996) should be documented.

---

[5]Barry M. Kroll, "How College Freshmen View Plagiarism," *Written Communication* 5 (1988): 203-21.

Proper documentation is the way to give credit to originators for their words and ideas. It lends authority to you, the writer. Your documentation says, "I am honest and open to anyone wishing to retrace my steps." It also serves as a courtesy to later writers who may want to use some of the materials or follow up on the research. Consider, for example, the help you received by looking at the documentation from another student's thesis.

CORRECT? DELIBERATE PLAGIARISM? LAZINESS?
(Remember, unintentional plagiarism is still plagiarism.)

ORIGINAL: The other necessity, and this seemed the impossible one, was for Washington to find some way to get his army away without tremendous loss. The problem was that, when part of the force was on water, the rest, unable adequately to defend the fortifications, would become easy prey for the enemy. Unless he could somehow slip secretly away, Washington would have to sacrifice half his army. (Source: James T. Flexner, *The Young Hamilton*)

STUDENT PAPER: The other need, which seemed impossible, was for Washington to discover some means of getting the army away without enormous losses. His problem was that, when some of the soldiers were on the water, the others would be unable to defend their land position adequately and could be easily defeated by the British. Unless Washington could manage to slip away in secret, he would lose half his forces.

What Is at Risk If You Quote Excessively?

You risk losing your own voice and your reader. Your paper should not be a patchwork of quotations, paraphrases, and summaries from other people. If it is, you will have merely accumulated data; you won't have actually presented information. The sources will be primary and you, the author, will be secondary. As a general rule, direct quotations should not exceed 10 percent of your total work.

Self-Plagiarism

Inherent in the term "academic misconduct" is the concept of self-plagiarism. It is dishonest to submit the same paper to satisfy the requirements of more than one course. You are asked to write a paper as one indication of your knowledge of a subject and as evidence that you are able to meet the research and writing standards of the Joint Military Intelligence College. You may develop a research paper into a thesis, but that process requires prior approval of both professors: the one to whom the original paper was submitted, and the one for whom the new submission is intended.

Even with the permission of both professors involved, however, the resulting two papers must be ***substantially different***. The second paper cannot merely have a new

cover sheet and minor word changes ("also" to "additionally," "happy" to "glad," or "250,000" to "a quarter million," for example). If you have any doubt concerning this matter, see the College Writing Center. It can occur out of ignorance, but ignorance of Joint Military Intelligence College standards does not constitute a valid excuse for an infraction in this important area.

AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Besides the obvious method of meticulous care in documenting your sources, there are other techniques that will help you avoid the trap of plagiarism. Among the most frequently used are the summary and the paraphrase.

The Summary: Making Someone Else's Words Your Own

A summary is a concise restatement, in your own words, of something you have read--a book or an article from a newspaper or a newsmagazine, for example. A well-written summary will contain all key ideas that were in the original source. It should be no more than one-fourth the length of the original. In summarizing a news article, you must be sure that the basic questions are answered: who, what, where, when, why, and how? Because this is also intelligence writing, be sure that the bottom line--the most important point in the article--is up front in your summary.

Writing a Summary

Often you must condense and rephrase source material and then embed the summarized information or opinion into your paper. Never string together numerous lengthy quotations. Rather, identify, select, and recast the main ideas from your materials. The mentality you need for the summary is that you are a mirror to the original material, reflecting its content accurately without injecting any of your own thoughts or feelings. Follow the steps below in writing your summary.

1. Read a chapter or article completely and carefully before trying to summarize it. Sometimes a writer delays stating the main point. You cannot see how all the parts fit together until you have read the whole piece.

2. Reread the article, underlining key words and phrases (usually nouns, verbs, and adjectives).

3. Look away from the original and, on scratch paper, write one grammatically complete sentence in your own words that restates the main point of the article.

4. Repeat this process for each paragraph. Obviously some flexibility is necessary here: Some paragraphs may require two sentences while others may be summarized with one sentence.

5. Make a rough count of the total number of words. You normally reduce the original to one-quarter its length. If you are far below the word limit, check the article to see what points you have omitted. If you are above the limit, check your sentences for wordiness, repetition, or unnecessary details.

6. Generally speaking, your sentences should reflect the arrangement of the original material. However, you may do some rearranging to avoid organizational problems in your summary. For example, if the thesis of the article occurs in your third sentence, you may move that sentence to the beginning of your summary to organize it more effectively.

7. Decide whether your summary needs paragraphing. If the article deals with two (or more) distinctly different aspects of a topic, you will need two (or more) paragraphs.

8. Now join your ideas together by providing transition. Some methods include using conjunctive adverbs (*however, in addition, for example*, and so on), substituting a pronoun for a noun to avoid unnecessary repetition (the attack . . . it), or joining sentences with conjunctions (*and, or, but, although, because*). Do not use "according to this article" or "the author states," since you are not a commentator upon the material.

9. Reread your summary, checking for good organization and accurate content. Then proofread it for spelling and mechanical errors.

10. Document the source of the ideas you are borrowing in this summary by identifying the author at the beginning of your summary and placing a footnote at the end of the summarized material.

The Paraphrase: Another Way to Avoid Plagiarism

Since direct quotations should account for no more than 10 percent of any research paper, you will need to paraphrase some ideas found in your sources. It is, therefore, essential that you know how to paraphrase correctly. Both a paraphrase and a summary represent the ideas found in the original accurately and in your own words. Since the summary shortens the original, you will probably not be tempted to borrow too heavily from the original. The temptation to plagiarize, however, is there with the paraphrase.

<u>What exactly is a paraphrase?</u> A paraphrase recasts the source's ideas in language that is undeniably your own but, unlike the summary, it is usually the same length as the original and follows the same sentence-by-sentence order and tone as the original. It is a sensible alternative to excessive quoting.

When is a paraphrase plagiarism? According to an authoritative source, "borrowing phrases even of two or three words" is plagiarism.[6] Obviously, though, any rule must be flexible enough to prevent awkwardness and inaccuracy. Thus, you may repeat specific numbers, special terms that have no simple synonyms (income tax, radar, touchdown, Strategic Defense Initiative), and even some simple words (temperature, ocean, dog) that would require clumsy substitutions. Don't flirt with danger. Take time to digest the material before restating it.

One final note: All paraphrases must be attributed to their sources. In the text of your paper, you should note at the beginning of the paraphrase whose ideas you're restating ("according to Secretary of Defense Perry . . ." or "a recent *Washington Post* article mentioned that . . ."), and you should place a footnote/endnote number at the end of the borrowed material. **ALL PARAPHRASES MUST BE DOCUMENTED.**

[6]William Giles Campbell, Stephen Vaughan Ballou, and Carole Slade, *Form and Style: Theses, Reports, Term Papers*, 6th ed. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1982), 52.

CHAPTER 2

THE RESEARCH PROCESS

THINKING ABOUT RESEARCH: THE EXPANSION OF KNOWLEDGE

One distinctive way in which graduate work differs from an undergraduate program is in the area of research.[1] Customary "research" for an undergraduate term paper or research paper may have been generally along these lines: You visit the library, scan the online catalogs, pick out a few books and periodicals that sound relevant, read (or scan) applicable portions of them, and write the paper. Your teachers and professors at the undergraduate level may have been satisfied that you acquired the knowledge necessary to pass muster and get your degree.

Welcome to graduate school. If you have done no work toward a graduate degree, you might suffer "culture shock" in the months ahead. If, on the other hand, you already have a master's degree or have done master's course work, you understand that the emphasis of graduate research is ***not*** on the acquisition of knowledge; rather, it is on the ***expansion*** of knowledge. An important byproduct of your graduate research, of course, is your assimilation of knowledge along the way toward the postgraduate certificate or the master's degree. But that gain is fortuitous; it is not the ultimate goal of the program.

Remember that research is not simply a "repackaging" of someone else's work. True research is the "diligent and systematic inquiry or investigation into a subject in order to discover or revise facts, theories, [or] applications."[2] Note the key words "discover or revise." The goal of your research, then, should be the ***discovery*** of a new idea, concept, or piece of information about something, or the ***revision*** of existing data.

If that goal seems tough to achieve, it should. It is. But it is certainly well within the reach of any bright, determined student who has been deemed intelligent enough to

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[1]While this chapter contains information of use to all Joint Military Intelligence College students--resident or nonresident, graduate or undergraduate--it is written primarily with the graduate student in mind.

[2]*The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, 2d ed., unabridged, under the word "research."

be admitted to our graduate program. A judicious mixture of scholarly endeavor, hard work, and dogged perseverance will yield the desired results. Remember, too, that you are not alone in your effort to do productive research at the Joint Military Intelligence College. Seek counseling and advice from your professors, and talk with fellow students about sources of information they are pursuing in their research. When you are satisfied that you have "done your homework" in seeking advice and counseling, you are ready to begin the process of research.

THE LOGIC OF SYSTEMATIC RESEARCH

Inquiry is a natural human activity. People seek general understanding of the world around them. Systematic (or scientific) research offers an approach to the **discovery** of reality through personal experience. It offers a special approach to the business of inquiry. Inquiry often focuses on the ability to predict future circumstances. We place this in the context of **understanding**. If you can understand **why** things are related to one another, why certain patterns of regularities occur, you can predict even better than if you simply observe and remember those patterns. Thus, human inquiry aims at answering both ***what*** and ***why*** questions, and we pursue these goals by observing and figuring out.

As humans, of course, we are prone to error. In our inquiry, we must at least be able to recognize that fact and then be prepared to safeguard against lapses in our judgment. On the page opposite are seven of the most common errors of human inquiry and suggested safeguards against each.

ASSUMPTIONS, JUDGMENTS, AND DEALING WITH YOUR VALUES

The basis for research is **objectivity**. The systematic research effort has to do with what *is*, not with what *should be*. Research--and scientific inquiry--cannot settle debates on values. We cannot determine whether capitalism is *better* or *worse* than socialism **except by some set of agreed-upon criteria**. We could determine scientifically whether capitalism or socialism most supported human dignity and freedom only if we were able to agree on some measures of dignity and freedom. Our conclusion in that case would depend totally on the measures we had agreed upon. The conclusions would have no general meaning beyond that.

Ethics and politics hinge on ideological points of view. People disagree on political aspects of research just as they disagree on ethical issues. Although ethics and politics are often closely intertwined, the ethics of research deals more with the methods employed, whereas political issues are more concerned with the substance and use of research. There are also no formal codes of accepted political conduct comparable to the codes of ethical conduct. However, one tenet is critical: *A researcher's personal and*

SEVEN COMMON ERRORS IN HUMAN INQUIRY	
PROBLEM	**SAFEGUARD**
1. Inaccurate Observation. The key to inquiry is observation; we can never understand the way things are without first having something to understand. We have to know **what** before we can explain **why**.	Research is based on careful observation and measurement. The care with which observations are made is an important factor. Simply making observation more deliberate reduces many errors.
2. Overgeneralization. When we look for patterns among specific things around us, we often assume that a few similar occurrences are evidence of a general problem. The tendency to overgeneralize is greatest when the pressure to arrive at a general understanding is high.	Replication of inquiry is often the only way to guard against overgeneralization. Use more than one case or repeat the same study to see if the same conclusions are drawn.
3. Selective Observation. Once we have concluded that a particular pattern exists and have developed a general understanding of why, we tend to pay attention to future events and situations that fit the pattern and ignore those that don't. For example, racial and ethnic prejudices extend heavily from selective observation.	Expand your observations--don't limit them. Expose your inquiry to your peers. They are often the best safeguard in detecting contradictions in your research.
4. Deduced Information. We cannot ignore the events that contradict our general conclusions about the way things are. Faced with contradictory information, we often make up information that would resolve the conflict.	Look further into your observations for the explanation.
5. Illogical Reasoning. The "exception that proves the rule."	Ensure that your reasoning is a conscious activity; use colleagues to keep you honest.
6. Premature Closing of Inquiry. Overgeneralization, selective observation, deduced information, and illogical reasoning all conspire to produce a premature closing of inquiry.	Research is an open-ended enterprise in which conclusions are constantly being modified. Accept this as fact and expect even established theories to be overturned eventually.
7. Prejudice toward a Particular Finding. We often have a firm impression of what our answer will be to the question we are researching. The finding may contradict these initial impressions.	Maintain your objectivity throughout. In the final analysis, you are responsible for the conduct of your inquiry and the results of your effort.

political orientations must not interfere with or unduly influence his or her scientific research. It would be improper for you to employ shoddy techniques or lie about your research as a way of furthering your own views. You should strive to be *amoral, apolitical, and objective* when conducting research.

Research in the behavioral sciences has identified another danger to objectivity: the *self-fulfilling prophecy.* If you begin your thesis work convinced you know the answer to your research question, you are likely to prove yourself correct. Through conscious and unconscious decisions on methodological issues, you are vulnerable to interjecting bias into the research process. For example, if you set out to "prove" that Cuba after Castro will descend into economic chaos, you are likely to find materials to do so. Much more objective--and difficult--is to **disprove** what is called the *null hypothesis* (see page 25), that Castro's passing will have no significant impact on Cuba.

Rigorous research and the techniques of science serve to cancel out or hold in check our human shortcomings, especially those we are unaware of. Otherwise, we might look into the world and never see anything but ourselves--our personal biases and beliefs.

INTELLIGENCE RESEARCH AND ACADEMIC RESEARCH

Many students seem to have difficulty distinguishing between purely academic research and "intelligence research." They believe that a student at the Joint Military Intelligence College should be writing papers that are purely academic or intelligence studies. In truth, many similarities exist between the two. The essential differences lie in their goals and their sources of information.

Goals

Intelligence stresses conclusions. If you have ever read an intelligence product that reached no conclusions, you have doubtless asked yourself, "So what?" We expect intelligence not only to inform its readers, but also to reach sound conclusions supported by reliable sources, accurate information, and thorough analysis. Academic research also arrives at conclusions, but it stresses argument. With its focus on discovery of new ideas or revision of existing data, the aspect of evidence to support the argument is all-encompassing.

Sources

Intelligence research stresses nonattribution of sources, secrecy, and protection of sources and methods. You are familiar by now with the myriad warning notices and caveats that appear on intelligence products. And you seldom see footnotes in intelligence documents. Academic research, on the other hand, ***demands*** original thinking, citation of

sources to avoid plagiarism, and academic freedom. Secrecy is anathema to academia. While your work at the Joint Military Intelligence College will be academic research, it may rely upon intelligence sources. An exceptionally well-written article on this subject and other matters related to intelligence writing is "Who We Are and What We Do." Written by Martin Petersen for *Studies in Intelligence* and originally called "Managing/ Teaching New Analysts," the article is reprinted in its unclassified version in Appendix C.

The Joint Military Intelligence College is not a vocational training institute, and your final written work to complete your program is not "field" or utility writing. It is an academic paper, distinctive only in this: Its content is based on information gathered from research into intelligence sources. Although you will be consulting unclassified and classified data, documents, and intelligence source material, that research must (as with all academic study) have a purposeful objective, be conducted in a systematic manner and, in its final form, contribute new knowledge or reward the reader with the achievement of a higher level of understanding.

THE PHASES OF RESEARCH

The keys to research may be learned as a process. Basically, the process of research may be divided into six phases, each with distinct steps: research design, including the perspective--macro or micro--and selection of a topic; focusing the research; forming the hypothesis and generating research questions or key questions; conducting the research; collecting the data; and analyzing the data, drawing conclusions.

PHASE ONE: RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the plan or strategy for systematic investigation, like a **road map** for your research. Although the specific details vary according to what you wish to study, every research design must (1) Specify what you want to investigate (where you want to go); (2) Determine the way to do it (best route to get there); and (3) Provide sufficient details to permit your readers to reach the same conclusions (final destination). As you begin to develop your thesis proposal, keep these specifications in mind. They relate closely to the various sections of the proposal.

Macro Perspective

Imagine yourself somewhere in the central part of the United States. You decide that what you wish to study is on the Atlantic coast. At the macro level you know you'll be heading east. As you develop your travel plan you will want a highway map to consider a number of alternative routes. Do you opt for the interstate, the red, or the blue highways? The shortest or most scenic road?

Micro Perspective

Driving east may be enough to eventually get you to your destination, Washington, DC. Once there, however, you need another, more detailed city map to indicate whether the Washington Navy Yard, Fort Myer, or Bolling Air Force Base is your final stop. Your research proposal should include both kinds of "maps."

If you define precisely the objective of your investigation, finding the best way to do it will become an easier task. As the AAA has known for years, a good research design (Triptik) is ***tailored to your investigation***.

Topic Selection

The process of research, unlike the learning process, concentrates on a narrow, restricted area of inquiry. It is essential to your research that you make a serious effort early in your work to identify your topic and then begin to restrict its scope, narrowing its boundaries to something manageable. Barzun and Graff call topic selection "the prime difficulty."[3]

Although it would be nice to spend the next year studying a topic that is super interesting, in reality theses and dissertations are not always written on topics of "high interest" to the graduate student. Evelyn Hunt Ogden, who advises graduate students to "forget interesting, go for tolerably non-boring," relates an anecdote about a student who attended a lecture on brain research relating to learning. The lecture so interested the student that he decided to write his dissertation on the topic. Unfortunately he had little knowledge about the topic and found no professors in his department with expertise in the field. As he embarked on his research, he discovered much of the study in the area was inaccessible.[4] Although interest should be a criterion in topic selection, it should not be a priority; other academic and practical criteria must be satisfied.

In the academic setting, topics come from three directions: replication, the advisor, and original ideas. ***Replication*** involves repeating and/or updating a previous study. For example, a 1983 thesis study of the effects of Soviet military assistance on United Nations voting patterns of African nations might be reexamined to see if the effects have changed over time. ***Thesis chairs or readers*** also have a number of projects they have been dying to undertake. They may offer one to you. As experts in the field, they will know what research needs to be done. With these suggestions in mind, you can begin to make the topic your own. Topics also are generated from ***original ideas*** based on

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[3]Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff, *The Modern Researcher*, 5th ed. (Ft. Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers, 1992), 17.

[4]Evelyn Hunt Ogden, *Completing Your Doctoral Dissertation or Master's Thesis in Two Semesters or Less*, 2d ed. (Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co., 1993), 42.

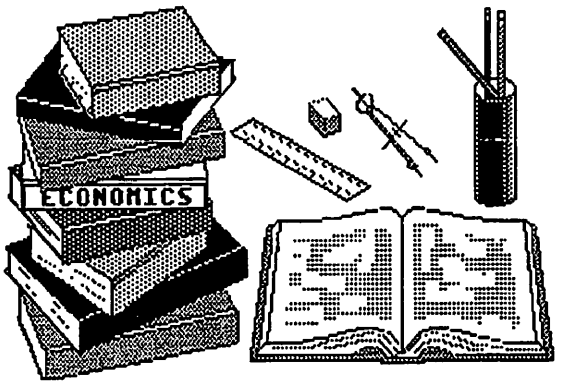
reading, life experiences, and observation. What has happened in your career that is worth spending the next year examining? For example, an Air Force officer in PGIP Class 9301 had problems pinning down his topic at first; but when we talked to him, we learned that his previous assignment had been to provide imagery intelligence support to the forces involved in Operation PROVIDE COMFORT. It did not take long until his own experiences flowed onto the page, providing an excellent thesis.[5]

SOURCES FOR TOPICS

- **Replication**
- **Thesis Committee or Faculty Advisor**
- **Original Ideas**

Now that you have come up with a topic or had one suggested to you, how do you know if you have selected a good topic? Does it deserve your attention for the next several months? Does it have value? For one, it should provide opportunity for original thinking and research. Just because volumes have been written on a topic doesn't mean that nothing new can be said about it. You might unearth fresh data, rethink the assumptions and accuracy of previous studies, or approach the topic from a new viewpoint. You will need to immerse yourself in the literature related to the topic before you can determine what has not been said on the subject. This does not mean that you must take off the next six months and do nothing else but read. Much can be learned just from the titles that are listed in bibliographies of books and articles on your topic.

Remember, too, that graduate students who preceded you here wrote seminar papers and theses. Those works may be retrieved. The Writing Center has a computer program that enables you to search the student paper data base by subject, country, student name, or combinations of those elements. Visit the Center for details. Another former JMIC publication, *Selected Compendium of Student Research*, includes abstracts from selected student papers. That publication will let you see samples of thesis and seminar paper abstracts written by your predecessors.



[5]Capt. William S. Brei, USAF, *Assessing Intelligence by Principles of Quality: The Case Study of Imagery Intelligence Support to Operation PROVIDE COMFORT*, MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: JMIC, 1993). Capt Brei later published a condensed version of his thesis: *Getting Intelligence Right: The Power of Logical Procedure*, JMIC Occasional Paper Number Two (Washington, DC: DIA, 1996).

Secondly, your topic should have significance. You are studying intelligence. The culture of Bolivia or the new design of a fighter jet are significant only if they have some relevance to the intelligence field. True, your thesis topic might demand a knowledge of Bolivian culture or the design of a new weapons system, but those will not be the focus of your study. There are scores of experts on aeronautical engineering and on the economic woes of Bolivia. Yes, you may consult them, gather lots and lots of facts, but your task is to explain what those facts have to say to the Intelligence Community.

Keep in mind, though, that you are definitely not writing an intelligence report. Many agencies count, compile, measure, and record facts. This is an academic institution, and you must use logic, a method of argument, and analysis to transform those facts into convincing proof for your proposition, your thesis.

Finally, your topic should raise questions that have no simple answers. The experts (your sources) should disagree to some extent. Even seemingly complex topics may be unsuitable if the experts agree in their analysis of the issues.

Even a good topic, however, may not be the right topic for you. Since your goal is to complete your thesis (and to do so in your time here), your topic should satisfy some practical criteria as well. Focus on what you know, if possible. List topics on which you have already done undergraduate papers or taken graduate, undergraduate, or related military courses. Are there areas of knowledge from your job that have the potential for in-depth study? Surprisingly, you already may have done a considerable amount of research on your topic.

You also should consider how your thesis might affect your career. Will a knowledge of certain topics give you an advantage as you pursue your career goals? If your plans, for example, include becoming a Korean analyst for DIA or requesting a duty assignment to Seoul, you might want to focus on an issue that would enhance such a career track--perhaps an examination of how a unified Korea would affect the balance of power.

Another criterion to consider is your ability to collect needed facts. Washington, DC, is a researcher's dream. Its libraries, government agencies, and private sector should house whatever you need to complete your thesis. However, as you select a thesis topic, keep in mind your graduation deadline and your future access to the materials and people available to you here. This is not the time, if you want to finish on schedule, to select a topic that will require you to travel to Cambodia to collect data. Furthermore, if you want to conduct a survey, you must plan accordingly for the preparation of the questionnaire, its mailing and response time, and the quantification of the results.

You may find the worksheet on the next page helpful in testing the practicality of your topic. It will help you put what you have just read into practice.

THE CANDIDATE TOPIC WORKSHEET[6]

Topic _____

Source _____

Work completed on related topic _____

_____

_____

Courses taken or available related to topic _____

_____

_____

	Low				High
Knowledge of topic:					
a. From courses taken or scheduled	1	2	3	4	5
b. From work experience	1	2	3	4	5
c. Interest and other sources	1	2	3	4	5
Career advancement potential:	1	2	3	4	5
Ability to collect data:					
a. Access to subjects	1	2	3	4	5
b. Time required to collect data	1	2	3	4	5
c. Availability of existing data	1	2	3	4	5

[6]This worksheet is adapted from the one found in Ogden, 45-46.

PHASE TWO: FOCUSING THE RESEARCH

Rarely will a student begin the thesis process on too small a scale. On the contrary, initial topics are almost always too large and too vague. This section on focus is designed "to get you to Washington" on your road map for research.

Interests, Ideas, and Theories

Below are the kinds of questions to ask yourself as you look for a thesis topic.

- What am I interested in researching? Are there concepts, phenomena, events, things, issues, groups, organizations, theories, or problems I find interesting?

- Have they been studied in the past? Who has done what on these subjects?

All research emanates from an interest, idea, or theory about a particular problem. There is a link between asking a question, or stating a hunch, and taking the first steps to its truth with data. For example, you are thinking about a possible thesis in the area of international conflict. What kinds of questions could you ask?

- You might have an *interest* in discovering what factors cause international conflict.

- You might have a specific *idea* about the way things are. Your idea might be that competition for power among states causes international conflict.

- You might have a *theory* about the causes of international conflict. A *theory* is a more complex set of relationships among several variables. It usually extends from a more careful reading of other literature and research on a particular topic.

There is potential for movement back and forth across these several possible beginnings. An initial interest may lead to the formulation of an idea, which may fit into a larger theory, and the theory may produce new ideas and create new interests.

Statement of the Problem

The statement of the problem must be a concise, logical, and well-written explanation of what you are investigating.

EXAMPLE 1: In its entirety, from a thesis proposal entitled "The National SIGINT Requirements System: Applicability in a Changing Environment," by PGIP 9301 student Ms. Cindy Beck, with minor editorial changes by the Writing Center.

The first step in the intelligence cycle is the determination of what information intelligence consumers require. The translation of these consumer needs into a request for information is one of the most crucial steps in achieving the production of successful intelligence. The Intelligence Community has established a requirements process for introducing the consumer's needs into the national system. As part of this national intelligence requirements system, the United States SIGINT System (USSS) is serviced by the National SIGINT Requirements System (NSRS). Consumers' requirements are levied upon the USSS through the National SIGINT Requirements List. The success of the USSS is dependent upon the system's ability to effectively translate the needs of the consumer into requests that can be levied upon the intelligence producers. Without that knowledge, the USSS cannot respond competently to the needs of its customers.

Increasing evidence indicates that the NSRS is not functioning efficiently. This thesis will review the existing NSRS, highlight the importance of the consumer's role in the system, study the system's responsiveness to consumer needs, and address the impact of the changing intelligence environment on the requirements system.

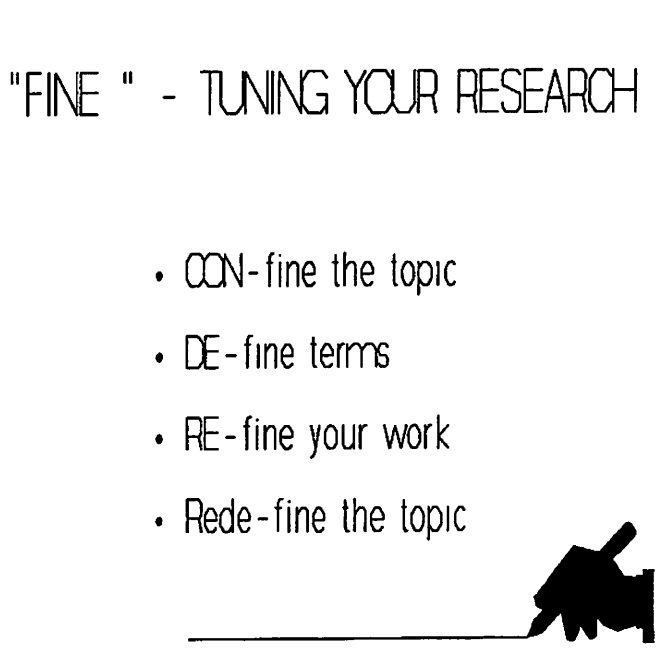
EXAMPLE 2: Excerpted from a thesis proposal entitled "MC&G Support in the Gulf War: Lessons for the Future," by PGIP 9301 student Mr. Ralph Tripp, with minor editorial changes by the Writing Center.

The Defense Mapping Agency (DMA) is responsible for providing the military services with the Mapping, Charting, and Geodetic (MC&G) products required to support their warfighting missions. The Persian Gulf War is the most recent example of an urgent need for MC&G products and the problems that DMA must overcome in fulfilling its mission. This mission, most simply stated, is "to provide the right product, of the required accuracy, at the right time."

The production of most MC&G products depends on national imagery sources. In order to have current maps and charts available to the user when a crisis need arises, sufficient lead time is needed to accommodate imagery source collection and normal production schedules. During the development of national collection systems past and present, DMA has always been assured that its requirements would be met by sharing the use of these resources with the other members of the Intelligence Community (IC). In fact, this has not been the case, and DMA has been unable to fully meet crisis requirements because of a lack of imagery.

Refining the Topic

Next, the topic must be refined, and that amounts to ***confining*** it. Consider the following when confining or refining or defining your topic: (1) Since this is the Joint Military Intelligence College, the topic you pursue must be reasonably related to defense intelligence; (2) The research should be either an inquiry into history, on the one hand, or into science or philosophy on the other. It is probably wise not to attempt a study that mixes the two. If there is to be a mixture, the researcher must be conscious of that fact and of the boundaries and relations between the two; (3) If you are doing historical research, you must fix clearly the span of time and the persons or events or phenomena to be examined.



Now look at how you might work to confine a topic. If, for example, you propose to write a paper "on the former Soviet Union," the professor will insist on greater definition. If you then suggest a paper on "the Russian economy," that is a step, albeit an insufficient one, in the right direction. The next step might be a proposal to write "on the degree to which the New Economic Policy is consistent with Marxism." Now we are down to doctoral dissertation level. If you have a good mastery of Soviet history ***and*** of Marxist doctrine ***and*** a fluency in the Russian language ***and*** understand that this topic has been disputed by shelves of books, then you might imagine that 400-700 pages would be sufficient to suggest an alternative to accepted views.

Clearly, much greater refinement is needed. You might write a paper on the influence of the Kulak rebellion on the tactics respecting the New Economic Policy of this or that Russian leader who is also concerned with certain foreign affairs problems at a particular time--say, just before a crucial meeting or a crucial decision. That topic would be something that might be covered reasonably well in 50 to 100 pages.

Obviously to go through the steps described above, you would need to be familiar with what is written and said on the subject. Since it is futile to rehash what is already in print, and since the end of the academic thesis is to contribute ***new*** knowledge, you are challenged to separate yourself from the crowd, to offer a fresh way of looking at a problem. This might be achieved by trying new combinations, refining or testing previous ideas, or even attacking the "experts" and making a plausible case for your new view.

PHASE THREE: FORMING THE HYPOTHESES

Much of your time and energy will be sapped by the early research and thinking stages, which occur before pen ever meets paper. To conduct purposeful research, you must first ask a clear question, a question that implies a range of imaginable and reasonably discoverable answers. This question will lead you to your hypothesis--an educated guess, based on your own knowledge of the subject and what your preliminary reading has revealed.

A hypothesis is an expectation about the nature of things derived from a theory. It is a statement of something that ought to be observed in the real world if the theory is correct. Hypotheses serve these purposes:

- They delineate what comparisons comprise the study.
- They force the researcher to understand exactly what is being tested.
- They reduce the study to providing a simple "yes" or "no" answer.

Hypotheses may come from previous research literature, existing theory, practical (applied) problems, or other conceptual frameworks. Some general rules for hypotheses include these:

- They should be ***testable*** in some general sense--your research should be able to confirm or disconfirm a hypothesis in some convincing form.
- They should be ***contestable***. If everyone already agrees, there is nothing for you to prove.
- They must state exactly what "variables" make up the relationship or difference.
- They must somehow convey the nature of the relationship.
- They must be formulated ***prior*** to the conduct of a study.

You may begin your inquiry with multiple hypotheses, perhaps even mutually exclusive hypotheses. One of those, which asserts that there is no difference among variables, or no impact of actions on outcomes, is the *null hypothesis* (Example 1 below). Generally you set out to disprove it. An *alternative hypothesis* denies a null hypothesis by asserting that there is or will be an impact on the variables being investigated. It can be stated in a *directional manner* (Example 2), or a *non-directional manner* (Example 3). Unless there is already compelling evidence for an outcome, the non-directional hypothesis is preferred because it requires you to examine both ends of the spectrum. While Example 2 can be argued on the basis of several "intelligence losses," Example 3 requires you to examine positive ***and*** negative effects. As noted in the discussion of bias,

directional hypotheses predispose you to limit your inquiry--whether in the data you seek or the analysis you perform. If you begin your research with an answer in mind, you may stop when you find it--***even when an alternative answer is better.***

EXAMPLE 1: Declassification of the NRO has had no impact on U.S. national security interests. *[This illustrates a null hypothesis.]*

EXAMPLE 2: Declassification of the NRO has seriously undermined U.S. national security interests. *[This is a directional alternative hypothesis.]*

EXAMPLE 3: Declassification of the NRO has had a significant impact on U.S. national security interests. *[A non-directional alternative hypothesis.]*

Your hypothesis will direct your research. Knowing what you would like to prove allows you to read only those parts of books and documents specific to your hypothesis. For example, rather than reading all about the environmental problems caused by the development of the Amazon River Basin, you might refine this topic to your guess that these problems will impact significantly on relations between Brazil and the U.S. This hypothesis directs you to books about foreign policy, a topic not generally found in books about the environment.

The hypothesis also lets you test the thoroughness of your research. You should be unearthing sources that not only support your thesis, but also offer different viewpoints. The hypothesis that arises must also be one to which there is some opposition.

Generating Questions and Defining Terms

Generating an appropriate set of research questions is a two-stage process. The first is *exploratory*; the second *investigative*. The former usually centers on a cursory review of literature (see below), but may include guidance from substantive experts, library personnel, classmates, and others. Operant verbs in exploration include "browse," "scan" and "skim." The investigative stage is a more critical process. The operant verb in investigation is "evaluate."

Once you have selected a topic, one of the easiest ways to arrive at the hypothesis is through brainstorming. Spend about five minutes generating a list of questions suggested by the topic. Let's say, for example, that you are researching the causes of the Iraqi defeat in DESERT STORM. Brainstorming might generate the following questions:

- *Was Iraq's defeat rooted in its faulty military strategy?*
- *Was Iraq's leader, Saddam Hussein, to blame?*
- *Were Iraqi soldiers defeated because the coalition forces were better trained?*
- *Did the coalition forces have a technological advantage?*
- *Did weak outside support for Iraq lead to its defeat?*
- *Was the Iraqi industrial capacity unable to support protracted war?*

Now from this list of questions, select one that you believe is the most likely reason Iraq suffered defeat. Phrased as a declarative sentence, that is your hypothesis.

Let's trace our path from subject to topic to research questions to hypothesis:

Subject:	DESERT STORM
Topic:	Causes of Iraqi defeat in DESERT STORM
Research Question:	Did coalition technological advantages lead to the Iraqi defeat?
Hypothesis:	Superior technology allowed U.S.-led coalition forces to defeat Iraq decisively in DESERT STORM.

As you review your hypothesis, look for key terms that need defining. In the above example, the student needs to define and refine ***technology***. What is meant by the term? What type of technology will be examined? Will the study be confined to a specific technology: weapon systems or communications?

Operational Definitions

> "There's glory for you!" "I don't know what you mean by 'glory,'" Alice said. Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. "Of course you don't--till I tell you. I meant 'there's a nice knock-down argument for you!'" "But 'glory' doesn't mean 'a nice knock-down argument,'" Alice objected. "When ***I*** use a word," Humpty Dumpty said, in a rather scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean--neither more nor less."
>
> --Lewis Carroll, *Through The Looking-Glass*

Operational definitions are the means by which we specify precisely what we mean when we use particular terms. The end product is the specification of the real and observable things that give evidence of the presence or the absence of the concept we are studying. **Concept** is the technical term for the mental images or sheets of paper in our mental file drawers. Each sheet of paper is a concept.

We tend to think loosely in terms of concepts. Sloppy thinking leads to careless research. For example, in the hypothesis above, what do we mean by the adjective *superior*? How can we define it? Should it be measurable? Is a qualitative assessment sufficient? Does it involve such underlying components as bigger? Faster? Cheaper? With fewer errors? Is each equally important? Furthermore, to show "superiority," do we need a baseline? Set where? The way we define ***superior*** will have tremendous influence over the conduct of our research. We don't need to agree or even pretend to agree that a particular specification captures the real meaning of the concept; we need only agree on the definition ***as it is used in the research study***.

Now you are ready to begin reading, still in a skimming fashion rather than detailed notetaking. Do the sources fully support the hypothesis? What modifications to the hypothesis need to be made? ***If you find that the research will not support the hypothesis, then change your hypothesis now.*** Make it conform to the research; don't distort the research to support your hypothesis. Granted, it is hard to let go of or alter a belief you have had for a long time, but as a graduate student, you have the opportunity to test out your ideas. So, be open to change. Revising the hypothesis at this stage will make the upcoming in-depth research much easier.

Key (subsidiary) questions help determine what data need to be collected. Below are some key questions that arose from the hypothesis that superior technology allowed U.S.-led coalition forces to defeat Iraq decisively in DESERT STORM:

- *What technological advances helped the coalition forces?*
- *In what way did they aid the coalition?*
- *What was the extent of that advantage?*
- *Was there any sophisticated technology that failed the coalition?*

Although you might want to brainstorm to generate a laundry list of questions suggested by your hypothesis, your final list should include only relevant questions. As a general guideline, you should have no more than one or two key questions per proposed chapter of your thesis. Remember, these are ***key*** questions. To determine which questions are relevant, ask yourself, "Will the answer to this question provide vital information for my study?" If the answer is ***yes***, then list it in your thesis proposal.

As you examine your first effort at writing research questions, pay particular attention to your choice of adverbs. They will help identify the ***level of inquiry***. In relative order of complexity those levels include descriptive, explanatory, predictive, and normative.

Descriptive Research

Questions typically begin with "how" and "what," as in "What is the relationship between X and Y?" Following are actual examples from student thesis proposals: (1) **How** does the end of the Cold War affect Iran's role in U.S. strategic interests in the Persian Gulf? (Capt Laura Valero, USAF); (2) **What** is the nature of the new Russian military doctrine? (MSgt Carol Dockham, USAF)

Explanatory Research

Questions typically begin with "Why," as in "Why does a particular relationship exist?" In this kind of research you are looking for causes and trying to establish linkages between antecedent conditions and observed (described) effects. Two actual thesis examples include: (1) **Why** is Sub-Saharan Africa vulnerable to an HIV epidemic? (CPT

Darin Brockington, USA); (2) **Why** will the foreigner problem not be legally handled by the German government? (LT David Carlson, USN)

Predictive Research

Research questions are phrased in the future tense, often using "Will," as in "When I change something (variable), will it change something else (variable)?" Thesis examples include: (1) How much territory **will** Norway trade off, and how many oil/gas rights **will** be granted for potential profits with Russia from joint development of Arctic oil/gas fields and the Northern Sea route? (TSgt Craig Lee, USAF); (2) **Will** arms sale registers facilitate compliance, verification, and accountability? (LT Jules Cabeen, USA)

Normative Research

These questions have a "should" either stated or implied because there is always a value judgment in the normative proposition. Actual thesis examples: (1) Norwegian and Russian Barents Sea demarcation line negotiations demonstrate that bilateral issues in the Arctic have multilateral implications that **should** encourage the U.S. to take an interest from a strategic post-Cold War intelligence perspective. (TSgt Craig Lee, USAF); (2) What restrictions, if any, **should** be placed on the military while conducting counternarcotics operations? (LT Robert Dahlke, USAF) ***[Note: Not descriptive research, even though it starts with the word "what."]***

One way to analyze your hypothesis is to sketch out your findings on paper. List facts that support your hypothesis in one column and those that challenge it in another. You need not have a one-sided ledger to have an acceptable hypothesis, but if the two columns are equal, you may have difficulty proving your hypothesis. Keep in mind, the hypothesis can be modified at any time.

PHASE FOUR: CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH

This style guide offers no easy solutions for using the library or developing sources for research. By the time you reach postgraduate study, it may be reasonably assumed that you have spent many hours in libraries and have at least learned the basics of conducting research. You need to be aware, however, of the many resources in the Washington area available to provide fresh ideas and unbroken ground for your research.

Literature Review: The First Step in Conducting Research

Start with a review of what has already been written in your area of interest, to avoid duplication of existing efforts. The knowledge you gain may then suggest additional

variables or procedural changes, or even be used to generate new research ideas. The literature review can also lead to other applications, and it can uncover other sources of research questions, that is, theories, practical issues, or comparisons.

You can undertake a literature review by accomplishing the following:

- Review the MSSI student paper data base in the Writing Center.
- Search for existing published literature reviews.
- Employ all relevant abstracting and citation services available.
- Use computerized retrieval systems.
- Check the Internet.
- Concentrate on major journals, noting their references and bibliographies.
- Ask for help in getting started.
- Read the key studies in the field of inquiry.
- Use the reference lists of published studies as sources of additional references.

The exploratory stage requires you to sift rapidly through vast amounts of information. Efficient and effective search techniques, the ability to access and retrieve from automated sources, and speed reading are contributing skills.

Start with the John T. Hughes Library in the Defense Intelligence Analysis Center (DIAC), then visit as many other libraries as time permits. You will not find everything you need under one roof, with the possible exception of the Library of Congress. Develop your bibliography by carefully reviewing all the sources you can find relating to your topic. Take notes on all sources you intend to pursue further. If you have ***any*** doubt whether you will need the source again, make a note of it. Researchers waste a lot of precious time re-searching for a book or journal article they need for a specific fact or anecdote or illustration. Look at the bibliographies in books and journal articles you have read. Many of those lists will generate fresh ideas or open new avenues for your research.

In addition to searching the various agencies' holdings through catalogs and specialized bibliographies in several good university libraries, you might also want to consult *Dissertation Abstracts* (published by University Microfilms, Inc.) to see if any doctoral dissertations have been completed on your subject, or *Journal of Abstracts* (published by the Naval War College), which abstracts studies at some of the service colleges. Since many doctoral dissertations and unpublished studies do find their way into print as full-length books, articles, or monographs, you do not want to risk writing your thesis at the same time a work addressing your identical subject appears in print in a widely read scholarly journal. The odds are against this happening, but the potential for the ultimate nightmare is there. Why roll the dice and hope, when so much is at stake, academically and professionally?

You also should study the printout of thesis and seminar paper titles in the MSSI data base housed in the Writing Center. Check back issues of the *Selected Compendium of Student Research*, as well as the *Applied Intelligence Research Results* series produced by the JMIC Office of Applied Research.

Using Note Cards

Many commentaries on research recommend the use of note cards (3x5 or 5x8 "index cards") for your source notes. We concur. Note cards have many advantages over other media such as looseleaf paper or legal pads. Ease of alphabetization is at the top of the list of advantages. When you are ready to compile the bibliography for your paper or thesis, you will be grateful that you can shuffle a deck of cards instead of searching through pages of notes on paper. You may also rearrange note cards and compile them readily by subject, changing the focus of your paper with minimum time lost. Use caution in handling the cards, though, because they can become a nuisance if they are dropped or not properly stored. For that reason it's a good idea to number them or use some other system of identifying them sequentially.

The format of note cards is important. As much as possible, you should adhere to the proper bibliographic or footnote/endnote format when you compile your notes. That process may take you a little longer during this phase of the research, but it will save you ***hours*** at a very critical stage, when your time will be even more precious: the preparation of your paper.

Look at the sample cards on the next page. They contain all the data you will need to cite your source in a note or bibliography form, and they will enable you (***and*** your ***reader***!) to find the source again with ease.

Figure 1 is a sample note card with source data and a researcher's annotation. Note that it contains all the necessary bibliographic material as well as the location of the book (John T. Hughes Library) and its call number (U102.C65/1984). This student will alphabetize the card under "Clausewitz" rather than using the editor's last name, because the Prussian general and military theorist is the subject of his study and will be easier to recall than "Howard."

Figure 2 is a subject card for a topic within the cited source. This student's paper may be on the topic "Intelligence Reporting in War," but most likely it would be further refined; for example, based on the note at the bottom of the card, we might expect the student to be assessing other factors of intelligence and their impact on the battlefield. Remember to confine each card to one subject or source, and if quoted material "runs over," continue on a second card rather than on the back.

Throughout the conduct of your research, keep in mind the importance of correct citation and of gathering complete publication data on each potential source. It is terribly frustrating to reach the final stages of writing, only to realize that you have neglected to record full publication data or, most often, the page number, of a key quotation. In the case of a periodical (newspaper, magazine, or journal, for example), in addition to any page number from which you quote directly, record the ***inclusive*** pages of the article you used; that information is required for the bibliography. Chapter 8 of this guide contains more detail on proper citation formats.

Figure 1. Sample Note Card (Annotated)

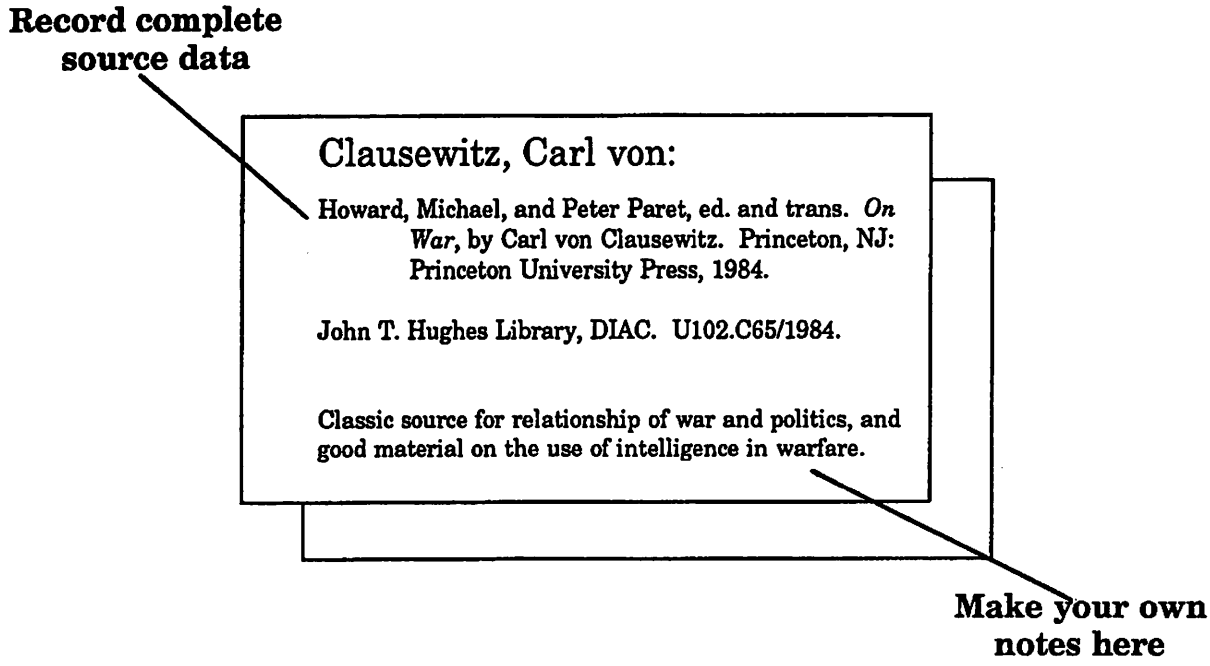
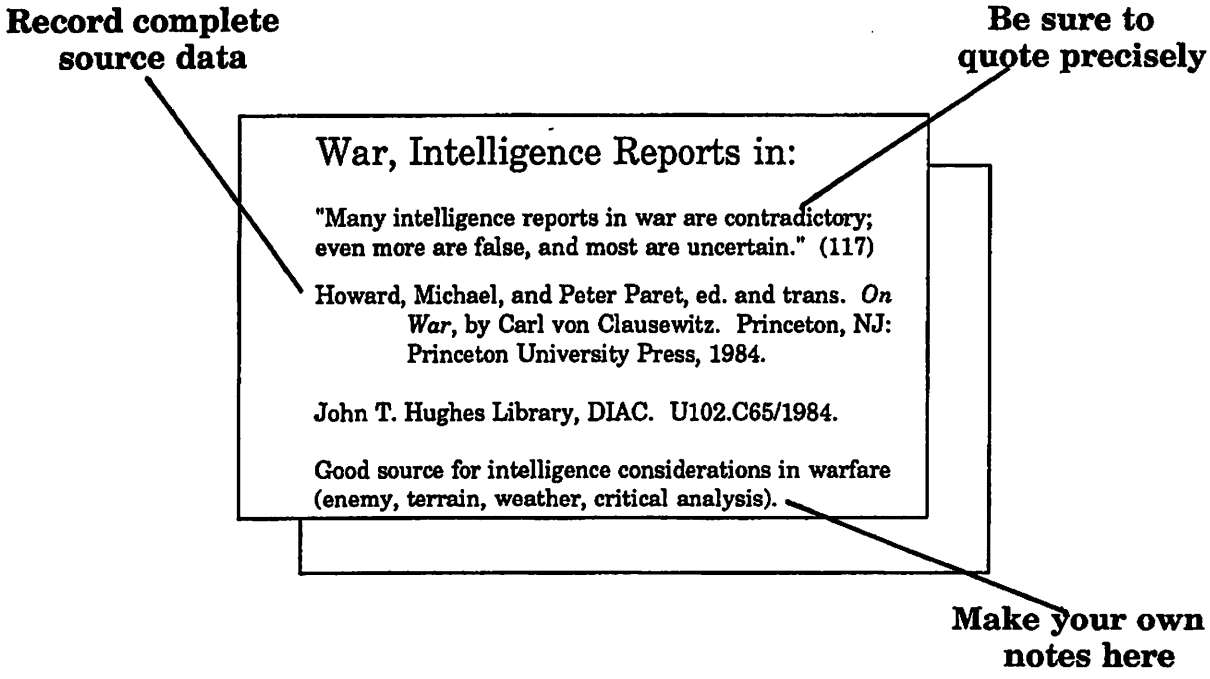


Figure 2. Sample Subject Card



Evaluating the Importance of Research Questions: The Second Step in Conducting Research

Once you have explored and established an overview of the field, the process of focusing continues. Having identified the major information repositories--for example, specific libraries, special collections, data bases, and a small number of journals--you are ready to settle on one primary and several secondary research questions. Because these will eventually appear in your thesis proposal, the most important should head the list. To rank your list, consider the following:

1. Construct a range of conceivable outcomes that can accrue from researching a particular question.

2. Judge the probability of each of these possible outcomes actually occurring.

3. Judge what effect each of the possible outcomes is likely to have for intelligence.

4. Based on the above, decide whether the study is worth conducting.

If there are no positive answers to step 3, then the research question is probably of doubtful significance.

Identifying Data Needs: The Transition from Research to Collection

Your research has now progressed to a point where your general information needs give way to data needs. The difference? Information is unprocessed material obtained from study or inquiry. Data, on the other hand, are defined as factual materials used as a basis for measuring, calculating, or deciding. While data are derived from information, only some information meets the more stringent demands placed on data. By these definitions, opinions and beliefs, to give but two examples, may yield information while lacking the factual underpinnings to be suitable as data.

Data can be more difficult to access than information. Their "official" status often protects them from the very kind of research you are trying to do. Once you have located data sources or data generators, it is important to devise a collection strategy.

PHASE FIVE: COLLECTING DATA

Up to this point we have been dealing with the *structure of inquiry*. Now it is time to consider some of the techniques available to you to collect information and data on the phenomenon you wish to study. Systematic research requires you to be meticulous in the way you collect to ensure that your "measures" are accurate and valid.

Your research represents an effort to *describe, explain, and predict (forecast)* some phenomenon. You hope that your research will also advance knowledge of some particular phenomenon. You have started this process through the careful delineation of the problem and related research questions, and through the development of hypotheses. Now you must adopt an approach to researching the problem.

Choosing a Collection Strategy

The world abounds with data--there are ingenious ways to examine and represent just about anything! You will need to develop specific collection procedures that result in ***empirical*** observations representing those concepts in the real world. Scientific research involves collecting data in a systematic fashion. Since it is normally impossible to collect ***everything*** on a given topic, the researcher has to be satisfied with looking at only a portion (**sample**) of the totality (**population**).

The collection strategies outlined below provide examples of ways to proceed. They focus on frequently used techniques in the social sciences. There are many approaches to researching a problem, and these are provided only as examples of typical ways. Included in each description is a brief overview of potential strengths and weaknesses.

Populations and Sampling

The *population* in a study is that group about whom we want to be able to draw conclusions. Unfortunately, it is difficult to gain access to the entire population for any study--commonly known as a census. *Sampling* is the process of selecting a subset of observations from among many possible observations, to draw conclusions about that larger set of possible operations. The purpose of "scientific sampling" is to select a few who can be taken to represent the many. The most well-known forms of sampling occur in politics, particularly before elections. Sampling has become so accurate in the U.S. that experts are often able to predict the outcome of an election to within 2 percent accuracy, based on small samples.

The importance of the concepts of population and sampling is in understanding that how you select your data or research material can affect the validity of your research results. Here are some examples of how the decision might affect your results:

- You are debriefing Iraqi defectors and writing a report that summarizes Iraqi military attitudes toward Saddam Hussein. How many defectors are debriefed? What percentage are these of the total number of defectors, and what percentage are they of the total Iraqi military? What are their backgrounds--social, economic, political? Do their attitudes toward Hussein differ from the attitudes of non-defector military personnel? *Clearly your research results will be based on data collected from a sample of defectors who, in turn, represent a sample of the Iraqi military. How* ***representative*** *this sample is of the overall population (the Iraqi military) will determine the validity of your analysis.*

■ You are about to write an intelligence estimate that focuses on the likelihood of the future stability of a particular country such as Russia. You hypothesize that the major issues that will determine future stability include history, religion, ethnic diversity, and nationalism. What religions will you examine? What ethnic groups will you analyze? Will you analyze all religions and ethnic groups or will you select a representative sample based on certain assumptions that they reflect trends in the country as a whole? *If you randomly select groups without paying particular attention to how the sum of the groups reflects the whole, your conclusions might not be valid in terms of understanding future stability.*

■ You are interested in undertaking research on political elites and national security policymaking in Indonesia. Your objective is to better understand the influence that elite attitudes and opinions have on Indonesia's national security policy. One hypothesis might be that "elites with more conservative political outlooks tend to influence the national security policy toward more intervention in international disputes." You will conduct interviews and survey current and past elites. How do you identify the elites you wish to survey or interview? How do you ensure that they represent those who actually influence the process? *Failure to ensure that your sample of elites accurately reflects the population of elites will invalidate your research. If, for example, you interview a disproportionate number of "liberal" elites during a period defined by greater conservatism, you might wrongly conclude that elites do not have significant influence on national security policy.*

The chief criterion of the quality of a sample is the degree to which it is representative--the extent to which the characteristics of the sample are the same as those of the population from which it was selected.

■ *Probability sampling* is a way of ensuring that a sampling of elements from a population will accurately portray the population from which they are selected. Simple random sampling (flipping a coin, where each flip is totally independent of the last flip) is the most fundamental technique in probability sampling, though it is seldom used in practice.

■ *Systematic sampling* involves the selection of every *k*th member from a "sampling frame."

■ *Non-probability sampling* is undertaken when a probability sample either would be impossible or grossly unfeasible. In many cases the researcher will use his or her own judgment in the selection of sample members (sometimes called a "judgmental sample"--more formally known as "purposive sampling"). This form of sampling requires considerable political expertise. You should be well-versed in the background of the area you are studying, so that the selection of individuals or cases is based on an "educated guess" as to its representativeness.

Measurement and Assessment

What can you make of the following three assertions? (1) We can "measure" anything that exists. (2) Most of the things we want to measure and study do not really exist. (3) It is possible to measure them anyway.

Confused? What is meant by *measurement*--as opposed to *assessment*--is a good place to start the discussion. The verb ***measure*** means to obtain a figure, extent or amount. Thus we measure in order to be as precise as possible. Measurement most often involves standard units typically expressed as numbers. Numbers' attributes, however, can be *nominal* (where they are simply different from one another, such as basketball jersey numbers), *ordinal* (ranked along some progression from more to less, say house numbers), *interval* (not only rank-ordered but separated by a uniform distance between them, such as degrees on a Fahrenheit thermometer), or *ratio* (interval measures based on a true zero point, such as age). As used in this discussion, measurement must have at least interval properties.

Assess, on the other hand, generally means to determine the importance or value of something. While we can agree that an action stamped **immediate** takes precedence over one marked **routine** (ordinal), there is no standard for how much more important the former is than the latter. Much research time is spent on transforming assessments into measurements by assigning numbers to opinions, value judgments, preferences, and the like. You need to understand, and communicate clearly to your reader, the bases for any conclusions you derive from measurements.

As a general rule, measurements (precise) are better than assessments (imprecise). There are no conditions under which imprecise measurements would be intrinsically superior to precise ones. Precision is ***not*** always necessary or desirable, however. If all you want to know is whether an adversary is generally strong or weak--and a general categorization is all that is needed--it would be unnecessary to devote a great deal of effort to a precise nature of its strength. How you measure a concept must be guided partly by an understanding of the degree of precision required. If your needs are not clear, be more precise rather than less.

The importance of ***operationalizing*** is that it represents the critical link between how you conceptualize a problem and how you will go about researching it. If you cannot *measure* what you have conceptualized, how will you come to an objective conclusion?

Archival Research

This is probably the most often used research approach at the College. It involves the *examination of existing statistics and documents*. Extensive "archives" (official records) can provide data. From document files to computer logs, from legislation to imagery, there is no shortage of sources for facts. Sometimes the data you will need are already compiled and ready for interpretation; other times you will need to compile them

from raw sources. The social sciences are also increasingly accepting more informal archives such as news reports, films, and music as legitimate data sources. A distinct advantage of using archives is that the data have already been generated. If you can establish source reliability, there are no obvious weaknesses to using archives.

POSSIBLE THESIS EXAMPLE: The value of imagery during the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962 as derived from recently declassified CIA documents.

Field Research

Field research involves the direct observation of phenomena. *Direct observation* is an approach that involves looking at and listening to what is going on. If you want to know how many tanks constitute another country's army, you might count them by using imagery. We use direct observation constantly in everyday life. Whenever we look around us and observe what is happening and try to understand it, we are engaged in field research. Those who collect human intelligence are classic field researchers.

Field observation differs from some other modes of observation in that it is not only a data-collecting activity; it is a theory-generating activity as well. As a field researcher you will seldom approach your task with precisely defined hypotheses to be tested. More typically, you will attempt to make sense out of an ongoing process that cannot be predicted in advance--making initial observations, developing tentative general conclusions that suggest particular types of further observations, making those observations and thereby revising your conclusions, and so forth.

Field research is time-consuming. Your presence, as an active participant or a passive observer, may also affect the outcome of whatever is transpiring. While this may be of little consequence in purely descriptive research, it could seriously skew your ability to predict or forecast. Some approaches to observation do ***not*** involve intruding on the subject under study. One way of classifying these approaches is to call them unobtrusive. Intruding on the subject can often impact on what is being studied. In the field of intelligence collection, most of what is observed is done ***unobtrusively*** (by technical means). We would much rather observe and collect than ask the questions directly. A landmark book by Eugene Webb and others, *Unobtrusive Measures: Normative Research in the Social Sciences* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966), outlines ways to observe "what people inadvertently leave behind." If, for example, you want to know what exhibits are the most popular in a museum, you don't ask. Instead you stand at different exhibits and count the viewers who come by. However, people might be attracted by your presence, wondering what you are doing. Instead, you could check the wear and tear on the floor in front of various exhibits for those where the tiles have been worn down the most.

POSSIBLE THESIS EXAMPLE: Improving response times in the National Military Joint Intelligence Center (NMJIC), based on personal participation in a crisis.

Experimentation

Experiments are an excellent vehicle for the controlled testing of "causal" processes. The classic experiment tests the effect of an experimental stimulus on the dependent variable through the pretesting and post-testing of experimental and control groups. You might, for example, test the effects of a drug on a particular illness through this method.

The experimental models are generally not likely to find too many applications in the field of intelligence analysis. However, a variant on the experimental design is "gaming," where the researcher, in effect, places groups in controlled experimental conditions and observes how they conduct themselves.

ACTUAL THESIS EXAMPLE: Analogies and visual examples can improve the learning and retention of Signal Theory. (MAJ Dennis Thornton, PGIP 9301)

Survey Research

Another method used frequently in the social sciences involves *asking questions.* Survey research involves the administration of standardized questionnaires to a relatively large sample of respondents drawn carefully from some relevant population. Experience shows that a 25-30 percent return rate is typical for a single mailing or distribution. A second mailing of a short, well-constructed survey may result in a 50 percent return rate.

Surveys, as well as interviews (see below) often involve *scaling.* In order to lay the foundation for analysis, you may want to create scales (graduated series of rank or order). Typical scales can be unidirectional, as in from "never" to "always," or bi-directional, as in "agree-->no opinion-->disagree." Scale points are routinely transformed to numbers. Note, however, that most scales resulting from survey research have only ordinal properties, therefore restricting the number of statistical tests you can apply. Also, all the rules of population sampling need to be observed, just as all the shortfalls of a less-than-perfect sample should be remembered when drawing conclusions.

ACTUAL THESIS EXAMPLE: Current and anticipated DIA uses of the Joint Worldwide Intelligence Communications System (JWICS). (Diana Rueb, PGIP 9301)

Interviews

An offshoot of survey research is the concept of the structured interview. In our research we can often identify experts who know a great deal about a particular issue. Other likely interview candidates are individuals who are key players or at key nodes in what you are studying. The best way to turn their knowledge into information, or into

data for analysis, is through a structured interview/survey where the questions are prepared ahead of time and all those interviewed are asked the same questions.

Interviews are good for getting *information*. They are much less reliable and efficient for getting *data*. They are preferable to surveys if you have a small number of individuals in your study. Feedback from students who have conducted interviews suggests that you need to engage your "crap detectors." These are the filters that effectively separate fact from opinion and real knowledge from presumed knowledge based on rank or position.

Whenever you conduct an interview, it is important to establish the classification in advance with the person you are interviewing. If you intend to write an unclassified paper, you ***must*** inform the subject of that fact. It is your responsibility to ensure that an interviewee does not inadvertently compromise classified information.

Interviews can also contribute a great deal to ***validity*** checks. After you have come to some preliminary conclusions on your topic, getting expert opinions to confirm the general correctness of your findings can be a confidence builder.

POSSIBLE THESIS EXAMPLE: Defining Information Warfare--the perspectives of five former DIA Directors.

Case Study

If you intend your research findings to become a teaching tool, you may want to prepare them as a case study. C. Roland Christensen's *Teaching and the Case Method* (Boston: Harvard Business School, 1987) is a good source. See also Earl Babbie, *Survey Research Methods*, 2d ed. (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1990).

Many of the thesis proposals we see combine two or more approaches. While this can add richness to the research, it can also make your task more difficult. For example, how do you weigh the relative importance of data drawn from archives and interviews when you are ready to begin your analysis?

PHASE SIX: ANALYZING THE DATA AND DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

We cannot in a few pages offer a course in data analysis and drawing conclusions. You will have more of that in your studies. The JMIC offers an entire 30-hour course--a core requirement for graduate and undergraduate students--in intelligence analysis. The process is a complicated one, but it can be learned, practiced, and perfected.

It is essential, though, that you allow yourself time to examine and think about the data you are gathering. Too many students make the mistake of spending all their time collecting information and writing the paper, without ever giving adequate ***thought*** to their data. With some study of your topic and the information you have collected about it, you may find a different approach to an old problem--some unique aspect of it that may not have been addressed adequately in the literature, for example. Remember the idea of originality: discovering new information or revising existing information, not just repackaging it. Those are some of the key aspects of analysis to keep in mind.

You will reach a cut-off point in your data collection, with raw data in computer files or piled high on a desk. Now what? If you find yourself asking that question, you might be in trouble. Much earlier you should have anticipated this moment--visualized it and made a preliminary decision on what analytical method you are going to use. Now, that decision must be fine-tuned and employed. And before going further, review your data against systematic research expectations regarding *reliability* and *validity*.

Reliability and Validity

In abstract terms, ***reliability*** is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same problem, would yield the same result each time. For example, will the interviews you conduct in August, with two weeks left to finish, be comparable to those conducted during Spring Break, when you still had four months? Will statements you identified as representative of "xenophobic Serbian nationalism" be classified the same way by someone else using your operational definitions? (For more on operational definitions, see page 27.)

Validity refers to the extent to which a specific measurement provides data that relate to commonly accepted meanings of a particular concept. Validity is the *match between a mental concept and the way it is measured.* To put it another way, validity refers to the extent to which a measurement reflects the ***real meaning*** of the concept under consideration. ***Face validity*** is a term we use to indicate that our measurement approach and the resulting data are appropriate for what we set out to do. Failure to use an important classified document or primary source can invalidate your work and deprive it of credibility.

Choosing an Analytical Strategy

Just as there are many data collection strategies, so there are numerous ways by which you can analyze what you have collected. The three examples below are only a few.

Historical Summary. On the surface, the least complicated analytical approach presents data in chronological order and lets the "facts" speak for themselves. Many thesis proposals presume this technique in statements such as, "the data will show . . . ." If only research were so straightforward! Your research problem will rarely fit a one-

dimensional, linear model. Historical summaries may require you to construct and think in two or even three dimensions. Tufte's books, cited in the Bibliography, are excellent for helping you ascribe meaning to, and extract meaning from, your historical data.

ACTUAL THESIS EXAMPLE: "Multidisciplinary Interaction: A Historical Perspective and Prospects for the Future." (Ms. Donna Francoeur, NSA)

Content Analysis. Content analysis is a method of collecting and categorizing data that are available all around us: books, speeches, articles, reports, and the like. Its aim is to classify a body of material in terms of a system of categories to yield data relevant to a research hypothesis. Content analysis is frequently applied to communications that address issues or attitudes. The unit of analysis can be as varied as words, themes, number of lines of print, location on a page, or minutes of air time. Proper use of the technique may permit you to move from assessment to measurement (see page 36). Some examples of content analysis include:

- Systematic research and categorization of newspaper reporting on an issue, such as nuclear arms proliferation, as a measure of "perceptions of importance of foreign policy issues."

- Systematic analysis of speeches to understand the attitudes and opinions of a foreign leader.

ACTUAL THESIS EXAMPLE: "The 'Nuclear Republics' of the CIS and Nuclear Weapons: Chess Game or Armageddon?" (MAJ Jonathan S. Lockwood, USAR)

Statistical Analysis. A statistical analysis is based on measured data--numbers or qualities aggregated so they can be represented numerically. Statistics are quantities computed from sample data to describe those data and to test hypotheses about characteristics of the population. Statistics are commonly divided into two classes: *descriptive* and *inferential*. Basic statistics that describe samples include *frequency distributions*, *measures of central tendency* (means, medians and modes) and *measures of dispersion* such as range and standard deviation. They are used primarily to summarize large amounts of numerical information. Inferential statistics shift the focus from the sample to the population and are based on *probability theory*. Inferential statistics are most often found in predictive research.

Statistics can lend an air of authority to research findings because they permit you to accept or reject hypotheses within a predetermined framework of *significance*. Statistical formulas and tables enable you to argue that your findings are highly unlikely to represent chance occurrences; in other words the differences are "real" and presumably worth discussing.

Just as collection strategies are often used in combinations, so, too, are analytical strategies. Statistical analyses can represent the core of your research, or they can

support other approaches. Because of the great number of statistical tests, many of which can be applied only if your data meet very exact specifications, make sure you have an "expert" on your committee if this is your analytical approach.

ACTUAL THESIS EXAMPLE: "An Estimate of the Likelihood of Another Mariel-Style Cuban Exodus by Sea." (Lt Daniel A. Laliberte, USCG)

Drawing Conclusions

Try to get as much out of your research as you can. In addition to the conclusions that directly address your hypothesis and key questions, be sensitive to serendipitous findings. Such unintended outcomes should be noted even though they need not be discussed at length. If nothing else, they may be the starting point for your, or someone else's, next research project.

Generalizations and Extrapolations

Generalizations draw broad conclusions from limited data. For example, what is happening in one country under a given set of conditions may be used to explain the political situation elsewhere as well. In their time orientation, generalizations normally cover the past and present.

When you extrapolate, you infer or project from what you observed. In other words, you expand your conclusions to cover events or outcomes that have not yet happened. The temporal orientation is future. Both generalizations and extrapolations require you to take a risk. A good thesis, which adds to a body of knowledge, requires risk-taking. If your collection and analytical strategies have been well-chosen, you too can "boldly go where no one has gone before."

THE FORM OF THE PRODUCT

After concluding the research, you will want to maximize the effect of your work on its intended audience. How you present your findings, what the thesis will look like, will influence whether or not it is read. A little extra time and care at this crucial juncture may pay large dividends. See also chapters 4 and 7 for specific guidance about production requirements, forms, and formats.

Narrative-Only Paper

The traditional College thesis has been prepared in what is sometimes referred to as "Courier 10" style. This means that the paper was typed, or that a computer was used

as a typewriter. Most pages consist of straight text; tables and figures are kept to a minimum.

Paper + Value Added Visuals (VAVs)

At a time when DIA and other national agencies are spending time and money to improve the "look" of their intelligence products with photos, full-color graphics, and other embellishments, "Courier 10" papers may receive little more than a perfunctory glance. If you want your thesis to have an impact, make sure that someone scanning it will want to read further.

This style guide is an example of how different fonts, imported graphics, sidebars, and other features might enhance readability. Rest assured that the production requirements in this guide are not intended to limit you in preparing a first-rate research product. The personal computers, software, and printers now available to all students should be fully exploited.

Depending on the audience for whom your research is intended, you may want to go beyond the traditional, narrative-only thesis. Tufte's books (see the Bibliography) can give you ideas about how to enhance the final product with "visual representations" of findings. Diagrams, flow charts, figures, summary tables, maps, "blocked" conclusions, photos--these and other VAVs can often be incorporated directly into the thesis with minimal difficulty.

SOME FINAL THOUGHTS

At this point, remember the following: (1) A well-designed thesis or thesis proposal has a logical flow; all the parts not only fit, but also they are mutually related and dependent. (2) Before you are ready to proceed with the proposed research, you should be able to visualize it from beginning to end--from your starting point to your destination. (3) You must also have a road map of sufficient detail and clarity that your peers, your instructors, your thesis committee, and your eventual readers can all follow the logic of your reasoning. Whether they agree with your conclusions is much less important. (4) There are as many thesis proposals and research proposals as there are ideas. There are as many research methods as there are proposals. Don't look for a generic approach. Tailor whatever you intend to do to your own strengths, interests, and circumstances.

Has your energy been sapped? No? Then put pen to paper, or warm up the word processor, and start writing!

CHAPTER 3

WRITING

THE BASIC TOOLS OF WRITING

> ***Writing is easy. All you do is stare at a blank sheet of paper until drops of blood form on your forehead.***
>
> ***-- Gene Fowler***

As Gene Fowler aptly expresses, writing requires an enormous effort. No magic formula can help you write better without expending that effort. But many books teach writing as a ***process*** that can be learned, primarily through practice.[1] If your writing skills are simply "rusty" because you have been away from the academic environment for a number of years, then you can refresh your memory and hone those skills by doing a little reading beforehand.

The profession of intelligence demands that we be able to disseminate a useable product to the people who need it. The utility of our intelligence products depends upon basic principles such as clarity and coherence. If you have ever heard a commander or a decisionmaker complain about the usefulness of a written intelligence product, then you know why these principles are important.

It is not our intent in this guide to repeat material covered in other sources available to you as a Joint Military Intelligence College student. In this chapter, however, we will review the fundamental principles of ***all*** writing: clarity, conciseness, correctness, appropriateness, completeness, and coherence. Know and heed those principles in your written work at the College.

[1]See, for example, James S. Major, *Writing with Intelligence*, (Washington, DC: DIA, 1995).

CLARITY

> ***Don't write merely to be understood. Write so you cannot possibly be misunderstood.***
> ***-- Robert Louis Stevenson***

Follow R.L. Stevenson's advice and your readers will have few problems with your papers. What is crystal clear to you, though, may be unintelligible to a reader without your experience or background. One person's "simple" is another person's "huh?" Have someone else read your writing--a classmate, your spouse, or a friend. Actively seek constructive and objective criticism. If you cannot have a second set of eyes on your work, reread it yourself after setting it aside for a while. ***Read it aloud.*** Try hard to be objective, and read it as though you have no prior knowledge of the subject. Ask yourself, as often as possible while you read: "Is this clear? Does it make sense?"

The student writing examples below are from papers submitted to the faculty. (The remarks in parentheses are ours.) Did these students reread what they had written?

> "I found, by using of color slides or vu-graphs that shows a madrid of activity and explaining what to look for and why it is important to be useful." (I found little to be useful in that sentence, which shows a myriad--not madrid--of errors and a total lack of clarity.)
>
> * * *
>
> "Coordinating actions and attacks leads to the other question raised by the original one but is directly tied to the first part." (Why does this student force the reader to decipher such a complex sentence?)

Students are not the only ones who occasionally lack clarity in their writing. Read what a Legal Counsel wrote in a memo to military personnel, explaining the impact of new taxes being imposed on moving expenses:

> Any cash payment for travel or moving expenses which is not spent on an expense which would have been deductible if the member had to pay it himself, is taxable income. . . . Even better, all taxpayers will be able to exclude from income all moving expenses paid by their employers either directly or by reimbursement, if the expense would have been deductible if the taxpayer had to pay it himself, unless the taxpayer actually deducted the expense in a prior year. ***[Ready to do your taxes now?]***

We could cite many other examples of similarly convoluted sentences and phrases from our collection. The point is this: In academic and intelligence writing, clarity is crucial. If the writing is not clear, the reader will be lost. If that reader is your professor, scoring your mid-term, research paper, or thesis, you may have lost more than your credibility. So be reader-friendly. Be **clear** in your writing.

CONCISENESS

Blaise Pascal once apologized to a friend for writing such a long letter, but said he lacked the time to make it shorter. How true it is. A great deal of work is involved in achieving concise writing. But that work will prove its worth in your professors' satisfaction with your writing.

> ***If you would be pungent, be brief; for it is with words as with sunbeams. The more they are condensed, the deeper they burn.***
>
> ***-- Robert Southey***

Don't confuse conciseness with brevity. Some long pieces of writing are nonetheless concise because they say what needs to be said without repeating; then they quit. Being concise means saying what you need to say in as few words as possible. Prune the deadwood from your phrases and sentences. Cut unneeded verbiage from paragraphs. Be merciless. Look at the phrases that follow (all from student papers). The italicized portions are deadwood, unnecessary to the meaning of the sentence. They do nothing but fill white space and waste the reader's time. Avoid the use of these and similar phrases in your own writing.

"***the month of*** February"	"***the city of*** Munich"	"***the*** 1980-81 ***period***"
"***a distance of*** 20 miles"	"whether ***or not***"	"at ***the hour of*** noon"

The following writing example illustrates clearly that this student had no concern for conciseness. Parenthetically after the example, we have included our own rewrite. Compare the two and see if you think the point is still made in the shorter version.

> "What has been the impact of the tax cuts on the average U.S. citizen, myself included? Although not an expert in this field, I will attempt to answer this question in subsequent paragraphs. In as few words as possible, I feel that very little was gained by the tax cuts." (The impact of tax cuts on the average U.S. citizen has been minimal.)

That 50-word student dissertation on tax cuts falls into a common trap: repeating the question and overstating the obvious. We had asked the student to write a brief essay on the impact of then-President Ronald Reagan's tax cuts. Many students start out answering a question by rephrasing or simply repeating it. That is the old trick of trying to use as many pages in the examination blue book as possible, to impress the professor with your depth of knowledge. But the professors know the questions they have asked, and they do not need them parroted. If anything, do some redefinition of the problem and restate the question in another form--the form in which you intend to answer it. And do it **concisely**.

CORRECTNESS

You may write the clearest, most concise, coherent, appropriate, and complete paper ever to flow from a pen or a word processor; but if it is not ***correct***, you will offend your professor. We could devote a separate guide to this principle alone, but we hope the brief summary here will help you avoid some of the more common pitfalls.

Correctness in both academic and intelligence writing has two facets: factual precision and mechanical correctness. They complement each other by providing an edge of finesse that makes one person's writing better than another's.

Precision

> ***The difference between the right word and the nearly right word is the same as that between lightning and the lightning bug.***
>
> ***--Mark Twain***

Precision is a hallmark of the intelligence profession. The term itself is synonymous with ***accuracy*** and ***exactness***. Say precisely what you mean. Check your facts to be sure they ***are*** facts and, if possible, that you have evidence from more than one source. Go for the lightning. If you are writing about the FIZZLE fighter, and no one in the Intelligence Community has any idea of the aircraft's combat radius, do not write: "The FIZZLE is believed to have a substantial combat radius." What in the wide world of wonder does that mean? Instead, make a positive and precise statement for your reader: "The combat radius of the FIZZLE is unknown."

It is no sin to admit an intelligence gap. The most serious intelligence gap is the space between writers' ears when they try to cover up a dearth of knowledge by "writing around it." By admitting to the unknown, we may get someone's attention and initiate some seriously needed collection action. Your thesis or research papers may make a positive contribution by calling someone's attention to an intelligence gap of possible consequence. Examples of imprecise writing from student papers follow.

"Rising out of the ashes of World War II came the sphinx of communism." (Mixing its metaphors as it rose, no doubt. The ***phoenix*** rose, not the sphinx.")

* * *

"Russian environmental minister Danilov-Danilyan reported that of Russia's arable land, half is unsuitable for agriculture." (Most dictionaries define "arable" as ***suitable*** for agriculture. Did this student try to use a word he didn't understand?)

* * *

"On 1 June 1992, the U.S. Strategic Command's Joint Intelligence Center (STRATJIC) was formally established from the ruminants of the 544th Intelligence Wing." (Now ***there's*** something to chew on.)

Choosing the Strongest Verbs. One way to strengthen the precision of your writing is to focus on the transitive verb(s). Some are vague and should be avoided. Examples include ***explore***, ***review***, ***show***, ***examine***, ***discover***, ***identify***, ***demonstrate***, ***discuss***, and ***investigate***. More appropriate verbs such as ***compare***, ***contrast***, ***assess***, ***measure***, and ***evaluate*** can clarify what you intend to do. Moreover, they will define and shape your analytical strategy.

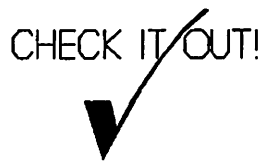
IMPRECISE VERBS FROM STUDENT PAPERS	PRECISE VERBS FROM STUDENT PAPERS
(1) A descriptive methodology will be used to ***explain*** the existing system; (2) I will ***examine*** complaints about the U.S.; (3) I will begin to ***explore*** potential changes in structure; (4) I will ***discuss*** the controversy of the soldier-statesman versus the pure military professional; (5) I will utilize a descriptive research methodology for the purposes of defining and ***exploring*** my research question; (6) [T]his study will predominantly ***investigate*** future systems; (7) Explanations will be used to ***show*** why the ethnic Russians in these states are important; (8) Through the "snowball" technique, relevant titles listed in the bibliographies/notes of the aforementioned sources have been ***discovered***; (9) The conclusive phase of research will be a "tweaking" of the data ***gathered***.	(1) I will ***compare*** the number of economic intelligence requirements and their priorities since 1947 (in five-year increments) to ongoing international events and economic issues during that period; (2) By ***evaluating*** risks and benefits in the context of the new challenges facing defense, it will be possible to determine if a more active role is required for intelligence in the formulation of defense policy; (3) I anticipate drawing conclusions from this ***comparative analysis*** in each of the four areas measured; (4) I will use a historical research approach to ***assess*** the current communist situation in the Philippines and to provide an overall view of the way the communists have operated in the past; (5) I will ***compare*** the domestic politics of Syria and Iraq [to] show how internal concerns influence the foreign policies of both nations.

Mechanical Correctness

The final touch a good writer (or a considerate student) adds to ensure readability is a check for mechanical correctness. Proofreading and editing involve more than "dotting i's and crossing t's." Proofread for correctness and edit for style. Go back over your paper from top to bottom for misspellings, errors in punctuation, agreement of subject and verb, and other common errors. If you have trouble detecting spelling errors in your own writing, welcome to the club! Most peoples tend too overlook there own misteaks. Computer spell-checkers help, but in the previous sentence, the only word that would have been flagged is the word "misteaks," even though there are three other errors in the sentence. Spell-checkers and grammar-checking programs are improving, but most still do not recognize the difference between ***affect*** and ***effect***, or between ***too***, ***to***, and ***two***. You will still need to check for usage errors. Don't rely exclusively on these programs.

Eye have a spelling checker; it came with my pea see. It plane lee Marx four my revue mistakes eye can knot sea. Iran this Poe em threw it, I'm sheer your pleased too no. Its let her perfect in it's weigh; my checker tolled me sew. Now win eye right, eye no I'm write from halo two good buy. Bee cause every buddy nose bye now computers dew knot lye.	**71 WORDS, NO MISTAKES, ACCORDING TO THE SPELL-CHECK**

Try proofing your paper by reading backwards. By scanning words out of context, your mind will catch more mistakes. It really does work. A good alternative, of course, is to have someone else proofread your paper--preferably a disinterested observer with little knowledge of your topic.



Adeptness at proofreading and editing may be acquired, but only through practice, practice, and more practice. Try different techniques to see what works best for you. For example, proofread once from the big picture working down to the individual words: Start by checking pages for appearance; then look at form and format for coherence and conformity; next, read paragraphs for coherence and unity, one main idea per paragraph; look at sentences next for completeness and correctness; and finally, check individual words for usage and spelling. It will not take as long as it sounds. If you are uncomfortable with that approach, next time try it the other way around--from the words, working up to the form and format.

Some errors are more serious than others. We all misuse the most frequently abused punctuation mark, the comma. It is one thing to omit the comma before "and" in a series (experts do not agree on that one, but the JMIC standard is to use it); it is quite another matter to use a comma between two complete sentences with no joining word like "and" or "but" (a comma splice).

Because of the importance of correctness in writing, chapters in this guide provide more specific information on the most troublesome aspects of correct writing. We have tried to make this guide as user-friendly as possible. If you have problems, for example, with punctuation, you can readily find and study only that chapter.

The most common mistakes we encounter in papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College are misspellings and errors in usage, punctuation, and agreement of subject and verb. Those errors are discussed below.

Misspellings. Some misspellings completely change the meaning of a sentence, while others leave the reader gazing quizzically into space. Look at the following examples from our students' papers.

"With this insight the commander can effectively lesson the enemy threat." (Would the enemy let us use his ***lessen*** plan in that case?)

* * *

"In realty, an integrated Euroterrorist front would stand little chance of success." (Then what about some other business besides real estate? This student strayed from ***reality***.)

* * *

"At the operational level of war, intelligence concentrates on the collection, identification, location, and analysis of strategic and operational centers of gravy." (Pour it on! This student didn't appreciate the ***gravity*** of the situation.)

Usage of words in the English language is dynamic. We use words and phrases today that were unknown to our grandparents. One need only listen to the younger generation to learn that "bad" may mean "good," that "rad" has nothing to do with nuclear radiation, and that the admonition to "chill out" does not involve refrigeration. While usage rules change over the years, the basic conventions of the language remain intact, providing a framework upon which to build "correct" writing.

The better dictionaries have Usage Panels. These august bodies do not lay down rules and tell the population how to write; rather, they advise on the language as it is being used. Even the experts do not always agree. (See, for example, the entry under "data" in *The American Heritage Dictionary*, Third College Edition, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1992.) The most common usage errors are usually clear-cut: affect/effect, it's/its, principal/principle. These troublemakers are covered in more detail in "A Usage Glossary for Intelligence Writers," chapter 15 of this guide.

Punctuation is difficult. Many "grammar guides" give you 72 rules for use of the comma, tack on 144 exceptions to those rules, then tell you to use the comma any time you want your reader to pause briefly. Few writers have problems with the question mark or the period, but the comma, colon, and semicolon are bugaboos. See "Punctuation," chapter 11, for more.

Subject-Verb Agreement. If you have a singular subject, then your verb must also be singular. Writers seem to have the most problems with this principle when their subject is separated by a lot of words from their verb, or when there is a vague subject. Witness the following:

"The amount of funds available have had an enormous impact." (Because of that definite article, "the," the verb must be "has." The writer apparently was sidetracked by the word "funds," which is closer to the verb than is the subject, "amount.")

* * *

"I think the issue of tax raises and cuts are clouded with too much emotion." (We think it are, too. Note that the subject is "issue," but the writer used the plural verb to match the "raises and cuts.")

* * *

"Each of these areas were administered in a professional manner." (The singular word "each" is the subject of the sentence, not the plural "areas.")

APPROPRIATENESS

Consider your reader. You seldom know precisely who will be reading your work, but you can generally make a pretty good guess, especially in the academic environment. To help you determine whether your writing is appropriate for the intended audience, ask yourself the following questions: **Who** will read my paper? **Why** will they read it? **How** will they use the information? It is unlikely that you will be able to answer those questions every time, but the mere act of asking them may prove useful to you.

Another important consideration in appropriateness is the use of jargon. "Shop talk" saves us a lot of time in daily dealings with our colleagues. At the Joint Military Intelligence College, for example, we might talk and write about the DLOs for MSI721 satisfying PGIP needs. If we were writing something about that, and we knew it was going outside the College, we would write that the Desired Learning Objectives (DLOs) for the Graduate Research and Writing course (MSI721) satisfy the requirements for the Postgraduate Intelligence Program (PGIP).

Always consider whether your paper will be read by someone without a clear understanding of the jargon you use. If you must use an abbreviation or acronym, that is no problem; just spell it out first, and follow it parenthetically with the abbreviation, as we did in the paragraph above. Then, when you use the term again, use the abbreviation. If you write more than a page or so without using the term, spell it out one more time for your reader. ***When in doubt, spell it out.***

Considering your reader and avoiding jargon will make your writing more **appropriate** for your intended audience. And your professors will appreciate your efforts on their behalf.

COMPLETENESS

The flip side of the conciseness coin is completeness in your writing. When you write concisely, you want to ensure that you have said what you need to say in as few words as possible. With completeness, you want to be sure that you have not left anything unsaid. A good prewriting tool like a balloon map or an outline helps a lot.[2]

Go back and review your prewriting and compare it to your first draft. Have you covered everything that you wanted to cover? Are your main points all there? Have you resolved all questions you have raised, either by answering them or by stating that there are still some unknowns or gaps in information? If you can answer "yes" to those questions, then your paper is probably complete.

---

[2]For more information about these prewriting tools, see Chapter 3, "Prewriting: Getting Ready to Write" and Chapter 9, "Wordshops in Prewriting," in James S. Major, *Writing with Intelligence* (Washington, DC: DIA, 1995).

Look at completeness from several angles. The review process we have just addressed provides a "big picture" of whether your paper is complete with respect to all the major points to be covered. But conduct a more detailed review of your work to ensure that the individual paragraphs and sentences are complete.

Look for the topic sentence in each paragraph and see if all the other sentences relate to it and complete the thought it introduced. Remember that the topic sentence is the main idea or central assertion of the paragraph; but without substantiating evidence in the form of follow-on sentences to expand upon or clarify the assertion it makes, the paragraph may be incomplete. The reader will be confused if the topic sentence introduces a thought and the remainder of the paragraph fails to carry that thought to completion. It is like starting your car, revving the engine, and then just letting it idle. The engine warms up, but you do not go anywhere. Carry your search for completeness down to the individual sentence.

COHERENCE

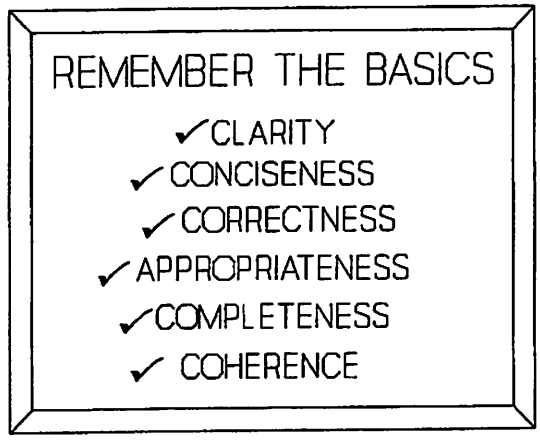
> "The assessment additionally needs to be based on human perceptions and assessment of the problem. Combining the two above factors, the determination of terrorist responsibility may be expedited. Monitoring of the terrorist problem must be continuous and thorough, as well."

The student who wrote that short paragraph was not thinking about coherence. At least three major ideas compete for the reader's attention: (1) assessing the terrorism problem; (2) determining responsibility for terrorism; and (3) keeping track of the problem. It may be easier to keep track of shadowy terrorist groups than to find the main idea of that paragraph.

Think of coherence as a plan, a blueprint for logical continuity in your paragraphs. Our minds have a natural tendency to think logically, always trying to connect pieces of information to each other and to make sense of them in terms of our own experience. When we encounter something incoherent, our minds immediately say "Whoa!" and shift into neutral, grinding and crunching what we have encountered, trying to bring it into focus. When we do not understand, the inevitable result is frustration.

You do not want your professors to be frustrated because you failed to follow a coherent organizational scheme in your writing. That is why the **topic sentence** is so important to writing. The topic sentence, usually the first sentence of your paragraph, says to the reader: "Welcome to a new paragraph. I am the main idea here and I will be your guide through the next few sentences." Pick your controlling idea--your central assertion for each paragraph--and stick to it. When you change controlling ideas, move to a new paragraph with a smooth transition. In that way, you will ensure more **coherent** writing for your reader.

USING THE BASIC TOOLS



Having reviewed the basic tools for writing a paper, you are ready to write. Do not be so overwhelmed with rules and regulations that you shy away from writing. Just try to remember those six basic principles, and review your papers with them in mind. Keep your writing ***clear*** and understandable. Be ***concise***, saying only what you need to say in order to get the point across. Edit and proofread as many times as possible to ensure ***correctness***. Be sure your writing is ***appropriate*** for your intended audience, as nearly as you can determine that audience. Check the final product to ensure that you have said everything you needed to say about the subject--that your paper is ***complete***. And watch for ***coherence*** throughout the process, sticking to an orderly, logical procedure. Finally, use strong verbs to make your point.

If you seem to have particular trouble with one or two of the principles, spend extra time on the most troublesome. It is easy for us to tell you these things, but the proof comes when the boss tells you to write a fact sheet and have it on his desk the next morning. We can never anticipate all the variables that may occur, but we can assure you that you will have to cope with some short suspense dates and deadly deadlines in your writing, even at the Joint Military Intelligence College.

There is no magic formula for writing, and the ability to write well is not something you are born with. While some writers seem to have a "natural" ability, most of the authors who have written anything about writing have admitted that it is hard work, and they have to struggle with words even after years of successful writing.

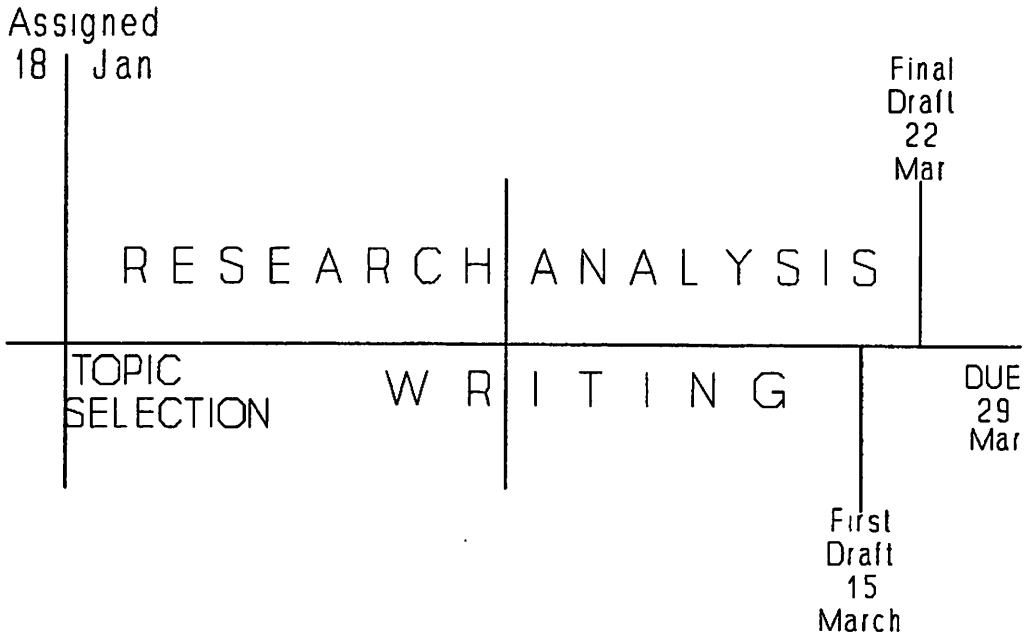
> ***Writers may not be special--sensitive or talented in any usual sense. They are simply engaged in sustained use of a language skill we all have.*** ***-- William Stafford***

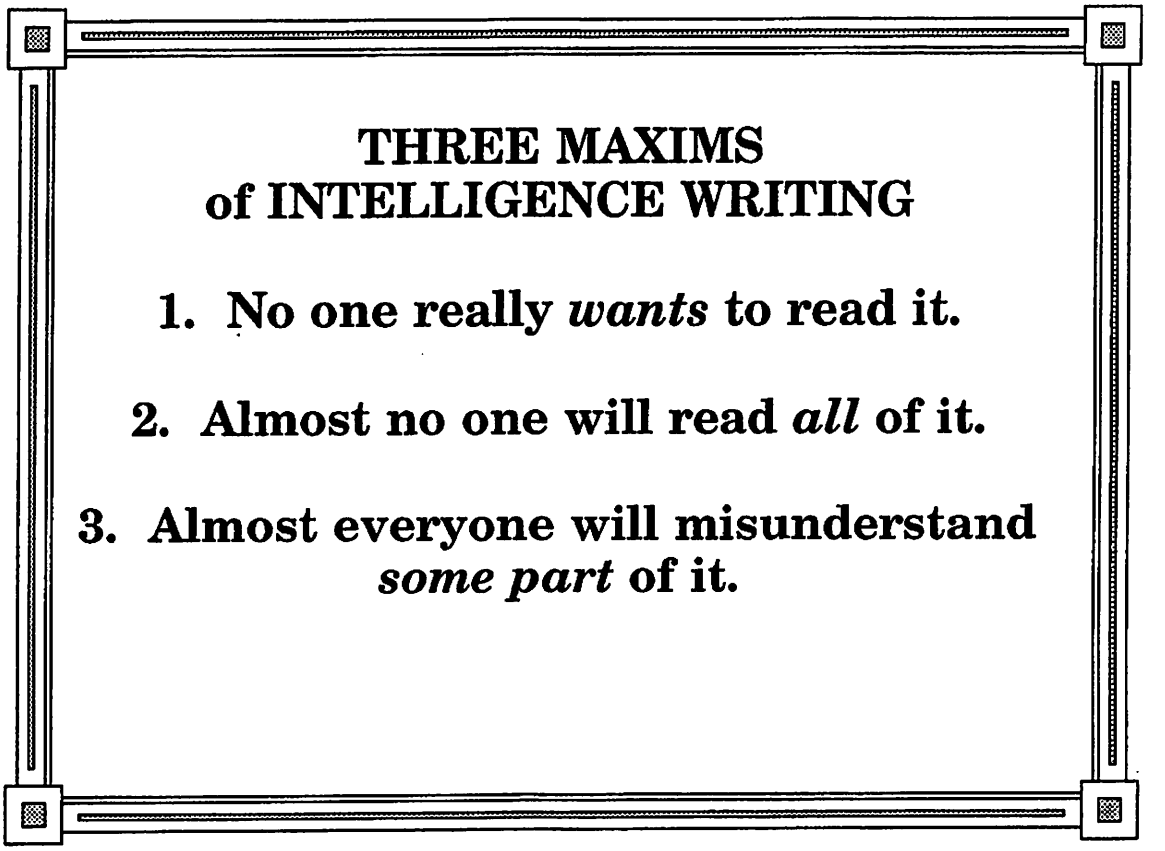
PACING YOURSELF

You've heard the old saying: Plan your work and work your plan. That adage is worth remembering while you are a student at the Joint Military Intelligence College, especially when the time comes to write papers. Your best work will not be done at breakneck speed during the last week of the term, while you study for finals in two classes and write papers for three others. Many Incomplete Contracts have been initiated because of poor planning by students who just could not complete the work on time.

You will generally have a good idea of course requirements early in the term, when the professor announces, for example, that there will be a midterm and a term paper. Read your course syllabus carefully, early in the term, before you get mired in reading and writing assignments. ***That*** is the time to sit down with your planning calendar and work backwards from the end of the term. Start with the date the paper is due; allow yourself at least two weeks to look over, revise, and polish your first (rough) draft; then note the date you intend to have a first draft written. Build in some time for the writing process, analysis, research, and topic selection.

That "backward planning sequence" will give you a list of milestones for doing your research and writing the paper. If any one milestone slips, then you know immediately that something else must "give," or that you must burn midnight oil to finish on schedule. You might jot your planning calendar down on a piece of paper. A "Post-it Note," affixed near your desk or word processor, might be a good reminder. Below is a sample plan, shown as a simple line with milestone dates noted. You may prefer to use a desk calendar or another device. Just be sure that the entire spectrum of your plan is visible at the same time. You do not want to flip a page on a "page-a-day" desk calendar and be surprised by those ominous words: "**MSI721 PAPER DUE *TODAY!***"




THREE MAXIMS
of INTELLIGENCE WRITING
1. No one really *wants* to read it.
2. Almost no one will read *all* of it.
3. Almost everyone will misunderstand *some part* of it.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL GUIDANCE

The production of a well-researched, well-documented, and well-written paper relevant to intelligence is the final goal of each student's efforts. To that end, the methods of conducting research and effective writing are just as important as the specific subject matter. Guidance on subject matter is provided by your professor or thesis chair.

The following pages apply to ***all*** papers written at the Joint Military Intelligence College. For questions about research papers, book reports, book reviews, annotated bibliographies, or theses, refer to the specific chapter that deals with that type of paper.

FORMAT: SETTING THE SCENE

The introduction sets the scene for the paper. (It is unimaginative, though, to call it "INTRODUCTION.") This section tells the reader what you intend to investigate and how you plan to do it. In addition it explains why the subject is significant and worthy of investigation. The introductory section should be no more than 10 percent of the length of the paper. Type the title two double spaces from the top margin. Follow the instructions in this chapter for headings and subheadings. Other elements such as margins, headings, contents, list of figures, footnotes, and bibliography, should also follow the guidance in this book.[1]

Use the title page illustrated in the chapter pertaining to the type of paper you are writing. ***Title pages are not numbered and are not included in the total page count for your paper.*** Note the caveat: "The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not reflect the official position of the Department of Defense or the U.S. Government." The same caveat should appear at the bottom of the first page of the paper. If you are a student from outside the Department of Defense, then the caveat must include your major organization as well. For example, if you work for the FBI, then the caveat must read: "The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not reflect the official position of the Department of Defense, Department of Justice, or the U.S. Government."

[1] Either footnotes or endnotes are acceptable, at the discretion of the professor. A note contains a bibliographic reference or short comments that do not fit into the flow of the text. Comments too long to be expressed in two or three sentences should be incorporated into the text of the paper or into an appendix.

TIMELINESS AND COMPLETENESS

Your professor will establish a final date for submission of an acceptable paper (and may suggest interim dates for selecting a topic or providing drafts). By that date you must have submitted an acceptable paper free of typographical errors, written in acceptable English style, correctly formatted, and sufficiently well-researched and documented to meet normal academic standards.[2]

USE OF WORD PROCESSORS

Use of word processors is strongly encouraged because you can normally expect to do multiple drafts of a paper. Tables and other statistical data should be typed rather than photocopied out of the original source. Drafts may be printed in draft mode, but the final copy must be letter quality. A laser or inkjet printer is ideal for a quality appearance. The College has many computers and printers available for student use.

MAPS, GRAPHICS, AND TABLES

Where appropriate, use maps and graphics. Especially constructed computer graphics or neat photocopies from other sources are acceptable. Sloppy cut-and-paste jobs are unacceptable. Be sure to document the source of a map, table, or graphic, or the data from which a graph is constructed. (See the example of documentation style later in this chapter.) Maps, graphics, or tables should be referenced in the text and the reference enclosed in parentheses, for example: (see Table 2). Avoid the use of photocopied photographs unless the copy is as clear as the original. When you do use copied material, allow for proper margins by setting the scale appropriately on the copying machine.

ORIGINALITY

All papers must be original work. When other people's ideas or data are used, give them credit in a citation. Papers determined to be plagiarized versions of another author's work, or papers which are even partially plagiarized, will not be accepted, and the student will be penalized severely. Remember, if you rework one of your own papers submitted earlier as a research paper, you must first have the permission of both professors involved. See the section on plagiarism in chapter 1 of this book.

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[2] See, for example, John C. Hodges and Mary E. Whitten, *Harbrace College Handbook*, 11th ed. (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1990); and Gerald Levin, *The Macmillan College Handbook* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1987). Both are available in the Writing Center.

TITLES, HEADINGS, AND SUBHEADINGS

You are searching student papers for material relevant to your chosen topic, "Russia and Eastern Europe in a Free-Market Economy after the Demise of Communism." You have a pile of potential sources. The first paper you come across is entitled "Russia: An Analysis." Since that title tells you nothing, you turn to the first page and find the heading "INTRODUCTION." Shaking your head in frustration, you continue to thumb through the paper and find that the only additional headings are "BACKGROUND," "DISCUSSION," "CONCLUSIONS," and "OUTLOOK." You know by now that you will have to read a considerable amount of that paper before you really know what it covers.

The second paper you encounter is entitled "Russia and the European Community: Moving toward Economic Accommodation." Now here is something that may be of some benefit. Warily, you turn to the first page and see the heading "THE TURBULENT 1990s AND THEIR IMPACT ON THE RUSSIAN ECONOMY." With renewed faith, you thumb through the rest of the paper and find each section and subsection with a title that reflects its content. You are grateful to that writer for saving you so much time in your research, because now you need to read only those sections that apply to your topic.

As exaggerated as that scenario sounds, the Writing Center sees scores of papers like that first one. Vague titles, headings, and subheadings show laziness on the part of the writer, and they do nothing to help the reader learn more about the paper's content. Using clear, descriptive headings is one mark of a well-written, well-packaged paper.

TITLE

Repeat the title of your paper at the top of page one--but not on any other pages. Type it in all capital letters, centered on the page, two double spaces down from the top margin. (NOTE: As used in this guide, the "top margin" means one inch down from the top edge of the page. The text of subsequent pages begins one inch down from the top of the page.) Use the **bold** feature for the title and for all headings and subheadings. The title is not a "heading" as such. It may be followed by an epigraph (see page 151) or other introductory text. Begin the epigraph or text two double spaces beneath the title.

FIRST (A-LEVEL) HEADING

Avoid the heading "INTRODUCTION" as your first A-level heading. Of course this first section supplies introductory material, and to say so in a heading is superfluous. Be imaginative; tailor a specific, descriptive heading. Start two double spaces beneath the previous text, centering the heading and typing it in uppercase letters. Use the **bold** feature for all headings and subheadings, but do not underline. Begin the text two double spaces under the major heading. Indent your paragraphs approximately one-half inch (one "tab" setting on most word processors).

Second-Level (B-Level) Subheading

Subheadings add a neat and well-organized appearance to your paper. They break up the monotony of the printed material and help your readers make their way through the text. The second-level, or B-level, subheading is indented like the text and is typed in both uppercase and lowercase letters. It is placed two double spaces beneath the previous line. Begin the text for this section immediately beneath the subheading, as shown in this paragraph and the one that follows.

Another Second-Level Subheading

It is technically impossible to have a single subheading. Remember: If you divide a whole (an A-level section), you will have at least two parts (two B-level sections). Be careful, though, not to overdo subheadings in a paper. Generally, a 10-page paper should have no more than 3 or 4 subheadings. In your final printing of the paper, be sure that you have left no subheadings "hanging" at the bottom of a page; that is, check to see that each subheading has at least two lines of text with it. Otherwise, force the subheading onto the next page by using multiple returns or a "Hard Page."

Third-Level (C-Level) Subheadings. Like the other subheadings, the C-level subheading begins two double spaces beneath the previous line. It should seldom be necessary in a paper at the Joint Military Intelligence College to have more than three levels of subheadings, even in a thesis. If you need a fourth division, your organizational style is probably too complex. See the Writing Center for help in restructuring the paper. Note that the third level is indented, bold, and underlined, using both uppercase and lowercase letters. Do not underline punctuation at the end of the subheading. The text begins immediately after the subheading punctuation, on the same line.

MARGINS

Most word processing software sets the margins automatically. Check the default value of your system, which will probably be one inch on all sides. That is a proper margin setting unless you are preparing a thesis (see chapter 7). In that case the left margin should be set to 1-1/2 inches to facilitate binding. The software will adjust the bottom margin to compensate for footnotes and footers. Page numbers, centered at the bottom, may be within the margin. If you write a classified paper and use either a stamp or headers and footers for the security markings, it is acceptable for those classification markings to fall within the top and bottom margins. Adjust your classification footer, though, so that it prints ***below*** the page number.

SPACING

Proper spacing adds a professional appearance to your papers. ***The text of all student papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College must be double-spaced.*** Notes (footnotes or endnotes) and bibliographic entries, however, are single-spaced ***within*** the entry and double-spaced ***between*** entries. See the examples in chapter 8. Always space twice after periods or colons, including those in notes and bibliographies.

FOOTNOTES AND ENDNOTES

Unless your professor specifies either footnotes or endnotes, the choice is yours. If you use endnotes, begin them on a separate page after the conclusion of your text. Use the centered, bolded heading **NOTES** (***not*** "ENDNOTES") on the first page of the endnotes. Their placement makes it obvious that they are endnotes. Many professors prepare explicit guidelines for what they expect. ***Read those guidelines carefully before you start work.*** If, however, you anticipate trying to publish your work, expect some reformatting to accommodate the citation style of your intended publisher. The Writing Center can provide details on the requirements of potential markets.

PAGE NUMBERS

Number pages at the bottom center, within the margin (that is, less than one inch from the bottom of the page). The title page is unnumbered. Introductory pages such as a preface, scope note, or contents (usually unnecessary in a paper less than 20 pages) are numbered consecutively, using Roman numerals. The first page of text is numbered "1," using the Arabic numeral.

SOME HINTS FOR THE CONTENT

Do not open your paper by explaining methodology. Openings such as the following are trite, and they only delay getting to the point: "The purpose of this paper is to . . ."; "This study will examine . . ."; "My paper will look at three aspects of . . . ." Instead, come right to the point. Remember that you are writing an academic paper, but as an intelligence professional. Ask yourself this question: "What does my reader want to know about the content of my paper?" Then answer that question on the first page, in the first paragraph. For example, let us suppose that you are writing about a recent coup attempt in Panaragua. Which of the following openings would you rather read?

A Description of What I Will Tell You Later

The purpose of this paper is to describe the events surrounding the recent coup attempt in Panaragua. The study will enumerate the possible reasons for the abortive coup, followed by a discussion of the current situation there and a look at the military leadership. Finally, the paper will provide a forecast for the future.

An Abortive Coup in Panaragua Breeds Turmoil and Uncertainty

The Christmas lull provided the perfect opportunity for the disgruntled military to try to seize power in Panaragua. At first light on 25 December, Colonel Jose Garstia, Commander of the elite Panaraguan Paratroop Brigade, led a contingent of 1,000 to 1,500 men in an armed attack on the Presidential Palace in the capital city, Ciudad Panaragua. After almost six hours of bloody fighting, President Manuel Nowayjose announced that his bodyguards had crushed the revolt. Conditions are unsettled, and a dusk-to-dawn curfew remains in effect as Nowayjose tightens his grip on the country.

You can see that the first example never really says much. You know that a coup has been attempted in Panaragua and that it failed. You know that the country has "military leadership." Or was it the ***coup*** that had military leadership? You're not really sure from this context, are you? What else do you know? By comparing the two examples, you can see that substantially more information is contained in the second illustration.

CLASSIFICATION

The same standards of research and writing apply whether you write a classified or unclassified paper. In either case, DIA Regulation 50-2, "Information Security Program," governs clearance for public release. (See also Appendix D, "Publishing Your Writing," for information on clearing your papers for public release.) That regulation clearly states that "writers shall not use information from official sources that is not available to the general public." An unclassified paper intended for public release, therefore, must use only unclassified, open, generally available sources. JMIC Books of Readings are ***not*** open sources readily available to the general public. Keep that in mind when your paper cites a Book of Readings. Remember, too, that classified material and its handling in your written work are the province of the College Security Office, ***not*** the Writing Center. See chapter 9 for additional guidance about handling classified material.

CONCLUDING SECTION

The Concluding Section, which may be called a conclusion, summary, or outlook, should not introduce any new information. Whatever its purpose--to conclude, to

summarize or to look to the future--it must be based on information presented in the discussion section of the paper. Based largely on your own analysis, this section often contains fewer footnotes.

APPENDIXES

You may find it desirable to include supplementary material that does not fit appropriately into the text. For example, if you are writing about congressional oversight of intelligence, you might wish to include applicable portions of the statutes or executive orders covering that subject. Appendixes are one way to do that.

Place appendixes immediately after the body of the paper, and before the bibliography. (See pages 68 and 94.) Number the pages in sequence with the paper, ***not*** A-1 or B-1. Use sequential upper-case letters for appendix titles (A, B, C, and so forth). Place the title two double spaces from the top margin. Center the title, and use upper-case bold lettering, as shown in the example at the end of this chapter.

An appendix is also a good vehicle for classified information when most of your paper is otherwise unclassified. You may then write an unclassified paper with a classified appendix, handled separately. This appendix will require a separate title page. You will begin page numbering with "1" on the first page of a separately handled, classified appendix. Be sure to read chapter 9 and take all necessary measures to safeguard classified material.

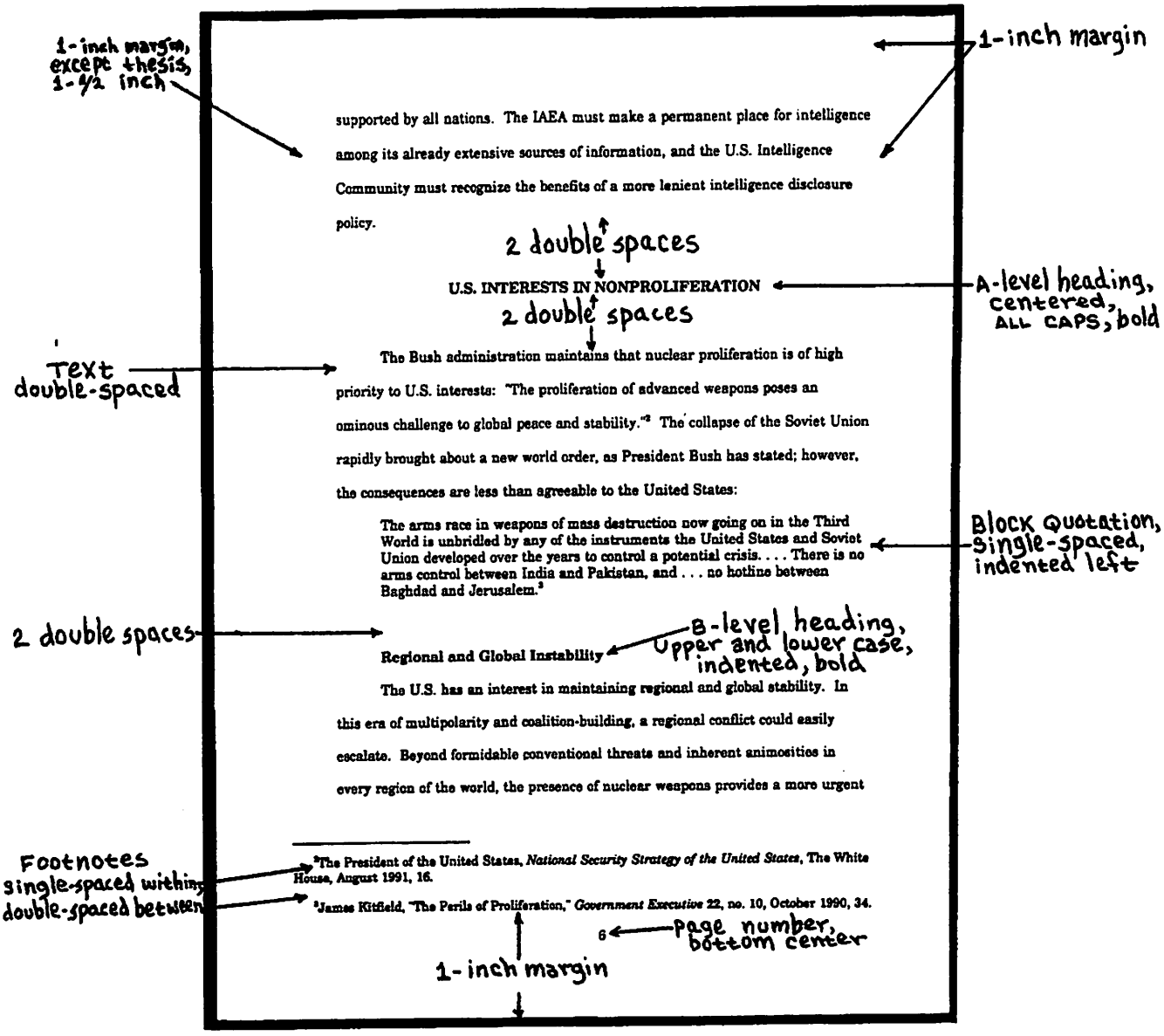
SAMPLE PAGE FROM A STUDENT PAPER

The mockup on the next page shows a page from a JMIC student's paper, annotated for its form and format. The example is from the MSSI thesis of CPT Audrey D. Hudgins, USA, PGIP 9201.[3] CPT Hudgins won the JMIC Research Award for the outstanding thesis in academic year 1992-93. Her chair was Dr. Russell G. Swenson.

Minor modifications have been made in the text to accommodate the fonts and style of this textbook. The basic form and the content are unaltered. The example shows proper spacing, margins, page number, a first-level (A-level) heading, a second-level (B-level) heading, an in-text quotation, a block quotation, and footnotes.

[3]Audrey D. Hudgins, *Intelligence and the International Atomic Energy Agency*, MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence College, 1993), 6-7.

[Sample Page from a Student Paper]



This sample illustrates the style and placement of first- (A-) and second- (B-) level headings, spacing, margins, an in-text quotation, a block quotation with ellipses, footnotes, and page numbering.

[Sample Contents Page]

- Center and set in **boldface** the heading ("**CONTENTS**"), and place it two double spaces from the top margin. Use only the heading "**CONTENTS**," *not* "TABLE OF CONTENTS."

- Generally a contents page is required only for a longer paper such as a thesis. Use the same margins as the thesis: 1-1/2 inches left, 1 inch top, bottom, and right.

- Number the page (bottom center) with lower-case Roman numeral "iii" if you have a preface; if no preface, then Roman numeral "ii."

- Align periods and the right edge of chapter and page numbers as shown in the example below. ***[HINT: If you use WordPerfect, put in the page number by using a "flush right" (ALT-F6). Then, with the cursor after that page number, key another flush right, and the leading periods will appear.]***

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES iv

LIST OF MAPS v

Chapter **Page**

1. THE FOUNDATION FOR ANALYSIS 1

2. GARSTIAN ANALYSIS 7

3. THE WEST PRINCIPLE 25

4. ANALYZING THE TRUTH 59

   Looking at Logic, 61
   Logically Looking, 73
   Thinking about Analysis, 95

5. CONCLUSION 119

Appendixes

A. The Data 135

B. Barfian Analysis Model 151

Bibliography 199

iii

[Sample List of Figures]

- Generally a list of figures is required only for a longer paper such as a thesis. Use this format for figures, graphs, charts, or maps, adapting it accordingly.
- Center and set in **boldface** the heading ("**LIST OF FIGURES**") and place it two double spaces from the top margin.
- Use the same margins as the thesis: 1-1/2 inches left, 1 inch top, bottom, and right.
- Number the page (bottom center) with a lower-case Roman numeral.
- Align periods and the right edge of page numbers as shown in the example below.

[HINT: If you use WordPerfect, put in the page number by using a "flush right" (ALT-F6). Then, with the cursor after that page number, key another flush right, and the leading periods will appear.]

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Calvin's Research Concept	9
2. West's Precept	11
3. The Gross Test for Sanity	25
4. Frank's Analytical Follies of Argumentation	39

HOW TO CITE GRAPHIC MATERIAL

(FIGURES, MAPS, CHARTS, GRAPHS, or TABLES)

If your graphic is on a page by itself, center it on the page. If it is accompanied by text, as in this example, set it off from the text with a box. Label figures in boldface immediately beneath, as shown in the example ("Figure 1. Malpaso"). One double space beneath the figure label, cite your source as shown, including all information normally contained in a standard footnote. Use the same size font for the label and the source documentation as you are using in the text. If either the figure label or the source documentation extend beyond one line, single space as shown in the example for the source.

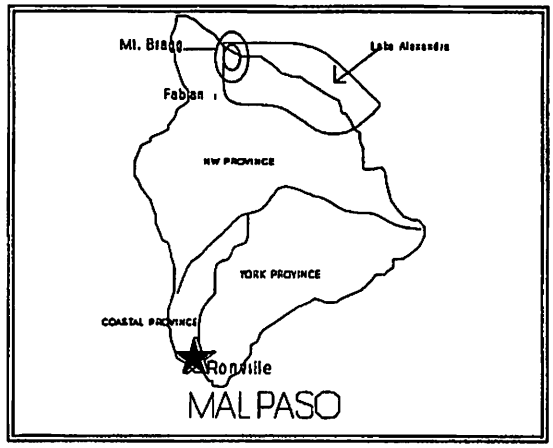


Figure 1. Malpaso

Source: "Riots Continue in Ronville," *Malpaso Times*, 27 October 1995, E3.

You may place the graphic anywhere on the page, depending upon its size and shape. In the example, we have placed the graphic on the right side of the page with accompanying text to the left. If your graphic is four inches wide or more, center it horizontally on the page and type the text above it and beneath it. Do not resume your text beneath the graphic unless you have sufficient space for at least two lines of text.

[Sample Page of an Appendix]

APPENDIX A: EXECUTIVE ORDER 12333

Center and set in **boldface** the heading ("**APPENDIX A: EXECUTIVE ORDER 12333**"), and place it two double spaces from the top margin. Begin the text two double spaces beneath the heading. If you are including in your appendix a copy of material that has been reproduced, then you will need to type the appendix heading at the top and add the page number at the bottom center of the page. Use the same margins as the paper. Remember to number pages in the appendix following the sequence of your paper. If the last page of your paper is page 56, then Appendix A begins on page 57. The exception occurs if you are binding a classified appendix separately from an unclassified paper, or an SCI appendix separately from a collateral paper. In either of those cases, the separate appendix must have a title page, and you will begin numbering the pages of the appendix with *1*.

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Part II:

TYPES OF PAPERS

WRITTEN AT THE

JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE

COLLEGE

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH PAPERS AND TERM PAPERS

Many of your professors will require you to write a research paper for their course. A ***research paper*** is synonymous with a ***term paper***. For our purposes we will use only the term research paper. It involves accomplishing research in a narrowly defined topic related to the course of study, then presenting your findings, well-written and properly documented, in a paper. The length and precise format of a research paper vary, and will be prescribed by your professor. If you have any doubt about the guidance, ask.

The following pages apply to research papers, research proposals, and term papers written for classes at the Joint Military Intelligence College.

[Sample Research Paper Title Page]

PANARAGUA:

FACING AN UNCERTAIN FUTURE

by

Joe Bob Ceaucescu
Captain, U.S. Army
PGIP Class 9701

Research Paper submitted to the Faculty
of the Joint Military Intelligence College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for ANA608

December 1996

The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and
do not reflect the official policy or position of the
Department of Defense or the U.S. Government

[*Research Proposal Format*]

A Research Proposal conveys information to your professor about the topic you intend to cover in your paper. Do not use a separate page for each item, except for the bibliography, which should start on a new page. The completed proposal should not exceed five double-spaced, typewritten pages. Because the Research Proposal is an informal paper, you may use the first person; it is usually discouraged in more formal papers. A sample ***abbreviated*** *research proposal begins on page 75. See chapter 7 for the description and an example of a proposal for the MSSI thesis.*

RESEARCH PROPOSAL

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

COURSE NUMBER: _____ **PROFESSOR:** _____

SUBJECT: _____

Overview

Two or three paragraphs highlighting the most important areas you intend to address in your research.

Working Hypothesis

Your research should be directed toward proving or disproving a hypothesis. State your preliminary hypothesis here, and include any key questions that must be answered in order to address the issue adequately.

Scope Note

Define the limits of your subject. What will you cover? What will you ***not*** cover?

Importance

Discuss briefly (one paragraph) what you consider the most important aspects of your topic. This section may be incorporated into the scope note.

Impact on the United States

Think of the U.S. perspective: What impact, if any, will your topic have on the national security, foreign, or domestic interests of the United States?

Types of Data to be Used

Consider the types of data you will be able to collect on your subject. Data should be quantitative or qualitative, not anecdotal. Will you be able to use primary sources such as interviews with knowledgeable sources?

. . . . . .

PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY

Begin your bibliography on a separate page. See chapter 8 of this guide for appropriate bibliographic forms.

Note: The Bibliography for the Sample Research Proposal on the next three pages cites style guides and books about writing. That is because this Research Proposal is <u>about</u> writing. In your bibliography it is not necessary to cite the style guide you used.

[*Sample Research Proposal*]

RESEARCH PROPOSAL

STUDENT'S NAME: CPT Joe Bob Ceaucescu

COURSE NUMBER: MSI721 **PROFESSOR:** Dr. Joe Pepper

SUBJECT: Writing with Intelligence

Overview

We can exercise our most sophisticated intelligence collection systems, gather rooms full of data, and analyze those data until we reach sound conclusions; but unless we effectively communicate the results of our research, we have wasted our time. Good writing is a hallmark of the intelligence profession.

My research will attempt to determine whether the basic principles of writing--clarity, conciseness, and correctness--are followed in the finished products of the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA). I will concentrate on those principles, but will also examine the appropriateness, completeness, and coherence of each product.

Working Hypothesis

Even the most formal finished intelligence products in the Intelligence Community occasionally lack clarity, conciseness, and correctness. I believe that as many as 25 percent of the substantive intelligence publications of the Defense Intelligence Agency could be improved substantially in this regard.

Scope Note

Because a paper of this nature cannot hope to encompass the broad range of DIA

products, I will focus on representative samples of the major product groupings of one Directorate.

Importance

The best intelligence in the world, poorly written, will not be read. Those who need the information will be alienated by a product that is unclear, incomplete, or filled with inaccuracies and errors. Adherence to the basic principles of writing is important to the finished product and, in turn, to its intended audience.

Impact on the United States

Critical intelligence unread by a key decisionmaker may mean American lives lost. Nothing can excuse poor writing that causes intelligence to go unread.

Types of Data to be Used

I will use three principal sources of data: (1) the DIA products themselves and my review of them; (2) interviews with DIA analysts and supervisors involved in the production process; and (3) quantified statistical data on product types, lengths, and intended audience compared to the writing problems--or lack of problems--encountered with each.

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CHAPTER 6

BOOK REPORTS, BOOK REVIEWS, ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES, AND THE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

> One of the greatest creations of the human mind is the art of reviewing books without having read them. --G.C. Lichtenberg
>
> I was so long in writing my review that I never got around to reading the book. --Groucho Marx

THE AMORPHOUS BOOK REVIEW

No JMIC student would think of reviewing a book without having read it. But we should not discount Marx and Lichtenberg's remarks as mere humorous exaggerations. Rather they invite us to examine what it means to **read** a book, and they remind us that thoughtful responses rest on thoughtful reading.

We call the book review *amorphous* because its form is so free-flowing. The adjective also is appropriate because so few of us know what to do, what to write about, and what to analyze when assigned either a book report or a book review. Although this chapter does suggest ways of responding to texts, the guidelines are not prescriptive. You must, of course, follow the requirements for content and form set by your professor.

THE BOOK REPORT VS. THE BOOK REVIEW

The book report is different from the book review (aka critical review or critique) in that the report is slightly more rigid in form and content and emphasizes the aspects of the book that relate directly to the subject matter of the course. Although readers may offer an opinion of the book briefly, they must remain focused on what the book is about and on demonstrating the knowledge gained about the subject through this outside reading.

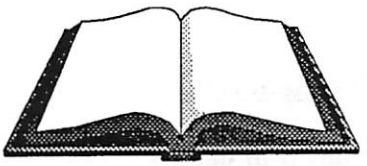
The book review, on the other hand, is free-form and highly personal. Readers may discuss all aspects of the book (content, social and intellectual background, style, historical importance, and so on) that have influenced their judgment of the book.

In short, ***the report is descriptive, the review evaluative.***

THE BOOK REPORT

Getting Started

The first step is to determine the ideas in the outside reading that relate to the subject matter of the course for which you are writing the report. Let's take for example a book on the Panama Canal, Paul Ryan's *The Panama Canal Controversy*. For a course in foreign policy, you might choose to emphasize Ryan's chapters on the canal treaties. A report for a course in Latin American security issues might emphasize Ryan's discussion of the canal's strategic location, the possible Cuban connection in the region, and the risks of pulling out.



After isolating subject-matter ideas, list details that explain how the book contributes to a larger understanding of this subject. The list can provide an outline or map for the body of the report. Finally you need to research the author. Has the author written other books on the subject? Is he or she an authority? Is this the author's most recent work or an earlier foray into the field? Has the author's perspective changed?

Organization

Introduction. The opening paragraph or two should include the basic information on the book such as its title, author, and topic. If the author has written other books on this topic, you may want to include that information here or in your conclusion.

Body. The first body paragraph should offer a brief *synopsis* of the book, organized in the same order as the book. A synopsis, unlike a summary, is selective and, therefore, subjective. It makes no effort to address every chapter or every important point. The subject-matter ideas isolated during the prewriting stage determine what portions of the book you will deal with specifically. Your first draft's synopsis will almost always be too long. Look to see if you have highlighted unnecessary details, and review the "Conciseness" portion of *Writing with Intelligence* for ways of shortening sentences, reducing modifying phrases, and eliminating deadwood.[1] The synopsis is only a small part of an effective report. Do not extend your coverage to several paragraphs.

[1]James S. Major, *Writing with Intelligence* (Washington, DC: DIA, 1995), 17-18.

The next two or three paragraphs of the book report focus on the subject-matter ideas (a paragraph for each). Here you will need to explain--with examples, supporting quotations, and details--how these subject-matter ideas relate to the course material. You probably will organize these paragraphs in order of importance of the ideas.

Conclusion. Finally you will summarize the book's contribution to the field of study. If you have an opinion on the book, this is the place to offer it. The evaluative comment, if present, finalizes the report--a climax, so to speak.

THE BOOK REVIEW

Getting Started

You first must determine your reaction to the book. Do not be noncommittal. Dorothy Parker once wrote in a book review, "This is not a novel to be tossed aside lightly. It should be thrown with great force." A *Spectator* review offered this appraisal: "That trees should have been cut down to provide paper for this book is an ecological affront." Clearly these reviewers have made up their minds, and so must you.

If you are having difficulty determining your opinion, you may want to generate a list of positive and negative reactions or use an umbrella map:

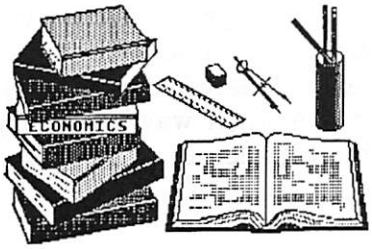
Positive Reactions	Negative Reactions
Thorough coverage	Bogged down in details
Interesting perspective	Bland style
Organization easy to follow	Boring reading
Logical argument grounded in facts, not opinion	

Unless the book is intended to be entertaining rather than informative (Stephen King rather than Russell F. Weigley), your overall judgment probably would be favorable. This list also provides the beginning outline for the body of your review.

Organization

Introduction. Similar to the book report, the review's introduction must include the basic information on the book. You also might choose to give the book a frame of reference: information on the author, background knowledge needed to understand the work, and a brief description of what the book is about.

Body. The whole point of a review is to assess the book's content as it relates to your own work, and especially its relation to strategic intelligence, national security, or



foreign policy. You formulated your opinion in the prewriting stage. Now you must discuss the strengths and weaknesses. Select interesting, important, or thought-provoking evidence to establish your opinion. Above all, keep the body evaluative, not descriptive. If the book has a tightly-knit structure, say so. Your job, though, is not to describe the structure only, but to analyze it. What makes it tightly knit? How does the writer achieve this?

You may arrange the strengths and weaknesses according to their order of importance (most-to-least pattern). In truth, though, you may choose almost any organizational pattern (comparison-contrast, cause and effect, or chronological order, for example).

Conclusion. Finally, end with your evaluation of the book based on its strengths and weaknesses. Feel free to offer recommendations. Many a writer's head has been served on a platter by you, the critic.

NO LONGER AMORPHOUS

Review writing is an art. Because it offers so much freedom of choice, it will challenge your skills as a disciplined reader and writer. The more you read quality reviews in such newspapers and magazines as *Book World* in the Sunday *Washington Post*, the *New York Times Review of Books*, and the *National Review*, the more you will begin to understand what constitutes a good review. An example of a well-written book review from the *Washington Post* is included later in this chapter, reprinted by permission. The guidelines offered in this chapter should get you off to a good start reviewing not only books but also other literature related to the topic you are studying.

THE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

If you are working toward the MSSI degree, you will review related literature in your thesis proposal. The purpose of this review is threefold: to familiarize you with the basic body of literature relevant to your proposed topic; to enable your committee to provide additional guidance about sources, if needed; and to demonstrate to your committee that you can evaluate that literature and assess its usefulness in the production of your thesis.

Individual entries in the "Review of Related Literature" will differ from ordinary book reviews in several ways. They will be shorter, generally no more than a paragraph (80-120 words). A paragraph may even review more than one book or article if they are topically related. The review also will maintain a very tight focus on the publication's usefulness in researching your thesis topic.

You may organize your review of related literature in various ways. One effective method is to group the items you review by topic, based on your key questions or grouped around the major topical components of your thesis. The Review of Related Literature in the sample thesis proposal (see chapter 7) is organized that way. Another way is to group publications by genre--books, journals, and electronic media, for example. Consult with your committee about which method to use in your review.

THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

To "annotate" something means to provide notes or explanation about it. Often your professors will ask you to write an annotated bibliography as evidence that you understand the literature related to your course material. You may be assigned the material to annotate, or you may simply be told to find four books and eight articles related to the subject matter and write the annotated bibliography.

There is no single agreed-upon format for annotating a bibliography. The important thing to understand is that you must show an ability to ***evaluate*** the material and not simply report on it. For that reason, the principles discussed earlier in this chapter concerning the book review apply also to the annotated bibliography. A sample format is provided later in this chapter, but treat that sample only as a source of ideas. Do not follow it so rigidly that you lose sight of the purpose of the assignment.

FORMATS FOR BOOK REPORTS, REVIEWS, AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

The following pages apply to the forms and formats for book reports, book reviews, and annotated bibliographies at the Joint Military Intelligence College. For the form and format of the "Review of Related Literature" in the MSSI thesis proposal, see chapter 7.

The suggestions earlier in this chapter will help you with the content of the book report or book review. On the next page is a sample title page for a book report or review. Then follows a sample heading for your book report or review, an example of a well-written book review from a major newspaper, and a format guide for an annotated bibliography.

[*Sample Title Page for a Book Report or Book Review*]

INTELLIGENCE IN THE INFORMATION AGE

A Review of

Alvin and Heidi Toffler's
War and Anti-War: Survival at the Dawn of the 21st Century

by

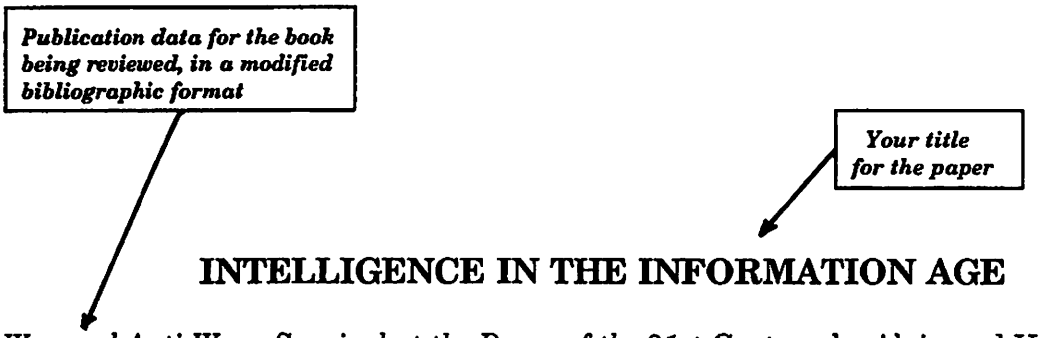
Jamie Sue Yeltsin
SFC, U.S. Army
UGIP Class 9701

Book Review submitted to the Faculty
of the Joint Military Intelligence College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for ANA408

December 1996

The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and
do not reflect the official policy or position of the
Department of Defense or the U.S. Government

[Sample Book Report or Book Review Heading]



INTELLIGENCE IN THE INFORMATION AGE

War and Anti-War: Survival at the Dawn of the 21st Century, by Alvin and Heidi Toffler. New York: Little Brown and Co., 1993. 276 pages.

Reviewed by Jamie Sue Yeltsin ← *Your name as reviewer*

Center and use the bold feature for the title of your review--***not*** the title of the book. Note that the font size may be (but is not required to be) one or two points larger than the rest of the text, to set it off. The publication data are single-spaced and include all elements normally in a bibliographic entry, plus the number of pages in the book. The format is modified slightly. Two spaces beneath the publication data, center your name as shown. Begin the text of your review two double spaces beneath the last line of the heading. Be sure to double-space your text.

EXAMPLE OF A WELL-WRITTEN BOOK REVIEW

Following is a *Washington Post* review of Howard Means's book, *Colin Powell: Soldier/Statesman--Statesman/Soldier* (New York: Donald L. Fine, 1992, 369 pages). The review was published in the 7 December 1992 *Washington Post* on pages B1, B10. At the time of its publication, General Powell was Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The book was reviewed by Joseph T. Glatthaar, a professor of history at the University of Houston and the author of *Forged in Battle: The Civil War Alliance Between Black Soldiers and White Officers*. As you read the review, answer the following questions:

(1) What is told about the book's ***author, Howard Means***? The reviewer skillfully includes insights into Mr. Means's qualifications to write such a book. Notice not only what is said but also how it is said and where it is placed in the review.

(2) What is included about the ***content of the book*** itself? Although this is unquestionably a "review," it nonetheless includes considerable information about the book's content, much of it descriptive like a book report might be. Notice how this information is threaded throughout the review.

(3) How does Dr. Glatthaar ***evaluate, review, and critique*** both the book and its author? Notice his use of words and phrases such as "at his best," "wonderful," "talent," "keen eye," "rightly," and "interesting and enjoyable."

(4) In intelligence writing we stress the "bottom line up front." Does this review meet that criterion? If so, how? If not, what ***is*** the bottom line of the review, and how might you rewrite it to follow that principle?

This is a well-written review, and understanding its components will help you write a book review. Once you understand how to write a review, you will also find a book report easier to write.

"A Major Bio of the General"

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> Not since the World War II era has a soldier so captivated an American public as Gen. Colin Powell. Tall, powerfully built, handsome and extremely articulate, Powell's keen intelligence and cool professionalism have won him kudos from all camps--Democrats and Republicans, hawks and doves, those on active duty and reservists, whites and people of color. A principal architect of the victory in the Persian Gulf War, Powell has come to symbolize the ultimate success story of a black American in a white world. By virtually all accounts, he is a rare and gifted individual.
>
> In *Colin Powell: Soldier/Statesman--Statesman/Soldier*, Howard Means has created the first in what will likely be a long line of major biographies on the current chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Based primarily on 120 interviews with the 55-year-old Powell, family and friends, and acquaintances, and written with skill and sensitivity, Means has provided us with a fine introduction to the ranking officer in the United States.
>
> Means presents Powell as a man steeped in history: the history of his family, the history of blacks in the military establishment, and his personal history. The son of Jamaican immigrants, Powell was raised in a family of achievers. His parents, both working-class folks, nestled into a cozy section of the Bronx called Hunts Point. Inheriting his mother's good judgment and his father's passion for people, Powell learned to love and respect the diversity of humankind. But he has done so without diminishing his own heritage and the black American struggle for equality, especially

within his chosen profession. A painting of "Buffalo Soldiers" and a poster from the film *Glory* adorn his walls at the Pentagon and remind him every day of that battle. Retired Air Force Gen. Benjamin O. Davis Jr. is among his heroes, Means tells us; the Rev. Martin Luther King Jr. is his greatest.

In the ROTC program at the City College of New York Powell found his calling. Uneasy in the classroom, he felt at home within the confines of a small fraternity of committed student-soldiers called the Pershing Rifles. The structure, the discipline, and the camaraderie all appealed to Powell, and he determined to make the Army his career.

His early years in the Army followed a fairly conventional track for an officer of talent. He earned a Ranger tab, commanded in Germany, took the Advanced Infantry Course and squeezed two tours in Vietnam around a year at the Command and General Staff College, where he ranked second out of 1,244.

What transformed Powell's career, Means maintains, was his selection as a White House Fellow in 1972. Powell elected to work for the Office of Management and Budget. There, his immediate supervisor was Frank Carlucci, and his ultimate boss was Caspar Weinberger. Also linked to the Weinberger-Carlucci tandem were Donald Rumsfeld and Dick Cheney. Powell's intelligence, good judgment and work ethic earned him the admiration and respect of all. Over the next decade Powell checked several essential boxes for promotion--he commanded a battalion and a brigade, graduated from the National War College and served as an assistant division commander--but the Pentagon always seemed to draw him back for important assignments, whether in the Carter or Reagan administration.

Those seeking essential details of Powell's Army career will find this book a bit disappointing. Means is a senior editor of *Washingtonian* magazine, an author exceedingly well versed in the subtleties of power in the federal government, and he caters to Beltway interests. Thus most of Powell's years in command or in the Army school system receive scant attention, while six pages are devoted to Bob Woodward's depiction of an Oval Office meeting on Oct. 5, 1990, in which the general reportedly urged a delay in preparing for combat in the Persian Gulf in order to give economic sanctions a chance. (After careful analysis, Means concludes that Powell offered the alternative because he perceived the use of armed forces as an option of last resort. Cautious to enter battle, Powell also fought to ensure that Gen. Norman Schwarzkopf had the resources to accomplish the mission.)

Along with his discussions of insider Washington, Means is at his best in extensive background pieces. His depiction of Hunts Point in Powell's youth is wonderful, as are his forays into Powell's Jamaican roots and the history of blacks in the army. Means's talent as a writer and keen eye for an anecdote never betray him.

The book concludes with an exploration into Powell's career options once he retires from the military. Means argues, rightly, that even greater things may be in store, perhaps politics. For that reson [sic], *Colin Powell: Soldier/Statesman--*

Statesman/Soldier will struggle to stand the test of time. But for now, Howard Means has provided us with a most interesting and enjoyable biography of America's top general.

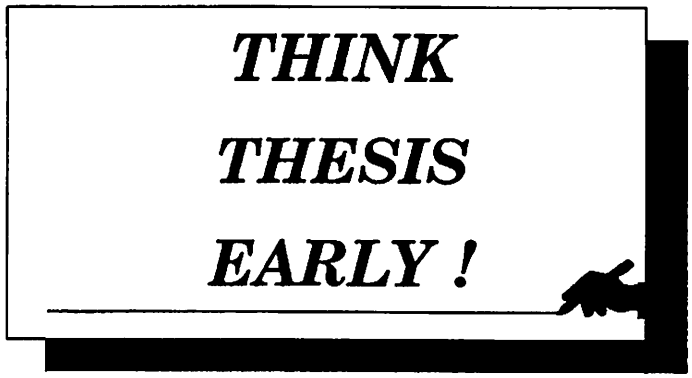
SAMPLE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY: YOUR TITLE

Major, James S. *Writing with Intelligence.* Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence Agency, 1995.

This is a sample annotated bibliography. Note that it begins with a properly cited document--a book, article, or other source--that you have reviewed. The bibliographic entry is single-spaced and hang-indented. Your annotated review of the item is then double-spaced, like any other paper you would write at the Joint Military Intelligence College. Use the other guidance you have received in your assignments for the content of the review. Your professors may have different guidelines for length, but a reasonable length might be 250-500 words (1-2 double-spaced pages) per entry. You will find it difficult to review an item properly in less than that amount of space. Ask your professor if you have any questions about length, form, or content.

CHAPTER 7

THE THESIS



THE BEGINNING

Start as early as possible in the graduate program to generate topic areas of interest for further research. This procedure may have begun even before you arrived at the College. The earlier you can identify some general areas of interest, the earlier you can refine and narrow the topic. Students often want to tackle too much, and they often do not properly define--and confine--the subject for research.

One way to help in this process is to write term papers earlier in subjects that may later be the basis of a thesis topic. If you wish to revise and expand a previously written research paper to fulfill the thesis requirement, notify the professor for whom the paper was originally written. Early in the term, plan with the professor the research and revisions necessary to transform your previous work into a thesis. (Much more is involved here than a simple rewrite.) Since teachers of past courses may not always be available--given the possibilities of leaves, sabbaticals, reassignments, and retirements--you must plan your work well in advance of graduation.

"HOW LONG MUST MY THESIS BE?"

An aspiring young novelist asked a publisher, "How long is a novel?" When the publisher told him between 75,000 and 90,000 words, the young writer responded, "Well then, I've finished!" [1] ***Students often ask us how many pages long a thesis should be. We intentionally avoid answering that question. Like the novelist, you would not be well-served by thinking that a thesis is governed by its dimensions rather than its content. Your thesis committee will know how long your thesis should be. Most of the time, they will not assign you a specific number of pages to write, but they may give you some general guidelines. The important thing to remember is that you have a subject to cover, and after you have covered that subject thoroughly, to the satisfaction of your thesis committee, "You've finished!"***

YOUR THESIS COMMITTEE

Once your thinking process is underway, you should talk with various faculty members about possibilities. Again, narrowing your topic early is paramount.[2] At this stage you will need to think about a thesis committee chairperson. You might enroll in a course offered by the one you are thinking of asking to be your chair.

Use the forms illustrated on pages 98 or 100 to obtain the consent of the chair and second member to serve on the committee.

The Committee Chair

The most important member of your committee is certainly the chairperson, also called the thesis advisor, thesis chair, or simply the chair. An important criterion in your selection will be the chairperson's expertise. However, you will be frustrated if the chairperson is brilliant but inaccessible because of other duties. Thus, the selection will be based on a variety of factors. Remember that the College has nonteaching members who are willing to serve as committee chairs. Your chair must have at least a Master's degree and must be a member of the faculty or a qualified nonteaching staff member--resident, adjunct, or reserve. Note also the special requirements, below, for adjunct faculty.

[1]Barzun and Graff, 18.

[2]For more detail on narrowing and focusing your topic, reread chapter 2. See also Martin Petersen's article in Appendix C to this guide.

Second Committee Member

Once you have a chairperson, you must secure one additional member to complete your committee. Both the chair and the second member, also known as the second reader or simply "reader," must have at least a Master's degree. The second member may be a resident, adjunct, or reserve faculty or staff member of the College, or may come from the Defense Intelligence Agency, the Intelligence Community at large, or from other academic institutions. If you have any questions about the qualifications of a faculty or staff member, ask the Writing Center, your faculty advisor, or the Associate Dean.

WHAT A CHAIR CAN DO FOR YOU THAT NO ONE ELSE CAN DO

- **Assess the value of your topic and hypothesis in context**
- **Provide a vector for your research**
- **Direct you to the appropriate body of literature**
- **Direct you to expert sources**

Adjunct Faculty: Special Considerations

Occasionally the resident faculty at the Joint Military Intelligence College are limited in depth or expertise in some subject areas. Like most other graduate schools, the JMIC uses adjunct faculty members with unique expertise to fill those gaps. Adjunct faculty can be your chair or reader, but you need to be aware that they are paid for that service. The College arranges for payment under a contract. If funds are limited or exhausted, you might not be able to have an adjunct faculty member serve as chair or reader. For that reason the College requires that you have the sponsoring department chair approve your selection of the adjunct. That approval is accomplished by using the form shown on page 98. Copies of the form are available in the Writing Center.

Administrative and Security Considerations

Use the forms on pages 98 or 100 to name your committee. Blank forms are available in the Writing Center. If your thesis will be classified, be sure that both members of your committee have appropriate security clearances. Note the distribution of the finished form--***your*** responsibility. After both members have agreed to serve, file the completed committee agreement with the Associate Dean. Give one copy of the form to your chair, one to your other committee member, another to the Writing Center, and one copy to the Registrar's Office for your permanent file. Keep one copy for your files.

YOUR THESIS PROPOSAL

The next step in the process is to prepare and submit a thesis proposal. Use the format shown on pages 111 through 114. (See also the sample proposal beginning on page 115.) Work closely with your committee chair and the Writing Center throughout this process. Use the formats for notes and bibliography specified in this guide. In case of conflicting advice, this guide takes precedence over other sources. If you have any questions about proper handling of classified material, including page and paragraph marking in your thesis, see the College Security Office, ***not*** the Writing Center.

MSI721 (Graduate Research, Analysis, and Writing) is designed to help you develop and complete your thesis proposal in a timely manner, to enable completion of the MSSI program in one academic year if you are a full-time student, or by the end of your program if you are enrolled part-time. After you have secured a committee chairperson, he or she will help evaluate your proposal. The chair may request a meeting with you and the other committee member. The chair will give you guidance if the proposal needs additional work. At the end of the appropriate grading period, your chairperson will assign a grade to a portion of your thesis proposal. That grade will constitute a substantial percentage of your MSI721 course grade.

For full-time students, the thesis proposal must be approved by the end of the Winter Quarter grading period. For part-time students, the proposal must be approved by the end of the term in which MSI721 is taught.

COMPLETING THE THESIS: YOU AND YOUR CHAIRPERSON

If you follow proper procedures in preparing your thesis proposal, the first draft of your thesis will be much easier to write. You should have a good rapport with your committee chair. Such rapport will not be enhanced by camping at the chairperson's door and expecting detailed instruction on every paragraph. The thesis is ***your*** independent research effort. On the other hand, consult frequently and seek guidance on the plan and general direction of your research. The Writing Center can also help by providing assistance in the mechanics of writing or in narrowing your topic and organizing your thinking. ***Do <u>not</u> expect your chairperson, your second committee member, or the Writing Center to proofread and edit a rough draft of your thesis.*** That job clearly belongs to you as a graduate student, and you are expected to submit a clean first draft.

THE FIRST DRAFT

You will have to submit several drafts of a thesis. Your thesis committee will expect you to incorporate their recommendations and editorial changes into the final

product. A first draft is your immediate goal. Once you have the draft, submit a copy to both committee members. (Your chair may want the second reader to see only a final draft. Consult your chairperson for guidance.) The advantages of using a word processor will be apparent between your first draft and the final thesis. It is a good idea to keep a copy of ***each draft*** of your thesis in a computer file, in case you have to reconstruct any portion of a previous draft.

For each submission you make between the first draft and the final product, your two committee members should read and provide written comments to you within 10 working days. ***It is your responsibility to ensure that your milestones allow that much time for each review.*** The chairperson will act as coordinator for the committee. Work closely with your chair to resolve deficiencies pointed out by the committee.

THE FINAL PRODUCT

General Production Requirements

The final product must use the formats specified in this style guide, and it must be well-organized, grammatically correct, and have no typographical errors. You have several choices in producing the final product, depending on its classification. You may prepare it yourself using personal or government typewriter or word-processing equipment; or you may arrange to have it typed by someone else. Whatever arrangement is selected, you are responsible for full compliance with all requirements, including security.

Chapter Titles, Numbering, and Placement

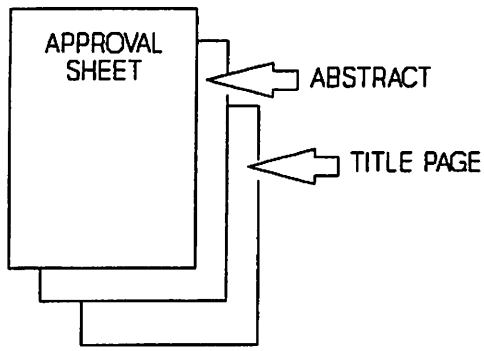
Number your chapters using Arabic numerals. On the first page of each chapter, type the chapter number two double spaces from the top margin, centered, in uppercase letters and bold highlighting (for example, **CHAPTER 7**). One double space beneath the chapter number--again centered, uppercased, and in bold--type the chapter title (for example, **IMPLICATIONS FOR EAST ASIA**). Begin the text two double spaces beneath the chapter title.

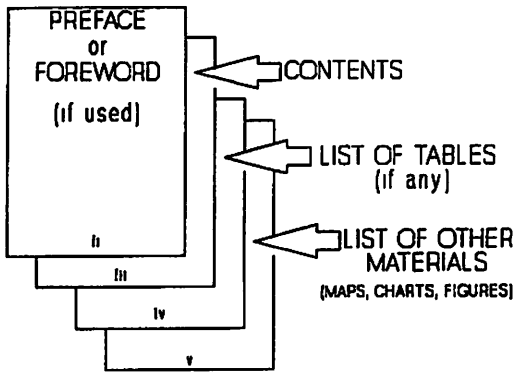
The Format and Sequence of Pages

A proper format is essential for meeting the College's requirements and for producing a polished thesis. Follow all guidelines in this chapter for margins, notes, graphics, headings and subheadings, and other format specifications. Review also the requirements specified in Chapter 4, "General Guidance." Arrange your thesis in the sequence shown on the next page.

[SEQUENCE OF PAGES IN A THESIS]

Unnumbered pages. Examples are on pages 102 - 109. If you have a dedication, use a separate page following the title page.

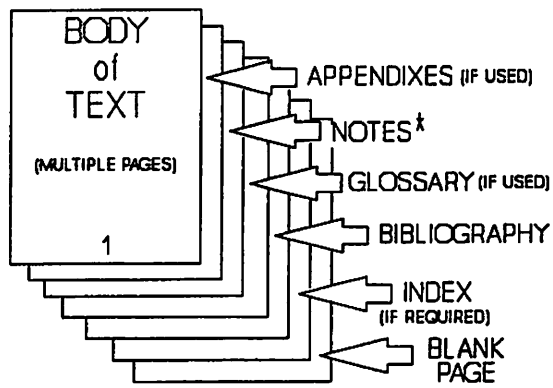




Use lower case Roman numerals beginning with ii. If you have a dedication, begin with iii.

See pages 65 - 68.

Use Arabic numerals beginning with 1.



*If you use endnotes instead of footnotes.

Specific Production Requirements

Follow the specifications below in the production of your final paper. If any of the instructions are unclear, or if you need further information, ask your committee, the Writing Center, your faculty advisor, or the Associate Dean.

Copies. Your chairperson will sign and date the original approval sheet; the second committee member will also sign the sheet where indicated. Only one bound copy of the thesis is required for the final approval process, but your committee members may want additional copies. See "Distribution," below, for additional information. Submit the ***original*** manuscript and signed approval sheet to the Associate Dean. Include a copy of the signed approval sheet with each copy of the manuscript.

Binding. Submit first drafts of the thesis to your committee unbound, with no staples or perforations in the manuscript. ***After*** its approval by your committee and ***before*** its submission to the Associate Dean, the Writing Center will provide a binder and instruct you in the standard format for binding the thesis.

Paper. The original should be on 20 lb. bond, at least 25 percent rag content, 8-1/2 x 11-inch size. Most paper used in College laser printers is acceptable.

Type Style. Modern laser printers offer a wide variety of font styles. Among the preferred styles are Times Roman (12-point), New Times Roman (11-point), or New Century Schoolbook (11-point, the font used for most of this style guide). Use only black ink for text. If you use color charts or graphics, use a consistent and conservative color palette throughout the thesis. Laser printers available in the College produce acceptable quality print. If you use your own word processor, it must produce print of letter quality. The Associate Dean is the final approval authority for print quality on all theses. If you have any doubt about print quality or font, ask your chair or the Writing Center.

Margins and Spacing. The top, right, and bottom margins must be one inch each; the left margin must be one and one-half inches to facilitate binding. Text must be double-spaced except for direct quotations of four lines or longer, which are indented one-half inch (one tab) on the left and single-spaced. Use only one side of the paper.

Pictures, Tables, and Figures. When practical, use the same size and quality of paper throughout the thesis. Reduction of some material might be necessary, but it must always be readable. If you reproduce material, perhaps for an appendix, provide a one and one-half inch margin on the left. Place bulky or oversized material in a pocket at the back of the thesis. Identify your sources for maps, pictures, figures, and the information contained in charts and tables. If you intend to publish your thesis later, then you must secure copyright release for any graphic material you use from another source.

Classification. Mark every page and paragraph of a classified thesis appropriately, and provide necessary downgrading instructions on the title page. See the College Security Officer, ***not*** the Writing Center, for questions about proper marking.

DISTRIBUTION

Having spent a year or more working on your thesis, you will feel considerable relief after collecting the necessary signatures and turning in the bound copy for posterity. You do yourself an injustice, though, if you do not take steps to ensure that your thesis is distributed to other commands, agencies, or individuals who have a need to know the material. The Writing Center receives requests ***daily*** for copies of past theses and papers.[3] Yours may be in demand as well, for years to come.

Anticipate some of the requirements. Obviously the people who took the time to provide you extensive material or an interview may be interested in a copy. Think beyond the immediate requirements, too, and determine where you might send copies. For example, if your thesis deals with the Middle East or the Horn of Africa, it would probably be of interest to the United States Central Command as well as desk officers in DIA, CIA, and the Department of State.

Remember that you must seek clearance for public release if you intend to provide your thesis to anyone outside official U.S. Government channels. And if your thesis is classified, you are responsible for ensuring that any recipient has the appropriate security clearance and need to know. The record copy of your thesis will remain on file in the Joint Military Intelligence College for years to come, and it will be catalogued in the MSSI Data Base in the Writing Center for the future reference of other students and scholars. Anything you can do to facilitate the process of research and assist future students or interested agencies will be to your advantage and, ultimately, to the advantage of the Intelligence Community.

FORMS AND FORMATS FOR THE THESIS AND THE THESIS PROPOSAL

The following pages contain forms needed to appoint your committee and to certify approval for your thesis, as well as formats for the thesis title page, the abstract, and the thesis proposal. The blank forms shown are available in the Writing Center, ***or*** you may reproduce them from this book. If a form is "filled in," it is intended as an example of a properly completed form.

[3]On the day this was being written, for example, we answered a request to provide a copy of a student practicum (pre-thesis paper) written in ***1976***.

APPOINTMENT OF THESIS COMMITTEE

The forms on the following pages are used to gain concurrence of a faculty member to be your chair and a second person to be your committee member (reader). Remember that both committee members must have at least a Master's degree. Forms may be reproduced on your word processor, typewritten, or completed in ink (printed legibly).

Note that separate forms are required for full-time faculty and adjunct faculty members, as explained earlier in this guide. See the header at the top of each page to determine which form you need. The form for adjunct faculty is intended solely as a mechanism to track thesis chairs and readers. It is neither a contract nor an obligation for funds. Adjunct faculty members must follow contracting procedures to be paid for chairing or reading theses.

Detailed instructions are printed on the back of the blank forms, available in the Writing Center. Upon completion of the committee selection process, you are responsible for making distribution as shown at the bottom of the form.

APPOINTMENT OF MSSI THESIS COMMITTEE CHAIR OR MEMBER (ADJUNCT FACULTY ONLY)

1. As an adjunct faculty member at the JMIC, I have agreed to serve as MSSI Thesis Committee (Chair) (Reader) for _____
(Student's name)

Student's Home Address and Telephone _____

_____

Adjunct's Signature _____ Date _____

Name _____ Rank/Grade _____ Service/Agency _____

Telephone (____) ____ – _____ Office or Address _____

_____

2. The working thesis topic is _____

_____

3. Approval by adjunct's sponsoring Department Chair (***required before contracting***):

Signature _____ Date _____

Name _____ Rank/Grade _____ Service/Agency _____

Telephone (____) ____ – _____ Department _____

Distribution (when filled in):

- **Original:** Associate Dean
- **Copies:** Adjunct Faculty Member (1)
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[Sample]

APPOINTMENT OF MSSI THESIS COMMITTEE CHAIR OR MEMBER (ADJUNCT FACULTY ONLY)

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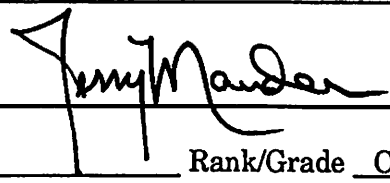
Student's Home Address and Telephone 1234 Rambo Road, Apt. 12, Arlington, VA 22202 (703) 555-1234

Adjunct's Signature  Date 15 October 1996

Name Jerry Mander Rank/Grade Civ Service/Agency Contractor

Telephone (301) 555 – 6678 Office or Address 1212 Primrose Lane, Alexandria, VA 22345

2. The working thesis topic is Intelligence Community Downsizing and the Department of Defense: Cutting It Too Thin?

3. Approval by adjunct's sponsoring Department Chair (***required before contracting***):

Signature Date 16 October 1996

Name Harold Pitts Rank/Grade Lt Col Service/Agency USMC

Telephone (202) 231 – 5555 Department MCE-5

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(Student's name)

Student's Home Address and Telephone _____

_____

Chair's Signature _____ Date _____

Name _____ Rank/Grade _____ Service/Agency _____

Telephone (____) ____ – _____ Office or Address _____

_____

2. The working thesis topic is _____

_____

3. I will serve as the second Committee Member (Reader):

Signature _____ Date _____

Name _____ Rank/Grade _____ Service/Agency _____

Telephone (____) ____ – _____ Office or Address _____

_____

Distribution (when filled in):

- **Original:** Associate Dean
- **Copies:** Committee Chairperson (1)
  Committee Member (1)
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[Sample]

APPOINTMENT OF MSSI THESIS COMMITTEE CHAIR OR MEMBER (OTHER THAN ADJUNCT FACULTY)

1. I will serve as MSSI Thesis Committee ~~(Chair)~~(Reader) for CPT Lance Ranger, USA
(Student's name)

Student's Home Address and Telephone 1234 Rambo Rd., Apt. 12,

Arlington, VA 22202 (703) 555-1234

Chair's Signature _____ Date _____

Name _____ Rank/Grade _____ Service/Agency _____

Telephone (____) ____ – _____ Office or Address _____

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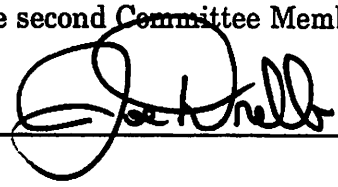
2. The working thesis topic is Intelligence Community Downsizing and the

Department of Defense: Cutting It Too Thin?

3. I will serve as the second Committee Member (Reader):

Signature  Date 30 October 1996

Name Joe Drelb Rank/Grade Civ Service/Agency DIA/JMIC

Telephone (202) 231 – 9999 Office or Address MCE-5, DIAC

Washington, DC 20340-5100

Distribution (when filled in):

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THESIS APPROVAL SHEET

(For use ONLY with an UNCLASSIFIED thesis)

A. STUDENT COMPLETES ITEMS 1 - 6

1. NAME: _____ 2. CLASS NO: _____

3. THESIS CHAIR: _____

4. COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____

5. THESIS TITLE: _____

_____

6. THIS THESIS RESPONDS TO A RESEARCH REQUEST FROM A COMMAND OR AGENCY:

Yes_____ No_____ If Yes, Specify: _____
(If more than one, name all that apply)

_____

B. THESIS CHAIR COMPLETES ITEMS 7 & 8

7. THESIS APPROVED: _____ _____
Signature of Chair Date

8. THESIS MEETS ALL REQUIREMENTS FOR INCLUSION ON INTELINK EXCEPT CLEARANCE FOR PUBLIC RELEASE.

Yes____ No____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

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C. COMMITTEE MEMBER COMPLETES ITEM 9

9. THESIS APPROVED: _____ _____
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D. ASSOCIATE DEAN COMPLETES ITEMS 10 & 11

10. DATE PGIP STARTED _____

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[Sample]

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1. NAME: Jamie Sue Ceaucescu 2. CLASS NO: PGIP 9701

3. THESIS CHAIR: Elizabeth Sage

4. COMMITTEE MEMBER: Gerald Mander

5. THESIS TITLE: NATO 2010: Europe at the Dawn of a New Era

6. THIS THESIS RESPONDS TO A RESEARCH REQUEST FROM A COMMAND OR AGENCY:

Yes X No_____ If Yes, Specify: USA DCSINT and USEUCOM
(If more than one, name all that apply)

B. THESIS CHAIR COMPLETES ITEMS 7 & 8

7. THESIS APPROVED: Elizabeth Sage 15 August 1997
Signature of Chair Date

8. THESIS MEETS ALL REQUIREMENTS FOR INCLUSION ON INTELINK EXCEPT CLEARANCE FOR PUBLIC RELEASE.

Yes X No___ Signature: Elizabeth Sage Date: 15 August 1997

C. COMMITTEE MEMBER COMPLETES ITEM 9

9. THESIS APPROVED: Jerry Mander 18 August 1997
Signature of Committee Member Date

D. ASSOCIATE DEAN COMPLETES ITEMS 10 & 11

10. DATE PGIP STARTED 23 September 1996

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Signature Date

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4. COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____

5. THESIS TITLE: _____

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7. I HAVE MARKED ALL PAGES APPROPRIATELY, INCLUDING THIS APPROVAL SHEET, & HAVE SAFEGUARDED ALL CLASSIFIED INFORMATION HEREIN. _____
Signature of Student

B. THESIS CHAIR COMPLETES ITEMS 8 & 9

8. THESIS APPROVED: _____ _____
Signature of Chair Date

9. THIS THESIS MEETS ALL REQUIREMENTS FOR INCLUSION ON INTELINK:

Yes ____ No ____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

C. COMMITTEE MEMBER COMPLETES ITEM 10

10. THESIS APPROVED: _____ _____
Signature of Committee Member Date

D. ASSOCIATE DEAN COMPLETES ITEMS 11 & 12

11. DATE PGIP STARTED _____

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CLASSIFICATION

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1. NAME: Jamie Sue Ceaucescu 2. CLASS NO: PGIP 9701

3. THESIS CHAIR: Elizabeth Sage

4. COMMITTEE MEMBER: Gerald Mander

5. THESIS TITLE: NATO 2010: Europe at the Dawn of a New Era

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Yes X No ___ Signature: Elizabeth Sage Date: 15 August 1997

C. COMMITTEE MEMBER COMPLETES ITEM 10

10. THESIS APPROVED: Jerry Mander 18 August 1997
Signature of Committee Member Date

D. ASSOCIATE DEAN COMPLETES ITEMS 11 & 12

11. DATE PGIP STARTED 23 September 1996

12. APPROVAL & AUTHORIZATION TO AWARD THE MSSI DEGREE: _____ 20 August 1997
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CLASSIFICATION

THE THESIS ABSTRACT

The abstract is essentially a "key judgments" section of the thesis. Because of its placement up front, it is the first part of the study that most readers will encounter. The abstract contains a statement of the problem, the procedures or methods used, the results, and the conclusions. The statement of the problem and research methods might be derived from the thesis proposal that you wrote earlier in MSI721. The results of your study and the conclusions reached are succinct statements of the important outcome of your work.

Your abstract should not exceed 500 words (about two typewritten pages, double-spaced). Margins are the same as those for the thesis itself: one inch top, bottom, and right, one and one-half inches left. If possible, the title and the abstract should be unclassified; but if clarity suffers by omitting classified information, then use your best judgment. See a back issue of the *Selected Compendium of Student Research*, the unclassified theses on file in the John T. Hughes Library, and the classified theses in the Writing Center for examples of abstracts.

On the two pages that follow is a well-written abstract from an unclassified thesis by National Security Agency student Thomas Patrick Seivert. Minor editorial changes have been made by the Writing Center. Note how Mr. Seivert covers his statement of the problem, his research methods, and the conclusions from his thesis. He also gives a brief summary of the contents.

[Sample Abstract]

ABSTRACT

TITLE OF THESIS: Televised Intelligence Reporting: An Audience Study

STUDENT: Thomas Patrick Seivert

CLASS NO. PGIP 9401 **DATE:** February 1994

THESIS COMMITTEE CHAIR: Dr. Mark Kauppi

A classified television broadcast network has existed in the Department of Defense since the Gulf War of 1991. This study represents the first serious attempt to conduct market research on its audience. Seven hundred and six copies of an eight-page survey were distributed to recipients of classified TV channels at CIA, DIA, NSA, State Department, the White House, and the Unified Commands. A total of 291 recipients (41.2 percent) responded.

This thesis is divided into two major sections. Part One (chapters 1-5) reviews the literature on journalistic practice for TV news and communications research literature on media effects, and comments on the applicability of this research to the Intelligence Community's use of television. Part Two (chapters 6-11 and Appendices A-E) is devoted to the survey itself--its hypotheses, methodology, execution, and interpretation of the results.

Although 64 percent of survey participants indicated some degree of attentive viewing of the Defense Intelligence Network (DIN) each day, they tended not to value individual programs very highly. Only one program, the Intelligence Update Prebrief for the Joint Chiefs of Staff, had more respondents indicating positive over negative valuation. CNN is the television service most often viewed by the largest number of participants, with 86 percent reporting some daily viewing and over a third keeping their set tuned to CNN all day. Intention and selectivity in television usage behavior is mixed, with 39 percent reporting

random viewing and 40 percent indicating a constant volume setting of either background-level or muted. Intelligence TV is most heavily viewed between 0600 and 0900 local.

Contrary to expectation, a TV in the workplace was not considered distracting by most respondents. Those who view and favor TV as a dissemination vehicle testify to its utility, timeliness, and effectiveness as a headline service, although only 20 percent of all respondents indicated that intelligence TV was very frequently or frequently their first source of new information, and one-third felt that in-depth reporting is problematic or inappropriate for this medium. Viewers report being pleased by TV's ease of use and convenience, as well as the freedom it grants them to do other things while listening or watching. Consequential use of TV was demonstrated by 58 percent of respondents who reported being prompted by a viewed item to seek more information. Valuation results showed a clear trend for each organization to most highly prize its own programming, with outside consumers expressing markedly lower valuation rates. Despite the less-than-enthusiastic valuation reported for most individual programs, respondents overwhelmingly were positive about TV in general and upbeat about its future utility to the Intelligence Community, particularly if intelligence TV can move away from the broadcast mode to viewing on demand.

Based on the evidence of pervasive CNN use by respondents, this study recommends that the classified television services of different community members concentrate resources and reduce the total number of individual programs in favor of creating a classified TV channel that can be relied upon as a "news utility" where the community will speak with one voice. Intelligence TV should complement CNN, not compete with it. Intelligence TV will win a larger audience and greater support if it can follow up CNN's headlines with an all-source account of the Intelligence Community's insight into the issues. To be successful, intelligence TV must be unique; it must meet genuine information needs of consumers; and it must not duplicate that which is available on commercial news programs.

[*Sample Thesis Title Page*]

NATO 2010:
EUROPE AT THE DAWN OF A NEW ERA

by

Jamie Sue Ceaucescu
Captain, USAF
PGIP Class 9701

Thesis submitted to the Faculty
of the Joint Military Intelligence College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science of Strategic Intelligence

August 1997

The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and
do not reflect the official policy or position of the
Department of Defense or the U.S. Government

The MSSI Thesis Proposal

The following pages contain the format for an MSSI thesis proposal and a sample proposal that meets the criteria for a successful paper, provided as an example for your use in developing your own proposal. This proposal was written by Captain James D. Edwards, USA, a student in PGIP Class 9601. We chose his proposal because it stood out as a unique piece of work tailored to suit a specific research problem. It did not simply parrot the earlier example in the style guide. Captain Edwards wrote his proposal under the guidelines of the previous issue of this style guide. Minor changes have been made in the format of the proposal since that time. The Writing Center edited the final version, but only for minor errors. The substantive content of the proposal has not been altered.

Your research design and the procedures you follow must be tailored to the unique requirements of your own thesis proposal. It is ***not enough*** simply to copy or paraphrase the example given here. For instance, you might not need separate subparagraphs for assumptions, definitions, and scope in your statement of the problem. Just because Captain Edwards had those subheadings in his proposal is no reason for you to slavishly follow his style. Use some original thinking, and tailor your proposal to the general structure we have provided for you. Be sure that you have a clear understanding of where you are proceeding with your thesis, and reflect that understanding when you write your thesis proposal.

Also included in this section are sample grading criteria that are used by the Writing Center and by your thesis chair to grade your thesis proposal. Using the format provided and striving to accommodate the criteria for an *A* paper should result in a well-written, graduate-level thesis proposal, the basis for an excellent thesis.

JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE COLLEGE

THESIS PROPOSAL

STUDENT NAME_____

SECTION: MSI721-_____ **BOX No.** _____

FACULTY ADVISOR_____

THESIS CHAIR (if determined; otherwise, "N/A")_____

WORKING TITLE OF THESIS_____

_____

DATE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL_____

I. THE THESIS TOPIC

Write a concise (80-120 word) statement of the main topic to be covered, answering the following questions:

1. What subject area will be the ***primary focus*** of this thesis?
2. Why is this topic of ***potential interest to the Intelligence Community***?
3. Does the topic provide the opportunity for ***original thinking and research***? Explain.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM OR ISSUE

Write a succinct 250-500 word discussion of the topic, including its ***main components*** (scope, assumptions, and operational definitions ***or*** terms of reference); the ***problem or issue of intelligence interest*** inherent in the topic (some indication of change, movement, or activity); ***factors to be considered*** when addressing the issue; and ways in which the thesis will help to ***solve the problem or address the issue***. Do not repeat information already covered in Section I.

III. THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS AND KEY QUESTIONS

State clearly and fully the hypothesis you intend to investigate in your thesis. In most cases the stated hypothesis will be one declarative sentence, and it should use strong action verbs. List any key questions that must be answered in order to address your hypothesis adequately. As a rule of thumb, you will have no more than one or two key questions for each proposed chapter of your thesis.

A. The Hypothesis

B. Key Questions

IV. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Others have contributed to your field of study historically, philosophically, or experimentally. Review those items of the bibliography that furnish the immediate background for your investigation: What closely related problems have been solved, and by whom? Who has treated your problem, and to what extent? Where does the unsolved portion of your problem begin? Write analytically, evaluating your sources and not merely reporting what they have written. Any item that you review in this section ***must*** be cited in Section VIII, "Preliminary Bibliography."

V. THE PROCEDURES

Research methods almost always have two distinct strategies: a ***collection strategy*** that outlines how you will ***gather*** information and data, and an ***analytical strategy*** that says what you will ***do*** with the information and data you have collected. Do ***NOT*** simply itemize these details like a "laundry list." Give considerable thought to the precise procedures you will follow to get you from your hypothesis and key questions, through your archival searches and analytical work, to your goal of a completed thesis. The best theses almost always are the ones that have the most thought given to this section. Note that the following are representative samples only. You might find yourself using other methods not listed here. Include all that apply.

A. The Collection Strategy.

(1) Archival Searches: Libraries, Specific Periodicals, Databases.

(2) Field Research: Personal Interviews, Surveys or Questionnaires, Research-Related Travel.

(3) Other.

B. The Analytical Strategy.

(1) Statistical Analysis.

(2) Descriptive Analysis.

(3) Case Study.

(4) War Gaming, Computer Model, or Other Simulation.

(5) Bayes, Delphi, or Other Analytical Techniques.

C. The Research Classification.

VI. THE PROBABLE CONTENTS

As well as you can forecast, state the probable chapter headings as they will appear in your table of contents. This forecast will not be binding on your research or writing, but you should inform your chairperson and reader of any significant changes.

VII. MILESTONES

Include a list of target deadlines for your research, writing chapters of the first draft, revising the draft, submitting it to your committee, second revision, and completion. These goals should be realistic, yet they must allow you to finish within the prescribed time limit. Coordinate the milestones with your committee chair to ensure his or her availability during critical review periods. Remember to allow your committee ***10 working days*** to review each draft. Enumerate your milestones in chronological order, beginning with the research and ending with graduation or your final draft.

NOTE: Section VIII must begin on a separate sheet of paper.

VIII. PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY

Begin your preliminary bibliography at the top of a new page. It should be accurate, pertinent, and comprehensive. It does not need to be annotated. Use chapter 8 or 9 of the style guide for proper citation formats. Any item you reviewed in Section IV ("Review of Related Literature") must be included in this section; but you may cite materials here without reviewing them in Section IV.

If you also use classified sources, then you must have a separate bibliography for those sources. In that case, your Section VIII will have two subsections, lettered as shown below.

A. PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY OF UNCLASSIFIED SOURCES

B. PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CLASSIFIED SOURCES

If you are uncertain about any aspect of handling the classified material or about using unclassified material from classified sources, see the College Security Officer.

[Sample Thesis Proposal]

JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE COLLEGE

THESIS PROPOSAL

STUDENT NAME CPT James D. Edwards

SECTION: MSI-721- 03 **BOX No.** 51

FACULTY ADVISOR Mr. Thomas J. Fields, Jr.

THESIS CHAIR Dr. Perry L. Pickert

WORKING TITLE OF THESIS Intelligence Support to Refugee Operations: Who's the Expert?

DATE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL 31 January 1996

I. THE THESIS TOPIC

Since the end of the Cold War, refugee crises have dramatically increased in size, frequency, and suddenness,[1] posing a threat to international stability and U.S. national interests.[2] Traditionally, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), working with nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), have provided the majority of international relief efforts. Because of the scope and intensity of recent crises, however, militaries have

---

[1]Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), *The State of the World's Refugees* (New York: Penguin, 1993): 3 and 83.

[2]U.S. President, *A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement* (Washington, DC: White House, February 1995): 1.

begun to play an increasingly important role in humanitarian assistance.[3]

Since there is no U.S. military doctrine for refugee operations, the Intelligence Community should consider the role of military intelligence (MI) in these situations. This thesis will compare how the U.S. military and the UNHCR performed the "intelligence" function during six recent refugee operations, recommending improvements for future MI support to refugee operations.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM OR ISSUE

Armed conflict produces the vast majority of the world's refugees.[4] Consequently, militaries have been dealing with refugees for centuries. The U.S. military experience with refugees dates to the Indian Wars and includes post-Cold War operations in Iraq, Somalia, Rwanda, the Pacific, and the Caribbean. In each case, the missions have differed, encompassing tasks as diverse as protection, relief, interdiction, containment, and relocation. Despite these experiences, however, there is still only passing mention of refugees in joint and service doctrine. Thus, the military response to refugee operations has been characterized by "ad hoc" arrangements.

In contrast, the UNHCR has been a professional refugee assistance organization

[3]Lois McHugh, Joyce Vialet, and Ruth Ellen Wassen, "Refugee Policy in a Changing World," *CRS Report for Congress* 95-85F (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, The Library of Congress, 6 January 1995), 3.

[4]Office of UNHCR, 67.

since 1951.[5] It participates in the UN's early warning system, and it has standing, deployable emergency response teams specifically trained in refugee relief.[6] To support the field operations of these teams, the UNHCR collects, analyzes, and disseminates information from a variety of sources.[7] Given the UNHCR's expertise in handling refugees, it is logical to compare its "intelligence" function with the role MI has played in recent U.S. military refugee operations. In making this comparison, I must clarify my assumptions, define key terms, and establish the scope and nature of the comparison.

Assumptions. To make this work relevant, I must assume the U.S. military will be involved in future refugee operations. Then, to make comparison possible, I must assume the UN "information" function is synonymous with an intelligence function in a military organization. Both assumptions appear reasonable considering the bulk of scholarship in these areas.

Definitions. Several international instruments provide legal definitions for a refugee, but their criteria have become too narrow for most of today's practical applications.[8] I take a broad view of the term refugee, including displaced people and

---

[5]The tradition of organized international refugee assistance predates 1951. The UNHCR was actually the successor to earlier UN and League of Nations' refugee protection organizations.

[6]United Nations General Assembly, 43d session, Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Program, *Overview of UNHCR Activities, Report for 1991-1992*, 27 August 1992, A/AC.96/798, 36.

[7]Luise Druke, *Preventive Action for Refugee Producing Situations*, 2d ed. (Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 1993), 187.

[8]Even the UNHCR mandate has been expanded, through international agreement and practical application, to provide protection and relief to many people who do not meet the legal, international definition of a refugee. Today, the UNHCR is assisting migrants and internally displaced people in addition to legally recognized refugees. The UNHCR tends to refer to the people whom it assists as "populations of concern." See Druke, 22-23; Gilbert Jaeger, "Refugees or Migrants?" in *NGOs and Refugees: Reflections at the Turn of the Century*, eds. Morten Kjaerum,

some migrants in my use of the term. I define refugee operations to be any operation whose principal tasks include protecting refugees or providing refugee relief.

Scope. I will limit my comparison to six examples of post-Cold War refugee operations. UNHCR cases will include the missions involving refugees from Cambodia, Mozambique, and Angola. For the U.S. military, I will examine Operation PROVIDE COMFORT (the relief effort to the Kurds in northern Iraq) and Operations SEA SIGNAL and SAFE HAVEN, which were responses to the exodus of Cuban and Haitian refugees in 1994. I selected these operations based upon their size, availability of documentation, recency, and in the military cases, the dominant nature of refugee support in the overall military mission. I deliberately excluded the situations in Rwanda, Burundi, Somalia, and the former Yugoslavia because they do not provide a clear delineation between U.S. and UN operations. While the same argument could be made for Operation PROVIDE COMFORT, I believe it still provides a solid case in which I can assess U.S. MI because of the dominant leadership role of U.S. forces.

Comparative Criteria. In comparing these cases, I will consider the effectiveness with which each organization accomplished typical intelligence missions. These missions include strategic warning, force protection, and support to operational or contingency planning.

Klaus Slavensky, and Finn Slumstrup (Copenhagen: Danish Centre for Human Rights, 1993), 143-167; Kathleen Newland, "Ethnic Conflict and Refugees," *Survival* 35, no. 1 (Spring 1993): 81-83; or Boutros Boutros-Ghali, *Building Peace and Development 1994, Annual Report on the Work of the Organization*, (New York: United Nations, 1994), 268-269.

III. THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS AND KEY QUESTIONS

A. The Hypothesis: The UN and UNHCR intelligence system supports UNHCR operations better than U.S. MI supports military refugee operations.

B. Key Questions:

1. What is the role of the military in humanitarian assistance and refugee operations?

2. How does MI support the military role in refugee operations?

3. How effective was MI in supporting Operations PROVIDE COMFORT, SEA SIGNAL, and SAFE HAVEN?

4. How does the UN "intelligence" system work?

5. How does the UNHCR gather and analyze information to support its protection and relief efforts?

6. How effective was the UNHCR's intelligence function in Cambodia, Mozambique, and Angola?

7. Between the U.S. military and the UNHCR, who is better at conducting intelligence for refugee operations?

8. How can U.S. MI support to refugee operations be improved?

9. What are the implications of Presidential Decision Directive (PDD) 25 and the increasing tendency toward multilateral operations for MI support in refugee operations?

IV. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

No author has compared UNHCR intelligence with U.S. MI during refugee operations. However, a variety of servicemembers and scholars have documented information necessary for a comparison of this type. In general, I have grouped the available literature into nine broad topical areas: the role of the military in humanitarian assistance (HA), MI in HA or combined operations, UN and UNHCR intelligence, and individual accounts or analyses of each of the six refugee operations I am studying.

Military Role in HA. Academics are divided on the appropriate role of the military in HA. Gil Loescher does not favor any use of military forces, claiming, "the nature of the security threat posed by refugee problems is frequently outside the usual scope and response capacity of defence . . . ministries."[9] Typical criticisms of military forces are that they detract from the "humanitarian" character of relief efforts, they tend to make refugees dependent upon their support, and they seldom remain impartial. Minear and Weiss each champion the opposite view, however, noting militaries have unique, rapid-response capabilities to provide security and specialized services in refugee emergencies. The academic debate mirrors the mixed opinions that NGOs involved in refugee relief have of the military.[10] In general, the debate can be characterized as one of idealists versus pragmatists. Today, it is also largely a moot point. Militaries are already heavily involved in international HA missions, and Sadako Ogata, the UNHCR

[9]Gil Loescher, *Refugee Movements and International Security*, (London: Brassey's, 1992), 56.

[10]U.S. Mission to the United Nations, *Global Humanitarian Emergencies, 1995* (New York: U.S. Mission to the UN, 1995), 18.

since 1991, advocates their limited use.[11]

MI in HA or Combined Operations. Since most HA missions are multinational ventures, they frequently involve problems of sharing intelligence between militaries, international organizations such as the UN, and even NGOs. Leach, Palin, and Siegel all provide examples of typical problems encountered in combined operations. There are no easy answers to this widely understood problem, but a recent National Defense University workshop advocated adopting the model used in Operation PROVIDE COMFORT.[12]

UN and UNHCR Intelligence. It is extremely rare to find anyone associated with the UN writing about intelligence. They use the euphemism of "information." Numerous UN documents, articles in *Refugees*, and CPT Sebenick's MSSI thesis describe the creation and operation of the UN's early warning system. In *Preventive Action for Refugee Producing Situations*, Luise Druke further describes key elements of the UNHCR's attempts to improve its information collection capabilities, an internal, experimental Refugee Emergency Alert System, and its Centre for Documentation on Refugees (CDR). The CDR forms the nucleus of the analytical effort within the UNHCR, and some of its products are available on the Internet. While it is possible to determine the major elements of the UNHCR intelligence system, the available literature does not support a complete assessment of UNHCR's intelligence efforts in each operation in this study.

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[11]"Massive Emergencies, Large-Scale Repatriations Confront UNHCR," *UN Chronicle*, March 1995, 88.

[12]David S. Alberts, "Coalition Command and Control: Peace Operations," *Strategic Forum* (Institute for National Security Studies, National Defense University), October 1994, URL: <http://198.80.36.91/ndu/inss/srtforum/z1001.html>, accessed 20 January 1996.

Operation PROVIDE COMFORT. There is no shortage of material detailing the U.S. military relief mission in northern Iraq. Cavanaugh, Meek, Lewis, Costa, Brei, Brown, and documents from services' lessons learned centers adequately describe the events and related intelligence support. Of particular importance, Rudd's meticulously researched doctoral dissertation on Operation PROVIDE COMFORT provides a critical analysis of the operation based, in part, on interviews of over 100 participants in the operation itself.

Operation SEA SIGNAL. Pitts, Vick, and documents from the Center for Army Lessons Learned (CALL) provide enough information to describe the intelligence support structure in place at Guantanamo Bay. Unfortunately, they do not provide sufficient details to assess the effectiveness of this intelligence support.

Operation SAFE HAVEN. The Joint Task Force Safe Haven (JTF-SH) *J2 After Action Report* is extensive and contains sufficient details to describe intelligence support to the entire operation. Combining this evidence with interviews and my personal experience at the refugee camps in Panama, I will be able to assess the effectiveness of intelligence support at JTF-SH.

UNHCR in Cambodia, Mozambique, and Angola. While the UNHCR's operations in Cambodia, Mozambique, and Angola are actually three separate topics, there is so little published on these operations, other than brief articles in newspapers, that I have combined them into one area for the purposes of this proposal. UN books on the operations in Cambodia and Mozambique provide excellent histories of the events in these countries, and newspaper accounts and documents available from the CDR via the Internet accurately describe the situation in Angola. There are also several articles in

Refugees concerning the situations in Mozambique. Unfortunately, there is no way to assess the effectiveness of UNHCR intelligence support to these missions from the available literature. Personal interviews will fill this key void.

V. THE PROCEDURES

A. Research methods to be applied: This thesis compares the effectiveness of military and UN intelligence in refugee operations. After-action reports, published documents, and personal interviews will allow me to assess the role of MI in Operations PROVIDE COMFORT, SEA SIGNAL, and SAFE HAVEN. My assessment of the UNHCR will rely almost exclusively on primary research conducted in New York and Geneva. By evaluating the relative effectiveness of each organization's intelligence functions, I will determine how J2s can improve MI support in future refugee operations.

B. Personal Interviews: Interviews will play a significant role in my research, especially to determine how the UNHCR performs its "intelligence" function. I am working with Jacquie Henderson, the Information Assistant at the UNHCR's Washington office, to develop points of contact in New York City and at UNHCR headquarters in Geneva. I am particularly interested in interviewing Luise Druke and Lance Clark because of their published works on UNHCR early warning. In addition to these UNHCR sources, I also plan to interview key participants in military refugee operations and U.S. policymakers involved with refugee issues.

Military personnel involved in Operations SEA SIGNAL and SAFE HAVEN can provide perspectives on the role of MI in these operations. They include: BG James

Wilson, the commander of JTF-SH; CPT Douglas Quetts and MAJ Wayne Davis, the J2s of JTF-SH; and LTCs Lyle Radebaugh and Ronnie Hindeman, J2s at JTF-160.

From a policy perspective, officials in the Department of Defense's Office of Humanitarian and Refugee Affairs and the Department of State's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration can provide their views on intelligence support in refugee operations.

C. Library Searches: The libraries at the Pentagon, Defense Intelligence Agency, National Defense University, Library of Congress, and the UN Information Center in Washington, DC provided the bulk of the bibliographic material in this proposal. Additionally, I have consulted the research facilities at the Refugee Policy Group, a Washington-based "think tank" that has worked with the UNHCR for over a decade. I have also obtained documents concerning military refugee operations from the Center for Army Lessons Learned and the Marine Corps Lessons Learned System. One potential source that I hope to be able to use is the UNHCR library in Geneva.

D. Specific Periodical Searches: The UNHCR publishes a journal, *Refugees*, which provides some information on how the UNHCR conducts refugee operations. Scores of other periodicals, indexed on the UNHCR's Internet homepage, also cover the topic of refugees. Two of the more prominent are the *Journal of Refugee Studies* and the *International Migration Review*. The *International Journal of Refugee Law* provides insights into the legal aspects of specific refugee operations as well as several articles on early warning. I have already consulted many of the professional military journals for accounts of the U.S. military's involvement in refugee operations. These journals include: *Military Intelligence, Special Warfare, Marine Corps Gazette, Military Review, JFQ: Joint*

Force Quarterly, and *U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings*.

E. Research Related Travel: I intend to travel to New York City to meet with officials from the UNHCR in winter 1996. Then I intend to travel to the UNHCR's headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, during Spring 1996. My purpose is to conduct personal interviews and obtain unpublished documents relating to the UNHCR's conduct of refugee operations.

F. Research Classification: This thesis will be unclassified to allow for broad dissemination. I also intend to apply for approval for public release.

VI. THE PROBABLE CONTENTS

Chapter

1. Background
   - Scope of current refugee situations
   - Definition of terms
   - Historical context: military, ICRC, and UNHCR
2. U.S. MI in recent U.S. refugee operations
   - Operation PROVIDE COMFORT (Kurds, 1991-1992)
   - Operations SEA SIGNAL and SAFE HAVEN
     (Haitian and Cuban Exodus, 1994-1995)
3. UNHCR "intelligence" functions in recent crises
   - Cambodia
   - Mozambique
   - Angola

4. Comparison of U.S. MI and UNHCR intelligence functions
    - strategic (early) warning
    - force protection
    - support to operational and contingency planning
5. Recommendations to improve MI in refugee operations
    - includes consideration of PDD-25

VII. MILESTONES

31 Jan 96	thesis proposal complete
15 Feb	all local and telephonic interviews completed
15 Feb	preliminary visits to local libraries completed
1 Mar	chapter 1 draft
15 Mar	chapter 2 draft
18-22 Mar	travel to New York City
29 Mar	chapter 3 draft
15 Apr	chapter 4 draft
30 Apr	chapter 5 draft
4-10 May	travel to Geneva
15 May	rough draft completed
3 Jun	final thesis submitted

VIII. PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY

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GRADING THE THESIS PROPOSAL

A thesis proposal is the equivalent of a "contract" between you and your potential chair. As you have read in earlier material, the proposal constitutes the basis for your subsequent thesis work, and it defines clearly, concisely, and coherently for your chair the extent of your focus on a topic and your grounding in the literature related to that topic. It also lays out the steps you will take in your research design, showing how you will research and write your thesis.

On a more mundane level, the proposal also constitutes a substantial part of your grade in MSI721. Portions of your proposal will be graded by your MSI721 faculty member; then your selected chair will assign another percentage of your final grade for the proposal. Both the MSI721 faculty and your chair will use the grading criteria on the following pages to score your proposal. Although these criteria are stated as objectively as possible, there remains latitude for interpretation by thesis chairs, based on their own expertise. For that reason, you must work closely with your chair from the outset, to ensure that you clearly understand the criteria he or she will apply to grading the final portion of your thesis proposal and, ultimately, to approving your thesis.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION I: THE THESIS TOPIC

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 17-22, 111, and 115-116.

General: This section should be a concise (80-120 word) statement of the main topic you will cover in your thesis.

An *A* Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Clearly and concisely state the primary focus of the thesis, without wasting words.
2. Clearly and concisely assess the potential interest of this topic to the Intelligence Community or some component of the community.
3. Precisely evaluate the opportunity for original thinking and research.
4. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. State the primary focus of the thesis, but lack either clarity or conciseness.
2. Assess the potential interest of the topic to the Intelligence Community, but lack either clarity or conciseness.
3. Show little opportunity for original thinking or research.
4. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar, or flawed syntax).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Have no clear focus.
2. Have no potential interest to the Intelligence Community.
3. Afford no opportunity for original thinking or research.
4. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION II: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM OR ISSUE

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 22-23, 111, 116-118, and 345.

General: This section is a 250-500 word discussion of your topic, including its main components (scope, assumptions, and operational definitions *or* terms of reference), the problem or issue of intelligence interest, factors to be considered when addressing the problem or issue, and ways in which the thesis will help to solve the problem or address the issue.[4] Do not repeat information here that you have already covered in Section I.

An A Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Precisely define the problem or the issue of intelligence interest: some indication of change, movement, or activity.
2. Clearly, concisely, and precisely define the problem or issue, in terms of:
   a. Its main components (scope, assumptions, and operational definitions *or* terms of reference).
   b. Factors to be considered in addressing the problem or issue.
   c. Ways in which this thesis will help to solve the problem or address the issue.
3. It will also be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A B Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Lack precision in defining the problem or issue of intelligence interest.
2. Define the problem or issue, but lack clarity, conciseness, or precision in one or more of the areas addressed above.
3. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Fail to define a problem or issue, or lack an issue of intelligence interest.
2. Lack scope, assumptions, operational definitions, or terms of reference.
3. Show no clear way in which this thesis will solve the problem or address the issue.
4. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

---

[4]This section may address ***either*** a problem ***or*** an issue; it need not discuss both. For our purposes, a "problem" is a situation, a question, or a matter that needs to be solved--something is broken and must be fixed. An "issue" is an essential point that, in the Intelligence Community, shows some element of change, movement, or activity.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION III: THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS & KEY QUESTIONS

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 25-29, 112, 119, and 345-347.

General: This section should state clearly and fully the hypothesis you intend to investigate in the thesis. It must also list any key questions you must answer in order to address the hypothesis adequately. You should generally have no more than one or two key questions per proposed chapter of the thesis.

An *A* Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Clearly, concisely, and completely state the hypothesis or hypotheses to be investigated, with a clear relevance to the Intelligence Community.
2. Include a comprehensive list of the key questions that must be answered in order to address the hypothesis adequately.
3. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Lack clarity, conciseness, or completeness in stating the hypothesis, or lack a clear relevance to the Intelligence Community.
2. Include a substantial list of key questions, but omit obvious ones that must be answered.
3. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar, or flawed syntax).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Fail to state a hypothesis; state one that is too broad to be researched adequately; or lack any relevance to the Intelligence Community.
2. Show a lack of understanding in stating key questions for research, or lack many obvious questions.
3. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION IV: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE[5]

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 29-33, 82-83, 112, and 120-123.

General: This section should clearly and fully review those items of your preliminary bibliography that furnish the immediate background for your investigation: What closely related problems have been solved, and by whom? Who has treated the problem or issue previously, and to what extent? Where does the unsolved portion of the problem or issue begin? The literature review must be written analytically, ***evaluating*** the sources and not merely reporting what they have written.

An A Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Analytically evaluate the key sources to be used for the thesis.
2. Offer a broad scope of literature to show that you have conducted in-depth research related to the topic, even though the bibliography remains preliminary.
3. Include ***every*** source reviewed here in the Preliminary Bibliography (Section VIII).
4. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Evaluate sources, but lack a clearly stated analytical focus--that is, "reporting" on sources rather than analyzing their content.
2. Offer a broad scope of literature, but omit key works or genres essential to the research or related to the topic.
3. Include most sources reviewed here in the Preliminary Bibliography (Section VIII).
4. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Merely report on sources read, with little or no apparent evaluation or assessment of the content.
2. Only scratch the surface of available literature, omitting key sources and genres, thereby showing a lack of understanding or a failure to research properly.
3. Omit many sources reviewed here from the Preliminary Bibliography (Section VIII).
4. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

[5]Section VIII, Preliminary Bibliography, is also to be turned in at this time and is graded as part of this assignment.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION V: THE PROCEDURES

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 33-42, 112-113, and 123-125.

General: In this section, you must give considerable thought to the precise procedures you will follow to get from your research hypothesis and key questions, through archival literature searches, to your goal of a completed thesis. Remember that in this section you must elaborate on both your collection strategy and your analytical strategy. Section V often seems to be the most difficult for many students. Typically, they tend merely to copy or emulate segments of *The Style Guide*, offering little or no original thinking for their subject. The best theses result from the clearest expressions of thought here.

An *A* Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Show clear evidence in the writing that you have devoted serious thought to the topic and have "mapped out" your thesis from conception through fruition.
2. Show original thought in the procedures you intend to use in gathering information and data to complete the research and in analyzing the information to reach sound conclusions.
3. Answer the question "Why?" for each step in the procedures.
4. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Show evidence in the writing of serious thought, but lack a clear "map" of the procedures to be followed.
2. Show original thought, but lack clarity in the application of procedures to either the collection strategy or the analytical strategy.
3. Offer only a cursory answer to the question "Why?" for each step in the procedures.
4. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar, or flawed syntax).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Fail to show any evidence of serious thought, or lack any "map" of the procedures.
2. Show little or no original thought, merely aping the example in *The Style Guide*.
3. Fail to answer the question "Why?" for each step in the procedures.
4. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION VI: THE PROBABLE CONTENTS

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 113 and 125-126.

General: At this point, as well as you are able to forecast, state the probable chapter titles and major subheadings as they may appear in the table of contents. This forecast is not binding on your research, but you should inform your committee of any significant changes.

An *A* Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Show clear evidence that you have organized your thinking in a logical pattern.
2. Offer clear, concise proposed chapter titles, each with suggested subheadings to reflect the likely contents of each chapter.
3. Avoid trite chapter titles such as "Introduction" and "Conclusion."
4. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Show evidence of organization, but lack a clear or thorough pattern of thought.
2. Offer clear, concise proposed chapter titles, but lack adequate subheadings to reflect chapter contents.
3. Include a trite chapter title such as "Introduction" or "Conclusion."
4. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar, or flawed syntax).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Show little or no evidence of organization or of a clear or thorough thought pattern.
2. Offer only perfunctory chapter titles and lack adequate subheadings.
3. Include more than one trite chapter title.
4. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION VII: MILESTONES

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 113 and 126.

General: This section will include--at minimum--a list of target deadlines for the research, writing chapters of the first draft, revising the draft, submitting it to the committee, second revision, and completion. These goals should be realistic, but they must allow you to finish within the prescribed time limit. Milestones must be coordinated with your committee chair ***and*** reader to ensure their availability during critical review periods. Enumerate milestones in chronological order, beginning with the research and ending with graduation or the final draft. Keep in mind that final theses must be approved by the Associate Dean 2-3 weeks before graduation. Most other milestones will be derived from those key dates. Note also that summer months are when most faculty members take their vacations or are working on multiple theses. Do ***NOT*** expect rapid turnaround of drafts during the summer months.

An *A* Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. List all required target deadlines and include others that may arise.
2. Show clear evidence of coordination with a thesis chair or faculty advisor.
3. Match the "Probable Contents" section in chapter enumeration--that is, if you envision seven chapters, then all should be enumerated in the milestones.
4. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, grammar, syntax).

A *B* Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. List most ***required*** target deadlines, but show little thought for others that may arise.
2. Show little evidence of coordination with a chair or advisor.
3. Match the "Probable Contents" for the most part, but show some discrepancies.
4. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, poor grammar).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Omit required target deadlines and show little thought given to others that may arise.
2. Show no evidence of coordination with a chair or advisor.
3. Show marked discrepancies between the "Probable Contents" and the milestones.
4. Have submission dates listed on Saturdays, Sundays, holidays, or periods when the chair is projected to be absent.
5. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL SECTION VIII: PRELIMINARY BIBLIOGRAPHY[6]

Reference: *The Style Guide*, pp. 114 and 127-133. For bibliography ***format***, see chapter 8 or, for classified proposals, chapter 9.

General: This section begins on a separate page and should be accurate, pertinent, and comprehensive as possible at this stage of the research. It does not need to be annotated. Citations must follow formats specified in *The Style Guide*. Entries are alphabetized but not numbered.

An A Paper (90 - 100) Will:

1. Be meticulously documented in proper citation format.
2. Contain a sufficient number of sources to show evidence of scholarly research in the literature of the subject area.
3. Contain citations for ***all*** items reviewed in Section IV (Review of Related Literature), except generic sources.
4. Be divided into subsections for unclassified and classified sources, if any classified sources are listed.
5. Be virtually flawless in mechanics (punctuation, spelling, format).

A B Paper (80 - 89) Will:

1. Have ***minor*** errors in citation format.
2. Contain considerable sources, but lack key ones that should have been included and probably would have been if there were closer coordination with the chair.
3. Omit a citation for one or two items reviewed in Section IV (Review of Related Literature).
4. Include separate subsections for classified and unclassified sources, but list some sources in the wrong section.
5. Have some mechanical errors (typos, poor punctuation, misspellings, or format).

A *Substandard* Paper (below 80%) Will:

1. Have careless errors in citation format, showing inattention to *The Style Guide*.
2. Lack adequate sources to convince the reader of a scholarly review of the available literature.
3. Omit citations for more than two of the items reviewed in Section IV (Review of Related Literature), except generic sources.
4. Fail to list classified and unclassified sources in separate subsections.
5. Have an unacceptable number of mechanical problems.

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[6]The Preliminary Bibliography is submitted at the same time as Section IV (Review of Related Literature), and is graded as part of that assignment.

GRADING CRITERIA for the THESIS PROPOSAL THE FINAL PROPOSAL

Reference: All previously listed references and grading criteria.

A NOTE TO THE THESIS CHAIR

After the student has "built" a thesis proposal in MSI721, it should be in good shape for the final submission. But it is in the student's best interest for you to offer a final, careful reading of the entire proposal, to ensure continuity, lack of redundancy, and thoroughness of coverage.

The grade you assign to the thesis proposal will constitute a percentage of the student's course grade for MSI721. A final course grade lower than a B may preclude the student's admission to or continuation in the MSSI program. On the other hand, a proposal that is clearly not up to graduate standards is likely to be a strong indication that the student will have considerable difficulty completing the Master's thesis, especially in one academic year. You must consider whether you may ultimately be required to "write the thesis for the student." If you believe that the student has the ability to succeed, but needs more time to reshape, rethink, or rewrite the proposal under your guidance, then you should advise the MSI721 instructor that an Incomplete Contract would be appropriate.

Since the faculty member who reads and grades the final proposal will, in all likelihood, remain the student's chair throughout the thesis completion process, it behooves student and faculty alike to give careful consideration to this final effort in MSI721. The Writing Center will be happy to offer advice or assistance whenever you need it.

Part III:

STYLE AND USAGE

CHAPTER 8

NOTES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

INTRODUCTION

Footnotes (or endnotes) and bibliographies not only show a professor what sources you used in your research, but also enable an interested reader to pursue the subject of your paper in future scholarly research. Master's theses are kept on file in the John T. Hughes Library (unclassified theses) and in the Joint Military Intelligence College Writing Center (classified theses) for years after students receive their degrees. Many future students who use your paper will appreciate the fact that you took the extra time to document your sources properly.

The Joint Military Intelligence College follows guidance in *The Chicago Manual of Style* for note and bibliography formats.[1] Your professors will specify whether they prefer footnotes or endnotes. The format, however, is identical for both; only the placement differs. If you use endnotes, use the heading **NOTES** for the page, not **ENDNOTES**. It is obvious from their placement that they are endnotes.

No guide of this size can hope to cover all variations you will encounter. If you have a problem with a source you are using, or if you cannot adapt any of the following formats to your particular case, visit the Writing Center for help.

FORMAT

Footnote and bibliographic entries follow a prescribed format, as described on the next page. Familiarize yourself with the basic format, then consult this chapter or the Writing Center when you encounter variations. In many cases you may need to extrapolate formats; that is, you might have to find a ***similar*** entry and follow its general guidelines.

[1]*The Chicago Manual of Style*, 14th ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1993).

Spacing and Fonts

Most word processors default to many of the settings we describe here. If yours does not, then follow these guidelines when you set up your document. Note and bibliographic forms are single-spaced ***within*** the entry and double-spaced ***between*** entries. Indent note forms one-half inch (one tab) on the first line, then leave subsequent lines flush with the left margin. Bibliographic entries are flush with the left margin on the first line, and each subsequent line is "hang-indented" one-half inch. Do not split bibliographic entries between pages. If it appears that a line or more of an entry will lap over onto the next page, then force the entire entry to the next page (using a "Hard Page" or repeated hard returns).

Space twice after all periods and colons, including those in notes and bibliographies. Set your lines for ***left justification*** in notes and bibliography; full justification causes the word processor to overcompensate and results in awkward spacing.

In this chapter, we have formatted our examples using the above guidance. To make them stand out from the rest of the text, we used Courier 12-point for the examples. Your footnotes or endnotes should be set in the same font as the rest of your paper, but use a smaller point size for the note. For example, if you use New Century Schoolbook 11-point (the font used for the text of this book), then your notes should be set in New Century Schoolbook 10-point ***if*** your word processor will support this adaptation. One way to make this font change is to go to the top of your document and reset the footnote font size in the "Setup" routine. The bibliography is set in the same size font as the text.

Sample Note and Bibliography Forms

NOTE: [1]Jeffrey Scott Conklin, *Forging an East Asian Foreign Policy* (Lanham, MD: University Press of America, Inc., 1995), 22-23.

BIB: Conklin, Jeffrey Scott. *Forging an East Asian Foreign Policy*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America, Inc., 1995.

General Format and Punctuation

Forms vary widely, depending upon the type of work being cited. Consult the appropriate entry in this chapter (book, periodical, or U.S. Government publication, for example) and follow its format precisely. Note that commas separate major elements of the note form, whereas periods separate elements of the bibliography. In the bibliography, authors' names are reversed (for alphabetization), but not in the note. See the examples above. Note, too, that we have *italicized* the name of the book above. If

your printer or typewriter does not support italics, then underline instead. Underlining and italics are synonymous. Choose one or the other, and do not switch between the two. If you use underlining instead of italics, note that periods and commas at the end of titles in note and bibliographic forms are not underlined. Periods and commas are always placed ***inside*** quotation marks. Other punctuation marks are placed inside if they are part of the quoted material; otherwise, place them outside. Note also that there is no punctuation before the parentheses, after the title of the book. The same holds true with the form of journal citations and others that use parentheses.

GENERAL

This section applies to note and bibliography forms in general and is intended to answer some of the questions most frequently asked by students.

Abbreviations

Do not write "p." or "pp." before page numbers. Also avoid using "et al." instead of "and others," and use a short citation instead of "ibid." Modern usage is moving away from Latin abbreviations. If you are uncertain whether your reader will understand an abbreviation, spell it out. Common abbreviations such as state names, DC (District of Columbia), and GPO (Government Printing Office) may be used without spelling them out first. See the guidance in chapter 13. Note also that our form calls for omission of the periods in these abbreviations, but not in the abbreviation for *United States* (U.S.). Use "ed." for editor, "comp." for compiler, and "trans." for translator. Plurals are "eds.," "comps.," and "trans." When no date of publication is given, use "n.d." (no date) in the normal position of the date. When no publication data are provided, use "n.p." (no publisher).

Alphabetization

General. Many word-processors alphabetize bibliographies automatically. You must still check these listings, because the programs often err. For example, they might alphabetize an entry beginning with an article (***a***, ***an***, or ***the***) under that letter (***a*** or ***t***) rather than ignoring it as most style guides--including this one--instruct you to do. You will also have to individually reposition entries in which the author's name is replaced by eight underlines (see "More Than One Work by the Same Author" later in this chapter).

Numbers. Alphabetize numbers in the bibliography ***before*** the alphabetical listing. For example, if you used sources from the 1st Cavalry Division, 3d Marine Expeditionary Force, 7th Fleet, and 17th Air Force, those entries would be placed at the start of your bibliography, in the same ascending order shown here. For sequencing, treat

Roman numerals as Arabic numbers: V U.S. Corps, for example, would be listed as V (5th) U.S. Corps and placed in sequence between numerical entries 4 and 6. You might need to manually reposition the entry if your word processor alphabetizes it under "V."

Foreign Names. Many Hispanic and Asian names are a problem to alphabetize. Rather than detail all the rules for each of these name groups, we invite you to come to the Writing Center for guidance or consult *The Chicago Manual of Style* or the 6th edition of Kate Turabian's *A Manual for Writers*, both of which are available in the Center.

Anonymous Authors. It is not unusual to find articles and editorials that do not identify the author. Such works are alphabetized by the first word of the title or, if the first word is an article, a preposition, or a conjunction, alphabetical placement is determined by the first word following it. Do note, though, that this rule pertains to titles in English only. Foreign titles are alphabetized by the first word of the title, even if it is an article, preposition, or conjunction: An article entitled "The Washington Beltway Syndrome," with no listed author, is alphabetized under *W*; but the German magazine title *Der Spiegel* (translated as "the mirror"), if it is the first element of your citation, is alphabetized under ***D***.

Authors' Names

In the note form, do not reverse the author's first and last names. In the bibliography, authors' names are reversed for ease of alphabetization. When more than one author is listed, reverse ***only*** the ***first*** author's name in the entry, beginning with the name listed first in your source. (See the example on page 162.) When your source has no author listed, use the title of the work as the first element of the citation. ***Do not*** use "Anonymous" or other terms in place of an unknown author.

Military Rank, Jr., II, III, and Others

Include military rank when it is part of your source documentation. Use note and bibliographic forms as shown below. It is also helpful (but not required) to add the individual's title. When the source is a "Junior" (Jr.), "the Second" (II), "the Third" (III), or the like, note the punctuation. Never spell out "Junior," "Second," or "Third."

Note Form. [1]General John R. Smith Jr., USA (Ret.), CINCUSEUCOM from 1992-1995. . . .

[2]Air Marshal Jonathan Witherspoon-Smythe II, British Army, Commander IFOR Panaragua, 1997. . . .

Bib Form. Smith, John R. Jr., General, USA (Ret.). CINCUSEUCOM from 1992-1995. . . .

Witherspoon-Smythe, Jonathan II, Air Marshal, British Army. Commander IFOR Panaragua, 1997. . . .

Capitalization and Punctuation in Titles

Often the titles of books, magazine articles, or newspaper articles will use non-standard capitalization or will have no punctuation between the title and the subtitle. In those cases, ***standardize*** the capitalization or punctuation, following the examples below.

1. **Book Title on Cover:** *INDONESIA a country study*

   Standardized for Note or Bibliography Entry: *Indonesia: A Country Study*

2. **Newspaper Article--Headline and Subheading:**

   "Bosnian Forces Vigilant
   Troops guard city under threat of attack"

   Standardized for Note or Bibliography Entry:

   "Bosnian Forces Vigilant: Troops Guard City Under Threat of Attack"

Edited Collections

If you use chapters or other sections from an edited collection, cite the individual chapters in your notes, using the example on pages 166-167. In your bibliography, cite only the ***collection, NOT*** the individual chapters or sections.

Epigraphs

Many students like to begin their paper or chapter with a pertinent quotation, called an "epigraph." Epigraphs are neither indented nor enclosed in quotation marks. Give the author and source of the quotation below the epigraph, flush right. No other documentation is needed. The epigraph itself is single-spaced. Finally, the epigraph that heads a whole paper and occupies a page by itself should not be included in the table of contents, nor should the page be numbered. An example of an epigraph from a student paper is shown on the next page. The example is here enclosed in a box simply to set it off from the rest of the text. Do not use such adornments with your epigraphs.

PAKISTAN: A RELIGIOUS FURNACE

Islam is a natural religion, and it is the law of nature that the caravan of life moves on at all costs. The transitory nature of man does not and should not restrain the forward march of nations.

Ghulam Ishaq Khan, Address to Pakistan

Volume Numbers in Notes and Bibliography

Use Arabic numerals instead of Roman numerals for volume numbers, even if the book's volume number is a Roman numeral. For information on proper alphabetization of numbers, see "Numbers," under the earlier section on "Alphabetization."

Quoted Material

Material from any source that you quote verbatim in your paper must be cited properly, including its punctuation and its style.

Punctuating with Quotation Marks. In using punctuation marks with quoted words, phrases, or sentences, follow these rules: Periods and commas are always inside the quotation marks. Colons and semicolons are always outside quotation marks. Dashes, question marks, and exclamation points are placed inside the quotation marks when they apply to the quoted matter only; outside when they refer to the whole sentence.

Brackets. Brackets [ ] are used to indicate insertions or changes to quoted matter. For example, you may need to alter the tense of a quotation to make it correspond smoothly with the tense of your paper's text. Sometimes you may need to insert your own words for clarification. In the example that follows, the bracketed words, [Stalin's father's], clarify for your reader the identity of Joseph Djugashvili:

> The classification "peasant" stamped on Joseph Djugashvili's [Stalin's father's] official documents differentiated him from most of his early associates, friends as well as enemies, in political work.[2]

Ellipses. Ellipses, also called ellipsis periods, show that something has been left out of a quoted passage. **Three** spaced periods indicate that the words following them are from the same sentence. There should be a space before the first ellipsis period and after the last if a word follows. For example:

---

[2] Adam Ulam, *Stalin: The Man and His Era* (New York: Viking, 1973), 19.

> The classification "peasant" stamped on Joseph Djugashvili's [Stalin's father's] official documents differentiated him from most of his early associates . . . in political work.[3]

Four periods are appropriate in some instances. ***Note the spacing of the ellipses in the examples that follow, and compare the quoted portion to the original.*** Quoted portions in each case come from the following paragraph:

> Don't be surprised if it takes a fair amount of time and effort to figure out your theme. And don't be discouraged, either. And above all, don't give up. In the history of writing, there has never been a piece of writing that didn't have a theme that could be articulated in a few clearly written sentences. And there never will be such a piece. It's just that some themes are a bit harder than others to work out.[4]

(a) Omitting the last part of a quoted sentence:

> Don't be surprised if it takes a fair amount of time and effort to figure out your theme. And don't be discouraged, either. And above all, don't give up. In the history of writing, there has never been a piece of writing that didn't have a theme . . . . And there never will be such a piece. It's just that some themes are a bit harder than others to work out.

(b) Omitting the first part of a quoted sentence:

> Don't be surprised if it takes a fair amount of time and effort to figure out your theme. And don't be discouraged, either. And above all, don't give up. . . . [T]here has never been a piece of writing that didn't have a theme that could be articulated in a few clearly written sentences. And there never will be such a piece. It's just that some themes are a bit harder than others to work out.

(c) Omitting a complete sentence or more:

> Don't be surprised if it takes a fair amount of time and effort to figure out your theme. . . . [S]ome themes are a bit harder than others to work out.

*Ellipses are **not necessary** at the beginning or at the end of a quotation, because it is usually understood that you have omitted material before and after that which you have quoted.*

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[3]Ulam, 19.

[4]This quotation and all subsequent examples using the ellipses are from Herbert E. Meyer and Jill M. Meyer, *How to Write* (Washington, DC: Storm King Press, 1986), 44-45.

Block Quotations. Use a block quotation when the material you are quoting is four lines or more of typescript. Indent it one-half inch from the ***left*** margin, and run flush with the right margin. ***Do not indent both sides.*** If the quotation begins with a paragraph in the original, indent the first line an additional half-inch. Do not place quotation marks around the material--your reader knows you are quoting because of the indentation and single-spacing. If, however, you have interior quotations, mark them with ***double*** quotation marks, ***not*** single. Note that the text of the example that follows is double-spaced, and the block quotation is single-spaced. A colon or other punctuation may be used to introduce the quoted material, unless it is a "run-on" quotation like the example. A run-on quotation continues the flow of the sentence with no noticeable pause.

EXAMPLE: [5]

[Frunze] defined the functions of the Red Army staff and established separate bodies to handle day-to-day affairs and to supervise training.[6] [His] first goal was

> to give the army a more permanent and stable nature, to eliminate the turnover of its personnel, to establish conditions for its life and activities which were strictly regulated by the law and carry out a more energetic freshening and rejuvenation of the leading command personnel by promoting young forces.[7]

Integrating Quoted Material Smoothly. Whether you insert verbatim or summarize the idea of another person, introduce the material smoothly into the text of your paper. You will usually prepare your reader with either a conversational tag (***Kissinger noted that . . .*** or ***Charles Peacock, a research analyst at the Department of State, said . . .***) or a lead-in sentence (***Chris Baca, director of Youth Development of Albuquerque, made this observation:*** "Poverty, poor education, dysfunctional families, negative role models, and little, if any, hope lead juveniles to gangs and drugs."[8])

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[5]This example is taken from Richard F. Vert, Jr., *Frunze's Mixed System of Organization: A Model for the Future?*, MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence College, 1989), 27. Mr. Vert was a student in PGIP Class 8902.

[6]John Erickson, *The Soviet High Command* (London: Macmillan and Company, 1962), 173-181.

[7]Colonel-General Makhmut Akmetovich Gareev, *M.V. Frunze, Military Theorist* (Washington, DC: Pergamon-Brassey, 1988), 51.

[8]Brad Nelson, *Prospects for a US Drug Cartel: A Comparative Study of the Medellin Cocaine Cartel and US Drug-Trafficking Gangs*, MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence College, 1990), 16.

Publishers

Cite the publisher's name exactly as it appears on the title page. Common abbreviations may be used for *Company* (Co.), *Incorporated* (Inc.), and *Limited* (Ltd.). If more than one city is named for the publisher, use only the first one listed. Note carefully unusual spellings or capitalizations, and retain them exactly as they are; for example: ***Encyclopaedia Britannica*** and ***Jane's Defence*** Weekly (British spellings); and ***Macmillan*** Publishing Co. (the second ***m*** is lower case).

Secondary (Short) Citations

After your first reference to a work in a footnote or endnote, use a secondary citation (also called a short citation or short form) with only the author's name and a page number. If you use more than one work by the same author, use a short title in each subsequent reference. Avoid Latin abbreviations such as *ibid.* and *op. cit.* See the examples that follow.

[The first example assumes you used only one work by Douglass.]

First reference.

[1]Joseph D. Douglass, Jr., *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), 198-99.

Next reference.

[2]Douglass, 202.

[The next example assumes you used more than one work by the CIA. Use enough data to identify the work clearly for your reader.]

First reference.

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

Next reference.

[2]CIA, "Conference Report," 313.

[The next example is one with no author listed. It is a hypothetical newspaper article drawn from wire service reports and carried on several non-sequential pages in the paper. The example assumes that you used no other material with the same title; otherwise, you would have to provide enough data to clarify which entry you are citing.]

First reference.

[1]"New Council Eases Concerns in China," *Washington Post*, 13 February 1996, final edition, A16+.

Next reference.

[2]"New Council," A24.

[See also Section 25, "Periodicals," for proper newspaper citation format.]

More than One Work by the Same Author

If you list two or more works by the same author in your bibliography, give the author's full name in the first entry. Thereafter use an eight-space line (the underline key struck eight times) followed by a period. Such entries are alphabetized by title, without regard to initial articles (***a, an, the***). For example, the first entry below is alphabetized under ***D*** for "Determinants," ignoring the initial article ***the***.

Sayigh, Yusif A. *The Determinants of Arab Economic Development*. London: Croom Helm, 1978.

_____. *Economies of the Arab World: Development Since 1945*. London: Croom Helm, 1978.

Use the eight underlines ***only*** if the author(s) is (are) identical. If they are not, then use full bibliographic citations, as below. These entries show that McRea wrote the book and the *Omni* article alone, but co-authored the *Investigator* article with Merrow.

McRea, Ronald M. *Mind Wars: The True Story of Government Research into the Military Potential of Psychic Weapons*. New York: St. Martin's, 1984.

_____. "Psychic Warriors." *Omni*, April 1984, 58-60.

McRea, Ronald M., and Sue Merrow. "Psychic Warfare." *Investigator*, October 1981, 60-63.

GUIDE TO NOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY FORMS

The remainder of this chapter contains guidance on proper citation format for the most common unclassified materials you will be required to document: books, magazines, journals, newspapers, reference works, and government or other official documents. (See chapter 9 for information on citing classified material.) In most instances, examples from student papers have been used for note and bibliographic forms. Footnote or endnote styles are shown at the "NOTE" entries, and bibliography examples are found under the "BIB" entries. Do not include the word "NOTE" or "BIB" in your entry.

Centered headings at the top of each page ("**01. AUDIO RECORDINGS,**" for example) show the major type of material covered on that page. Subheadings such as "**02.1: ONE AUTHOR**" show specific citation formats for that type of work. Note that the formats are arranged alphabetically for ease of reference. Consult the cross-reference guide on the next three pages or the index to this style guide for specific information on the type of material you wish to cite.

Section 9, "Electronic Citations," covers a representative sample of materials obtained from various electronic media. Keep these guidelines in mind when using electronically derived material:

- Use the basic citation format for whatever material you have downloaded--a book, journal article, interview, or government document, for example.
- ***After*** that basic citation, note the electronic medium that was your source.
- Electronic material is perishable, so keep a printed copy of the downloaded document or, if that is not feasible, keep at least the first page or a sample page with source data shown.

NOTE: Read carefully all the italicized notes in brackets [ ] for additional information that may answer your questions.

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01. AUDIO RECORDINGS

01.1: GENERAL. Give the name of the person responsible for the content, the title, performer, recording company, number of record or tape (if any), and copyright date.

NOTE: [1]Paul Pimsleur, *Speak and Read Essential French*, read by Mlle. Danielle Debard and M. Antoine Spacagna, cassette, AMACOM, 1964.

BIB: Pimsleur, Paul. *Speak and Read Essential French.* Read by Mlle. Danielle Debard and M. Antoine Spacagna. Cassette. AMACOM, 1964.

[Use the form above if you actually listened to the tape. If you read a transcript instead, then use the form below.]

01.2: TRANSCRIPTS OF AUDIO RECORDINGS. If you make use of someone else's transcription of an audio recording, then use the citation style below.

NOTE: [1]Paul Pimsleur, *Speak and Read Essential French*, transcription of a 1964 cassette recording produced by AMACOM (New York: Lingua Transcriptions, Inc., 1969), 16.

BIB: Pimsleur, Paul. *Speak and Read Essential French.* Transcription of a 1964 cassette recording produced by AMACOM. New York: Lingua Transcriptions, Inc., 1969.

[For transcripts of speeches, see Section 04, "Conference Proceedings"; Section 17.3, "Defense Issues"; and Section 17.4, "Vital Speeches of the Day." Also see section 09.8, page 183, for an audio file accessed on-line.]

Are you reading all the bracketed notes?

02. BOOKS

02.1: ONE AUTHOR.

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

[Do not write "p." or "pp." before page numbers. Note also that there is no punctuation before the parentheses, after the title of the book.]

BIB: Douglass, Joseph D. Jr. *Soviet Military Strategy in Europe*. New York: Pergamon Press, 1980.

[Note that no comma is required before "Jr."]

[Also see sections 09.9 and 09.10, page 184, for books accessed on-line.]

02.2: TWO OR THREE AUTHORS.

NOTE: [2]Paul Nitze and Leonard Sullivan Jr., *Securing the Seas: The Soviet Naval Challenge and Western Alliance Options* (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1979), 52.

[3]Murray C. Havens, Carl Leiden, and Karl M. Schmitt, *Assassination and Terrorism: Their Modern Dimensions* (Manchaca, TX: Sterling Swift, 1975), 43.

BIB: Nitze, Paul, and Leonard Sullivan Jr. *Securing the Seas: The Soviet Naval Challenge and Western Alliance Options*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1979.

Havens, Murray C., Carl Leiden, and Karl M. Schmitt. *Assassination and Terrorism: Their Modern Dimensions*. Manchaca, TX: Sterling Swift, 1975.

[In the bibliography, reverse only the first author's name in the entry, beginning with the name listed first in the book.]

02.3: MORE THAN THREE AUTHORS.

For works by more than three authors, give only the name listed first in the book, followed by "and others." Avoid using "et al." instead of "and others." Modern usage is moving away from Latin abbreviations.

NOTE: [4]Peter Christian Ludz and others, *Dilemmas of the Atlantic Alliance: Two Germanys, Scandinavia, Canada, NATO and the EEC* (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975), 87.

BIB: Ludz, Peter Christian, and others. *Dilemmas of the Atlantic Alliance: Two Germanys, Scandinavia, Canada, NATO and the EEC.* New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975.

02.4: ORGANIZATION, ASSOCIATION, OR CORPORATION.

When a book issued by an organization has no author's name on the title page, list it by the organization, as in the example below. See also the section on "U.S. Government Publications."

NOTE: [5]Stanford Central American Action Network (SCAAN), *Revolution in Central America* (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1983), 468.

BIB: Stanford Central American Action Network (SCAAN). *Revolution in Central America.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1983.

02.5: MULTIVOLUME WORKS BY ONE AUTHOR, ALL VOLUMES HAVING THE SAME TITLE.

NOTE: [6]Secretariat of the Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee, *Constitutions of African States* (Dobbs Ferry, NY: Oceana Publications, 1972), 2: 91.

[The "2" preceding the page number ("91") is the volume number. The abbreviation "vol." is not needed in the note form, but is included in the bibliographic entry, below, for clarity. Use Arabic numerals instead of Roman numerals for volume numbers, even if the book's volume number is a Roman numeral.]

BIB: Secretariat of the Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee. *Constitutions of African States.* Vol. 2. Dobbs Ferry, NY: Oceana Publications, 1972.

02.6: MULTIVOLUME WORKS BY ONE AUTHOR, WITH DIFFERENT TITLES.

NOTE: [7]Sigmund Freud, *New Introductory Lectures on Psycho-Analysis and Other Works,* vol. 22 of *The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud,* trans. and ed. James Strachey (London: Hogarth Press, 1964), 214-215.

BIB: Freud, Sigmund. *New Introductory Lectures on Psycho-Analysis and Other Works.* Vol. 22 of *The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud.* Trans. and ed. James Strachey. London: Hogarth Press, 1964.

02.7: MULTIVOLUME WORKS BY DIFFERENT AUTHORS, INDIVIDUAL WORKS HAVING DIFFERENT TITLES.

You have been using a multivolume work whose overall title is *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II*. You have quoted material from volumes 1 and 5. As you write down the information you think you will need for correct notes and bibliography, you notice that each volume has its own title and authors. See below for the correct format. Note that there is no general editor for the series. If there were, the editor would be listed immediately after the overall title, *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II*.

NOTE: [8]Benis M. Frank and Henry I. Shaw Jr., *Victory and Occupation*, vol. 5 of *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1968), 57.

[9]Frank O. Hough and others, *Pearl Harbor to Guadalcanal*, vol. 1 of *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1958), 35.

BIB: Frank, Benis M., and Henry I. Shaw Jr. *Victory and Occupation*. Vol. 5 of *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II*. Washington, DC: GPO, 1968.

Hough, Frank O., and others. *Pearl Harbor to Guadalcanal*. Vol. 1 of *The History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II*. Washington, DC: GPO, 1958.

02.8: EDITION OTHER THAN THE FIRST.

If the work cited is not the first edition, you must indicate whether it is a revised edition, numbered edition, or named edition. Use the form "rev. ed." for a revised edition, "2d ed." for numbered edition, and the complete name for a named edition. Classics are often put out in named editions, such as the Norton Critical Editions.

02.8: EDITION OTHER THAN THE FIRST, continued.

NOTE: [10]Philip K. Hitti, *The Arabs: A Short History*, 2d rev. ed. (Chicago: Regnery, 1970), 19.

BIB: Hitti, Philip K. *The Arabs: A Short History*. 2d rev. ed. Chicago: Regnery, 1970.

NOTE: [11]Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff, *The Modern Researcher*, 5th ed. (Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers, 1992), 84.

BIB: Barzun, Jacques, and Henry F. Graff. *The Modern Researcher*. 5th ed. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers, 1992.

02.9: WORKS IN AN EDITED COLLECTION. Give the full citation, including chapter or section, in the note form; but cite only the ***collection*** in your bibliography, ***NOT*** the individual chapters or sections. In the note, use only the page number(s) from which you cite material. Use "ed." for editor, "comp." for compiler, and "trans." for translator. Plurals are "eds.," "comps.," and "trans." In the example that follows, we cite an individual chapter by Bourgois in the note form, and we cite only the collection in the bibliographic form.

NOTE: [12]Philippe Bourgois, "The Problematic of Nicaragua's Indigenous Minorities," in *Nicaragua in Revolution*, ed. Thomas M. Walker (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1982), 194.

BIB: *Nicaragua in Revolution*. Ed. Thomas W. Walker. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1982.

02.9: WORKS IN AN EDITED COLLECTION, continued.

In the next example, a chapter by Goldberg is cited in the note form; the overall work is cited for the bibliography.

NOTE: [13]Alfred Goldberg, "The Definition of Policies," in *Men and Planes*, vol. 6 of *The Army Air Force in World War II*, eds. W. F. Craven and J. L. Cate (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), 180.

BIB: *Men and Planes*. Vol. 6 of *The Army Air Force in World War II*. Eds. W. F. Craven and J. L. Cate. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.

02.10: BOOKS OF READINGS (JOINT MILITARY INTELLIGENCE COLLEGE).

Some professors at the Joint Military Intelligence College compile their students' reading assignments for the term into "books of readings." These volumes facilitate student research and ensure that all students have timely access to needed materials without resorting to library reserve. ***A WORD OF CAUTION:*** Books of readings are a convenience for both students and faculty. They are ***not*** intended as a means of bypassing research or stifling your ability to gain access to the original source. Many books of readings contain copyrighted material, and professors have gained permission to use the material for specific classroom purposes. The law restricts further reproduction or distribution of such material, even for educational purposes.

It is imperative that material from books of readings be cited properly in your papers. In addition, federal law prohibits further circulation of a paper that contains references to material not readily available to the general public. A Joint Military Intelligence College Book of Readings is "For Instructional Use Only," and is ***not*** readily available to the general public. For that reason, any paper you may wish to have published outside the College may ***not*** contain references to books of readings. The sample citation that follows may be the most complicated you will encounter. Adapt that general format when citing other works from books of readings. Note also the example that follows the sample citation, showing you how to adapt your note and bibliographic forms to omit references to books of readings.

02.10: BOOKS OF READINGS, JMIC, continued.

NOTE: [14]David Kahn, "Clausewitz and Intelligence," in *Clausewitz and Modern Strategy*, ed. Michael I. Handel (London: Frank Cass and Co. Ltd., 1986), 117-125; reprint in *Military Strategy*, vol. 1, ed. CDR George S. Witt (Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence College, 1989), 2-21.

BIB: Kahn, David. "Clausewitz and Intelligence." In *Clausewitz and Modern Strategy*. Ed. Michael I. Handel. London: Frank Cass and Co. Ltd., 1986, 117-125. Reprint in *Military Strategy*. Vol. 1. Ed. CDR George S. Witt. Washington, DC: Defense Intelligence College, 1989, 2-19 through 2-28.

[Unlike the previous format for an edited collection, where you omit chapter or section titles from the bibliographic entry, the Book of Readings citation must include all information in <u>both</u> the note and bibliography forms. The note form cites the original source of the material, and also tells your reader where <u>you</u> found it. The page numbers "117-125" are the inclusive page numbers of the original chapter in Handel's book. In the note form, page 2-21 is the page number within the book of readings where you found the information you used. In the bibliography, the inclusive pages, 2-19 through 2-28, are shown. Note that the word "through" is used to avoid the confusion that would be caused by another hyphen (2-19-2-28, or 2-19 - 2-28, both of which are potentially confusing). The entry below has been revised to show the correct form to be used for any paper that might leave the Joint Military Intelligence College, including a thesis or a paper you wish to publish.]

02.11: ADAPTATION, OMITTING REFERENCE TO THE BOOK OF READINGS.

NOTE: [15]David Kahn, "Clausewitz and Intelligence," in *Clausewitz and Modern Strategy*, ed. Michael I. Handel (London: Frank Cass and Co., Ltd., 1986), 117.

BIB: *Clausewitz and Modern Strategy*. Ed. Michael I. Handel. London: Frank Cass and Co., Ltd., 1986.

02.12: EDITED BOOK WITH NO SUBORDINATE AUTHORS LISTED.

NOTE: [16]Homer E. Moyers Jr., and others, eds., *Law and Policy of Export Controls* (Chicago: American Bar Association, 1993), 15.

BIB: Moyers, Homer E. Jr., and others, eds. *Law and Policy of Export Controls*. Chicago: American Bar Association, 1993.

02.13: TRANSLATED BOOK WITH NO EDITOR LISTED.

NOTE: [17]V. Larionov and others, *World War II Decisive Battles of the Soviet Army*, trans. William Biley (Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1984), 44.

BIB: Larionov, V., and others. *World War II Decisive Battles of the Soviet Army*. Trans. William Biley. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1984.

02.14: TRANSLATED BOOK WITH AN EDITOR LISTED.

NOTE: [18]M.V. Zakharov, Marshal of the Soviet Army, ed., *Finale: A Retrospective View of Imperialist Japan's Defeat in 1945*, trans. David Skvirsky (Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1972), 112.

BIB: Zakharov, M.V., Marshal of the Soviet Army, ed. *Finale: A Retrospective View of Imperialist Japan's Defeat in 1945*. Trans. David Skvirsky. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1972.

03. BOOK REVIEWS

03.1: GENERAL. You may have occasion to cite the words of a critic who has reviewed a book you are using or citing. In that case, use one of the formats below, depending upon whether the review has a byline. Note that this citation style applies only to the ***review***, and not to the book. If you use material from the book itself--even if you extract the material from the review--then you must cite the book.

03.2: REVIEW WITH BYLINE OF REVIEWER.

NOTE: [1]Joseph T. Glatthaar, review of *Colin Powell: Soldier/Statesman--Statesman/Soldier* by Howard Means, in *Washington Post*, 7 December 1992, B1.

BIB: Glatthaar, Joseph T. Review of *Colin Powell: Soldier/Statesman--Statesman/Soldier* by Howard Means. *Washington Post*, 7 December 1992, B1-B2.

03.3: REVIEW WITH NO REVIEWER'S BYLINE.

NOTE: [2]Review of *U.S. Intelligence at the Crossroads: An Agenda for Reform* by Ernest May, Roy Godson, and Gary Schmitt, in *Foreign Affairs* 74, no. 5 (September/October 1995): 167.

BIB: Review of *U.S. Intelligence at the Crossroads: An Agenda for Reform* by Ernest May, Roy Godson, and Gary Schmitt. In *Foreign Affairs* 74, no. 5 (September/October 1995): 167-168.

[Also see 09.11, page 185, for a book review accessed on-line.]

04. CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

04.1: RECORD OF CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS.

Note that the date of the conference is not italicized or underlined, and that a document number (D5.17:D36/2) is included. Always give a document number when it is provided, to help your reader locate your sources.

NOTE: [1]National Security Affairs Conference, *Defense Planning for the Future: The Second National Security Conference Proceedings*, 14-15 July 1975, D5.17:D36/2 (Washington, DC: National War College, 1975), 5.

BIB: National Security Affairs Conference. *Defense Planning for the Future: The Second National Security Conference Proceedings*, 14-15 July 1975. D5.17:D36/2. Washington, DC: National War College, 1975.

Also see 30.4, page 222, "Miscellaneous Government Documents."]

04.2: PAPERS READ AT A CONFERENCE OR MEETING.

In this example the student is using a reproduced copy of a paper presented at a conference. If the paper is extracted from a published conference proceeding, however, use example 04.3 instead.

NOTE: [2]Francis J. Hughes, "The Master's Thesis: A Practicum in Critical Thinking and Argumentation," paper presented at the 16th International Conference on Critical Thinking and Educational Reform, 28-31 July 1996 (Sonoma, CA: Sonoma State University, 1996, photocopy), 3.

BIB: Hughes, Francis J. "The Master's Thesis: A Practicum in Critical Thinking and Argumentation." Paper presented at the 16th International Conference on Critical Thinking and Educational Reform, 28-31 July 1996. Sonoma, CA: Sonoma State University, 1996. Photocopy.

04. CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS, continued

04.3: PAPER PRINTED IN RECORD OF PROCEEDINGS.

NOTE: [3]Francis J. Hughes, "The Master's Thesis: A Practicum in Critical Thinking and Argumentation," in *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Critical Thinking and Educational Reform*, 28-31 July 1996, ed. Richard Paul (Sonoma, CA: Sonoma State University Press, 1996), 183.

BIB: Hughes, Francis J. "The Master's Thesis: A Practicum in Critical Thinking and Argumentation." In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Critical Thinking and Educational Reform*, 28-31 July 1996. Ed. Richard Paul. Sonoma, CA: Sonoma State University, 1996, 180-185.

05. CONGRESSIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE

05.1: GENERAL. The *Congressional Research Service* prepares special reports for Congress, which are also accessible to the public. These reports are similar to monographs in that they cover a single topic.

NOTE: [1]Mark W. Lowenthal, "Peacekeeping in Future U.S. Foreign Policy," *CRS Report for Congress*, 94-260S (Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, 10 May 1994), 3.

BIB: Lowenthal, Mark M. "Peacekeeping in Future U.S. Foreign Policy." *CRS Report for Congress*. 94-260S. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, 10 May 1994.

06. CORRESPONDENCE

06.1: GENERAL. "Correspondence" comes in many shapes, sizes, and formats. Adapt the general format below, or one of the specific formats that follow, to the type of correspondence you are citing. Include any applicable control numbers you find on the material. You may abbreviate for subsequent entries; for example, DIA, USEUCOM.

NOTE: [1]Author or agency or command and type of correspondence to addressee, subject: "Title in Quotation Marks," date or date-time group, page number if applicable.

BIB: Author or agency or command. Type of correspondence to Addressee. Subject: "Title in Quotation Marks." Date or date-time group.

06.2: AGENCY OR MAJOR HEADQUARTERS.

NOTE: [2]Director Defense Intelligence Agency message to Commander in Chief U.S. European Command, subject: "Request for Theater Clearance," 080910Z May 1996.

BIB: Director Defense Intelligence Agency. Message to Commander in Chief U.S. European Command. Subject: "Request for Theater Clearance." 080910Z May 1996.

06.3: DEFENSE ATTACHE REPORTS OR OTHER INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION REPORTS (UNCLASS).

NOTE: [3]U.S. Defense Attache Office Buenos Aires to Defense Intelligence Agency and others, IIR 6-804-0123-96, subject: "Significant Events," 222119Z September 1996.

BIB: U.S. Defense Attache Office Buenos Aires. IIR 6-804-0123-96 to Defense Intelligence Agency and others. Subject: "Significant Events." 222119Z September 1996.

[Note the use of "and others." Messages are often sent to multiple addressees. Use only the first action addressee (or the Address Indicator Group--AIG--if applicable), as we have done here.]

06.4: MAJOR COMMAND.

NOTE: [4]Commander Pacific Air Forces message to Chief of Staff of the Air Force, subject: "Alert Rates," 152134Z July 1996.

BIB: Commander Pacific Air Forces. Message to Chief of Staff of the Air Force. Subject: "Alert Rates." 152134Z July 1996.

06.5: NUMBERED COMMAND. List numbers ***before*** letters in your bibliography. For example, an entry for "Commander 3d Tactical Fighter Wing" would be listed before "Commander 13th Air Force," and ***both*** would be listed alphabetically before "Commander Pacific Air Forces."

NOTE: [5]Commander 13th Air Force message to Commander 3d Tactical Fighter Wing, subject: "COPE THUNDER Rules of Engagement," 151617Z October 1986.

BIB: Commander 13th Air Force. Message to Commander 3d Tactical Fighter Wing. Subject: "COPE THUNDER Rules of Engagement." 151617Z October 1986.

06.6: LETTERS AND MEMORANDA. Handle letters and memoranda in exactly the same fashion as messages, giving all available data.

NOTE: [6]Director Defense Intelligence Agency, letter to President Joint Military Intelligence College, and others, U/96-10234, subject: "Excellence in Education," 27 February 1996.

BIB: Director Defense Intelligence Agency. Letter to President Joint Military Intelligence College, and others. U/96-10234. Subject: "Excellence in Education." 27 February 1996.

07. COUNTRY STUDIES, PROFILES, & REPORTS, AND AREA HANDBOOKS

07.1: COUNTRY STUDIES AND AREA HANDBOOKS. "Area Handbooks" and "Country Studies" are issued as a Department of the Army Pamphlet series, but they are prepared elsewhere. With their comprehensive bibliographies, they are excellent unclassified starting places for research. You will find older editions with green or brown covers, written under contract by The American University and called "Area Handbooks." More recent editions have white covers, are prepared by either The American University or the Library of Congress Federal Research Division, and are called "Country Studies." Cite these works as shown below. The first example is an authored volume, the second an edited work. Note the capitalization of "A Country Study," which is treated as a subtitle, even though it is not capitalized on the cover or title page. Cite edition numbers (3d ed., for example) when they are noted. Use the ***copyright*** date, ***NOT*** the printing date.

NOTE: [1]Donald P. Whitaker and others, *Cambodia: A Country Study*, 3d ed., Foreign Area Studies, The American University, DA Pam. No. 550-50 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1973), 322.

BIB: Whitaker, Donald P., and others. *Cambodia: A Country Study*. 3d ed. Foreign Area Studies, The American University. DA Pam. No. 550-50. Washington, DC: GPO, 1973.

NOTE: [2]Dennis M. Hanratty and Sandra W. Meditz, ed., *Colombia: A Country Study*, 4th ed., Federal Research Division, Library of Congress, DA Pam. No. 550-26 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1990), 34.

BIB: Hanratty, Dennis M., and Sandra W. Meditz, ed. *Colombia: A Country Study*. 4th ed. Federal Research Division, Library of Congress. DA Pam. No. 550-26. Washington, DC: GPO, 1990.

07. COUNTRY STUDIES, PROFILES, & REPORTS, AND AREA HANDBOOKS, continued

07.1: COUNTRY STUDIES AND AREA HANDBOOKS, continued.

NOTE: [3]Donald P. Whitaker and others, *Area Handbook for Laos*, rev. ed., Foreign Area Studies, The American University, DA Pam. No. 550-58 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1972), 132.

BIB: Whitaker, Donald P., and others. *Area Handbook for Laos*. Rev. ed. Foreign Area Studies, The American University. DA Pam. No. 550-58. Washington, DC: GPO, 1972.

07.2: COUNTRY PROFILES AND REPORTS.

The Economist Intelligence Unit and other organizations publish documents that may be called country profiles, country reports, or other similar names. They are handled much like the Area Handbook/Country Study series. Note that placement of information on the covers of these reports--title, series, year, and publisher--often varies. But the citation format remains standard. In your bibliography, alphabetize these reports under "Economist," disregarding the article "The." If the document is authored, substitute the name of the author(s) in place of "The Economist Intelligence Unit."

NOTE: [4]The Economist Intelligence Unit, *Country Profile: Guatemala, El Salvador, 1993/94* (London: The Economist Intelligence Unit, 1993), 3.

BIB: The Economist Intelligence Unit. *Country Profile: Guatemala, El Salvador, 1993/94*. London: The Economist Intelligence Unit, 1993.

08. DIGESTS

08.1: GENERAL. You will encounter sources where material is extracted, digested, or otherwise reprinted (see also "Books of Readings," 02.10). These sources are convenient, but not scholarly. You should always try to gain access to the original material. Examples of "digests" that follow include *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press* and *World Press Review*.

08.2: CURRENT DIGEST OF THE POST-SOVIET PRESS.

NOTE: [1]Yevgeny Primakov, "Russia and the CIS: Does the West's Position Need Readjustment?" trans. and reprinted under "Russia's Intelligence Chief Defends CIS Integration," in *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press* 46, no. 38 (19 October 1995): 1.

BIB: Primakov, Yevgeny. "Russia and the CIS: Does the West's Position Need Readjustment?" Trans. and reprinted under "Russia's Intelligence Chief Defends CIS Integration." In *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press* 46, no. 38 (19 October 1995): 1-5.

08.3: WORLD PRESS REVIEW (WPR). The *WPR* prints excerpts from or condensed versions of articles found in international periodicals, but without providing full documentation of the original sources. ***Be aware*** that you would not want to use a source of this type for serious research such as your degree; *WPR* is a tertiary source at best. It may be useful, though, in drawing your attention to an item which you could then search out for a more detailed examination; but you must put in the effort to locate the original, complete article for your research. In the examples, the abbreviations "n.p." and "n.d." mean "no publication data" and "no date," respectively.

NOTE: [2]Mauro Suttora, "Trying to Keep the Red Cross Out: Recent Conflicts Have Made Its Job Tougher," *World Press Review* 35, no. 10 (October 1988): 29. Excerpt from the newsmagazine *Europeo*, Milan, n.p., n.d.

BIB: Suttora, Mauro. "Trying to Keep the Red Cross Out: Recent Conflicts Have Made Its Job Tougher." *World Press Review* 35, no. 10 (October 1988): 29-30. Excerpt from the newsmagazine *Europeo*, Milan. N.p., n.d.

08. DIGESTS, continued

The "***Viewpoints***" section of *World Press Review* compiles several short excerpts from various sources, without citing authors. The excerpts are grouped by topic. In the example below, "Viewpoints" is treated as the article title and one of the specific topics as a subtitle. The example also identifies the specific excerpt quoted.

NOTE: [3]"Viewpoints: Nuclear Hypocrisy," *World Press Review* 42, no. 8 (August 1995): 4. Excerpt from *South China Morning Post*, Hong Kong, n.p., n.d.

BIB: "Viewpoints: Nuclear Hypocrisy." *World Press Review* 42, no. 8 (August 1995): 4-5. Excerpt from *South China Morning Post*, Hong Kong. N.p., n.d.

09. ELECTRONIC CITATIONS

09.1: GENERAL. The increasing popularity of home computers is leading to a proliferation of services that offer retrievable data "on-line" to home subscribers. Academic institutions worldwide are struggling with proper citation formats for electronic material such as the Internet, World Wide Web, Gopher sites, Intelink, Usenet, Wide Area Information Servers, and CD-ROM, to name only a few of the most popular. We offer here some "cyber-cites" for a few "cyber-sites," but expect changes to follow concurrent with the exponential growth of electronically accessible information.

When you retrieve information electronically, it is important to note the electronic medium (CD-ROM or Internet address, for example) and the date you accessed it. If you cannot find a citation format to cover your item, try to extrapolate from one of the following. Failing that, bring your information to the Writing Center for help in citing it. Note also that anyone with a home computer and a modem can place material on the Internet; so it behooves you as a careful researcher always to cross-check or verify information you retrieve from an on-line source.

Generally, sources fall into two categories: documents that have been published in standard (paper) format and then made available electronically, and items that exist ***only*** electronically. In both cases, citations should indicate the electronic address where you accessed the document ***and*** the date on which you accessed it, because electronically stored and retrieved items are liable to change.

09.2: ENCYCLOPEDIA, ON-LINE.

NOTE: [1]*Compton's Encyclopedia*, online edition, under "El Salvador, Economy," accessed on *America Online*, 7 February 1996.

BIB: *Compton's Encyclopedia*. Online edition. Under "El Salvador, Economy." Accessed on *America Online*, 7 February 1996.

[When dealing with documents that have also been published in traditional formats, provide standard publication information based on the examples provided elsewhere in this guide for that type of document (examples: book, newspaper article, or journal article); list that publication data before the electronic address. Use angle brackets < > to set off electronic addresses. To protect yourself in case questions arise, print a copy of any material you cite in your work. See also the guidance on page 157.]

09.3: NEWS SERVICE, ON-LINE.

NOTE: [2]"Pakistani Premier Uses German Forum to Lash Out at India," *Newsgrid*, under the keyword "Kashmir," accessed on *CompuServe*, 19 April 1994.

BIB: "Pakistani Premier Uses German Forum to Lash Out at India." *Newsgrid*, under the keyword "Kashmir." Accessed on *CompuServe*, 19 April 1994.

09.4: UNIFORM RESOURCE LOCATOR (URL) CITATION.

The "URL" is the Uniform Resource Locator--the item's electronic address. It is set off by angle brackets.

NOTE: [3]Ronald G. Babcock, "Cognitive Progress," URL: <cybermind@jefferson.learncen.alaska.edu>, accessed 22 November 1995.

BIB: Babcock, Ronald G. "Cognitive Progress." URL: <cybermind@jefferson.learncen.alaska.edu>. Accessed 22 November 1995.

09.5: GOPHER CITATION: NEWSPAPER ARTICLE.

This citation shows an article with no byline. If the article you access has a byline, begin your citation with the author's name; the rest of the citation is the same format as this one.

NOTE: [4]"Investing in the Bibles and Bullets Business," *Mail and Guardian* (South Africa), 16 September 1994, URL: <gopher://win.apc.org//11//wmail>, accessed 24 October 1995.

BIB: "Investing in the Bibles and Bullets Business." *Mail and Guardian* (South Africa), 16 September 1994. URL: <gopher://win.apc.org//11//wmail>. Accessed 24 October 1995.

09.6: GOPHER CITATION: UN DOCUMENTS.

NOTE: [5]United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 971 (1995)*, S/RES/971 (1995), 12 January 1995, URL: <gopher://gopher.undp.org/00/undocs/scd/scouncil/s95/95-01/sec>, accessed 24 August 1995.

BIB: United Nations Security Council. *Resolution 971 (1995)*, S/RES/971 (1995). 12 January 1995. URL: <gopher://gopher.undp.org/00/undocs/scd/scouncil/s95/95-01/sec>. Accessed 24 August 1995.

NOTE: [6]United Nations Security Council, *Report of the Secretary-General Concerning the Situation in Abkhazia, Georgia*, S/1995/657, Report by Boutros Boutros-Ghali, 7 August 1995, URL: <gopher://gopher.undp.org/00/uncurr/sgrep/95-08/657>, accessed 24 August 1995.

BIB: United Nations Security Council. *Report of the Secretary-General Concerning the Situation in Abkhazia, Georgia*, S/1995/657. Report by Boutros Boutros-Ghali, 7 August 1995. URL: <gopher://gopher.undp.org/00/uncurr/sgrep/95-08/657>. Accessed 24 August 1995.

09.7: WORLD WIDE WEB CITATION: SPEECH TRANSCRIPT.

NOTE: [7]General Ronald R. Fogelman, Chief of Staff USAF, "Information Operations: The Fifth Dimension of Warfare," remarks delivered to the Armed Forces Communications-Electronics Association, Washington, DC, 25 April 1995, printed in *Defense Issues* 10, no. 47 (Washington, DC: DoD, 1995), URL: <http://www.dtic.dla.mil/defenselink/pubs/di95/di1047.html>, accessed 31 October 1995.

09.7: WORLD WIDE WEB CITATION: SPEECH TRANSCRIPT, continued.

BIB: Fogelman, Ronald R., General, Chief of Staff USAF. "Information Operations: The Fifth Dimension of Warfare." Remarks delivered to the Armed Forces Communications-Electronics Association, Washington, DC, 25 April 1995. Printed in *Defense Issues* 10, no. 47, Washington, DC: DoD, 1995. URL: <http://www.dtic.dla.mil/defenselink/pubs/di95/di1047.html>, accessed 31 October 1995.

09.8: AUDIO FILE, TRANSCRIBED FROM THE INTERNET.

In the example that follows, the student accessed a *Voice of Russia* audio file on the Internet and transcribed it himself. If you access a ***transcript*** of an audio file, treat it like a speech transcript, above.

NOTE: [8]"Russia's Defense Minister Pavel Grachev Says His Country Is Prepared to Take Part in Every Operation to Ensure Peace in Bosnia," *Voice of Russia*, broadcast 29 October 1995, item start 01:36.4, end 02:47.5, download of an audio file from Internet, transcribed by the author, URL: <http://town.hall.org/Archives/radio/Mirrors/WRN/audio.html>, accessed 29 October 1995.

BIB: "Russia's Defense Minister Pavel Grachev Says His Country Is Prepared to Take Part in Every Operation to Ensure Peace in Bosnia." *Voice of Russia*, broadcast 29 October 1995. Item start 01:36.4, end 02:47.5. Download of an audio file from Internet, transcribed by the author. URL: <http://town.hall.org/Archives/radio/Mirrors/WRN/audio.html>, accessed 29 October 1995.

09.9: WORLD WIDE WEB CITATION: BOOK. In this case the book is an edited collection accessed ***only on-line***. If the book were accessed in hard copy, page numbers would be needed (see 02.9, "Works in an Edited Collection," page 166).

NOTE: [9]Jeffrey Cooper, "Dominant Battlespace Awareness and Future Warfare," in *Dominant Battlespace Knowledge*, online edition, eds. Stuart Johnson and Martin Libicki (Washington, DC: National Defense University Press, 1996), URL: <http://198.80.36.91/ndu/inss/books/dbk/dbkch06.html>, accessed 27 February 1996.

BIB: Cooper, Jeffrey. "Dominant Battlespace Awareness and Future Warfare." In *Dominant Battlespace Knowledge*, online edition. Eds. Stuart Johnson and Martin Libicki. Washington, DC: National Defense University Press, 1996. URL: <http://198.80.36.91/ndu/inss/books/dbk/dbkch06.html>, accessed 27 February 1996.

09.10: CD-ROM: BOOK, NO AUTHOR LISTED. This citation shows a book with no listed author. If the book you access has an author listed, begin your citation with the author's name; the rest of the citation is the same format as this one.

NOTE: [10]*U.S. Atlas: The U.S. At Your Fingertips*, CD-ROM (Novato, CA: The Software Toolworks, Inc., 1990), accessed 22 February 1996.

BIB: *U.S. Atlas: The U.S. At Your Fingertips*. CD-ROM. Novato, CA: The Software Toolworks, Inc., 1990. Accessed 22 February 1996.

[In the footnote format, you will note that this CD has no page numbers. See the next example for one that does.]

09.11: BOOK REVIEW ON CD-ROM (ProQuest).

NOTE: [11]Review of *U.S. Intelligence at the Crossroads: An Agenda for Reform* by Ernest May, Roy Godson, and Gary Schmitt, in *Foreign Affairs* 74, no. 5 (September/October 1995): 167, CD-ROM, UMI-ProQuest, accessed 22 February 1996.

BIB: Review of *U.S. Intelligence at the Crossroads: An Agenda for Reform* by Ernest May, Roy Godson, and Gary Schmitt. In *Foreign Affairs* 74, no. 5 (September/October 1995): 167-168. CD-ROM, UMI-ProQuest, accessed 22 February 1996.

[Note the page number in the note format (167), and the inclusive pages (167-168) in the bibliographic entry, in a standard journal citation form. That is because the UMI-ProQuest system gives exact reproductions of its source documents, including their page numbers.]

10. EXPLANATORY NOTES

10.1: GENERAL. You might want to include information that seems important or interesting for your reader to know, but which does not seem to fit in the text of your paper or thesis. A good way to handle this sort of information is to write an explanatory note, also called a substantive or content note. Observe how the following student used this form.

10.2: PROVIDING ADDITIONAL INFORMATION. In his MSSI thesis, *The Irish Republican Movement: Historical Basis for American Support* (Defense Intelligence College, 1987), Captain Timothy P. O'Reilly, USMC, discusses the ethnic solidarity of Irish Americans in early 20th century America:

TEXT: Even so, the American-Irish held fast to their ethnicity, if only to participate in the festivities surrounding St. Patrick's Day or to join in the chorus of one of the many "Irish" melodies to come out of "Tin Pan Alley."[1]

[O'Reilly then uses an explanatory note to provide additional information showing the interconnectivity of Irish and American ethnic identities:]

NOTE: [1]Most of the popular songs that Americans believe to be Irish were actually written by U.S. publishing houses in an area known as "Tin Pan Alley" in the early 1900s. Among these are "Peg O' My Heart," "Too-ra-loo-ra-loo-ral," "When Irish Eyes Are Smiling," "Mother Machree," and several others.

[While this additional information is not significant enough to put in the text, it provides a point of interest and shows that O'Reilly has researched the cultural as well as the political factors that have contributed to American support for the IRA. Notice also that the note is set in a smaller font size than the text. Follow that guideline if your word processor supports it.]

10.3: PROVIDING OTHER RELEVANT SOURCES. You might want to use an explanatory note to refer your reader to other relevant sources. Samuel P. Huntington, in his article "Coping With the Lippman Gap," refers readers in this note to other writers who have discussed Lippman's view of foreign policy balance:[1]

NOTE: [2]For other discussions of the Lippman gap problem see Joseph S. Nye Jr., "U.S. Power and Reagan Policy," *Orbis* (Summer 1982): 391-411; Jeffrey Record, *Revising U.S. Military Strategy: Tailoring Means to Ends* (Washington, DC: Pergamon-Brassey, 1984); Eliot A. Cohen, "When Policy Outstrips Power," *The Public Interest* (Spring 1984): 3-19; and David C. Hendrickson, *The Future of American Strategy* (New York: Holmes and Meier, 1987).

[Note the use of semicolons between sources. Explanatory notes also may be used to define terms or to provide additional commentary that does not fit into the text of your paper. If you find an explanatory note growing to the size of a hefty paragraph, chances are you have developed a main point that may deserve its own place in the text of your paper. Use explanatory notes sparingly, and do not yield to the temptation to include really useless information that you have come across. This may seem obvious, but there is a scholarly compulsion to want to include as much as possible of what one has dug up in the research process. Successful writing draws some of its strength from selectivity, so be selective in writing the text of your paper and in your use of explanatory notes.]

[See also Section 24, "Multiple Sources in One Note," page 212.]

[1]*Foreign Affairs* 66, no.3 (1988): 454.

11. FILMS AND OTHER NONPRINT SOURCES

11.1: GENERAL. A useful reference is the *Educational Film Locator of the Consortium of University Film Centers and R. R. Bowker Co.* (New York: R. R. Bowker). The latest edition of *The Video Source Book* (Syosset, NY: National Video Clearinghouse, Inc.) also provides a substantial listing of videos on international relations topics. Since so many varieties of nonprint materials are available, it is impossible to cover them all here. We offer samples of the most frequently used: films, videocassettes, and television programs. Use common abbreviations as shown. Electronic media such as the World Wide Web and other online data bases are covered under Section 09, "Electronic Citations." For a radio broadcast, use the same format as a television program, below. [**NOTE:** To cite a ***transcript*** of a nonprint source, use the format shown under "Audio Recordings" for transcripts.]

11.2: FILMS.

NOTE: [1]*Satellite in the Sky*, prod. Edward J. Danziger and Harry Lee Danziger, dir. Paul Dickson, Warner Bros., 1956.

BIB: *Satellite in the Sky*. Prod. Edward J. Danziger and Harry Lee Danziger. Dir. Paul Dickson. Warner Bros., 1956.

11.3: VIDEOCASSETTES.

NOTE: [2]*Red Flag*, prod. Rick Gortright, dir. Steve Zink, 46 min., McGraw-Hill, 1987, videocassette.

BIB: *Red Flag*. Prod. Rick Gortright, dir. Steve Zink. 46 min. McGraw-Hill, 1987. Videocassette.

[Also see 17.2, page 204, for speeches on videotape.]

11.4: TELEVISION PROGRAMS.

NOTE: [3]W. Scott Malone and Stephanie Tepper, prods., "The Spy Who Broke the Code," *Frontline*, narr. Lary Lewman, PBS, 10 February 1989.

BIB: Malone, W. Scott, and Stephanie Tepper, prods. "The Spy Who Broke the Code." *Frontline*. Narr. Lary Lewman. PBS, 10 February 1989.

12. INDIRECT (SECONDARY) REFERENCES

12.1: GENERAL. It is always a good idea to go directly to a source rather than to quote that source from someone else's work. Occasionally, however, you might need to quote or cite one author as found in another author's work. For example, the work cited by an author might be out of print. In that case you must provide information on both the original and your own source, in both the note and the bibliographic entry. If at all possible, though, the thorough researcher will secure the original.

12.2: BOOK (OR REPORT) CITED IN A BOOK. In this example the student is citing a source that she found on page 116 of Summers' book. The original source, Admiral Sharp's report, had the information on page 6. Note that full publication data are given for both sources. Note also that the bibliographic entry treats Summers' book as a unit, with elements of the citation separated by commas instead of periods, and publication data enclosed in parentheses.

NOTE: [1]Admiral U.S.G. Sharp, USN, "Report on Air and Naval Campaigns Against North Vietnam and Pacific Command-wide Support of the War, June 1964 - July 1968," *Report on the War in Vietnam* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1968), 6, quoted in Harry G. Summers Jr., *On Strategy: A Critical Analysis of the Vietnam War* (Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1982), 116.

BIB: Sharp, U.S.G., Admiral, USN. "Report on Air and Naval Campaigns Against North Vietnam and Pacific Command-wide Support of the War, June 1964 - July 1968." *Report on the War in Vietnam.* Washington, DC: GPO, 1968, 6. Quoted in Harry G. Summers Jr., *On Strategy: A Critical Analysis of the Vietnam War* (Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1982), 116.

12. *INDIRECT (SECONDARY) REFERENCES, continued*

12.3: LECTURE, CITED IN A BOOK. Note that these forms emphasize Kennan's ***lecture***, and not Gaddis's book, in which the lecture was cited. In the bibliographic entry, cite the inclusive pages where the lecture is quoted.

NOTE: [3]George Kennan, lecture presented at the National War College, 18 December 1947, quoted in John Louis Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar National Security Policy* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982), 42.

BIB: Kennan, George. Lecture presented at the National War College, 18 December 1947. Quoted in John Louis Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar National Security Policy* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982), 42-43.

13. INFORMATION SERVICES

13.1: **GENERAL.** The Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS, often pronounced "fibbis") translates spoken and written messages, and the Joint Publications Research Service (JPRS, or "jeepers") provides translations of print media. The information needed to cite both FBIS and JPRS reports is found in the paragraph headings prior to the translated text. Entries should include: personal author, FBIS-assigned title, a word indicating whether the translation is complete (text) or portions (excerpts), city and source of original document, volume, date, and page. The second part of the citation lists information on the FBIS/JPRS report itself: name, report number, date, location notes, and page. Unless noted to the contrary, it is assumed that FBIS entries have been translated or extracted by the Foreign Broadcast Information Service. Consult the title page or report cover to locate information needed for the second part of the citation. Separate examples for JPRS publications are not shown in this section, because they are cited in exactly the same manner as FBIS reports.

13.2: FBIS NEWSPAPER REPORTS, AUTHOR NAMED.

NOTE: [1]A. Vasilyev, "U.S. Advantages, 'Islamic Factor' in Gulf War" (text), in Moscow *Izvestiya* (22 February 1988), 5. *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 24 February 1988 (FBIS-SOV-88-036, 27).

BIB: Vasilyev, A. "U.S. Advantages, 'Islamic Factor' in Gulf War" (text). In Moscow *Izvestiya* (22 February 1988), 5. *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 24 February 1988. FBIS-SOV-88-036, 27.

[You may abbreviate "FBIS" throughout. This article was found on page 5 of the newspaper Izvestiya, and on page 27 of the FBIS Daily Report. Alphabetize by personal author's last name, as above. When no author is named, as in the following examples, alphabetize by the title of the item, disregarding initial articles "a," "an," or "the." If you use FBIS on microfiche or any other electronic medium, list applicable reference numbers, as shown in the next example.]

13. INFORMATION SERVICES, continued

13.3: FBIS NEWSPAPER REPORTS, NO AUTHOR NAMED.

NOTE: [2]"*Pravda* Reports Tightening Up At Ministry" (text), in Moscow *Pravda* (30 November 1982), 4-5. *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 4 January 1983 (GPO Microfiche: PrEx 7.10: FBIS-SOV-83-002, S-4.)

BIB: "*Pravda* Reports Tightening Up At Ministry" (text). In Moscow *Pravda* (30 November 1982), 4-5. *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 4 January 1983. GPO Microfiche: PrEx 7.10: FBIS-SOV-83-002, S-4.

[In this version the title of the article replaces the author. The note citation was taken from pages 4 and 5, and the FBIS Daily Report was read on Sheet 4 (S-4) of the microfiche edition cited.]

13.4: FBIS TELEVISION/RADIO BROADCAST REPORTS.

NOTE: [3]"'Chill' in Sino-U.S. Relations Noted" (text), OW200333 Moscow Radio Peace and Progress, 1300 GMT (19 February 1988). *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 24 February 1988 (FBIS-SOV-88-036, 18.)

BIB: "'Chill' in Sino-U.S. Relations Noted" (text). OW200333 Moscow Radio Peace and Progress. 1300 GMT, 19 February 1988. *FBIS Daily Report--Soviet Union*, 24 February 1988. FBIS-SOV-88-036, 18.

[Note that broadcast reports are very similar to print reports. The key that identifies the broadcast is the Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) when the broadcast aired, in this case 1300 hours on 19 February 1988. This written account of the broadcast is found on page 18 of the FBIS report.]

13. INFORMATION SERVICES, continued

13.5: FBIS IN SAFE. FBIS reports are available in message form through the "SAFE" system on selected computer terminals in the College. When you use SAFE to retrieve FBIS reports, cite them as shown in the following example. The date-time group at the end of the citation is that of the SAFE message, and is sufficient to show your source.

NOTE: [4]"AFP Cites Interfax on Authorities' Plans to Regain Control" (text), AU2701155591 Paris AFP, 1108GMT (27 January 1991). FBIS Vienna AU, SAFE 271555Z January 1991.

BIB: "AFP Cites Interfax on Authorities' Plans to Regain Control" (text). AU2701155591 Paris AFP. 1108GMT 27 January 1991. FBIS Vienna AU. SAFE 271555Z January 1991.

13.6: WIRE SERVICES. If you have obtained materials through information services such as Associated Press (AP), Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), LEXIS-NEXIS, National Technical Information Service (NTIS), or Reuter, handle them exactly like first references to the original printed material. If the material from these services has ***not*** been previously published, then handle it according to Section 29, "Theses and Other Unpublished Papers." Follow the end of these entries with the name of the information service you used, the date you retrieved the information, and the service's accession number or other identifying numbers, if any (for example, ERIC, ED 123456). Notice that there is no page number cited, because page numbers in this type of material vary depending upon the item's place in the queue of your electronic query.

NOTE: [5]Jeff Berliner, "Russia Warns Against 'Spy Mania,'" UPI, International Section, 23 February 1994 (LEXIS-NEXIS, 2 June 1996).

BIB: Berliner, Jeff. "Russia Warns Against 'Spy Mania.'" UPI, International Section, 23 February 1994. LEXIS-NEXIS, 2 June 1996.

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS

14.1: GENERAL. You might find yourself using documents issued by international organizations such as the United Nations, the European Community, the Organization of American States, or NATO. ***International documents*** may be defined as "the publications and documents of international intergovernmental organizations. ***Not*** included in this category are publications of nongovernmental international organizations or those of national governments."[2] Only designated libraries have international documents; therefore, you might want to check to see if the library you plan to use is a repository for international documents.

14.2: CITATION INFORMATION. When you use international documents, always look for and record:

- the issuing agency
- the title of the document
- place of publication (or meeting place)
- publisher
- date
- document number, if available

[When citing international documents, do not use the acronym. Not everyone will readily remember that OECD stands for Organisation [sic] for Economic Cooperation and Development.]

- Give the name in full.

[In citing multilingual organizations, remember the following:]

- Be consistent. Do not flip-flop between Organization of American States and *Organizacion de los Estados Americanos.* Choose one and stick with it.

- If you are writing in English, use English titles.

- Do not make your own translations; use the *Yearbook of International Organizations* for an approved translation.

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[2]Diane L. Garner and Diane H. Smith, *The Complete Guide to Citing Government Documents: A Manual for Writers and Librarians* (Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service, Inc., 1984), 87.

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, *continued*

14.3: TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS.

Cite the title, the parties to the agreement, the date of signing, and the *Treaties and Other International Acts Series* (TIAS) number. This series publishes treaties since 1950. Treaties prior to 1950 may be located in *Statutes at Large*, in the Treaty Series and Executive Agreement Series of the Department of State, and in the Treaty Series of the League of Nations.

NOTE: [1]Department of State, "Defense: Assistance and Training," 25 February 1977, TIAS no. 10559, *United States Treaties and Other International Agreements* 34, pt. 3, 12.

BIB: Department of State. "Defense: Assistance and Training," 25 February 1977. TIAS no. 10559. *United States Treaties and Other International Agreements* 34, pt. 3.

14.4: UNITED NATIONS DOCUMENTS.

United Nations official records generally include three types: meetings, supplements, and annexes (administrative records). Be sure to cite any subgroup of the United Nations umbrella organization (there are many), the session number, committee number (if applicable), the title of the document, date, and organizational number, if available.

14.4a: Meetings.

NOTE: [2]United Nations General Assembly, 42d session, Sixth Committee, *Summary Record of the 14th Meeting: Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Drafting of an International Convention Against the Recruitment, Use, Financing and Training of Mercenaries,* 6 October 1987, Official Record, A/C.6/42/SR.14, 10.

[Note the UN Document number placed just before the page number.]

BIB: United Nations General Assembly. 42d session. Sixth Committee. *Summary Record of the 14th Meeting: Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Drafting of an International Convention Against the Recruitment, Use, Financing and Training of Mercenaries.* 6 October 1987. Official Record. A/C.6/42/SR.14.

[Also see 09.6, page 182, for UN documents accessed on-line.]

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, continued

14.4: UNITED NATIONS DOCUMENTS, continued.

14.4b: Supplements.

NOTE: [3]United Nations Security Council, 41st session, Official Records, Special Supplement 1, *Report on the Trusteeship Council of the Pacific Islands,* S/18238, 12 July 1985-30 June 1986, 4.

BIB: United Nations Security Council. 41st session. Official Records, Special Supplement 1. *Report on the Trusteeship Council of the Pacific Islands,* S/18238. 12 July 1985-30 June 1986.

[If you use reproduced documents that have not yet become a part of the Official Record, indicate the medium by (Repro) at the end of the citation. For example, if the above document were reproduced and not yet part of the Official Records, delete "Official Records" and place "(Repro)" after the UN Document number.]

14.5: UNESCO DOCUMENTS. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) issues myriad reports and convenes many conferences and symposia. A useful guide to these documents is the *UNESCO List of Documents and Publications* (New York: UNIPUB). In the following examples, note two important pieces of information: (1) the location of the meeting place, and (2) the availability of the document on microfiche and its microfiche number.

14.5a: Symposia.

NOTE: [4]United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *The Right to Be Different: An Explanatory Proposal for the Creation of a New Human Right,* Symposium on New Human Rights: The Rights of Solidarity, Mexico City, 23 May 1980, 50 (Microfiche 80s1101).

BIB: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. *The Right to Be Different: An Explanatory Proposal for the Creation of a New Human Right.* Symposium on New Human Rights: The Rights of Solidarity. Mexico City, 23 May 1980. Microfiche 80s1101.

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, continued

14.5: UNESCO DOCUMENTS, continued.

14.5b: Reports.

NOTE: [5]United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *UNESCO's Contribution to the Development of the Cooperation in the Europe Region and to the Implementation of the Relevant Provisions of the Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe: Report*, Madrid, 1980, 25 (Microfiche 81s0033).

[In the following bibliographic entry, note that it is acceptable to shorten long documents titles; the same may be done in note forms. If you do so, however, retain enough information to indicate the relevance of the source to your research project. Show omissions with ellipses (. . .).]

BIB: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. *UNESCO's Contribution to . . . the Implementation . . . of the Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe: Report*. Madrid, 1980. Microfiche 81s0033.

14.6: EUROPEAN COMMUNITY. Within the European Community are parliamentary bodies similar to the United Nations General Assembly, which meet, debate, and pass resolutions, but which do not have legislative power. If you plan to use documents issued by the various subgroups of the European Community, a useful reference is John Jeffries' *A Guide to the Official Publications of the European Community* (New York: Facts on File). Publications potentially useful to your work include:

- *The Official Journal of the European Community*: texts of official announcements.

- COM (Commission) and SEC (Secretary-General) Documents: interim reports that might be useful if your research project is "hot" and likely to be immediately affected by European Community activities.

- *Working Documents of the European Parliament.*

- *Debates: Report of Proceedings.*

- *European Parliament Bulletin.*

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, continued

14.6: EUROPEAN COMMUNITY DOCUMENTS, continued.

NOTE: [6]European Community, Council of Europe, "European Agreement on Transfer of Responsibility for Refugees," *European Treaty Series*, no. 17, Strasbourg, October 1980, 7.

[Note the subgroup listed--Council of Europe--and the name of the series and series number. Sometimes documents are listed by series name only, so always include it when available.]

BIB: European Community, Council of Europe. "European Agreement on Transfer of Responsibility for Refugees." *European Treaty Series*. No. 17. Strasbourg, October 1980.

NOTE: [7]European Community, Commission, *An Ever Closer Union: A Critical Analysis of the Draft Treaty Establishing the European Union*, by Edward Bieber and others, European Perspective Series, Florence, 1985, 340.

[Note again the subgroup--Commission of the EC--and the inclusion of the series name. Note also the personal author, listed <u>after</u> the document's title.]

BIB: European Community, Commission. *An Ever Closer Union: A Critical Analysis of the Draft Treaty Establishing the European Union*. By Edward Bieber and others. European Perspective Series. Florence, 1985.

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, continued

14.7: ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES.

NOTE: [8]Organization of American States, General Secretariat, *Report on the Situation of Human Rights in the Republic of Guatemala* (Washington, DC: 1983), OEA/SER.L/V/11.61, Doc. 47, rev. 1, 2.

BIB: Organization of American States, General Secretariat. *Report on the Situation of Human Rights in the Republic of Guatemala*. Washington, DC: 1983. OEA/SER.L/V/11.61, Doc. 47, rev. 1.

NOTE: [9]Organization of American States, General Secretariat, "Admission of the State of Saint Christopher and Nevis As a Member of the Organization of American States," in *Acts and Documents of the General Assembly*, Second Plenary Session, 12 March 1984 (Washington, DC: OAS, 1984), OEA/Ser.P/XI-E, 21.

BIB: Organization of American States, General Secretariat. "Admission of the State of Saint Christopher and Nevis As a Member of the Organization of American States." In *Acts and Documents of the General Assembly*, Second Plenary Session, 12 March 1984. Washington, DC: OAS, 1984. OEA/Ser.P/XI-E.

[In citing an OAS document, be sure to list the subgroup within the OAS (General Secretariat), the title of the document, the OAS publication within which the document can be found, the session number of the General Assembly and date, and the SuDoc number (OEA/Ser.P/XI-E), as shown in the example.]

14. INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS, continued

14.8: NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION (NATO).

NOTE: [10]North Atlantic Treaty Organization, *NATO and the Warsaw Pact: Force Comparisons* (Brussels: NATO Information Service, 1984), 43.

BIB: North Atlantic Treaty Organization. *NATO and the Warsaw Pact: Force Comparisons*. Brussels: NATO Information Service, 1984.

[Although many NATO documents are published in Belgium by the NATO Information Service, many are not. Always check the publishing information for international organizations. Do not assume that all publications issue from the organization's headquarters. Look at the following example.]

NOTE: [11]North Atlantic Treaty Organization, Information Directorate, *Reagan's Leadership and the Atlantic Alliance: View from Europe and America*, ed. Walter Goldstein (Washington, DC: Pergamon-Brassey, 1986), 97.

BIB: North Atlantic Treaty Organization, Information Directorate. *Reagan's Leadership and the Atlantic Alliance: Views from Europe and America*. Ed. Walter Goldstein. Washington, DC: Pergamon-Brassey, 1986.

[Note that a specific subgroup within NATO, the Information Directorate, is listed here; note also that Pergamon-Brassey published this NATO product.]

15. INTERVIEWS

15.1: PUBLISHED INTERVIEWS. In the first citation example below, emphasis is on Daniel Ellsberg, the person interviewed. The second example shows that the article was written by Maurice Schmitt, the interviewer. Most of the time you will probably want to emphasize the person being interviewed rather than the interviewer.

NOTE: [1]Daniel Ellsberg, "Nuclear Security and the Soviet Collapse," interview by Richard Caplan and Jerry Saunders in *World Policy Journal* 7, no. 4 (Winter 1991-1992): 140.

BIB: Ellsberg, Daniel. "Nuclear Security and the Soviet Collapse." Interview by Richard Caplan and Jerry Saunders. In *World Policy Journal* 7, no. 4 (Winter 1991-1992): 135-156.

NOTE: [2]Maurice Schmitt, "An Inside View of the French Army: Interview with the Chief of Staff of the French Army," *Military Technology*, August 1987, 33.

BIB: Schmitt, Maurice. "An Inside View of the French Army: Interview with the Chief of Staff of the French Army." *Military Technology*, August 1987, 31-34.

15.2: UNPUBLISHED INTERVIEWS. Each time you conduct an interview, obtain the interviewee's full name and its correct spelling. Record in your notes the date of the interview, and transcribe your notes as soon as possible after the interview.

NOTE: [3]Charles Peacock, research analyst at U.S. Department of State, interview by author, 27 March 1995.

BIB: Peacock, Charles. Research analyst at U.S. Department of State. Interview by author, 27 March 1995.

[This form shows that you interviewed the subject in person. If, however, you interviewed by telephone, include the word "telephone" before "interview." If you "interview" someone by e-mail, include the word "e-mail" before "interview." If you consider the location of the interview important, include it between the word "author" and the date, set off by commas: interview by author, Berlin, 27 March 1995. If your source prefers to remain anonymous, use the entry that follows, and alphabetize it in your bibliography under S.]

15.3: UNPUBLISHED INTERVIEWS, ANONYMOUS SOURCE.

Be careful not to overuse this type of citation. As you might expect, a reader will doubt the veracity of a paper based on numerous "unnamed sources."

NOTE: [4]A source, mid-level intelligence professional at a national intelligence organization, who wishes to remain anonymous, interview by author, 27 March 1996.

BIB: A source, mid-level intelligence professional at a national intelligence organization, who wishes to remain anonymous. Interview by author, 27 March 1996.

16. JOINT CHIEFS OF STAFF (JCS) PUBLICATIONS

16.1: GENERAL. These products, as the name suggests, are official publications of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Always cite the Joint Pub number when it is given.

NOTE: [1]Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Pub 1-02, *Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1 December 1989), under the word "analysis."

[This publication is widely referred to as "JCS Pub 1." No page number is required in the citation, because it is treated as a dictionary-style entry.]

BIB: Joint Chiefs of Staff. Joint Pub 1-02. *Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms*. Washington, DC: GPO, 1 December 1989.

NOTE: [2]Joint Chiefs of Staff, Joint Pub 2-0, *Joint Doctrine for Intelligence Support to Operations* (Washington, DC: GPO, 12 October 1993), IV-20.

BIB: Joint Chiefs of Staff. Joint Pub 2-0. *Joint Doctrine for Intelligence Support to Operations*. Washington, DC: GPO, 12 October 1993.

NOTE: [3]Joint Chiefs of Staff, *National Military Strategy of the United States of America*, n.p., 1995.

[In this entry, "n.p." means that no publication data are provided. It might be <u>assumed</u> that it is published by the JCS or the GPO, but the information in the citation is already sufficient for a reader to identify the document.]

BIB: Joint Chiefs of Staff. *National Military Strategy of the United States of America*. N.p., 1995.

17. LECTURES AND SPEECHES

17.1: LECTURES. Use this form for briefings as well. The following citation tells your reader that you attended the lecture. If, however, you read it in a printed or published form, follow the section for a published interview, or use a form similar to a published paper under Section 04, "Conference Proceedings."

NOTE: [1]John Darby, "Economic and Social Issues in the Northern Ireland Conflict," lecture presented at the U.S. Department of State Center for the Study of Foreign Affairs, Washington, DC, 4 December 1994.

BIB: Darby, John. "Economic and Social Issues in the Northern Ireland Conflict." Lecture presented at the U.S. Department of State Center for the Study of Foreign Affairs. Washington, DC, 4 December 1994.

17.2: SPEECHES. The form below shows that you viewed a speech on videotape. If you attended in person, simply omit the reference to the videotape and its location. If you read a published version of the speech, locate the appropriate form in Section 04, "Conference Proceedings"; in Section 17.3, "Defense Issues"; or in Section 17.4, "Vital Speeches of the Day."

NOTE: [2]Lt Gen James R. Clapper Jr., USAF (Ret.), speech presented at the Joint Military Intelligence College Commencement Ceremony, Washington, DC, 8 September 1995, videotape, John T. Hughes Library.

BIB: Clapper, James R. Jr., Lt Gen, USAF (Ret.). Speech presented at the Joint Military Intelligence College Commencement Ceremony, Washington, DC, 8 September 1995. Videotape, John T. Hughes Library.

17.3: DEFENSE ISSUES. This publication by the Office of the Assistant to the Secretary of Defense (Public Affairs) prints the text of selected speeches given by high-ranking DoD officials. *Defense Issues* also is available on the Internet. Use the citation below when you are working from the published (paper) document; if your source is the Internet, see "Electronic Citations."

NOTE: [3]General Ronald R. Fogelman, Chief of Staff USAF, "Information Operations: The Fifth Dimension of Warfare," remarks delivered to the Armed Forces Communications-Electronics Association," Washington, DC, 25 April 1995, printed in *Defense Issues* 10, no. 47 (Washington, DC: DoD, 1995): 2.

BIB: Fogelman, Ronald R., General, Chief of Staff USAF. "Information Operations: The Fifth Dimension of Warfare." Remarks delivered to the Armed Forces Communications-Electronics Association, Washington, DC, 25 April 1995. Printed in *Defense Issues* 10, no. 47, Washington, DC: DoD, 1995.

17.4: VITAL SPEECHES OF THE DAY. *Vital Speeches* contains the text of speeches by prominent U.S. and foreign officials. Most information you need for the citation is given in the heading of the speech. If that heading includes the words "as prepared for delivery" (the example below) or "as delivered," then include those words in your citation. Advance transcripts of speeches are often provided to media services, and they occasionally differ from the version actually delivered. It is important that you differentiate between an advance text and the official transcript. Note the placement of the date the speech was scheduled to be given (23 January 1996) and the date of the publication (15 February 1996).

NOTE: [4]William J. Clinton, President of the United States, "State of the Union 1996: The Age of Possibility," as prepared for delivery to a Joint Session of Congress, 23 January 1996, printed in *Vital Speeches of the Day* 62, no. 9 (15 February 1996): 260.

BIB: Clinton, William J., President of the United States. "State of the Union 1996: The Age of Possibility." As prepared for delivery to a Joint Session of Congress, 23 January 1996. Printed in *Vital Speeches of the Day* 62, no. 9 (15 February 1996): 258-263.

18. LEGAL MATERIAL

18.1: GENERAL: Court cases, statutes, and legal periodicals follow a style of their own. If a researcher wants to look up a decision, it must be cited as the legal profession would cite the case. If this style is not followed, it is doubtful that a researcher could locate the desired work. Consult a legal librarian for questions not answered here. The expertise of the Writing Center is limited. We are grateful to Maj John L. Gezelius, USAFR--a lawyer in civilian life--for providing us this documentation.

18.2: CASES. The note citation below refers to a quotation taken from page 147 of 391 U.S. 145. The "391 U.S. 145" refers to the location of the case: in volume 391 of the official U.S. reporter, starting on page 145. Each court has its own official reporter, so a researcher should consult a legal librarian if there is any doubt as to the official reporter. The citations following (88 S. Ct. 1444, 20 L.Ed.2d 491) are called parallel citations and identify other reporters where the decision is published. If the parallel citations are known, cite them as well.

NOTE: [1]*Duncan v. Louisiana* 391 U.S. 145, 88 S. Ct. 1444, 20 L.Ed.2d 491 (1968), 147.

BIB: *Duncan v. Louisiana* 391 U.S. 145, 88 S. Ct. 1444, 20 L.Ed.2d 491 (1968).

18.3: STATUTES. The United States Code (U.S.C.) is cited as Title, U.S.C., and section (§). Thus a correct citation would be, for example, 42 U.S.C. § 1892. If your word processor or printer does not have the "section" symbol (§), spell out the word or use the abbreviation sec. In WordPerfect, the section symbol is produced by holding the Alt key down and keying the number 21--on the numbers pad, ***not*** on the row of numbers at the top of the keyboard.

18.4: LEGAL PERIODICALS. Legal periodicals such as law reviews follow the same citation rules as cases. The front page of the review should indicate how it is to be cited. If in doubt, check with a law librarian.

19. "LOOSELEAF" MATERIAL

19.1: GENERAL. Some publications--manuals, guidelines, regulations, and standards, for example--come in looseleaf format so that they can be easily updated. When citing them, be sure to indicate "Looseleaf" in the citation, and provide as much information as possible so your reader can find your source. See the example below.

NOTE: [1]Department of Defense, Fleet Marine Force, *Counterintelligence* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1983), Looseleaf: D 214.9/4:2-4/3, S/N 008-055-00164-1, 97.

[In this example, note that the SuDoc number (D 214.9/4:2-4/3) ***and the series number*** (S/N 008-055-00164-1) ***are included.]***

BIB: Department of Defense, Fleet Marine Force. *Counterintelligence*. Washington, DC: GPO, 1983. Looseleaf: D 214.9/4:2-4/3. S/N 008-055-00164-1.

20. MANUALS, PAMPHLETS, AND BROCHURES

[NOTE: For Joint Chiefs of Staff materials, see section 16, "JCS Publications."]

20.1: MANUALS.

NOTE: [1]Field Manual (FM) 34-1, *Intelligence and Electronic Warfare Operations* (Washington, DC: Department of the Army, July 1987), 27.

BIB: Field Manual (FM) 34-1. *Intelligence and Electronic Warfare Operations*. Washington, DC: Department of the Army. July 1987.

20.2: PAMPHLETS.

NOTE: [2]U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) Pamphlet 525-44, *U.S. Army Operational Concept for Low-Intensity Conflict* (Fort Monroe, VA: U.S. Army TRADOC, 10 February 1986), foreword.

BIB: U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) Pamphlet 525-44. *U.S. Army Operational Concept for Low-Intensity Conflict*. Fort Monroe, VA: U.S. Army TRADOC. 10 February 1986.

20.3: BROCHURES. **Brochures are often short, glossy, three- or four-fold handouts designed as attention-getters or used for advertising. Occasionally they have little or no information on the date of publication or the publisher. In the example below it might be surmised that the JMIC or its parent agency (the Defense Intelligence Agency, DIA) is the publisher, and from reading the contents it could be assumed that it was published in 1996; but rather than engage in such speculation, cite "n.d." for no date and "n.p." for no publisher.**

NOTE: [3]Joint Military Intelligence College (JMIC), Brochure, *Graduate Education in Intelligence*, n.p., n.d.

BIB: Joint Military Intelligence College (JMIC). Brochure. *Graduate Education in Intelligence*. N.p., n.d.

21. MAPS

21.1: GENERAL. You need not cite standard base maps that you use in your papers as a reference for the reader. If, however, you extract ***information*** from a map and use it in a paper, cite the map as shown below. Include the producer, the date, and any marginal data from the map sheet that will help the reader identify it.

NOTE: [1]Defense Mapping Agency, Hydrographic Center, "Sailing Directions (Enroute) for the Caribbean Sea," map (Washington, DC: GPO, 1976).

BIB: Defense Mapping Agency, Hydrographic Center. "Sailing Directions (Enroute) for the Caribbean Sea." Map. Washington, DC: GPO, 1976.

22. MICROFICHE

22.1: GENERAL. The citation shown is for information taken from one of the DIA Library's microfiche collections. Adapt that format to your own source. The "+" sign in the note form tells you that the information extracted came from pages 1 through 10 and various other non-consecutive pages.

NOTE: [1]Geraldine O'Leary de Macias, "The Nicaraguan Labor Movement: Pre- and Post-FSLN," unpublished research paper (draft) in the DIA Library microfiche collection of the National Security Archives, fiche no. 02468 of *Nicaragua: The Making of U.S. Policy, 1978-1990*, 7 May 1985, 1-10+.

BIB: O'Leary de Macias, Geraldine. "The Nicaraguan Labor Movement: Pre- and Post-FSLN." Unpublished research paper (draft) in the DIA Library microfiche collection of the National Security Archives. Fiche no. 02468 of *Nicaragua: The Making of U.S. Policy, 1978-1990*. 7 May 1985.

23. MONOGRAPHS

23.1: GENERAL. Monographs are documents that vary in length from essays to book length. They usually focus on a specific topic that is limited in its scope.

NOTE: [1]Ronald D. Garst, *Intelligence Types: The Role of Personality in the Intelligence Profession*, Monograph (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, August 1993), 30-31.

BIB: Garst, Ronald D. *Intelligence Types: The Role of Personality in the Intelligence Profession.* Monograph. Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, August 1993.

NOTE: [2]Richard Suchenwirth, *Turning Points in the German Air Force War Effort*, U.S. Air Force Historical Division, Monograph No. 189 (New York: n.p., 1968), 36-28.

BIB: Suchenwirth, Richard. *Turning Points in the German Air Force War Effort.* U.S. Air Force Historical Division. Monograph No. 189. New York: n.p., 1968.

24. MULTIPLE SOURCES IN ONE NOTE

24.1: GENERAL. On occasion you may find it necessary to cite two or more sources in the same footnote or endnote. In addition, you may wish to add some explanation to a note. Either of those cases may be handled as shown below.[1] Note the semicolons between major entries in the first example. Note in the second example how Captain Ford uses a short citation for Wirtz's book, which he had cited fully in an earlier footnote.

A bibliographic entry is not shown for the examples because you must cite each item separately in the bibliography, using standard citation format.

NOTE: [1]Stanley Karnow, *Vietnam: A History* (New York: Penguin Books, 1991), 528-581; George C. Herring, *America's Longest War: The United States in Vietnam, 1950-1975* (New York: Knopf Publishers, 1986), 186-220; William S. Turley, *The Second Indochina War: A Short Political and Military History, 1954-1975* (New York: Westview Press, 1986), 99-119; and James J. Wirtz, *The Tet Offensive: Intelligence Failure in War* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1991).

NOTE: [2]For thoroughly researched and documented evidence that indicators of an impending communist attack were in the hands of allied intelligence prior to the Tet Offensive, see Wirtz, *The Tet Offensive;* Glen Helm, *The Tet 1968 Offensive: A Failure of Allied Intelligence,* MMAS Thesis (Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University, 1989); and Hoang Ngoc Lung, *The General Offensives of 1968-69* (Washington, DC: U.S. Army Center for Military History, 1981).

[See also 10.3, "Explanatory Notes," page 187.]

[1]Both examples are taken from Ronnie E. Ford, *Tet 1968: Understanding the Surprise,* MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, 1993).

25. PERIODICALS

25.1: POPULAR MAGAZINES. Popular magazines generally aim for mass audiences. Though many such magazines have volume and issue numbers, the date alone is sufficient for identification. If page numbers are not consecutive, indicate this with a plus sign: 46+, for example. Note also the inversion of the date.

NOTE: [1]Cathy Booth, "Caribbean Blizzard," *Time*, 26 February 1996, 47.

BIB: Booth, Cathy. "Caribbean Blizzard." *Time*, 26 February 1996, 46-48.

25.2: JOURNALS. There is no clear agreement among sources on how to define "journal" or how to distinguish a journal from a magazine. Journals usually target a well-defined readership such as military intelligence professionals, geographers, or stamp collectors. Popular magazines seek mass audiences but, on the other hand, so does *National Geographic*, which qualifies as a journal. Journals usually have volume numbers, and sometimes the pages are numbered sequentially by volume rather than by issue. A periodical with the word "Journal" in its title is almost always a journal; the same often holds true for those with "Review" in the title. Many journals, however, include neither of these words in their titles. If you are unsure whether you are dealing with a popular magazine or a journal, see your faculty advisor, thesis chair, or the Writing Center.

In the following example, "16" is the volume number; ***use Arabic numerals, even when source volume numbers are in Roman numerals.*** The inclusive page numbers of the article (27-32) also are needed for the bibliographic entry. The note form requires only the page number(s) where you found your information or from which you quoted. If the volume has no issue number, simply omit that information: 16 (Spring/Summer 1995): 27-32.

NOTE: [2]Jeffrey K. Harris, "Meeting the Challenge Then, Now, and Tomorrow: The National Reconnaissance Office Enters the 21st Century," *American Intelligence Journal* 16, no. 1 (Spring/Summer 1995): 27.

BIB: Harris, Jeffrey K. "Meeting the Challenge Then, Now, and Tomorrow: The National Reconnaissance Office Enters the 21st Century." *American Intelligence Journal* 16, no. 1 (Spring/Summer 1995): 27-32.

25.3: NEWSPAPERS. It is important to show all pertinent elements of a newspaper citation, to ensure that a reader can retrieve the item. If the article has a byline, cite it by the author. If it has no byline, cite it by title, and alphabetize accordingly in the bibliography. Because newspapers are often published in several editions, show that element of the citation if applicable. In the example below, the article is found in Section A on page 14 of the Final Edition.

NOTE: [3]Bill Gertz, "Missile Sanctions on China Vowed," *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A1.

BIB: Gertz, Bill. "Missile Sanctions on China Vowed." *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A1.

[If the article has no byline, use its title. See "Capitalization and Punctuation in Titles," page 151, for details on those subjects. You do not need to use the word "The" in the title of a newspaper, even though it is a part of the masthead. If you cite an article from a Sunday supplement (The Washington Post Magazine, for example) or from a special section (Weekend or Health), treat that entry like a popular magazine. For U.S. newspapers that are not well-known, insert the name of the city before the newspaper's title, and underline or italicize both, as shown in the first example below. If the city is not well-known, or if needed for clarity, give the state in parentheses.]

Example: *Springfield (MO) Independent*

[There are many "Springfields" in the United States. Add the state abbreviation for Missouri (MO) to ensure clarity.]

[For foreign newspapers, the city's name follows the name of the newspaper and is not underlined or italicized.]

Example: *Irish Daily Independent* (Dublin)

[Also see 09.5, page 181, for periodicals accessed on-line.]

25.4: EDITORIALS AND OP-ED PIECES. Editorials might be written by the editor-in-chief of a newspaper or another staff editor or writer. They seldom carry bylines but usually have a title. If the editorial has neither a byline nor a title, cite it as "Editorial," and alphabetize it accordingly in the bibliography. "Op-ed" (*op*posite *ed*itorial) pieces are commentary or opinion provided by columnists, many of whom are nationally syndicated, and a byline is common. Most elements for an editorial or op-ed piece remain the same as a standard newspaper article citation, but it should be distinguished as an editorial or commentary in your citation.

25.4a: Editorial.

NOTE: [4]"Growth and the Fed," editorial, *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A18.

BIB: "Growth and the Fed." Editorial. *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A18.

25.4b: Op-Ed or Commentary.

NOTE: [5]Alexey Khadyka, "As Belarus Goes, So Goes Russia," Op-Ed, *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A18.

BIB: Khadyka, Alexey. "As Belarus Goes, So Goes Russia." Op-Ed. *Washington Times*, 13 June 1996, Final Ed., A18.

25.5: MULTIPLE CITATIONS FROM THE SAME NEWSPAPER. If you use three or more articles from the same newspaper over a period of time, cite each article in its own footnote or endnote, but do not cite the individual articles in the bibliography. The first example below assumes that you used multiple citations from periodic issues of the *Washington Post*, from 13 February 1994 through 18 December 1996. Use the second example if the period of time is continuous.

BIB: *Washington Post*, 13-14 February 1994; 11-13 March 1995; and 18 December 1996.

BIB: *Washington Post*, 13 February 1994 - 18 December 1996.

26. RAND NOTES AND PUBLICATIONS

26.1: GENERAL. **Rand publications are handled like book citations, except that a Rand document number is also given. See the examples below.**

26.2: RAND NOTE.

NOTE: [1]Francis Fukuyama, *The Future of the Soviet Role in Afghanistan: A Trip Report*, Rand Note N-1579-RC (Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp., 1980), 27.

BIB: Fukuyama, Francis. *The Future of the Soviet Role in Afghanistan: A Trip Report*. Rand Note N-1579-RC. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp., 1980.

26.3: RAND PUBLICATION.

NOTE: [2]Edward Gonzalez, *A Strategy for Dealing with Cuba in the 1980s*, R-2954-DOS/AF (Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp., September 1982), 6.

BIB: Gonzalez, Edward. *A Strategy for Dealing with Cuba in the 1980s*. R-2954-DOS/AF. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp., September 1982.

27. REFERENCE WORKS

27.1: GENERAL. When you cite common reference books such as encyclopedias and dictionaries, omit information such as date and place of publication and the publisher. If the edition is other than the first, however, that fact must be noted. Cite the reference work followed by "under the word" or "under," as shown below. If you use an ***electronic*** version of a reference work (CD-ROM or Internet-accessible, for example), use the form shown in Section 09, "Electronic Citations."

27.2: DICTIONARY. The bibliographic entry below would be alphabetized under "R," disregarding the initial "The" in the title.

NOTE: [1]*The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, 2d ed., unabridged, under the word "intelligence."

BIB: *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*. 2d ed., unabridged. Under the word "intelligence."

27.3: ENCYCLOPEDIA. Note the spelling of "encyclop*ae*dia," retained in the title of the work below.

NOTE: [2]*Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 11th ed., under "Korea: History."

BIB: *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. 11th ed. Under "Korea: History."

28. STUDIES, UNCLASSIFIED

28.1: GENERAL. The examples cited here are fictitious, used only to illustrate the format. It is not necessary to show the publisher or place of publication for these kinds of documents. Do not mix classified and unclassified material in your bibliography. Classified sources must be handled appropriately and referenced in a separate bibliography with the heading "BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CLASSIFIED SOURCES."

28.2: AGENCY OR MAJOR HEADQUARTERS.

NOTE: [1]Defense Intelligence Agency, *Panaraguan Military Forces and Their Equipment*, Study, PCM-1350S-001-96, January 1996, 22.

BIB: Defense Intelligence Agency. *Panaraguan Military Forces and Their Equipment*. Study. PCM-1350S-001-96, January 1996.

28.3: PRODUCTS IN A SERIES, MULTIVOLUME WORKS, OR REPORTS.

NOTE: [2]U.S. Army Intelligence Threat and Analysis Center, *Cuba--Ground Forces*, Vol. 198 of *Army Intelligence Survey*, September 1994, 2-2.

BIB: U.S. Army Intelligence Threat and Analysis Center. *Cuba--Ground Forces*. Vol. 198 of *Army Intelligence Survey*, September 1994.

29. THESES AND OTHER UNPUBLISHED PAPERS

29.1: GENERAL. Be sure to acknowledge ***ALL*** sources, whether published or not. In the case of unpublished works, it is especially important to indicate to your reader the ***location*** of the document, along with the other citation information.

29.2: UNPUBLISHED THESIS.

NOTE: [1]CPT Erich V. Boerner, USA, *National Intelligence Support to the Warfighters: An Analysis of an Office in Transition,* MSSI Thesis (Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, May 1994), 13.

BIB: Boerner, Erich V., CPT, USA. *National Intelligence Support to the Warfighters: An Analysis of an Office in Transition.* MSSI Thesis. Washington, DC: Joint Military Intelligence College, May 1994.

29.3: UNPUBLISHED RESEARCH PAPER.

NOTE: [2]Center for Research and Development, "Prospects for Growth and Influence of Gulf Cooperation Council," unpublished research paper funded by DIA, Contract no. MDA908-83-C-1148, October 1983, 16.

BIB: Center for Research and Development. "Prospects for Growth and Influence of Gulf Cooperation Council." Unpublished research paper funded by DIA. Contract no. MDA908-83-C-1148. October 1983.

29.4: UNPUBLISHED PAPER PROVIDED BY A SOURCE. If a source gives you a paper with little if any identifying data, adapt the format below.

NOTE: [3]"North Korean Missiles," information paper, n.p., n.d., provided on 13 June 1996 by DIA/PAC-3 analyst John Jones, 5.

BIB: "North Korean Missiles." Information paper. N.p., n.d. Provided on 13 June 1996 by DIA/PAC-3 analyst John Jones.

30. UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

30.1: GENERAL. You are likely to encounter wide variations in form among government publications, and citing them properly can be a challenge. While we cannot cover all possible variants, we have included in this section the most common references. If the document you need to cite is not covered specifically, use a similar form. (For example, a Department of Energy document might be cited using the format for a CIA or Department of State publication.) If the publication is classified, see chapter 9 of this guide. Most federal depository libraries categorize federal documents by the Superintendent of Documents (SuDoc) system, so always give this number to help your reader locate such documents.

30.2: SOURCES LISTING GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS.

■ **Congressional Information Service (CIS)** annually publishes abstracts, indexes, and legislative histories of public laws, treaties, and hearings, and covers current House and Senate hearings.

■ The ***Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*** lists publications issued by all branches of the government, including both the congressional and the department and bureau publications. Each issue contains general instructions for ordering documents, in the event you are unable to get a document you need from local government depositories.

■ U.S. Department of State annually publishes ***Foreign Relations of the United States, Diplomatic Papers*** (Washington, DC: GPO). There you can see diplomatic correspondence exchanged between U.S. Government officials and foreign representatives.

■ The U.S. Department of State also publishes annually ***United States Treaties and Other International Agreements,*** which includes the terms of bilateral and multilateral treaties and other agreements between the U.S. and foreign powers. (See the section on "International Documents" for a treaty citation.)

■ ***American Foreign Policy Current Documents, [Year],*** issued by the State Department's Bureau of Public Affairs, Office of the Historian, provides substantial public information on foreign policy addresses, press conferences, congressional testimony, and other public releases by the executive branch of the government.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.3: GOVERNMENT AGENCY PUBLICATIONS. For documents issued by government agencies, cite the issuing agency ***first***, rather than a personal author. Note also that the SuDoc number comes before the page number in the note, and after the date in the bibliography.

NOTE: [1]Central Intelligence Agency, *Patterns of International Terrorism, 1980: A Research Paper* (Springfield, VA: National Technical Information Service, 1981), Microfiche PrEx 3.10/7: PA81-10163u, 19.

BIB: Central Intelligence Agency. *Patterns of International Terrorism, 1980: A Research Paper.* Springfield, VA: National Technical Information Service, 1981. Microfiche PrEx 3.10/7:PA81-10163u.

NOTE: [2]Department of Defense, *Report of the President's Commission on Strategic Forces* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1983), Pr 40.8:St8/St8, 14.

BIB: Department of Defense. *Report of the President's Commission on Strategic Forces.* Washington, DC: GPO, 1983. Pr 40.8:St 8/St8.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.4: MISCELLANEOUS GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS. You might see one of the following variations when citing government agencies:

30.4a: A document with more than one issuing agency, in which case you should cite only ***the first agency*** listed on the document. The following publication was issued jointly by the Central Intelligence Agency and the Department of State. Note that as a conference proceedings citation, it includes the location and date(s).

NOTE: [3]Central Intelligence Agency, *Contemporary Soviet Propaganda and Disinformation: A Conference Report*, Airlie, VA, 25-27 June 1985 (Washington, DC: GPO, 1987), S.1.2.S08/10, 312.

BIB: Central Intelligence Agency. *Contemporary Soviet Propaganda and Disinformation: A Conference Report*. Airlie, VA, 25-27 June 1985. Washington, DC: GPO, 1987. S.1.2.S08/10.

30.4b: A document from an agency that is composed of many bureaucratic levels, in which case you should list the "umbrella" department and the lowest-level agency given. The example below designates the Bureau of Public Affairs as the issuing level within the State Department, and it also shows an example of a document that is part of a special series (in this case the State Department's General Foreign Policy Series):

NOTE: [4]U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Public Affairs, "Joint U.S.-Soviet Communique in Connection with the Signing of the Salt II Treaty," *Vienna Summit*, issued at Vienna on 18 June 1979, General Foreign Policy Series 316, Publication 8985 (Washington, DC: Dept. of State, 1979), 6.

BIB: U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Public Affairs. "Joint U.S.-Soviet Communique in Connection with the Signing of the Salt II Treaty." *Vienna Summit*, issued at Vienna on 18 June 1979. General Foreign Policy Series 316, Publication 8985. Washington, DC: Dept. of State, 1979.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.5: CONGRESSIONAL DOCUMENTS, GENERAL.

If you are citing a ***joint*** Congressional Committee document, then you must use "U.S. Congress, Joint Committee on . . . ." Always provide the number and session of Congress and, whenever possible, the SuDoc number. You need not list "Washington, DC: GPO" as the publication data; that is understood.

30.5a: Example of a joint Congressional document.

NOTE: [5]U.S. Congress, Joint hearings, *Senate Select Committee on Secret Military Assistance to Iran and the Nicaraguan Opposition* and *House Select Committee to Investigate Covert Arms Transactions with Iran*, 100th Cong., 1st sess., 17 November 1987, S. Rept. 100-216 and H. Rept. 100-433, 500.

BIB: U.S. Congress, Joint hearings. *Senate Select Committee on Secret Military Assistance to Iran and the Nicaraguan Opposition* and *House Select Committee to Investigate Covert Arms Transactions with Iran*. 100th Cong., 1st sess., 17 November 1987. S. Rept. 100-216 and H. Rept. 100-433, 1987.

30.5b: Note these accepted abbreviations for Congressional documents.

House Document	H. Doc.
House Executive Document	H. Ex. Doc.
House Executive Report	H. Ex. Rept.
House Report	H. Rept.
Senate Document	S. Doc.
Senate Executive Document	S. Ex. Doc.
Senate Executive Report	S. Ex. Rept.
Senate Report	S. Rept.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.6: CONGRESSIONAL PRINTS, HEARINGS, AND REPORTS.

30.6a: Committee Prints. The cited document has no committee print number. If your document does, then include it immediately after "Committee Print."

NOTE: [6]U.S. Congress, House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence, *Compilation of Intelligence Laws and Related Laws and Executive Orders of Interest to the National Intelligence Community*, 99th Cong., 1st sess., 1985, Committee Print, 361-374.

BIB: U.S. Congress, House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence. *Compilation of Intelligence Laws and Related Laws and Executive Orders of Interest to the National Intelligence Community*. 99th Cong., 1st sess., 1985. Committee Print.

30.6b: Committee Hearings.

NOTE: [7]U.S. Congress, House Committee on Foreign Affairs, *Islamic Fundamentalism and Radicalism*, Hearings, 99th Cong., 1st sess., 24 June, 15 July, 30 September 1985, Y4.F76/1: Is4, 379.

BIB: U.S. Congress, House Committee on Foreign Affairs. *Islamic Fundamentalism and Islamic Radicalism*. Hearings, 99th Cong., 1st sess., 24 June, 15 July, 30 September 1985. Y4.F76/1:Is4.

30.6c: Committee Reports.

NOTE: [8]U.S. Congress, Senate Select Committee on Intelligence, *Report on Security at the U.S. Mission in Moscow and Other Areas of High Risk*, 100th Cong., 1st sess., 1987, Y1:1/5:100-154, S. Rept. 100-154, 13.

BIB: U.S. Congress, Senate Select Committee on Intelligence. *Report on Security at the U.S. Mission in Moscow and Other Areas of High Risk*. 100th Cong., 1st sess., 1987. Y1:1/5:100-154. S. Rept. 100-154.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.7: CONFERENCE REPORTS. Cite the congressional chamber issuing the report:

NOTE: [9]U.S. Congress, House, *Authorizing Appropriations for Fiscal Years 1982 and 1983 for the Department of State, the U.S. Information Agency, and the Board for International Broadcasting, Conference Report*, 97th Cong., 2d sess., 1982, Y.1.1./8:97-693, H. Rept. 97-693, 25.

BIB: U.S. Congress, House. *Authorizing Appropriations for Fiscal Years 1982 and 1983 for the Department of State, the U.S. Information Agency, and the Board for International Broadcasting, Conference Report*. 97th Cong., 2d sess., 1982. Y.1.1./8:97-693. H. Rept. 97-693.

30.8: CONGRESSIONAL DOCUMENTS OTHER THAN PRINTS, HEARINGS, AND REPORTS.

NOTE: [10]U.S. Congress, Senate, *Dangerous Stalemate: Superpower Relations in Autumn 1983*, 98th Cong., 1st sess., 1983, S. Doc. 98-16, 10.

BIB: U.S. Congress, Senate. *Dangerous Stalemate: Superpower Relations in Autumn 1983*. 98th Cong., 1st sess., 1983. S. Doc. 98-16.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.9: ACTS, BILLS AND RESOLUTIONS (BEFORE PASSAGE). Always identify the number and session of Congress.

NOTE: [11]U.S. Congress, Senate, "Opposing the Soviet Union's 6-Year Invasion and Occupation of Afghanistan Against the National Will of the Afghan People," 99th Cong., 1st sess., 1985, GPO Microfiche no. Y1.4/3:99-37, S.J. Res. 240, 1-2.

BIB: U.S. Congress, Senate. "Opposing the Soviet Union's 6-Year Invasion and Occupation of Afghanistan Against the National Will of the Afghan People." 99th Cong., 1st sess., 1985. GPO Microfiche no. Y1.4/3:99-37. S.J. Res. 240.

30.10: ACTS, BILLS AND RESOLUTIONS (AFTER PASSAGE). After passage, bills and joint resolutions are cited as statutes according to the *United States Code*. Citations to the *Code* list section number (§ or sec.), not page.

NOTE: [12]*National Environmental Policy Act of 1969*, 42 U.S. Code § 4332 (1976).

BIB: *National Environmental Policy Act of 1969*. 42 U.S. Code § 4332 (1976).

[See also Section 18, "Legal Material."]

30.11: CONGRESSIONAL RECORD. Include the name of the speaker and his or her home state, the title, volume number and part number of the *Record*, the date, and pages cited. You may abbreviate party affiliation and home state, as shown.

NOTE: [13]Representative Lee H. Hamilton (D-IN), "F-15 Enhancement Package for Saudi Arabia," *Congressional Record* 127, pt. 3 (6 May 1981): 8740.

BIB: Hamilton, Lee H., Representative (D-IN). "F-15 Enhancement Package for Saudi Arabia." *Congressional Record* 127, pt. 3 (6 May 1981): 8739-8741.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.12: PRESIDENTIAL PAPERS.

30.12a: The *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents.* Begun 2 August 1965 and published weekly, this document publishes "transcripts of the President's news conferences, messages to Congress, public speeches, and statements, and other Presidential materials released by the White House up to 5 p.m. on each Friday."[2] Citations are handled similarly to journals (see "Periodicals.")

NOTE: [14]"New Year's Messages of the President and General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev of the Soviet Union," *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* 24, no. 1 (11 January 1988): 12.

BIB: "New Year's Messages of the President and General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev of the Soviet Union." *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* 24, no. 1 (11 January 1988): 1-13.

30.12b: Executive Orders and Other Presidential Proclamations. This form shows that you used a printed copy of the Executive Order itself. If you find it in another source, then cite it accordingly. For example, Executive Order 12333 is reprinted in numerous other sources, including a congressional committee print. See the section on committee prints. See also "Books of Readings."

NOTE: [15]U.S. President, Executive Order 12333, "United States Intelligence Activities," 4 December 1981, 2-3.

BIB: U.S. President. Executive Order 12333. "United States Intelligence Activities." 4 December 1981.

[2]Vol. 1, no. 1, *Annual Index.*

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.12: PRESIDENTIAL PAPERS, continued.

30.12c: "White House" Documents. Periodically the executive branch issues a publication covering a key area of national security or strategy. Cite those types of documents as shown here. Details of publication need not be cited.

NOTE: [16]U.S. President, *A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement*, February 1995, 7.

BIB: U.S. President. *A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement*. February 1995.

30.13: U.S. CONSTITUTION. Give the article and section number, and if appropriate, the amendment number. If you are citing an ***interpretation*** of the Constitution, use the format prescribed for the agency or institution publishing the interpretation.

NOTE: [17]*U.S. Constitution*, art. I, sec. 3.

BIB: *U.S. Constitution*. Art. I, sec. 3.

30.14: SEMINAR PROCEEDINGS SPONSORED BY GOVERNMENT AGENCIES. Note that this entry gives the umbrella agency (the Department of Defense) and the particular division (National Security Affairs Institute), as well as the series name (1979-1980 Seminar Series).

NOTE: [18]Department of Defense, National Security Affairs Institute, *Evolving Strategic Realities: Implications for United States Policymakers*, 1979-1980 Seminar Series (Washington, DC: GPO, 1980), Z9D 5.402.St8, 207.

BIB: Department of Defense, National Security Affairs Institute. *Evolving Strategic Realities: Implications for United States Policymakers*. 1979-1980 Seminar Series. Washington, DC: GPO, 1980. Z9D 5.402.St8.

30. U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, continued

30.15: GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS AS PART OF A SERIES.

NOTE: [19]Department of Defense, National Defense University, *Soviet Intentions and American Options in the Middle East*, National Security Monograph Series (Washington, DC: GPO, 1983), D 5.409.83-5, 93-95.

BIB: Department of Defense, National Defense University. *Soviet Intentions and American Options in the Middle East*. National Security Monograph Series. Washington, DC: GPO, 1983. D 5.409.83-5.

CHAPTER 9

CITING CLASSIFIED SOURCES

POLICY AND PRINCIPLES

General

If you use classified material for your paper, cite it in notes and the bibliography just as you would any other source. Using classified material will preclude publication of your paper or thesis outside official channels. Security regulations prohibit writers using information from official sources when it is not available to the general public. An unclassified paper intended for public release, therefore, must use and refer to ***only*** open, available sources. If ***any*** classified material is used, the paper must be appropriately classified.

These precautions, however, are not intended to discourage your use of classified material. The Joint Military Intelligence College is unique in its students' ability to perform in-depth research in classified sources. It is essential, though, that proper precautions be taken with this material.

Unclassified Excerpts from Classified Works

Using unclassified excerpts from classified publications is possible, but we discourage that practice because of the danger of compromise. You are responsible for ensuring that any such extract is handled appropriately. Even if the information you quote or paraphrase is unclassified, you must mark the paper with an appropriate distribution statement. See the JMIC Security Officer for the most current guidance.

Proper Precautions and Markings

Always keep security precautions in mind when you are dealing with classified material. Use proper markings and downgrading instructions on the cover sheet and title page. Mark the appropriate classification of ***each paragraph*** in the paper, even if it is

unclassified (U). When your paper is classified by "multiple sources," you are required to maintain a list of those sources. Your bibliography is an ideal place to list those sources. ***List classified sources in a separate section of your bibliography*** with the heading "BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CLASSIFIED SOURCES." If you have any questions about the security aspects of your paper, see the College Security Office, ***NOT*** the Writing Center.

NOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC FORMS

Notes and bibliographies for classified material must reflect clearly your source for the information and must follow security regulations regarding the handling of classified material. One of the most important considerations in citing classified material is your identification of the ***product's*** security classification. Dissemination control markings such as "ORCON" (Dissemination and Extraction of Information Controlled by Originator) need not be spelled out except on the title page.

A note or bibliographic entry for a classified source should contain the following items: classification of the entry, in parentheses; producer (author, if named, or originating organization); recipient, if appropriate (for example, for a letter, memorandum, message, or interview); title, with ***its*** classification; the classification of the ***document***; date (for a message, use the date-time group); page number, if appropriate (for example, for a document); remarks, if necessary; and downgrading instructions. Publisher and place of publication for classified products are not necessary.

The following pages show examples of note and bibliography forms for classified sources. The entries given as "Next" under notes are examples of shortened subsequent references to the same source. In your bibliography, alphabetize by author if possible; otherwise, alphabetize by source--producing agency or command. Include all the information you used in the footnote or endnote, except page numbers of books. For articles, give their inclusive page numbers in the original publication. Do not number bibliographic entries.

The examples themselves are in all instances UNCLASSIFIED.

01. ARTICLES

01.1: JOURNAL OR OTHER CLASSIFIED PUBLICATION.

Retain military ranks or other titles in note and bibliographic forms. Include the branch of service where known. See section 03.2 in this chapter for another example.

NOTE: [1](U) Capt. Gary C. Weaver, USAF, "The Soviet Peace Offensive (U)," SECRET article in TS/SCI *SAC Intelligence Quarterly* (October 1983): 37. Classified by SAC; declassify October 2008.

NEXT: [2](U) Weaver, SECRET article, 38.

BIB: (U) Weaver, Gary C., Capt., USAF. "The Soviet Peace Offensive (U)." SECRET article in TS/SCI *SAC Intelligence Quarterly* (October 1983): 37-52. Classified by SAC; declassify October 2008.

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

02. DEFENSE INTELLIGENCE NETWORK (DIN)

02.1: GENERAL. **Treat DIN programs like other television programs, with the obvious exception of the security classification. It is not necessary to cite the producer or the reporter in this case, but do note the program, the date, and the time of the broadcast.**

NOTE: [1](U) "Iraq Protests Additional Sanctions (U)," TS/SCI broadcast, *Morning Summary*, Defense Intelligence Network, 12 October 1996, 0615 EDT. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on 12 October 2001.

NEXT: [2](U) "Iraq Protests," TS/SCI DIN broadcast, 12 October 1996.

BIB: (U) "Iraq Protests Additional Sanctions (U)." TS/SCI broadcast. *Morning Summary*, Defense Intelligence Network, 12 October 1996, 0615 EDT. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on 12 October 2001.

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

03. INTERVIEWS

03.1: GENERAL. It is important to establish with the person being interviewed whether the subject matter is classified. Many interviewees will lapse in and out of classified topics without realizing they are doing so, and without calling your attention to the fact. To avoid a security violation, be absolutely certain. If in doubt, ***ASK***.

03.2: CONDUCTED IN PERSON BY THE AUTHOR.

NOTE: [1](U) LTG James A. Williams, USA (Ret.), Director of the Defense Intelligence Agency, 1981-1985, SECRET interview by author, 14 March 1996. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on 14 March 2001.

NEXT: [2](U) Williams, SECRET interview.

[If you conducted interviews on more than one date, you would need to give the date of the one cited.]

BIB: (U) Williams, James A., LTG, USA (Ret.). Director of the Defense Intelligence Agency, 1981-1985. SECRET interview by author, 14 March 1996. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on 14 March 2001.

[Including personal data about your source enhances the credibility of your citation.]

03.3: PUBLISHED OR OTHER INTERVIEWS: See the instructions for interviews in chapter 8 of this guide. Use the same format, except include the classification of the product.

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

04. MESSAGES

04.1: AGENCY OR MAJOR HEADQUARTERS.

NOTE: [1](U) Defense Intelligence Agency, SECRET message to Commander in Chief U.S. Southern Command, subject: "Request for Theater Clearance (U)," 080910Z May 1988. Classified by Director DIA; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

NEXT: [2](U) DIA, SECRET message to USCINCSO, 080910Z May 1988.

[NOTE: The date-time group in the secondary/short form is necessary only when you use more than one message from DIA to USCINCSO. This example assumes that you did.]

BIB: (U) Defense Intelligence Agency. SECRET message to Commander in Chief U.S. Southern Command. Subject: "Request for Theater Clearance (U)." 080910Z May 1988. Classified by Director DIA; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

04.2: DEFENSE ATTACHE REPORTS OR OTHER INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION REPORTS.

NOTE: [3](U) U.S. Defense Attache Office Buenos Aires to Defense Intelligence Agency and others, TS/SCI IIR 6-804-0123-88, subject: "Significant Events (U)," 222119Z September 1988. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

NEXT: [4](U) USDAO Buenos Aires, TS/SCI IIR (U).

[This example shows that you used only one IIR from USDAO Buenos Aires.]

BIB: (U) USDAO Buenos Aires. TS/SCI IIR 6-804-0123-88 to Defense Intelligence Agency and others. Subject: "Significant Events (U)." 222119Z September 1988. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

[Use this format for a letter or memorandum as well, adapting the "To" and "From" addressees and the dates accordingly.]

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

04.3: MAJOR COMMAND.

NOTE: [5](U) Commander Pacific Air Forces, SECRET message to Chief of Staff of the Air Force, subject: "Alert Rates (U)," 152134Z July 1984. Classified by Commander PACAF; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

NEXT: [6](U) PACAF, SECRET message to CSAF (U).

BIB: (U) Commander Pacific Air Forces. SECRET Message to Chief of Staff of the Air Force. Subject: "Alert Rates (U)." 152134Z July 1984. Classified by Commander PACAF; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

04.4: NUMBERED COMMAND.

NOTE: [7](U) Commander 13th Air Force, SECRET message to Commander 3d Tactical Fighter Wing, subject: "COPE THUNDER Rules of Engagement (U)," 151617Z October 1996. Classified by JCS Memo S/1234-96; declassify on 15 October 2001.

NEXT: [8](U) 13th AF, SECRET message to 3d TFW (U).

BIB: (U) Commander 13th Air Force. SECRET Message to Commander 3d Tactical Fighter Wing. Subject: "COPE THUNDER Rules of Engagement (U)." 151617Z October 1996. Classified by JCS Memo S/1234-96; declassify on 15 October 2001.

[List numbers before letters in your bibliography. For example, the entry "Commander 13th Air Force" would be listed alphabetically before "Commander Pacific Air Forces."]

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

05. NATIONAL SECURITY AGENCY (NSA) REPORTS

05.1: GENERAL. We are grateful to our colleague Mr. Dan Gressang, an NSA representative to our faculty, for providing these unclassified examples.

NOTE: [1](TSC) National Security Agency, TOP SECRET COPPERTONE message 3/00/1234-94 to Commander in Chief U.S. Southern Command, subject: "Banania Prime Minister Seeks Chief of Staff's Resignation, July 1994 (TSC)," 081532Z August 1994. Classified by DIRNSA; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

NEXT: [2](U) NSA TSC message 3/00/1234-94, 081532Z Aug 94.

BIB: (TSC) National Security Agency. TOP SECRET COPPERTONE message 3/00/1234-94 to Commander in Chief U.S. Southern Command. Subject: "Banania Prime Minister Seeks Chief of Staff's Resignation, July 1994 (TSC)." 081532Z August 1994.Classified by DIRNSA; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

[Note that the full note and bib forms are themselves classified TSC because the subject of the message is classified TSC.]

05.2: SHORT TITLES. NSA reporting standards provide for the unclassified citation of "short titles." As defined in relevant documents, the short title of an NSA report consists of the serial number and date-time group (DTG), if issued by NSA; and the originator, serial, and DTG if originated by other SIGINT elements. Examples include the following.

(U) TS/SCI message 3/00/1234-94, 081532Z Aug 94.

(U) DEFSMAC S/SCI message 3/DQ/1234-94, 081532Z Aug 94.

(U) GCHQ TS/SCI message 3/AA/1234-94, 081532Z Aug 94.

[Specific reports can be retrieved easily using the report's serial number. This strategy allows the quick retrieval of specific documents without complicated searches that might generate a number of unwanted items.]

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

06. STUDIES

06.1: AGENCY OR MAJOR HEADQUARTERS.

NOTE: [1](U) U.S. Army Foreign Science and Technology Center, *Airdrop Equipment and Techniques (Current and Projected)--Foreign (U)*, SECRET study, DST-1350S-024-79 (CHG 3), January 1985, 22. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

NEXT: [2](U) U.S. Army FSTC, SECRET study, 23.

BIB: (U) U.S. Army Foreign Science and Technology Center. *Airdrop Equipment and Techniques (Current and Projected)--Foreign (U)*. SECRET Study. DST-1350S-024-79 (CHG 3), January 1985. Classified by Multiple Sources; declassify on: Source marked "OADR."

06.2: PRODUCT IN A SERIES/MULTIVOLUME WORKS OR REPORTS.

NOTE: [3](U) U.S. Army Intelligence Threat and Analysis Center, *Panama: Ground Forces (U)*, CONFIDENTIAL Vol. 3 of SECRET *Army Intelligence Survey (U)*, September 1984, 2-2. Classified by U.S. Army ITAC; declassify on 30 September 2004.

NEXT: [4](U) U.S. Army ITAC, CONFIDENTIAL study, 2-3.

BIB: (U) U.S. Army Intelligence Threat and Analysis Center. CONFIDENTIAL Study. *Panama: Ground Forces (U)*. Vol. 3 of SECRET *Army Intelligence Survey (U)*, September 1984. Classified by U.S. Army ITAC; declassify on 30 September 2004.

NOTE: The examples on this page are unclassified. Classifications are notional, and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS IN USING CLASSIFIED MATERIAL

If you cite originator-controlled (ORCON) material, you must arrange officially for its release and include that release authorization with your paper. If you have a source that does not correspond with any of the examples, use the common-sense approach. Use something analogous to the examples wherever possible, getting whatever guidance you can from your thesis committee, faculty advisor, or the Writing Center. Just be sure to include enough information so that you or another reader can find the item later.

***Remember*: The Writing Center answers questions about the form and format of note and bibliographic entries; but refer any questions you have about matters of security to the College Security Office, *NOT* the Writing Center.**

CHAPTER 10

USAGE AND ABUSAGE

A NOTE TO USERS

Earlier editions of this book drew heavily from the ***Current Intelligence Publications Division Style Guide*** for this chapter and the chapters that follow. That guide provided a quick yet comprehensive reference source for questions about usage, punctuation, capitalization, abbreviations, and numerals. We have since adapted it considerably for our students' use. We remain indebted to DIA's Current Intelligence Publications Division for allowing us to use the original version.

10.1: ECONOMY OF WORDS

Conciseness makes writing clear. It is a matter of compression rather than one of omission. Omit unnecessary words that through habit have become part of government writing. One small connecting word often does the work of several.

Instead of . . .	*Try this . . .*
abortive coup attempt	abortive coup
absence of	no
absolutely essential	essential
acute crisis	crisis
additionally, further information	further information
adequate enough	adequate
a distance of 3,000 miles	3,000 miles
advance planning	planning
afford an opportunity	let, permit, allow
after the conclusion of	after
ahead of schedule	early
a large proportion of	many
all-time record	record
along the lines of	like
appear(s) to be	appear(s), seems
appointed to the position of	appointed
as a result of	because (of)
as well as	and
at an early date	soon
at the present time	now, currently (or omit)
at this point in time	now, currently (or omit)
because of the fact that	because
bring to an end	end
built a new	built
by means of	by, with
close confidant	confidant
close proximity	close, near
collaborate together	collaborate
commented to the effect that	commented that
compared with	than
completely untrue	untrue, false
consensus of opinion	consensus, agreement
contingent upon	depends, hinges on
continue(s) to maintain	continue(s)
cost the sum of	cost

10.1: ECONOMY OF WORDS, continued

Instead of . . .	*Try this . . .*
dates back from	dates from
despite the fact that	although
divide up, off	divide
due to the fact that	because, since
during such time as	while
each and every	each
elected to the office of	elected
eliminate altogether	eliminate
end product	product, result
end result	result
entirely absent	absent
entirely complete	complete
entirely eliminated	eliminated
entirely new departure	departure
established a new	established
estimated at about	estimated at
(to) export abroad	(to) export
few in number	few
final outcome	outcome, result
final settlement	settlement
firm commitment	commitment
follow after	follow
for an indefinite period	indefinitely
form a new unit	form a unit
foreign import	import
for the purpose of	for, to
fresh beginning	beginning
full complement of	complement of
future prospect(s)	prospect(s)
galvanize into action	spur, prompt
general public	public
give expression to	express
gray colored aircraft	gray aircraft
has the appearance of	appears
heard various requests	heard requests
35 hectares of land	35 hectares
hour of noon	noon

10.1: ECONOMY OF WORDS, continued

Instead of . . .	*Try this . . .*
important essentials	essentials
in addition . . . also	in addition
in an effort to determine	to determine
in a number of cases	some, sometimes
in addition to	besides, also
inasmuch as	since
include among them	include
in conjunction with	and, or
in connection with	in, on, about
in order that	so
in order to	to
in (with) regard to	regarding, on
in short supply	scarce
in relation to	toward, to
in terms of	in, for (or omit)
in the amount of	for
in the city of Paris	in Paris
in the course of	in, during, while
in the event that (of)	if
in the interest of	for
in the interim period between	between
in the majority of instances	usually
in the midst of	amid
in the near future	soon, shortly
in the process of fighting	fighting
in the vicinity of	near, around
in 2 years' time	in 2 years
in view of the fact that	since, because, although
(is) lacking in	lacks
just recently	recently
launch a new operation	launch an operation
link together	link
local authorities	police
located at	at
major breakthrough	breakthrough
may possibly suggest	suggest, may suggest
merge together	merge

10.1: ECONOMY OF WORDS, continued

Instead of . . .	*Try this . . .*
(the) month of May	May
more (or most) unique	unique
necessary (pre)requisite	(pre)requisite
never before in the past	never before
new discovery	discovery
new initiatives	initiatives
new record	record
new recruits	recruits
new renovations	renovations
not generally available everywhere	not generally available
on a few occasions	occasionally
one of the last remaining	one of the remaining
one of the purposes	one purpose
on the occasion of	when, for
on the part of	by, for, among
pare down	pare
penetrate into	penetrate
pressing for the imposition of a curfew	pressing for a curfew
prior to	before
prominent and leading	prominent
prospects for the future	prospects
provided that	if
reason is because	reason
reason why	reason
recalled back	recalled
repeat again	repeat
request appropriations for	ask for money, funds
retain his position	remain, stay
revert back	revert
root cause	cause
safe haven	haven
serious crisis	crisis
serve as	poor substitute for verb "to be"
skirt around	skirt, avoid
small in size	small
still remains	remains

10.1: ECONOMY OF WORDS, continued

Instead of . . .	*Try this . . .*
subsequent to	after, since
substantial portion	much, large part
succeeded in defeating	defeated
sufficient consideration	enough thought
take action on the issue	act
take into (under) consideration	consider
temporary reprieve	reprieve
time and time again	repeatedly
true facts	facts
under active consideration	being considered
until such time as	until
usual customs	customs
valued at	worth
violent explosion	explosion
when and if	if
whether or not	whether
with reference to	on, about, concerning
with regard to	regarding, concerning
with the exception of	except, except for
with the result that	so
worst ever famine	worst famine

10.2: NUMBERS

Numbers can be expressed as numerals, words, or groups of words. The guidance below should simplify your choices about which form to use and will provide a logical and consistent appearance in your writing.

10.2a: Cardinal Numbers. To avoid confusion, do not use cardinal numbers side by side.

Not: In 1991, 25 new divisions were identified.
But: Twenty-five new divisions were identified in 1991.
(Note also that numbers at the beginning of a sentence are spelled out.)

10.2b: Numbers Expressed in Figures or Words. Use figures for numbers of 10 or more. If the number is the first word of a sentence, spell it out in any case. A number less than 10 is spelled out in a sentence except for age, time, and percentages. (See the exception in 10.2c, "Combinations of Numbers.")

The job took 12 men 30 days.
Forty-three men built the bridge.
The shipment consisted of three tanks and two personnel carriers.

10.2c: Combinations of Numbers. In a sentence with combinations of numbers on either side of 10, use figures for all the numbers.

The attack involved about 200 men, 12 tanks, and 2 aircraft.
But: The attack involved one battalion of men, nine tanks, and two aircraft.

10.2d: Ordinal numbers. An ordinal number is used to indicate order in a particular series (1st, 2d, 3d, 10th). Note the omission of ***n*** and ***r*** in 2d and 3d.

That film is the 10th in our series of diversity management training classes.

10.2e: Age. Express age as a numeral.

The general is 60 (or 60 years old, not 60 years of age).
His grandson is 3 years old.
The general must be in his 60s (no apostrophe).
The general, 60 (not aged 60), is retiring soon.

10.2f: Expressions of Time. Use figures for expressions of time.

Students remained at the JMIC for 1 year.
The part-time degree completion program allows 5 years.
She completed the course in only 6 months.

10.2g: Clock Time. Use the 24-hour system.

The class met from 0730-1010.

10.2h: Dates (see also 10.2i,'Eras'). Use cardinal numbers and day, month, year order. Spell out the month, and use the full four-digit year (*14 September 1996, **not** 14 Sep 96*). Avoid using ordinal numbers (***not** July 15th, but 15 July).*

Indonesia declared its independence from the Netherlands on 17 August 1945.
All signers of the peace accord had left by 7 October (***not*** 07 October).
CPT Marvelle received his PGIP Certificate in June 1996 (***not*** June, 1996).

10.2i: Eras. The most common era designations are ***A.D.*** (anno Domini, "in the year of our Lord") and ***B.C.*** ("before Christ"). ***A.D. precedes*** the year; ***B.C. follows*** it.

Japan instituted the Taika Reforms in A.D. 646.
Legend has it that Romulus founded Rome in 753 B.C.

10.2j: Decimals. Numbers with a decimal point are expressed in figures. For amounts less than 1.0, the decimal point is preceded by zero.

The range of that mortar is 6.5 kilometers.
The concrete in that bunker is 0.65 meter thick.

10.2k: Fractions. Spell out a fraction when it stands alone, begins a sentence, or is followed by ***of a*** or ***of an***. Use numerals when the fraction is a modifier, when fractions are mixed with whole numbers, or when spelling out the fraction would obviously be awkward. Note also the use of hyphens in the examples below.

Her estimate of the unit's strength was one-half his.
Two-thirds of the vehicles were inoperable.
He found one-third of a mile of wire tangled in the tracks.

But: The endurance test included a 1/2-mile run.
A marathon race is actually about 26-1/5 miles.
We need a 2-1/2-ton truck to haul this load.
The paper is about 3/1,000 of an inch thick.

10.2l: Geographic Coordinates. Express latitude first. Use a hyphen between degrees, minutes, and seconds; leave a space between latitude and longitude, with no intervening punctuation.

The village was at 60-17-44N 135-20-16E.

10.2m: Money. Express monetary values in U.S. money, with figures preceded by a dollar sign. If the value must be given in foreign currency, place it in parentheses after the dollar amount. The initials ***U.S.*** are not needed before the dollar sign unless foreign dollars could be implied. Use the word ***dollars*** when precise amounts are not given, and use the word ***cents*** for amounts less than a dollar.

The missile system cost the North Koreans nearly $50 million.
He paid about 42 cents in taxes for every dollar he earned.
The work cost the firm thousands of dollars.

10.2n: Percentages. Use numerals for percentages (except when they begin a sentence), and always spell out the word ***percent***.

Only 1 percent of the rebel force survived the attack.
Ninety-four percent of the people voted for the incumbent.

10.2o: Possessive Case. Numerical expressions indicating possession require an apostrophe but not a hyphen.

After 5 years' planning, the project was scrapped.
Iraq bought several million dollars' worth of equipment (but $10 million worth).

10.2p: Punctuation. These examples show punctuation of numbers containing four or more digits. See chapter 11 for details on punctuation for other than numbers.

The war claimed 1,785,642 casualties by 1945.
The station operated on a frequency of 1800 kHz.
His army serial number is O98500.
The army had captured 1,525 rebels by August.

10.2q: Ranges. Express as shown in this example.

$12 million to $14 million (not $12 to $14 million).

10.2r: Ratios, odds, returns. Express as shown in the following examples.

The doctor-to-patient ratio was 1:25.
He had a 50-50 chance of winning.
The measure was approved by a 50-to-1 vote.

10.3: PLURALS AND SINGULARS

10.3a: Acronyms and Other Combinations. Do not use an apostrophe before the *s* in plural acronyms, groups of digits designating decades or centuries, hyphenated letter-number combinations, nicknames and class designations of items of communist military equipment, or military abbreviations without periods.

SAMs	the 1980s	SVERDLOV Class CGs	T-62s
MiG-29s	SS-13s	KRESTA IIs	Mod-2s

NOTE: *An abbreviation of a unit of measure has neither a period nor a plural form (1 km, 10 km; 2 NM, 30 NM).*

10.3b: Agreement in Number. A verb must agree in number with the subject of its sentence, and a pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent. Most often, problems with these rules arise from long, overly complex sentences, with too many words between the subject and the verb, or from failure to recognize the proper antecedent for a pronoun. Study the examples below.

Not: The Panaraguan government, stifled by the incompetence of their bureaucrats, were slow reacting to the crisis.
But: The Panaraguan government, stifled by the incompetence of ***its*** bureaucrats, ***was*** slow reacting to the crisis.

Not: Each of the citizens were asked to vote.
But: Each of the citizens ***was*** asked to vote.
Better: Each citizen was asked to vote.

10.3c: Country Names and People. A country is a sovereign state. It is a singular entity that requires a singular verb and pronoun. A country has many people, and plural verbs and pronouns are appropriate in referring to those people.

The Soviet Union ***pursued its*** policies tenaciously.
The Soviets ***pursued their*** policies tenaciously.

The United States ***is*** an example of a representative democracy, and ***its*** people cherish ***their*** freedom.

10.4: PUNS

A pun is a play on words that are identical or similar in sound but have sharply different meanings. Writers of intelligence papers should avoid using puns such as the following:

The hospital ship is now operational.

The Japanese and Chinese are oriented toward economic improvements.

The Islamic Revolution has catholic appeal.

In the wake of recent killings, we urged caution.

The soldier, who was bleeding to death, made a grave mistake.

The equipment acquisition is geared toward force modernization.

The officer corps uniformly spoke very highly of him.

CHAPTER 11

PUNCTUATION

CLARIFICATION AND SEPARATION

All sentences depend on punctuation for their meaning. Punctuation contributes to organization, emphasis, clarity, and exactness in written expressions. Punctuation in writing performs a function similar to inflection and facial expression in speaking.

The two main purposes of punctuation are to give clarity to written statements and to make reading easy. Keep in mind that the rules of punctuation are flexible but easily misused. Any rereading of a sentence to obtain its correct meaning is a sign that punctuation has been poorly applied or that the sentence is cumbersome. Less punctuation is required in well-constructed sentences than in poorly written ones.

Discussions of punctuation marks in this chapter are arranged alphabetically for ease of reference.

11.1: AMPERSAND (&)

Avoid using the ampersand (&) routinely as a careless substitute for "and." The ampersand is used in some abbreviations, without a space before or after the mark. In your formal written work, first establish the abbreviation parenthetically, as in the examples below. Common uses include R&D, S&T, TO&E, I&W, and U&S Commands.

Libyan research and development (R&D) programs are making rapid gains.
Frank teaches scientific and technical intelligence (S&TI) twice a year.
The unit's table of organization and equipment (TO&E) needed revision.
Indications and warning (I&W) courses are important components of the core curriculum.
He studied national intelligence support to the former Unified and Specified (U&S) Commands.

11.2: APOSTROPHES AND POSSESSIVES

Harry Shaw writes about the apostrophe:

> The apostrophe ('), a mark of pronunciation and a spelling symbol, has three uses: to indicate omission of a letter or letters from words and of a figure or figures from numerals; to form the possessive (genitive) case of nouns and of certain pronouns; to indicate the plurals of letters, numerals, symbols, and certain abbreviations. . . . [Y]ou must know how to employ it correctly for each of the purposes indicated if your writing is to be immediately clear and fully understandable to readers.[1]

11.2a: Acronyms and the Like. The apostrophe is ***not*** used before the ***s*** in the plurals of groups of letters (acronyms), hyphenated letter-number combinations, groups of digits designating decades or centuries, nicknames and class designations of communist military equipment, or military abbreviations without periods.

SAMs	the 1990s	SVERDLOV Class CGs	T-62s
MiG-29s	SS-13s	KRESTA IIs	Mod-2s

NOTE: *Possessive forms of these terms* ***do*** *require apostrophes: the SAM's range; the MiG-29's design; the T-62's armor. An abbreviation of a unit of measure has neither a period nor a plural form (1 km, 10 km; 2 NM, 30 NM).*

11.2b: Compound Words. Form the possessive on the last word of a compound word, even if the compound is hyphenated.

Singular possessive	Plural possessive
notary public's	notaries public's
comptroller general's	comptrollers general's
secretary-treasurer's	secretaries-treasurers'

[1]Harry Shaw, *Punctuate it Right!* (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1963), 37.

11.2: APOSTROPHES AND POSSESSIVES, continued

11.2c: Countries and Organized Bodies. Do not use an apostrophe after the name of a country or other organized institution ending in *s*, or after a word that is more descriptive than possessive, except when the plural does not end in *s*.

United States imports are increasing.
Congress attitudes toward enacting the law are uncertain. (This one might sound better to the ear written another way: "Congressional attitudes. . . ." or "The attitudes of Congress. . . .")
New Orleans streets are busy at Mardi Gras time.
Paris suburbs teem with life.

But: The children's hospital suffered damage in the earthquake.

11.2d: Endings of s, x, or z. If the singular ends in *s*, *x*, or *z*, add the apostrophe and *s* for words of one syllable. Add only the apostrophe for words of more than one syllable unless you expect the pronunciation of the second *s*, *x*, or *z* sound. (See the exceptions in 11.2c, "Countries and Organized Bodies.") It is sometimes preferable to rewrite the sentence using an "of" phrase to avoid unpleasant sounds (see 11.2g).

Strauss's comments	Xerxes' army
Marx's theories	the Schultzes' house
Schmitz's service	Gonzalez' portfolio

11.2e: Geographic Names, Company Names, and Institutions. In geographic names, company names, and institutions, follow the authentic form.

He was accredited to the Court of St. James's.
St. Peter's Square is a landmark in the Vatican.
Harpers Ferry sits beside the Shenandoah and Potomac Rivers.
Dr. Proctor attended Johns Hopkins University.

11.2: APOSTROPHES AND POSSESSIVES, continued

11.2f: Inanimate Possessive Forms. The use of an *of* phrase may be preferable to an apostrophe and *s* to form the possessive of inanimate things other than those denoting time, measure, or space.

Not: A corporation's long-term capital gains. . . .
But: The long-term capital gains of a corporation. . . .

Not: The bill's passage will mean higher taxes.
But: Passage of the bill will mean higher taxes.

NOTE: *Sometimes the possessive form is preferable for inanimate objects in sentences containing numerous short prepositional phrases, particularly in lead sentences.*

The bill's passage at the next session of the legislature in mid-April will depend on Senator Framstat.

11.2g: "Piling Up" Possessives and Avoiding Awkward Constructions. Use the *of* phrase in forming the possessive to avoid "piling up" possessives.

Not: The committee's treasurer's report was read.
But: The report of the committee's treasurer was read.

Use the *of* phrase to form the possessive of names consisting of several words, to avoid awkward construction.

Not: The new director of the Military Geography Division's report.
But: The report of the new director of the Military Geography Division.

Use the *of* phrase to avoid adding a possessive to a pronoun that is already possessive.

Not: We are going to a friend of mine's office.
But: We are going to the office of a friend of mine.
Better: We are going to my friend's office.

11.2: APOSTROPHES AND POSSESSIVES, continued

11.2h: Parallel Words and Phrases. A word standing parallel with a possessive is itself possessive in form.

Not: His work, like an accountant, is exacting.
But: His work, like an accountant's, is exacting.
Or: His work, like that of an accountant, is exacting.

11.2i: Pronouns. Do not use the apostrophe to form the possessive of the relative pronoun ***whose*** and the personal pronouns ***hers***, ***his***, ***theirs***, ***ours***, ***yours***, and ***its***.

11.3: BULLETS

Bullets are solid circular or square symbols used to introduce special material set off within a column of text. In this function they can take the place of numerals or dashes and are also more eye-catching, but they should not be overused. In your papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College, you will rarely use bullets except for "Key Judgments" or an "Executive Summary" at the beginning of the paper. Your professor will usually prescribe that format if it is to be used. When in doubt, ask.

Bullets can be made in WordPerfect by using the ASCII characters. Hold down the ALT key and type 254 on the numeric keypad, ***not*** on the top row of numbers. Alternatively, you may use a lower-case "o" as a bullet. Always leave two spaces after a bullet.

Frequently bullets are used with dashes (see Section 11.6) in a series of indented blocks of text in which some blocks are subordinate to more important ones. For example:

- This is a primary statement.
  --This is a subordinate statement.
  --This is another subordinate statement.
- This is the next primary statement.

NOTE: *Introduce blocks of text with a colon at the end of the preceding paragraph, as we have done above. Capitalize the first letter in each line of bullet and dash phrases. End each line with a period* ***if*** *it is a complete sentence; otherwise, no punctuation is needed.*

11.4: COLON

The colon is equivalent to "for example" or "that is." A colon may separate two main clauses when the second explains or amplifies the first. Capitalize the word immediately after a colon ***if*** what follows is a complete sentence, as in the first example below.

We stand at a great divide: We must trade or fade.
Ann has these qualities: endurance, patience, and wit.

The terms ***as follows*** or ***the following*** require a colon if they introduce a formal list.

The countries that belong to ASEAN are as follows: Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Brunei.

Note, however, that the same sentence, below, is less weighty without the "as follows" and the colon:

The countries that belong to ASEAN are Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Brunei.

Never use a colon in this form:

He bought many varieties of food such as: cereals, fruits, nuts, and vegetables.

Do not insert a colon between a verb and its object or between a preposition and its object.

Not: Three keys to success are: ambition, hard work, and luck.
But: Three keys to success are ambition, hard work, and luck.

Not: Success is a combination of: ambition, hard work, and luck.
But: Success is a combination of ambition, hard work, and luck.

11.5: COMMA

The comma is the most frequently used--and abused--punctuation mark. It usually performs the functions for which most punctuation is required: It separates one idea from another so that the reader can see them distinctly, encloses incidental or parenthetical expressions, and emphasizes certain sentence elements by setting them apart from the remainder of the sentence. Some commas are mandatory, as in a series; others are inserted at the writer's option for clarity.

To avoid misusing the comma, apply this formula: Use one comma to separate; use two commas to enclose.

11.5a: Adjectives Following Nouns. Adjectives following nouns are set off by commas.

Washington's winter, snowy and cold, seemed to last forever.

11.5b: Adverbial Modifiers. Adverbial modifiers are usually set off by a comma if they come at the beginning of a sentence.

When you go to the supply room, bring me some pencils.
If you call me before noon, I can meet you for lunch.

If an introductory adverbial clause or phrase is short and cannot be misread, omit the comma.

On our way home we met several friends.

When such an adverbial element ends with a verb or preposition, use a comma before a following noun or pronoun to prevent misreading.

Soon after, the colonists' first settlement was started.

An adverbial modifier at the end of a sentence need not be set off unless it is long, is introduced by ***although***, or needs special emphasis.

Bill will not miss the meeting if we fax him.
Kurds may still be living in that region, although they are also found in other areas near the border.

11.5c: Comma Splice. Avoid linking two main clauses with only a comma between them--a comma splice. Without ***any*** punctuation, it is called a fused sentence (see 11.5f).

> ***Comma splice:*** The captain attended the ceremony, the sergeant did, too.

Correct the comma splice by rewriting the sentence:

> The captain attended the ceremony, and so did the sergeant.
> The captain and the sergeant attended the ceremony.
> Both the captain and the sergeant attended the ceremony.

11.5d: Contrasting Statements. Use a comma to set off contrasting statements in a sentence.

> Mitterrand, not Giscard, made the decision.

11.5e: Coordinating Conjunctions. A comma is used before the coordinating conjunctions ***and***, ***but***, ***for***, ***so***, ***yet***, ***or***, and ***nor*** in compound sentences containing two or more main clauses but no subordinate clauses.

> This sentence contains two independent clauses, and a comma is required. Use the comma, for it can help prevent misreading.

In a simple sentence with a compound predicate, the comma is not used before the coordinating conjunction.

> She went to Europe to study but decided not to stay.

Writers often punctuate incorrectly when an adverbial phrase begins the second part of a compound sentence. In this case commas are used to enclose the adverbial phrase, and another comma before the conjunction ***and*** would be superfluous.

> Stars are punctual and, by the use of a transit telescope, their passage can be accurately noted.

11.5f: Fused sentence. Two main clauses with no punctuation between them constitute a fused or run-on sentence.

The fog was heavy the patrol could not see the bridge.

Correct the fused sentence by any of the following methods:

The fog was so heavy the patrol could not see the bridge.
Because of heavy fog, the patrol could not see the bridge.
The fog was heavy. The patrol could not see the bridge.
The fog was heavy; the patrol could not see the bridge.
The fog was heavy, and the patrol could not see the bridge.

11.5g: Introductory Prepositional Phrases. Do not separate introductory prepositional phrases unless they deserve special emphasis or need clarification.

On 10 October the new rule will become effective.
In Washington the weather is usually pleasant in May.
But: In the first place, he has more experience at that job.

If an introductory element is obviously parenthetical, separate it from the remainder of the sentence.

In light of this report, we must review our earlier decisions.
On the other hand, his decision may have been hasty.

11.5h: Parallel Adjectives. If the order of adjectives can be reversed, or if ***and*** can stand between them, the adjectives are parallel and should be separated by a comma.

a hard, cold winter	a heavy winter overcoat
long, slender, brittle stems	short tributary streams

11.5i: Parenthetical (Nonrestrictive) Elements. Parenthetical elements--words, phrases, or clauses--are not considered necessary to the grammatical pattern or main thought of the sentence. They are, therefore, nonrestrictive (nonessential) and are set off by commas. If the words, phrases, or clauses--all of which are termed modifiers--are essential to the meaning of the sentence, they are restrictive and should not be set off by commas.

> ***Nonrestrictive:*** The new armored vehicles, which arrived yesterday, are parked in the unit's assembly area. *(The clause adds information about vehicles that have already been identified. Commas are needed.)*
>
> ***Restrictive:*** A boat that leaks is of little use. *(The clause* **that leaks** *is essential to the meaning of the sentence. No commas are needed. Generally the pronoun* **that** *is used instead of* **which** *if the clause is restrictive.)*

Participial phrases are set off by commas unless they are restrictive or used in place of a noun.

> ***Nonrestrictive:*** Having his orders, he left at once.
> ***Used as a noun:*** Having his orders meant he could leave at once.
> ***Restrictive:*** He excused the men having orders.

Elements not needed for grammatical completeness but related to the thought of the sentence are set off in most instances by commas.

> We are able, fortunately, to mail the letter on time.
> Cooperation, however, was impossible.
> The project, we think, is most important.
> On the other hand, training should be easier.
> All things being equal, I believe we will win.
> There being no further discussion, the meeting was adjourned.

11.5j: Series of Words, Phrases, Letters, or Numerals (the Serial Comma). Use commas to separate a series of words, phrases, letters, or numerals. Include the comma before the word ***and*** in a series.

> He met with the Chief of Staff, battalion commander, and platoon leaders.
> Firing ranges in use today include 25C, 19D, and 15E.

11.5k: *Transitional Words.* Transitional words such as ***therefore, however, moreover, nonetheless, consequently, accordingly, indeed, yet, hence, further, likewise, also,*** and ***otherwise*** are usually set off by commas.

They will understand, therefore, why we acted as we did.
Analysts disagreed, however, with the Team Chief's assessment.

Because the demon word <u>however</u> ***seems to cause so many problems, note the following additional examples of its punctuation.***

Your professors will not write your papers for you, however much you may offer them.
The teams continued to play despite the rain; however, the umpire called the game when the lightning began.
The teams continued to play despite the rain. However, the umpire called the game when the lightning began.
The teams continued to play despite the rain; the umpire called the game, however, when the lightning began.
The teams continued to play despite the rain. The umpire called the game, however, when the lightning began.

11.6: DASHES

Dashes in typewritten--as opposed to composed or typeset--material are represented by two hyphens, as shown in this sentence. When a dash falls within a sentence, leave no space before or after it. Use the dash sparingly, to mark a sudden break in thought, to emphasize a thought, or to set off a parenthetical element that is very abrupt or contains commas. Do not substitute dashes indiscriminately for other punctuation marks or for inserting a second sentence in the first.

Japan--unlike Iran--must import vast amounts of oil.

Italy's elite forces--the 2d, 4th, and 5th battalions----have already deployed for the exercise.

Worker tensions are expected to increase as a result of the second wage freeze this year--and may well prompt a strike in the next few weeks.

Not: Our analysis indicated--We knew we were right all along--that the Republican Guards were in full retreat.

11.7: ELLIPSIS PERIODS

Ellipsis periods, also called ellipsis marks or ellipses, show that something has been left out of a quoted passage. ***Three*** spaced periods indicate that the words following them are from the same sentence. ***Four*** spaced periods are appropriate when you have omitted (a) the last part of a quoted sentence or (b) a complete sentence or more. An ellipsis is ***not needed*** at the beginning or at the end of a quotation, because it is assumed that material preceded or followed what you have extracted.

> According to *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations*, Abraham Lincoln said, "It is true that you may fool all the people some of the time . . . but you can't fool all of the people all the time."

[For a more detailed discussion of the ellipsis in conjunction with handling quoted material, see the introductory material in chapter 8.]

11.8: HYPHEN

The hyphen has many and varied uses. Hyphenate words chiefly to express an idea of unity or to avoid ambiguity.

11.8a: Adverbs and Adjectives Ending in -ly. No hyphen is needed for ***adverbs*** ending in ***-ly*** and preceding a participle or adjective.

The countries of the former Soviet Union have poorly developed economies.

Adjectives ending in -ly *are another matter:*

Ambassador Smirnoffskivich is a gravelly-voiced, grizzly-maned statesman of the old school of diplomacy.

11.8b: Avoiding Ambiguity.

It is clear that no first use policy applies in that case. *(Is it really clear? Note the difference between "no first-use policy" and "no-first-use policy." Not only is clarity at stake here, but also the meaning of the sentence.)*

President Clinton will speak to a group of small business owners from Pennsylvania. *(Since he would not likely be speaking to small people, "small-business owners" would be correct.)*

Hyphens are also used to distinguish a compound from a word of a different meaning, such as re-creation from recreation, re-form from reform, and re-sort from resort, and to avoid difficulty in reading, as in tie-in.

11.8c: Compound Words (Unit Modifiers). Common compound words usually are not hyphenated when the first element is a prefix (subconscious, predestination, antiterrorism, counternarcotics, postnasal) or when the last element is a suffix (breakup, blowout).

11.8c: Compound Words (Unit Modifiers), continued.

Use a hyphen when a compound adjective precedes a noun, in a prepositional-phrase compound noun consisting of three or more words, or when a prefix is added to an existing compound:

Sino-Soviet relations appeared to have improved by the 1980s.
The infantrymen fought valiantly in the winter-spring campaign.
The icebreaker is seeking a south-southwest transit of the straits.
We suspect they are exporting a newly developed surface-to-air missile.
Former President Nuñez-Santiago heads the government-in-exile.
Intelligence requirements are complex in the post-Cold War era.
The exercise included non-U.S. NATO forces.

Use a hyphen when an adjective or noun is prefixed to a noun with the suffix ***-ed***, as in ***double-faced***, or when an adjective is followed by a present participle, such as ***sinister-looking***.

11.8d: Doubling or Tripling Letters, Avoidance of. A hyphen is usually used when a letter would otherwise be doubled or tripled in combination, as in ***anti-inflation*** and ***hull-less***. Notable exceptions are ***cooperate***, ***coordinate***, ***nonnuclear***, and ***preempt***.

11.8e: Ex-, Self-, Well-, and Other Prefixes. A hyphen is always used with the prefixes ***self-*** and ***ex-***: ***self-determination***, ***ex-dictator***. Compound words with prefixes such as ***well-***, ***better-***, ***best-***, and ***ill-*** take the hyphen ***before*** a noun, unless the expression has another modifier (as in "very well suited to be an analyst"). Consult your dictionary if you have any doubts.

Well-maintained equipment can help keep a soldier alive in combat.
But: That unit's equipment is not ***well maintained***.

The ***better-written*** paper earns the higher grade in graduate work.
But: Her paper was ***better written*** than his.

The ***ill-tempered*** officer nonetheless had the respect of his troops.
But: He was widely known as being ***ill tempered***.

11.8f: Single Capital Letters Joined to Other Words. Use a hyphen to join a single capital letter to a noun or a participle.

A-frame	H-hour	T-shaped
D-Day	I-beam	U-boat
E-Bonds	R-rated	X-ray

11.8g: Suspensive Hyphens. Suspensive hyphens are a useful device, as in the following examples. Note the space after the first hyphen.

The A- and H-bombs exploded harmlessly in the desert.
The student included both pre- and post-test results in her thesis.
The 5- and 8-meter-long platforms can be disassembled.

11.8h: Titles. Do not hyphenate a civilian or military title denoting a single office, as in Commander in Chief, Secretary General, Vice President; but use a hyphen with a double title like secretary-treasurer. As the last element of a title, the adjectives "elect" and "designate" require a hyphen: president-elect, vice president-elect, and ambassador-designate.

11.9: PARENTHESES

Parentheses, like a pair of dashes, enclose explanatory comments or asides not intended to be part of the main thought. This usage has the advantages of simplifying sentences that would otherwise be encumbered with unwieldy subordinate and coordinate clauses, and of permitting the use of pointed asides that might seem overemphatic. A disadvantage is the possible loss of the thread of grammatical sequence, especially if the parenthetical matter is long or contains many details. Like other stylistic devices, parentheses can be overused. Keep in mind that words within parentheses can be considered "throwaway" material, thereby having the effect of weakening your writing.

Do not insert a second complete sentence parenthetically into an original sentence, as in "President Mubarak met with King Hussein (the two leaders had not met since last April) on 4 February." Instead, make two sentences or change the parenthetical material into a phrase, as shown in the following examples.

President Mubarak met with King Hussein on 4 February. The two leaders had not met since last April.

President Mubarak met with King Hussein on 4 February; the two leaders had not met since last April.

President Mubarak met with King Hussein on 4 February (for the first time since last April).

11.10: PERIOD

The period brings the reader to a full stop at the end of a sentence. This is its primary function. Other uses are discussed and illustrated in the discussion about abbreviations, chapter 13.

Note that military style omits periods in most abbreviations: NATO leaders met at the UN to discuss events in former republics of the USSR. ***A notable exception is the abbreviation for the United States: U.S.***

Adding a period at the end of a sentence that already has a form of terminal punctuation is superfluous, as in the following examples:

Stalin's daughter defected to the U.S. ***[No second period is needed.]***

The key question in his hypothesis was: "How will budget cuts affect the Intelligence Community?" ***[No additional punctuation is necessary after the question mark.]***

11.11: QUESTION MARK

11.11a: Direct Query. Use a question mark for a ***direct*** query: "Can the Libyans produce chemical weapons?" No question mark is needed for an ***indirect*** query: "The general asked whether the Libyans could produce chemical weapons."

11.11b: Rhetorical Questions. A rhetorical question is one that is asked without expectation of an answer. You cannot expect your reader to answer a question you have posed in your writing. Remember that intelligence writing should ***answer*** questions, not ***ask*** them. Why ask rhetorical questions?

11.12: QUOTATION MARKS

[See also the discussion of "Handling Quoted Material" at the beginning of chapter 8.]

11.12a: Block Quotations. Block quotations consist of four lines or more of text that you have quoted directly from a source. Because a block quotation is indented and single-spaced, its form shows that it is quoted, so quotation marks are not used to enclose it. If, however, there is quoted material ***within*** your block quotation, enclose that material in ***double*** quotation marks.

11.12b: Double and Single Quotation Marks. Quotation marks come in pairs and in two forms: double and single. The latter never appears unless the former is present. That is, single quotes are used to enclose a quotation within a quotation, as in the following examples.

Jim said, "I used the term 'gentlemen's agreement.'"
Sue asked, "Why call it a 'gentlemen's agreement'?"

11.12c: Magazine Article Titles. Quotation marks are used for titles of magazine and journal articles. Book titles are not enclosed by quotation marks (except in messages) but are underlined or italicized.

"The Growing Importance of the Intelligence Community in Information Warfare," an article in the Spring 1996 issue of *Defense Intelligence Journal*, was written by a former JMIC student.

11.12d: Punctuating with Quotation Marks. In using other punctuation marks with quoted words, phrases, or sentences, follow these rules:

At the end of quoted material, periods and commas are ***always inside*** the quotation marks.

Dashes, colons and semicolons are ***always outside*** quotation marks.

Question marks and exclamation points are placed inside the quotation marks when they apply to the quoted matter only; outside when they refer to the whole sentence.

11.13: SEMICOLON

The semicolon is almost equal to a full stop; in this usage it can be likened to a "supercomma" or a "semiperiod." Do not use a semicolon when a comma will serve, or omit one when it should be used. Semicolons are often incorrectly substituted for colons, although their functions are quite different: The semicolon is a mark of separation, the colon a mark of anticipation.

11.13a: Conjunctive Adverbs. Use a semicolon before conjunctive adverbs (***therefore, however, hence, thus, consequently, accordingly, further, moreover, nevertheless***, and so forth) when they connect two complete and related thoughts. ***[Also see 11.5k.]***

The Director publicly commended us for our report; however, he later asked us to rewrite the conclusion.

The new system will be operational next Monday; therefore, we need the instructions by this Friday.

11.13b: Independent Clauses. If independent clauses are not joined by a comma and coordinating conjunction (***and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet***), a semicolon can be used in place of the missing conjunction and comma, as in the second example below. All three ways of punctuating the sentence below are acceptable. It is a matter of choice and style.

Order your supplies today, because tomorrow may be too late.
Order your supplies today; tomorrow may be too late.
Order your supplies today. Tomorrow may be too late.

11.13c: Series of Clauses or Phrases. Use semicolons to separate the members of a series when the items themselves contain commas.

The following parties gained seats in the National Assembly: Socialist, 37; Republican, 7; Communist, 3.

11.13c: Series of Clauses or Phrases, continued.

Not: Accompanying the Admiral to the contract award briefing were Mrs. Lewis, the CEO of Crabtree Pyrotechnics, General Payne, the Commander of the Military District Headquarters and the Celebration Committee Chairman. ***(How many people attended the briefing?)***

But: Accompanying the Admiral to the contract award briefing were Mrs. Lewis; the CEO of Crabtree Pyrotechnics; General Payne, the Commander of the Military District Headquarters; and the Celebration Committee Chairman.

11.14: UNDERLINING or ITALICS

Underlining in typewritten material is the equivalent of italics. Most modern printers support italics, but if the printer you use does not, use underlining instead. Underlining helps differentiate or give greater prominence to letters, words, and phrases. Underline material sparingly to avoid excessive use, thus defeating your purpose.

11.14a: Aircraft and Ship Names. Underline or italicize the proper names (not types or classes) of aircraft, spacecraft, ships, submarines, and artificial satellites. Do not underline or italicize the abbreviations SS, USS, or HMS.

flight of the *Spirit of St Louis*
the USS *Constitution's* hull
the shuttle *Enterprise*
seizure of the *Pueblo*
USS *Wisconsin*
TIROS III

11.14b: Distinctive Letters, Words, or Phrases. Underline or italicize to distinguish letters, words, or phrases from the remainder of the sentence, so that the reader can quickly comprehend the thought.

The word *parameters* is vague and much overused.
She used the letter L to signify that a student had been late with a paper.

11.14c: Quoted Words in a Series. A profusion of quotation marks spoils the appearance of a printed page. Use underlining (italics) instead.

Not: Use carefully such descriptive words as "considerate," "cooperative," "well-poised," "cheerful," and "assertive."
But: Use carefully such descriptive words as *considerate, cooperative, well-poised, cheerful,* and *assertive.*

11.14d: Foreign Words and Phrases. Underline or italicize, but do not translate, foreign words and expressions that are nonanglicized but familiar to American readers or easily understood because of their similarity to English.

sputnik diplomacy
advocates of *democracia*
party *aktiv*
persona non grata

11.14: UNDERLINING or ITALICS, continued

11.14d: Foreign Words and Phrases, continued.

NOTE: When a nonanglicized or unfamiliar foreign word appears in ordinary text, underline or italicize it and follow it with a translation, interpretation, or explanation in parentheses. Underline or italicize the translation only if it is the title of a publication.

the achievement of *enosis* (union)
Jakarta *Merdeka* (*Freedom*)

For most foreign titles, an explanation is more relevant and useful than a literal translation.

Merdeka, the official Indonesian newspaper, . . .

If a translation is given, it should be italicized (or underlined) and in parentheses. No translation is needed for such familiar titles as ***Pravda***, ***Trud***, ***Der Spiegel***, ***Izvestiya***, and ***Kommunist***.

Do not underline or italicize the original language or English translation of names of foreign organizations, institutes, governmental bodies, political parties, educational institutions, economic enterprises, corporations, and so forth. The English translation, in parentheses, should follow the foreign-language name. Here again, an explanation of the name or description of the organization can be more useful than a translation.

The story was reported by Novosti, the Soviet press agency.

11.14e: Titles of Books and Periodicals. Underline or italicize titles of books and periodicals.

According to an article from the *Baltimore Sun*, peace talks were suspended.

11.15: VIRGULE

The virgule (also called the diagonal, separatrix, shilling mark, slant, slash, or solidus) should be used sparingly and never in place of the hyphen or dash. In particular, the phrase ***and/or*** is greatly overused in DoD writing. The virgule is used as shown in the examples below.

To represent ***a***, ***an***, or ***per*** in abbreviations: km/h (kilometers per hour).

To separate alternatives (***avoid this vague usage in your writing***):
program/budget decision; examine and/or analyze.

To separate elements in numerical expressions, such as messages:
CS9919/120430Z Jun 84.

In fractions: 2/3, 4/5.

To separate official and nickname designations of communist aircraft or versions of aircraft: MiG-29/FULCRUM; Su-17/FITTER-D/H.

In some Soviet and Chinese airfield designations: Xian/Lintong Airfield.

CHAPTER 12

CAPITALIZATION

TWO PRINCIPLES

Two main principles govern the use of capitals: Proper nouns, titles, and first words are in uppercase letters; common nouns are in lowercase unless they have gained the status of proper nouns. These principles are discussed in greater detail below.

12.1: Coined Names. A coined name or short form for a military, economic, political, or other grouping is capitalized.

the Alliance (for NATO)
the Arab World
the Blue Knights
the Cold War
the Community, the EC 12, or the Twelve (for the European Community)
the Contadora Four
the Far East
the Free World
the Greens
the Intelligence Community
the New Left
the Pact (for Warsaw Pact)
the Third World
Western Hemisphere

12.2: Derivatives of Proper Names. Capitalize proper nouns that have become associated with a development by their originator.

Bailey bridge
Reaganomics
Gaullist policies
Machiavellian
neo-Stalinism
Patton tank

12.3: Common Nouns in Proper Names. A common noun used alone as a well-known short form of a specific name is lowercased.

the basin (Caribbean Basin)
the canal (Panama or Suez Canal)
the gulf (Persian Gulf)
the heights (Golan Heights)
the isthmus (Isthmus of Panama)
the river (Rhein River)

12.4: Titles Preceding a Name. Capitalize an official title immediately preceding a person's name or the title of a top official previously identified by name. Any cabinet or command-element military position should be capitalized. Do not capitalize the word "former" or the prefix "ex-" in front of a title, unless it is the first word of a sentence.

Chancellor Kohl, the Chancellor
DIA Director LTG Hughes
the Republican Party Chairman
former Prime Minister Gandhi
Secretary of Defense Perry, the Secretary
Queen Elizabeth, the Queen
PLO Chairman Arafat
President Bush, the ex-President
former President Reagan
the Vice Chief of Staff
the Defense Minister

12.5: Titles Following or Replacing a Name. Lowercase formal titles of lower-level government and military officials when not identified by name. Lowercase terms that are job descriptions rather than formal titles.

the Australian Army commander
the general
party boss Krenz
the presidency
presidential assistant
Russian leader Yeltsin

12.6: Governmental Bodies. Capitalize the proper name of a national governmental body (U.S. or foreign).

the British Commonwealth, the Commonwealth
the British Parliament, Parliament
the Colombian Congress, the Congress; ***but***, the Colombian legislature, the legislature
the Japanese Diet, the House of Councilors, the House of Representatives
the National Security Council, the Cabinet
the U.S. Government, the French and German Governments; ***but*** the national government, the Kohl government, the communist government, the government
Note: the Clinton administration

12.7: Political Parties and Philosophies. Capitalize the official name of a political party. Lowercase the indirect reference.

anticommunist movement, communism, socialism, anticommunism, Eurocommunism

12.7: Political Parties and Philosophies, continued.

the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, the Politburo, the Central Committee, the party, a communist, the communist countries[1]
European Communist parties
the Labour Party, labour
a Socialist, Liberal, Tory (all party members)

12.8: Diplomatic Units and Corps. Capitalize the proper name of an embassy and mission. Uppercase titles of key personnel.

the British Embassy, the embassy
the Japanese Ambassador, the Ambassador
the Charge d'Affaires, the Charge
the Foreign Ministry, the Ministry
the Foreign Minister, the Minister
the French Consulate, the consulate
the Pakistani Consul General
the U.S. Defense Attache
the U.S. Mission, the mission

12.9: Historic Events. Events that have gained status owing to a widely recognized development are capitalized.

the Cold War, post-Cold War
the Cultural Revolution
the Great Leap Forward
the Islamic Revolution

12.10: Titles of Publications. Capitalize all principal words of publication titles. Key words are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and parts of compounds that would be capitalized standing alone. Many newspaper and magazine article titles are printed using lowercase letters. When preparing your bibliography and notes and when referring to such a title in the text of your paper, standardize the capitalization. Do not capitalize (except as the first word of the title or subtitle) the articles ***a***, ***an***, and ***the***; the prepositions ***at***, ***by***, ***for***, ***in***, ***of***, ***on***, ***to***, and ***up***; the conjunctions ***and***, ***as***, ***but***, ***if***, ***or***, and ***nor***; or the second element of a compound numeral (Twenty-fifth). When writing a headline that contains an infinitive, do not capitalize the "to."

[1]This lowercase form of "communist" contradicts the 1984 edition of the Government Printing Office *Style Manual*, but it is in keeping with most modern style and usage manuals and the most up-to-date dictionaries.

12.10: Titles of Publications, continued.

U.S. Persian Gulf Interests: A Historical Perspective
A Proposal to Build a Reconnaissance Technical Facility in Korea
Zen and the Art of Intelligence Analysis
Marines to Receive New Equipment

12.11: Military-Associated Terms. Capitalize the full proper name (or translation) of a military entity, whether U.S. or foreign. Lowercase an indirect or general reference.

the Defense Intelligence Agency; ***but***, defense intelligence
the French Army, the army
the Israeli Defense Forces
the Joint Staff
the Royal Air Force, the air force
the Soviet Armed Forces, the armed forces, military establishment, ground forces, naval forces, air forces
the Strategic Rocket Forces
the U.S. Air Force, the Air Force; ***but***, the air forces (indirect, often plural)
the U.S. armed services, armed forces, military services
the U.S. Army, the Army; ***but***, the army (indirect or general)
the U.S. Marine Corps, the Marines (the Corps); ***but*** marines (individuals)
the U.S. Navy, the Navy; ***but***, the navy or the navies (indirect or general)

Shortened forms of names of individual units, however, are not capitalized.

the 2d Army, the army
the 2d Battalion, the battalion
the 4th Infantry Brigade, the brigade
the 7th Fleet, the fleet

12.12: For Emphasis. Do not capitalize the first letter of a word just to stress it, and avoid uppercasing whole words or sentences for emphasis. To set off a word or phrase, italicize (or underline) it, but use this device sparingly.

COMMUNIST AND FREE-WORLD MILITARY DESIGNATORS

The lack of standard policy for capitalizing major items of military equipment, both communist and noncommunist, has caused considerable variance in its application to products. Use the following guidance.

12.13: Free-World Ship Classes. Class names of ships produced by Free World countries are set in capital and lowercase letters, and are not italicized.

Hamburg Class (destroyer)
Polaris Class (submarine)

12.14: Military Exercises and Operations. Names assigned to military exercises or operations of both Free-World and communist forces are uppercased.

Operation DESERT SHIELD
Operation DESERT STORM
Operation JUST CAUSE
Operation PEACE FOR GALILEE
Exercise GRAINY HIDE
Exercise TEAM SPIRIT-94

12.15: NATO Nicknames. NATO-designated nicknames for aircraft, ships, and weapon systems produced by Warsaw Pact nations, Albania, and former Yugoslavia, as well as Asian Communist countries, will be set in uppercase, even if they are being used by Free-World countries. In referring to classes of ships, the word ***Class*** should follow the uppercase name on first appearance in the text, but it can be dropped in later references. See the examples that follow.

BLACKJACK-A (bomber variant)
Ka-27/HELIX (helicopter)
KNIFE REST (radar)
Mi-24/HIND (helicopter)
SA-3 (GOA) (missile)
YANKEE Class (submarine)

KASHIN Class (destroyer)
KIEV Class (carrier)
KRESTA II Class (cruiser)
SHANGHAI Class (patrol boat)

12.16: Other Named Equipment. Except for acronyms and NATO nicknames, names of other major items of military equipment produced by communist and Free-World countries are set in capitals and lowercase. These items include aircraft, missile systems, radars, manned and unmanned spacecraft and space systems, tanks, vehicles, and artillery.

12.16: Other Named Equipment, continued.

Alouette III (helicopter)
Cosmos-1452 (satellite)
Leopard (medium tank)
McDonnell Douglas F-15 (fighter)
Nike Hercules (surface-to-air missile)

CHAPTER 13

ABBREVIATIONS

GENERAL POLICY

Use abbreviations sparingly, and only when you are certain the reader will understand what they represent. Too many abbreviations in the text make reading and understanding difficult. When you use the shortened form, spell out words and phrases in full on their first appearance, followed by the appropriate abbreviation in parentheses. For example: The Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) is a multi-billion dollar endeavor. Note that military style omits periods and spaces in acronyms. At the end of this chapter is a list of frequently encountered abbreviations.

13.1: Abbreviations To Avoid.

Latin Abbreviations. Avoid using the Latin abbreviations ***e.g.*** and ***i.e.*** Their meanings are often misunderstood and therefore misused. Instead, write "for example" and "that is," in each case followed by a comma. Another Latin abbreviation to avoid is ***etc.*** (and so forth), because it, too, is frequently misused--especially at the end of a series of items following "for example." See also chapter 8 for the use of secondary citations instead of Latin abbreviations such as ***ibid.***, ***et al.***, and ***op. cit.***

Measure. Do not abbreviate a unit of measure used in a general or approximate (dataless) sense.

> Ranges are given in kilometers. (***Not:*** Ranges are given in km.)
> The crater was several meters wide. (***Not:*** The crater was several m wide.)
> ***But:*** The missile has a range of 3,000 km.
> The 3,000-km-range missile malfunctioned on liftoff.

Months and Days. Do not abbreviate months and days. Use a full military date style: 15 January 1997, and ***not*** 15 Jan 97 or 15 January 97 or 15 Jan 1997.

13.2: Country Names. Except for a few well-known cases, the names of countries are generally not abbreviated at first reference. Repeated reference to countries with long names calls for abbreviation.

UK, UN. These abbreviations, without periods, are acceptable as adjectives or, preceded by ***the***, as nouns. ***British*** is also acceptable as an adjectival alternative for ***UK***.

U.S. Use periods in the abbreviation for the United States (U.S.).

USSR[1]. To save space, ***USSR*** is not spelled out. For variation, substitute ***the Soviet Union*** (or ***the former Soviet Union***). Use ***USSR*** as an adjective only for government councils and ministries (USSR Council of Ministers, USSR Ministry of Agriculture). Otherwise, the proper adjective is ***Soviet***. ***Russia*** or ***Russian*** refers to the state itself, the specific ethnic group, or the language; do not use the term as a synonym for ***USSR*** or ***Soviet***.

China and Taiwan. Do not use the term ***Republic of China*** for Taiwan. Refer to the people as ***from Taiwan, on Taiwan, of Taiwan***, rather than as ***Taiwanese***. Do not apply the adjective ***Chinese*** to the government or institutions on Taiwan. The ethnic groups on Taiwan are, however, Chinese; the language spoken there is Chinese, and one of its dialects is Taiwanese. Continue to use these terms in appropriate instances.

The People's Republic of China has adopted its own method for romanizing Chinese names (***Pinyin***), which is preferable for persons from the mainland and its place names. Use the Wade-Giles system for transliterating Chinese into English for personal and place names relating to Taiwan and for other Chinese names, except where local or personal variations have been customary in places like Singapore and Hong Kong.

The Two Germanys[1]. These former countries might be referred to in historical references as East Germany (German Democratic Republic, GDR, or the East German Government) and West Germany (Federal Republic of Germany, FRG, or Bonn).

The Two Yemens. Prior to their unification, we referred to the South--or Aden--and the North--or Sana.

[1]The former Soviet Union has split up; East and West Germany have united; so have North and South Yemen. Papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College, however, may include references to the former Soviet Union or the previously divided countries.

13.2: Country Names, continued.

The Two Koreas. When referencing the two countries, use South Korea--or Seoul--and North Korea--or Pyongyang.

UAE. The United Arab Emirates should be abbreviated. Do not use the term ***Emirian*** as an adjective for the UAE. (References to individual emirates may require the names of the seven member states.)

13.3: Foreign Terms. Spell out the name of a foreign agency or institution in English, if possible, but use the common abbreviation even if it is formed from the foreign wording. For example: Committee for State Security (KGB).

13.4: Incomplete or Possessive References. Avoid wording that puts an abbreviation immediately after an incomplete or possessive form of the name abbreviated.

Not: the Liberal Democratic (LDP) platform
But: the platform of the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)

13.5: Plural Forms. If an abbreviation's first appearance in the text is plural, the abbreviation also must be in the plural form even though the singular is used thereafter.

armored personnel carriers (APCs)

Sometimes an abbreviation not ending in *s* is nevertheless plural, as in Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT). The negotiating sessions at Geneva are abbreviated SALT I and SALT II.

13.6: Military Grades with Abbreviations. Defense Intelligence Agency Manual (DIAM) 10-1, *Written Communications* (Washington, DC: DIA, 14 April 1995) lists the different abbreviations as they are used by the services. Follow that listing, reproduced on the next two pages, in your papers. ***NOTE: Not all ranks and grades shown here are still being used by the military.***

Army Officers

General O-10, GEN
Lieutenant General O-9, LTG
Major General O-8, MG
Brigadier General O-7, BG
Colonel O-6, COL
Lieutenant Colonel O-5, LTC
Major O-4, MAJ
Captain O-3, CPT
First Lieutenant O-2, 1LT
Second Lieutenant O-1, 2LT
Chief Warrant Officer Four, CW4
Chief Warrant Officer Three, CW3
Chief Warrant Officer Two, CW2
Warrant Officer, WO

Army Enlisted

Sergeant Major of the Army, SMA
Command Sergeant Major E-9, CSM
Sergeant Major E-9, SGM
First Sergeant E-8, 1SG
Master Sergeant E-8, MSG
Sergeant First Class E-7, SFC
Specialist Seven E-7, SP7
Platoon Sergeant E-7, PSG
Staff Sergeant E-6, SSG
Specialist Six E-6, SP6
Sergeant E-5, SGT
Specialist Five E-5, SP5
Corporal E-4, CPL
Specialist E-4, SP4
Private First Class E-3, PFC
Private E-2/E1, PV2/PVT

Navy & Coast Guard Officers

Admiral O-10, ADM
Vice Admiral O-9, VADM
Rear Admiral (Upper half) O-8, RADM
Rear Admiral (Lower half) O-7, RADM
Commodore O-7, COMO (wartime only)
Captain O-6, CAPT
Commander O-5, CDR
Lieutenant Commander O-4, LCDR
Lieutenant O-3, LT
Lieutenant (junior grade) O-2, LTJG
Ensign O-1, ENS
Chief Warrant Officer
W-2, 3, 4, CWO-2/-3/-4
Warrant Officer, WO

Navy & Coast Guard Enlisted[2]

Master Chief Communications Technician E-9, CTCM
Senior Chief Communications Technician E-8, CTCS
Chief Communications Technician E-7, CTC
Communications Technician First Class E-6, CT1
Communications Technician Second Class E-5, CT2
Communications Technician Third Class E-4, CT3
Seaman E-3, SN
Seaman Apprentice E-2, SA
Seaman Recruit E-1, SR

[2]A note accompanying this section in DIAM 10-1 (page 15-2) reads: "Navy enlisted personnel are identified by rate and rating (rate is the pay grade and rating is the specialty). The number of ratings is to [sic] numerous to list, [sic] however, the examples that follow are those of communications technicians. For other abbreviations, see the Manual of Qualifications for Advancement in Rating (NAVPERS 18068B)."

Air Force Officers

General O-10, Gen
Lieutenant General O-9, Lt Gen
Major General O-8, Maj Gen
Brigadier General O-7, Brig Gen
Colonel O-6, Col
Lieutenant Colonel O-5, Lt Col
Major O-4, Maj
Captain O-3, Capt
First Lieutenant O-2, 1st Lt
Second Lieutenant O-1, 2nd Lt

Air Force Enlisted

Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force, CMSAF
Chief Master Sergeant E-9, CMSgt
Senior Master Sergeant E-8, SMSgt
Master Sergeant E-7, MSgt
Technical Sergeant E-6, TSgt
Staff Sergeant E-5, SSgt
Sergeant E-4, Sgt
Senior Airman E-4, SrA
Airman First Class E-3, A1C
Airman E-2, Amn
Basic Airman E-1, AB

Marine Corps Officers

General O-10, Gen
Lieutenant General 0-9, Lt Gen
Major General O-8, Maj Gen
Brigadier General O-7, BGen
Colonel O-6, Col
Lieutenant Colonel O-5, Lt Col
Major O-4, Maj
Captain O-3, Capt
First Lieutenant O-2, 1st Lt
Second Lieutenant O-1, 2nd Lt
Chief Warrant Officer W2, 3, 4, CWO-2/-3/-4
Warrant Officer, WO

Marine Corps Enlisted

Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps, Sgt Maj
Sergeant Major E-9, Sgt Maj
Master Gunnery Sergeant E-9, MGySgt
First Sergeant E-8, 1stSgt
Master Sergeant E-8, MSgt
Gunnery Sergeant E-7, GySgt
Staff Sergeant E-6, SSgt
Sergeant E-5, Sgt
Corporal E-4, Cpl
Lance Corporal E-3, LCpl
Private First Class E-2, PFC
Private E-1, Pvt

13.7: State, Province, Territory, and District Names.

In your footnote and bibliography entries, use the U.S. Postal Service two-letter abbreviation, without periods, for states, provinces, territories, and the District of Columbia.[3] Do not abbreviate the names, however, in the text of your papers. The abbreviations are found on the next page.

[3]Abbreviations are excerpted from the U.S. GPO *Style Manual*, 137.

13.7: State, Province, Territory, and District Names, continued.

AL	Alabama	NH	New Hampshire
AK	Alaska	NJ	New Jersey
AZ	Arizona	NM	New Mexico
AR	Arkansas	NY	New York
CA	California	NC	North Carolina
CO	Colorado	ND	North Dakota
CT	Connecticut	OH	Ohio
DE	Delaware	OK	Oklahoma
FL	Florida	OR	Oregon
GA	Georgia	PA	Pennsylvania
HI	Hawaii	RI	Rhode Island
ID	Idaho	SC	South Carolina
IL	Illinois	SD	South Dakota
IN	Indiana	TN	Tennessee
IA	Iowa	TX	Texas
KS	Kansas	UT	Utah
KY	Kentucky	VT	Vermont
LA	Louisiana	VA	Virginia
ME	Maine	WA	Washington
MD	Maryland	WV	West Virginia
MA	Massachusetts	WI	Wisconsin
MI	Michigan	WY	Wyoming
MN	Minnesota		
MS	Mississippi	CZ	Canal Zone
MO	Missouri	DC	District of Columbia
MT	Montana	GU	Guam
NE	Nebraska	PR	Puerto Rico
NV	Nevada	VI	Virgin Islands

ABBREVIATIONS OFTEN FOUND IN RESEARCH

Following is a list of abbreviations commonly encountered in books and journals. As you know from your careful reading of this style guide, the Joint Military Intelligence College follows *The Chicago Manual of Style* (14th ed.) by discouraging Latin abbreviations such as ***e.g.***, ***i.e.***, and ***etc.*** We also use ***secondary (short) citations*** instead of terms like ***ibid.*** and ***op. cit.*** It is likely, however, that you will still see these abbreviations in the works you use for your research. So it is important that you know their meanings.

If you find other terms that are not included here, consult your dictionary, but also let us know so that we can update the list. Our list is adapted from Roberta H. Markman, Peter T. Markman, and Marie L. Waddell, *10 Steps in Writing the Research Paper* (New York: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1989), 144-145.

anon.	anonymous
bk., bks.	book(s)
c., ca.	***circa***: "about"; for approximate dates (c. 1884, ca. 1884)
cf.	***confer***: "compare"; not a synonym for see.
chap.,ch.,chs.	chapter(s)
col.,cols.	column(s)
comp.	compiler, compiled, compiled by
ed.,eds.	editor(s), edition(s), or edited by
e.g.	***exempli gratia***: "for example"
et seq.	***et sequens***: "and the following" (or ff., which is shorter)
ex.	example
f., ff.	and the following page(s) (pp. 79f. or pp. 79ff.)
fig.,figs.	figure(s)
ibid.	***ibidem***: "in the same place as quoted above"; refers to title in footnote immediately above; author's name not given; page given if different from the one preceding
i.e.	***id est***: "that is"; preceded by a comma and followed by a comma and list or explanation
ill.,illus.	illustration; illustrated by
l.,ll.	line(s)
loc. cit.	***loco citato***: "in the place cited"; refers to work fully identified in any previous footnote except the one immediately preceding; preceded by author's last name; never followed by a page number because ***loc. cit.*** means "in the same location" (page) as in last footnote referring to that source
MS (MSS)	manuscript(s); always capitalized; no period
N.B.	***nota bene***: "take notice; mark well"; always capitalized
n.d.	no date given
no.,nos.	number(s)
n.p.	no place of publication (and/or no publisher) given
op. cit.	***opere citato***: "in the work cited"; preceded by author's last name, followed by page number since ***op. cit.*** stands for title only; refers to work cited previously but not immediately above
p.,pp.	page(s)
passim	"throughout the work, here and there"; (p. 37 et passim means p. 37 and other scattered pages; or pp. 37-42 passim)
pl.,pls.	plate(s)
pseud.	pseudonym, pen name (Lewis Carroll, Mark Twain)
pt.	part

q.v.	***quod vide***: "which see"
rev.	reviewed by; revised or revised by; revision
rpt.	reprint
sc.	scene
sec.,secs.	section(s)
sic	"thus"; not an abbreviation; used within brackets to indicate that an error in quoted material was in the original: "It was to [***sic***] bad."
s.v.	***sub verbo***: under the word
tr.,trans.	translator, translation, translated by
v.,vv.	verse(s)
viz.	***videlicet***: "namely"; used with or without a period; usage varies
vol.,vols.	volume(s); capitalized only before Roman numeral: Vol. VII; 9 vols.

ABBREVIATIONS OFTEN FOUND IN INTELLIGENCE PUBLICATIONS

This list comprises abbreviations commonly found in intelligence products. It has been compiled largely from authorized abbreviation lists of the armed services and other government agencies. Use abbreviations only when you are certain your reader will understand them and when lack of space in a table or on a graphic makes their use necessary. Generally, they should not be used in the text. Those that may be used in the text should be spelled out in full on first appearance, followed by the appropriate abbreviation in parentheses.

We have compiled this list primarily for standardization purposes. It includes abbreviations, acronyms, and organizational designations. It is not intended to be comprehensive and will be revised or supplemented periodically as the need arises. The first section (pages 294-299) lists the abbreviations alphabetically by full name, and the second part (pages 299-304) lists them alphabetically by abbreviation as a ready reference guide. See the *Defense Intelligence Lexicon* for abbreviations not covered here.

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME

Full Name	Abbreviation
airborne command post	ABNCP
Airborne Warning and Control System	AWACS
air defense artillery	ADA
air defense zone	ADZ
air-launched cruise missile	ALCM
air order of battle	AOB
air-to-air missile	AAM

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME, continued

Full Name	Abbreviation
air-to-surface missile	ASM
air warning; all-weather; automatic weapon	AW
amplitude modulation	AM
antiaircraft	AA
antiaircraft artillery	AAA
antiballistic missile	ABM
antimissile missile	AMM
antisatellite	ASAT
antisubmarine warfare	ASW
antitank guided missile	ATGM
armored personnel carrier	APC
Association of Southeast Asian Nations	ASEAN
battalion	BN
battery	btry
biological warfare	BW
calendar year	CY
centimeter(s)	cm
Central Group of Forces (Soviet Forces in Czechoslovakia)	CGF
chemical, biological, and radiological	CBR
chemical warfare	CW
circular error probable	CEP
command and staff exercise	CSX
command, control, and communications	C3 or C^3
command post	CP
command post exercise	CPX
Committee for State Security (Soviet)	KGB
communications exercise	COMEX
communications intelligence	COMINT
communications satellite	COMSAT
communications security	COMSEC
Communist Party of the Soviet Union	CPSU
Conference on Disarmament in Europe	CDE
Coordinating Committee	COCOM
Council for Mutual Economic Assistance	CEMA
defense attache	DATT
demilitarized zone	DMZ
direction finding	DF

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME, continued

Full Name	Abbreviation
electronic warfare; early warning	EW
electronic countermeasures	ECM
electronic counter-countermeasures	ECCM
electronic intelligence	ELINT
Electro-Optical intelligence	ELECTRO-OPTINT
enhanced radiation weapon	ERW
European Community	EC
European Economic Community	EEC
extremely low frequency	ELF
field artillery	FA
field training exercise	FTX
fiscal year	FY
Foreign Liaison Office	FLO
foreign instrumentation signals intelligence	FISINT
forward edge of the battle area	FEBA
forward line of troops	FLOT
free rocket over ground	FROG
general headquarters	GHq
(Soviet) General Staff Intelligence Organization	GRU
Greenwich Mean Time	GMT
gross domestic product	GDP
gross national product	GNP
ground-controlled approach	GCA
ground-controlled intercept	GCI
ground-launched cruise missile	GLCM
ground order of battle	GOB
Group of Soviet Forces, Germany (East Germany)	GSFG
Gulf Cooperation Council; Government Control Center	GCC
high explosive	HE
high-explosive antitank	HEAT
high frequency	HF
human resources intelligence	HUMINT
Identification, Friend or Foe	IFF
imagery intelligence	IMINT
Improved-Homing-All-the-Way Killer	I-HAWK
indications and warning	I&W
infrared; Intelligence Information Report	IR

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME, continued

Full Name	Abbreviation
initial operational capability	IOC
Intelligence Information Report; imaging infrared	IIR
intercontinental ballistic missile	ICBM
intermediate-range ballistic missile	IRBM
Intermediate-Range Nuclear Force	INF
International Monetary Fund	IMF
Israeli Defense Force	IDF
Japan Defense Agency	JDA
Japanese Self Defense Force	JSDF
kilogram(s)	kg
kilometer(s)	km
kilometers/hour	km/h
kiloton(s)	kt
kilovolt(s)	kV
kilowatt(s)	kW
knot(s)	kn
laser intelligence	LASINT
Lebanese Armed Forces	LAF
line(s) of communication	LOC(s)
liquid oxygen	LOX
long-range aviation	LRA
low frequency	LF
measurement and signature intelligence	MASINT
medium-range ballistic missile	MRBM
military district	MD
military region	MR
Military Transport Aviation (Soviet)	VTA
millimeter(s)	mm
missile order of battle; main operating base	MOB
Multinational Force	MNF
multiple independently-targetable reentry vehicle (warheads)	MIRV
nautical mile	NM
naval order of battle	NOB
Nonaligned Movement	NAM
noncommissioned officer	NCO
Non-Soviet Warsaw Pact	NSWP

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME, continued

Full Name	Abbreviation
North Atlantic Treaty Organization	NATO
nuclear intelligence	NUCINT
Official News Agency of the USSR	TASS
open-source intelligence	OSINT
operational intelligence	OPINT
operational maneuver group (Soviet)	OMG
operations security	OPSEC
order of battle	OB
Organization of African Unity	OAU
Organization of American States	OAS
Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development	OECD
Organization of Petroleum-Exporting Countries	OPEC
Palestine Liberation Organization	PLO
Permanent Restricted Area	PRA
petroleum, oil, and lubricants	POL
photographic intelligence	PHOTINT
Popular Front for the Liberation of Saguia el Hamra and Rio de Oro	Polisario
postboost vehicle	PBV
prisoner of war	POW
radar intelligence	RADINT
radar order of battle	ROB
reentry vehicle	RV
research and development	R&D
roll-on/roll-off (ship)	RO/RO
scientific and technical intelligence	S&TI
self-propelled	SP
short-range ballistic missile	SRBM
short takeoff and landing	STOL
side-looking airborne radar	SLAR
signals intelligence	SIGINT
signals security	SIGSEC
South African Defense Force	SADF
South-West Africa People's Organization	SWAPO
Soviet airborne troops	VDV
Strategic Arms Limitation Talks	SALT
Strategic Arms Reduction Talks	START
Strategic Defense Initiative	SDI

ALPHABETICALLY BY FULL NAME, concluded

Full Name	Abbreviation
Strategic Rocket Forces (Soviet)	SRF
submarine- (sea-)launched ballistic missile	SLBM
submarine-launched cruise missile	SLCM
surface-to-air missile	SAM
surface-to-surface missile	SSM
table of organization and equipment	TO&E
Temporary Restricted Area	TRA
Theater of Military Operations (Soviet)	TVD
Theater Nuclear Forces	TNF
transporter-erector-launcher	TEL
transporter-erector-launcher and radar	TELAR
ultra high frequency	UHF
under construction	UC
unidentified	UI
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	USSR
United Kingdom	UK
United Nations	UN
United States	U.S.
vertical/short takeoff and landing	V/STOL
vertical takeoff and landing	VTOL
very high frequency	VHF
very low frequency	VLF
Warsaw Pact	WP
Watch Condition	WATCHCON

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION

Abbreviation	Full Name
AA	antiaircraft
AAA	antiaircraft artillery
AAM	air-to-air missile
ABM	antiballistic missile
ABNCP	airborne command post
ADA	air defense artillery
ADZ	air defense zone

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION, continued

Abbreviation	Full Name
ALCM	air-launched cruise missile
AM	amplitude modulation
AMM	antimissile missile
AOB	air order of battle
APC	armored personnel carrier
ASAT	antisatellite
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASM	air-to-surface missile
ASW	antisubmarine warfare
ATGM	antitank guided missile
AW	air warning; all-weather; automatic weapon
AWACS	Airborne Warning and Control System
BN	battalion
btry	battery
BW	biological warfare
C3 or C^3	command, control, and communications
CBR	chemical, biological, and radiological
CDE	Conference on Disarmament in Europe
CEMA	Council for Mutual Economic Assistance
CEP	circular error probable
CGF	Central Group of Forces (Soviet forces in Czechoslovakia)
cm	centimeter(s)
COCOM	Coordinating Committee
COMEX	communications exercise
COMINT	communications intelligence
COMSAT	communications satellite
COMSEC	communications security
CP	command post
CPSU	Communist Party of the Soviet Union
CPX	command post exercise
CSX	command and staff exercise
CW	chemical warfare
CY	calendar year
DATT	defense attache
DF	direction finding
DMZ	demilitarized zone

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION, continued

Abbreviation	Full Name
EC	European Community
ECCM	electronic counter-countermeasures
ECM	electronic countermeasures
EEC	European Economic Community
ELECTRO-OPTINT	Electro-Optical intelligence
ELF	extremely low frequency
ELINT	electronic intelligence
ERW	enhanced radiation weapon
EW	electronic warfare; early warning
FA	field artillery
FEBA	forward edge of the battle area
FISINT	foreign instrumentation signals intelligence
FLO	Foreign Liaison Office
FLOT	forward line of troops
FROG	free rocket over ground
FTX	field training exercise
FY	fiscal year
GCA	ground controlled approach
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council; Government Control Center
GCI	ground controlled intercept
GDP	gross domestic product
GHq	general headquarters
GLCM	ground-launched cruise missile
GMT	Greenwich Mean Time
GNP	gross national product
GOB	ground order of battle
GRU	Soviet General Staff Intelligence Organization
GSFG	Group of Soviet Forces, Germany (East Germany)
HE	high explosive
HEAT	high-explosive antitank
HF	high frequency
HUMINT	human resources intelligence
ICBM	intercontinental ballistic missile
IDF	Israeli Defense Force
IFF	Identification, Friend or Foe
I-HAWK	Improved-Homing-All-the-Way Killer
IIR	Intelligence Information Report; imaging infrared

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION, continued

Abbreviation	Full Name
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMINT	imagery intelligence
INF	Intermediate-Range Nuclear Force
IOC	initial operational capability
IR	infrared; Intelligence Information Report
IRBM	intermediate-range ballistic missile
I&W	indications and warning
JDA	Japan Defense Agency
JSDF	Japanese Self Defense Force
kg	kilogram(s)
KGB	Committee for State Security (Soviet)
km	kilometer(s)
km/h	kilometers/hour
kn	knot(s)
kt	kiloton(s)
kV	kilovolt(s)
kW	kilowatt(s)
LAF	Lebanese Armed Forces
LASINT	laser intelligence
LF	low frequency
LOC(s)	line(s) of communication
LOX	liquid oxygen
LRA	long-range aviation
MASINT	measurement and signature intelligence
MD	military district
MIRV	multiple independently-targetable reentry vehicle (warhead)
mm	millimeter(s)
MNF	Multinational Force
MOB	missile order of battle; main operating base
MR	military region
MRBM	medium-range ballistic missile
NAM	Nonaligned Movement
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NCO	noncommissioned officer
NM	nautical mile(s)
NOB	naval order of battle

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION, continued

Abbreviation	Full Name
NSWP	Non-Soviet Warsaw Pact
NUCINT	nuclear intelligence
OAS	Organization of American States
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OB	order of battle
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OMG	operational maneuver group (Soviet)
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum-Exporting Countries
OPINT	operational intelligence
OPSEC	operations security
OSINT	open-source intelligence
PBV	postboost vehicle
PHOTINT	photographic intelligence
PLO	Palestine Liberation Organization
POL	petroleum, oil, and lubricants
Polisario	Popular Front for the Liberation of Saguia el Hamra and Rio de Oro
POW	prisoner of war
PRA	Permanent Restricted Area
RADINT	radar intelligence
R&D	research and development
ROB	radar order of battle
RO/RO	roll-on/roll-off (ship)
RV	reentry vehicle
SADF	South African Defense Force
SALT	Strategic Arms Limitation Talks
SAM	surface-to-air missile
SDI	Strategic Defense Initiative
SIGINT	signals intelligence
SIGSEC	signals security
SLAR	side-looking airborne radar
SLBM	submarine (sea)-launched ballistic missile
SLCM	submarine-launched cruise missile
SP	self-propelled
SRBM	short-range ballistic missile
SRF	Strategic Rocket Forces (Soviet)
SSM	surface-to-surface missile
S&TI	scientific and technical intelligence

ALPHABETICALLY BY ABBREVIATION, concluded

Abbreviation	Full Name
START	Strategic Arms Reduction Talks
STOL	short takeoff and landing
SWAPO	South-West Africa People's Organization
TASS	Official News Agency of the USSR
TEL	transporter-erector-launcher
TELAR	transporter-erector-launcher and radar
TNF	Theater Nuclear Forces
TO&E	table of organization and equipment
TRA	Temporary Restricted Area
TVD	Theater of Military Operations (Soviet)
UHF	ultra high frequency
UC	under construction
UI	unidentified
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
U.S.	United States
VDV	Soviet airborne troops
VHF	very high frequency
VLF	very low frequency
V/STOL	vertical/short takeoff and landing
VTA	Military Transport Aviation (Soviet)
VTOL	vertical takeoff and landing
WATCHCON	Watch Condition
WP	Warsaw Pact

CHAPTER 14

COMPOUNDING AND OTHER TROUBLEMAKERS

Spelling, capitalization, hyphenation, and compounding of certain terms often vary from source to source. We have listed some of the most common troublemakers to provide a quick, standardized reference. As you encounter other "demon" words and phrases that are not on our list, bring them to the Writing Center for inclusion in the next edition of our style guide. Two excellent sources for other problem words are the DIA *Writing Style Guide* and CIA's *Style Manual.*[1] The function of certain words is indicated by the abbreviations ***mod.*** (modifier), ***n.*** (noun), or ***v.*** (verb).

able-bodied (mod.)
accommodate
ad hoc
adviser
Aeroflot
air base (general use)
air-breathing
aircrew
airfield
air force (general use)
airlift
airpower, ***but*** naval and air power
airspace
airstrike
allied forces
allies (U.S. allies, ***but*** NATO Allies)
all-weather (mod.)
antiaircraft
antiballistic
anticommunist
antiguerrilla
antimissile
antinuclear
antisatellite
antitank
antiterrorist
apparatus (sing.), apparatuses (pl.)
Arafat, Yassir
armor-heavy (mod.)
armor officer
armored brigade, unit
army-group-level (mod.)
Atlantic Fleet

back channel (n.)
back-channel (v., mod.)
backdate
back down (v.)
backdown (n., mod.)

[1]Defense Intelligence Agency, Directorate for General Military Intelligence, *Office for Research and Assessments Intelligence Production Guide, Volume 2: Writing Style Guide*, DIR-0000-2-92 (Washington, DC: DIA, 1992), 7-12 through 7-73; and Central Intelligence Agency, Directorate of Intelligence, *Style Manual & Writer's Guide for Intelligence Publications*, 4th ed., CPAS 89-10001 (Langley, VA: CIA, 1989), 81-117.

backdrop
backfit
backtrack
backup (n., mod.)
back up (v.)
bailout (n., mod.)
bail out (v.)
balance-of-payments (mod.)
ballistic missile (mod.)
base camp
baseline
base line (surveying)
battalion-sized units
battlefront
battleground
battle group
battleline
battleship
beachhead
before-cited
bellwether
below-market (mod.)
benefited/-fiting
black market (n.)
black-market (v., mod.)
boatcrew
boatyard
borderland
borderline
boresight
born (birth)
borne (carried)
bottleneck
bottom line (n.)
bottom-line (mod.)
brainstorm
brain trust
brainwash
breakaway (n., mod.)
breakdown (n., mod.)
break down (v.)
break-in (n., mod.)
break in (v.)
breakout (n., mod.)
break out (v.)
breakthrough
breechloader
breech-loading (mod.)
bridgehead
building block (n.)
building-block (mod.)
buildingways (sing. and pl.)
buildup (n., mod.)
build up (v.)
built-in (mod.)
built-up (mod.)
burdensharing

canceled
cancellation
candlelit
carrier-based (mod.)
carrierborne
carryover (n., mod.)
carry over (v.)
catchup (mod.)
catch up (v.)
cease-fire (n., mod.)
cease fire (v.)
chain of command
chairman
chairperson
chairwoman
chief of staff
close-in (mod.)
closeminded
coal-mining (mod.)
coauthor
cochairman
codename (n.)
codenamed (adj., v.)
codeword
collocated
combatant
combat-capable (mod.)
command and control (n.)
command-and-control (mod.)
Commander in Chief (n.)
commandwide
communications chief, director, or officer
communism

communist
counter-countermeasures
counterguerrilla
countermeasures
counterstrike
counterterrorist
countrywide
coworker
craneway
cruise missile
cutback (n.)
CY 1996

database
decisionmaker
de-escalate
de facto
defense attache (but U.S. Defense Attache)
disastrous
division-level (mod.)
double space
drydock
dual-purpose (mod.)
dual-track (mod.)

early-to-mid stage
Eastern Europe (n.), but East European (mod.)
electromagnetic
electro-optic
embarrassment
embargoes

face-saving (mod.)
fallout
Far Eastern
farsighted
firepower
firsthand
five-year plan
fixed-wing (mod.)
Fleet Marine Forces
flight test, ***but*** flight-testing
follow-on (n., mod.)
follow on (v.)
followthrough (n., mod.)
followup (n., mod.)
follow up (v.)
forums (***not*** fora)
four-star (mod.)
Free World
front-running
FY 1997

general purpose forces
glidepath (mod.)
grant aid
grant-in-aid
ground-based (mod.)
ground-controlled intercept
government-in-exile (n.)
guided-missile destroyer

half-loaded (mod.)
handcarry
handgrenade
harass
hardcore (mod.)
hardline (mod.)
hardliner
hard-surface (mod.)
heavyhanded
height-finding (mod.)
helicopter-borne (mod.)
high-altitude (mod.)
high frequency (n.)
high-frequency (mod.)
high-level (mod.)
high-ranking (mod.)
hindrance
home base (n.), ***but*** home-based (v.)
home port (n.), ***but*** home-ported (v.)
hotbed

ill-timed (mod.)
in-country
in-depth (mod.)
Intelligence Community
in-theater

jetliner

joint task force

keyword
kickoff
kidnapped
Khrushchev, Nikita

land-mobile (mod.)
launch site
launching ways
leftwing (mod.)
left wing (n.)
liftoff
lightweight
line-of-sight (mod.)
liquid-propellant (mod.)
live-fire (mod.)
long-range (mod.)
longstanding
long-term
lookdown-shootdown (mod.)
look angle (n.)
looseleaf
low-altitude (mod.)
lowercase (mod.)
low frequency (n.)
low-frequency (mod.)
low-level (mod.)
low-ranking (mod.)

Mach 2
machinegun
manmade (mod.)
man-portable (mod.)
martial-law (mod.)
mid-1993
midair
midday
Middle Eastern
mid-range
midstage
mid-to-late stage
midyear
minefield
Modified SPRINT (Mod SPRINT)
multidiscipline
multipurpose
Muslim

narrowband
National Guard
nationwide
NATO Alliance, Allies
NATO forces
Near East
near-real-time (mod.)
near-term (mod.)
newfound
no-first-use policy
nonaligned (mod.)
non-air-transportable
noncommissioned
noncommunist
nondivisional
nonmilitary
nonnegotiable
nonnuclear
non-oil-producing
nonpartisan
non-Soviet Warsaw Pact
non-U.S. NATO forces
nose cone
nuclear-free zone
nuclear-weapons-free zone
number-one (mod.)

offline
offset
offshoot
offshore
often, ***not*** oftentimes or ofttimes
oil-producing (mod.)
onbase (mod.)
onboard (mod.)
ongoing
onhand (mod.)
online (mod.)
onsite (mod.)
onstation (mod.)
open-door (mod.)
order of battle (n.)
order-of-battle (mod.)

outdated
outgoing
out-of-date (mod.)
overhaul
overriding

paramilitary
peacekeeping
phasedown (n., mod.)
phase-in (n., mod.)
phase in (v.)
phaseout (n., mod.)
phase out (v.)
photographic
photoreconnaissance
play down (v.)
policymaker
pontoon
postattack
postboost
post-Cold War
postwar
powerplant
preattack
preexamine
pre-position
programmed
pullout (n.)
pull out (v.)

Qadhafi, Muammar
quandary
quasi- (mod.)
quick-reaction

radio broadcast
radio-relay (mod.)
radio set
railyard
rapprochement
Ready Reserve
real-time (mod.)
re-engineer
reentry
reevaluate
Regular Army
repairway
reverse-engineer (v.)
rightwing (mod.)
right wing (n.)
rollback (n.)
roll back (v.)
rotary-wing (mod.)

safe house (n.)
sealift
second-generation (mod.)
second-largest (mod.)
seize
servicemember
servicemen, servicewomen
setback (n.)
set back (v.)
shakeup (n.)
shake up (v.)
sheikh
shore-based (mod.)
short-range (mod.)
siege
silo-based (mod.)
slowdown (n.)
slow down (v.)
so-called (mod.)
solid-propellent (mod.)
South Atlantic
South Pacific
Southeast Asia
Southern Atlantic
Southwest Pacific
space age (n.)
space-age (mod.)
space-based (mod.)
spaceborne
space flight
space station
splashdown
staging area
standdown (n.)
stand down (v.)
standing operating procedures

standoff
state of the art (n.)
state-of-the-art (mod.)
streamlined
steel-producing
Strategic Arms Limitation Talks
strongman (nonliteral)
Sub-Saharan Africa (n.)
Sub-Saharan African (mod.)
subsystem
superhigh frequency (n.)
superhigh-frequency (mod.)
superpowers
surface-to-air missile
swingwing

takeoff (n.)
take off (v.)
takeover (n.)
take over (v.)
targeted, targeteer, targeting
T-shaped (mod.)
telecommunications
test-fire (v.)
third country (n.)
third-country (mod.)
third party (n.)
third-party (mod.)
Third World (n.)
Third-World (mod.)
threshold
throw-weight (mod.)
trade-in (n., mod.)
trade in (v.)
tradeoff (n., mod.)
trade off (v.)
transporter-erector-launcher
transporter-erector-launcher-and-radar
transshipment
traveled, traveler, traveling
triservice
trooplift
turnout (n.)
turn out (v.)

ultrahigh frequency (n.)
ultrahigh-frequency (mod.)
underway
update, updated (n., v., mod.)
uppercase (mod.)
U.S.-leased (mod.)
U.S.-made (mod.)
U.S. military forces

very-high frequency (n.)
very-high-frequency (mod.)
very-low frequency (n.)
very-low-frequency (mod.)

war game (n.)
war-game (v., mod.)
wargaming
Warsaw Pact forces
weapon systems
Western (nations)
Western Alliance
Western Atlantic
Western Europe (n.), ***but*** West European (mod.)
westernmost
Western Pacific
white paper (diplomatic)
wideband
wide-ranging (mod.)
workday
working-class (mod.)
working-level (mod.)
worldwide

xenophobia

yearend
yearlong
year-old
YANKEE Class

zero-option (mod.)
ZULU time

CHAPTER 15

A USAGE GLOSSARY FOR INTELLIGENCE WRITERS

This section appeared in the original *Current Intelligence Publications Division Style Guide* as "Taming the Troublemakers." We have modified it for student use at the Joint Military Intelligence College.

a / an. Use ***an*** before words that begin with a vowel ***sound*** (an apple, an heir). "An historian" is incorrect because the h is sounded. "An unique idea" is incorrect, also, because the initial sound in ***unique*** is that of the consonant y.

abbreviations and acronyms. Shortened forms of words and phrases can be useful at times, such as in a newspaper ad where you pay by the word or line. At the Joint Military Intelligence College, however, you are encouraged to avoid the use of nonstandard abbreviations or acronyms wherever possible. When you do use one, spell it out the first time, then put the short form in parentheses. Thereafter you may use the short form: Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI).

adapt / adopt. ***To adapt*** is to adjust oneself to a new or changed situation. ***To adopt*** is to choose and follow a new course of action: "East German leaders found it difficult to ***adapt*** to the wave of democracy sweeping Eastern Europe. The people, however, readily ***adopted*** democracy."

advance / advanced. ***Advance*** party; ***advance*** payment; ***advanced*** training program.

adverse / averse. Both words are adjectives. Most nations had an ***adverse*** (unfavorable) reaction to North Korea's handling of its nuclear program. The United Nations, however, was ***averse*** (disinclined) to impose sanctions.

advice / advise. ***Advice***, a noun, is the counsel or assistance that is given. ***Advise*** is a verb. "The lieutenant could not ***advise*** me what to do, so I took the sergeant's ***advice***."

affect / effect. Both words may be verbs. To ***affect*** something is to have an impression on it or to change it: "Glasnost may ***affect*** our foreign policy." To ***effect*** something is to create it: "The Soviets ***effected*** a change in their policy with glasnost." Effect may also be a noun, meaning result or consequence: "The ***effects*** of glasnost remain to be seen."

afterward / afterwards. ***Afterward*** is preferred.

all / all of. Except when a personal pronoun is involved ("We saw all of them."), "of" is redundant. "They interviewed ***all*** the candidates."

all ready / already. ***All ready*** means everyone or everything is ready: "The troops were ***all ready*** for muster." ***Already*** means before a specified or implied time: "Private Jones was missing, and it was ***already*** time for muster."

all right / alright. ***All right*** is the correct form; ***alright*** is not a word.

all together / altogether. ***All together*** means in unison: "The analysts were ***all together*** in their assessment." ***Altogether*** means all told, in all, or completely: "The analysts were ***altogether*** confused about the new developments."

allude / elude / illusion. ***To allude*** to something is to mention it indirectly. The noun form is ***allusion***. "Her ***allusion*** to the bastions of communism made me think of Cuba and North Korea." One gets away or escapes by ***eluding***. "He ***eluded*** capture for 15 days before being rescued." Finally, an ***illusion*** is something that is not really there--a mistaken impression or belief. "Absolute certainty in intelligence estimates is an ***illusion***."

along with. ***Along with*** does not affect the verb: "The captain, ***along with*** other personnel, was on deck." This rule also holds true for ***as well as***, ***in addition to***, ***like***, and ***together with***.

alot / a lot. ***Alot*** is not a word. There is a word ***allot***, meaning "to distribute, or to assign shares or portions," but that is usually not what the writer of "alot" has in mind. Most of the time a better sentence will result by rewriting to avoid the use of "a lot"; even though it is grammatically correct, it is imprecise.

Incorrect: ***Alot*** of missile specialists are leaving the service early.
Correct: ***A lot*** of missile specialists are leaving the service early.
Better: Almost 90 percent of missile specialists are leaving the service early.

altar / alter. You are likely to find an ***altar*** in a place of worship, where one's attitude might be ***altered*** (changed).

alternate / alternative. Used as a verb, a noun, or an adjective (and pronounced differently depending upon its usage), ***alternate*** means to change back and forth in turn or to substitute. "They ***alternate*** their shift work, producing ***alternate*** estimates in the process." ***Alternatives*** are choices: "They had no ***alternative*** but to accept the figures given in the assessment." It is redundant to use the word "other" with alternatives; that is, do not write "We had no ***other*** alternative."

altitude / elevation. Use ***altitude*** when describing something in the air, ***elevation*** when referring to the ground: "The new jet fighter may attain a record ***altitude.***" "The ***elevation*** of that mountain range averages 7,000 meters."

amid / amidst. ***Amidst*** sounds poetic, but it is not for intelligence writing. Use ***amid.***

among / amongst. You will be right at home in London with ***amongst***, but as long as you're writing papers here at the JMIC, the preferred form is ***among.***

among / between. ***Among*** always implies more than two: "War reparations were distributed among the six nations." ***Between*** expresses the relationship of two things: "There was a dispute ***between*** the two countries." But ***between*** is also used for more than two to indicate a reciprocal relationship: "A treaty was concluded ***between*** the three nations."

amount / number. ***Amount*** refers to things judged by their weight, bulk, or sums: "The ***amount*** of cargo carried by the new truck is impressive." ***Number*** refers to things that can be counted: "The rebels lost a staggering ***number*** of men in August." See also "fewer/less."

analyzation. This is an ostentatious way of saying ***analysis.***

and / or. Means one or the other or both. Obviously imprecise. Avoid this form.

any and all. Redundant and repetitious. Use something more specific.

appraise / apprise. ***Appraise*** means to assign a value to something. "We were unable to ***appraise*** the worth of the captured equipment." ***Apprise*** means to tell. "Our commander ***apprised*** us of the situation."

approximately / about / some. Never use these words when a figure is stated precisely.

> ***Incorrect:*** We counted approximately 37 tanks. Some 64 divisions opposed us.
> ***Correct:*** We counted approximately 40 tanks and 70 divisions facing us.
>
> (***Note:*** All estimates should be rounded. Also, do not use the words "estimated" and "approximately" [about, some] together, because they both show approximations.)

assure / ensure / insure. All mean to make sure or certain. ***Assure*** applies to persons. It alone has the sense of setting a person's mind at rest: "I ***assured*** the professor of my attentiveness." ***Ensure*** implies making an outcome certain or making something safe: "Abundant crops ***ensure*** a nation against famine." ***Insure*** means to cover with insurance. The distinction between ***ensure*** and ***insure*** is disappearing in American English usage. While it is in transition, though, you should distinguish between the two in your formal writing. Consult a current dictionary if you have any doubt about correct usage.

as well as. See "along with."

at present / currently / presently. These terms are overused in intelligence writing: "The situation is stable ***at present.***" "They ***currently*** have shortages of men and materiel." In almost every case the term may be omitted, because the present tense of the verb already conveys that meaning.

average. An ***average*** can be only one figure.

> ***Incorrect:*** The new FIZZLE fighter ***averages between*** 900 and 1,000 knots.
> ***Correct:*** The new FIZZLE fighter ***averages*** 950 knots.

averse. See "adverse/averse."

awhile / a while. ***Awhile*** is an adverb, analogous to expressions such as ***ago***, in "a month ***ago.***" Use ***awhile*** in constructions such as "We rested ***awhile.***" With a preposition, use the noun form "(a) while," as in "We rested for ***a while.***"

because of. See "due to."

between / among. See "among/between."

boat / ship. A ***ship*** is a large vessel, capable of going to sea. A ***boat*** is relatively small, stays mostly in coastal or inland waters, and can be carried on a ship.

buzzwords. See "vogue words."

can / may. The attentive writer will use ***can*** for ability or power to do something, and ***may*** for permission to do it: "Even though our children ***can*** write on the walls, it is unlikely that we will say they ***may*** do so."

> (***NOTE***: In intelligence writing, "can" is often used as a synonym for "has the capability to" or "is capable of," when speaking of a nation or force's capabilities: "The North Koreans ***can*** exercise that option at any time." The word does not, and should not, imply any ***intention***. "May," on the other hand, is used to imply a probability: "The Cubans ***may*** be serious about improving trade relations.")

capital / capitol. The ***capital*** is the city or the money, or an adjective meaning first or primary (capital letter, capital offense, capital punishment); the ***capitol*** is a building. To remember, think of the round, O-like dome of the capitOl building.

careen / career. Usage experts argue interminably about the "correct" use of these two words, but the verb forms of ***careen*** and ***career*** are becoming ever more synonymous in the sense of rushing headlong or swerving side to side. A vehicle out of control may ***careen*** down a hillside, or it may ***career*** recklessly ahead. The choice may be governed largely by ear. The noun form of ***career***, of course, means a profession: "She was wise to have chosen a ***career*** of military service."

center around / center about. Neither of these phrases is correct. Use ***center on*** or ***center upon***. "U.S. foreign policy is said to ***center upon*** neo-Wilsonian pragmatism."

cite, site, or sight. ***Cite*** is a verb, meaning to quote, mention or commend: "She ***cited*** the dictionary as her source." "The captain ***cited*** the sergeant for bravery." ***Site***, as a noun, means a place: "We visited the ***site*** of the battle." Used as a verb, it means to locate something on a site: "They ***sited*** the new DIA building on Bolling Air Force Base." ***Sight*** may be either a verb or a noun, and means the act or fact of seeing: "She ***sighted*** the commissary. His ***sight*** was inadequate at night."

coincidence / coincident / coincidental. A ***coincidence*** (noun) occurs when two events happen at the same time, or when they "coincide," often without intention. Something ***coincidental*** (an adjective) also happens at the same time or is the result of a coincidence. The adjective ***coincident*** means similar or simultaneous. "The facts in the DIA estimate were ***coincident*** with (or ***coincided*** with) those in the Joint Committee report. That fact was a ***coincidence***, since the two studies used different sources to arrive at their conclusions."

collocate. To set or place together. ***Not*** spelled "colocate."

communication / communications. Both words may be either a noun or an adjective. ***Communication*** refers to the process or the act of communicating: "Skills in interpersonal ***communication*** are essential for intelligence professionals." ***Communications*** are the means of sending messages: "The ***communications*** satellite provides instantaneous transmission worldwide."

compare to / with. To compare one thing ***to*** another is to emphasize the similarity between the two: "She ***compared*** the Soviet tank regiment ***to*** a U.S. Army armored battalion." To compare one thing ***with*** another is to examine all aspects and qualities for similarity or dissimilarity, as in "He ***compared*** the regiment ***with*** the division."

complement / compliment. A ship's crew is its ***complement***; one object or event may complete or coordinate with another. A positive comment about another person is a ***compliment***. "The professor ***complimented*** CPT Jones on his writing."

compose / comprise / constitute. These three words are often confused. ***Comprise*** means to embrace, include, or contain--the whole ***comprises*** the parts. Conversely, the parts ***constitute*** or ***compose*** the whole. "The home guard ***comprises*** ten units." "Ten units ***constitute*** (or compose) the home guard."

compounding words. Compounding confounds many students. See chapter 14 of this guide for more on this subject. Some of the most common compound words you will encounter are in the following list. Notice how they are formed:

> anticommunist, antiguerrilla, antiterrorism, antiterrorist; ***but***, anti-American, anti-European; counterguerrilla, counternarcotics, counterterrorism, counterterrorist; decisionmaker, decisionmaking (modifier); policymaker, policymaking (modifier).

conduct. An overused word, as in "The Soviets ***conducted*** an amphibious operation." Instead, try ***engaged in, launched, staged,*** or ***performed***.

continual / continuous. ***Continual*** means frequently repeated with only brief interruptions: "***Continual*** misunderstandings highlighted the negotiations." ***Continuous*** means absolutely without interruption: "***Continuous*** misunderstandings marred the seventh day of negotiations."

contractions. Do not use them in your papers at the Joint Military Intelligence College.

council / counsel. ***Counsel*** is both a noun and a verb. You might need to secure legal ***counsel*** if you want to breach a contract agreement. Your lawyer will ***counsel*** you then on your rights. A ***council*** is some form of advisory committee. Perhaps you will argue that the ruling ***council*** needs to word its contract more clearly.

courts-martial / court-martials. Either is acceptable, but ***courts-martial*** is preferred as the plural form.

crisis. Denotes a turning point, a period of abrupt and decisive change. The Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia was a ***crisis***; frequent changes of government in an unstable political environment are not. The plural form is ***crises***.

criteria / criterion. A ***criterion*** is a standard for judgment; the plural form is ***criteria***: "One ***criterion*** of a well-written paper is clarity, but many other ***criteria*** also contribute to readability."

currently. See "at present/currently/presently."

data / errata / media / phenomena. These are the plural forms of ***datum*** (rarely used), ***erratum***, ***medium***, and ***phenomenon***, respectively. Each requires a plural verb.

dates and times. Follow military date style and the 24-hour time system: Use "15 August 1994" or "August 1994," ***not*** "August 15, 1994" or "August, 1994"; write "0700" or "1900" instead of "7:00 AM" or "7:00 PM." In referring to decades, write "1980s" or 1990s" instead of "1980's" or "1990's."

different from / than. ***Different from*** is the preferred term. (Even better, ***differs from***.) "This rule is ***different from*** that one." However, if the object of the preposition is a clause, ***different than*** is preferred: "How ***different*** things appear in Washington ***than*** in Paris."

dilemma. A ***dilemma*** is a situation involving distasteful alternatives. Avoid using the term when all you are discussing is a problem. Preferred synonyms include ***plight***, ***predicament***, or ***quandary***. Avoid the trite "horns of a dilemma."

disburse / disperse. To ***disburse*** is to pay out or distribute: "The pay officer ***disbursed*** the monthly payroll to the troops." To ***disperse*** is to scatter or spread something: "National Guard troops ***dispersed*** the crowd."

discreet / discrete. ***Discreet*** means showing good judgment or being able to maintain a prudent silence: "An intelligence officer must always be ***discreet*** in handling classified information." ***Discrete*** means separate, distinct: "The intelligence process has three ***discrete*** phases: collection, production, and dissemination."

disinterested / uninterested. ***Disinterested*** means impartial, unbiased: "You should have your first written draft read by a ***disinterested*** individual." A mediator should be ***disinterested***. ***Uninterested*** means indifferent: "The students appeared ***uninterested*** in my topic for discussion."

dissent / dissension. ***Dissent*** can be both a noun and a verb. If you do not agree with a particular policy, you can ***dissent*** or "differ in opinion." Such a difference of opinion is called a ***dissent*** or a ***dissenting*** opinion. ***Dissension*** (note the spelling) goes beyond a difference of opinion--which can be expressed amicably--and indicates discord or quarreling.

due to / because of / owing to / on account of. Grammar textbooks and dictionaries disagree on proper usage for these terms, but in most cases of standard written English, ***due to*** is becoming acceptable as a prepositional phrase. Technically, though, ***due*** is an adjective that needs a noun to modify. If ***due to*** comes after a form of the verb ***to be***, then ***due*** is being used--correctly--as an adjective: "The project's failure was ***due to*** insufficient planning." (The adjective ***due*** modifies the noun ***failure***.) Avoid beginning a sentence with ***due to***. ***Because of***, ***owing to***,

and ***on account of*** are compound prepositions: "The project failed ***because of*** (or owing to, on account of) insufficient planning." ***On account of*** is far less common in standard written English. Use one of the others instead.

Incorrect: Due to improper assembly, the temporary bridge collapsed.
Correct: Because of improper assembly, the temporary bridge collapsed.
Also correct: The collapse of the temporary bridge was ***due to*** improper assembly.

each. ***Each***, used as a subject, takes a singular verb and related pronoun: "***Each*** student, graduate and undergraduate, ***has*** a unique style of writing."

each and every. Redundant. ***Each*** is enough by itself.

east / eastern. Indefinite or general terms of broad application commonly end in ***-ern*** and are not capitalized unless they refer to specific blocs (see the next entry): "The unit trained in the ***eastern*** region." Terms of definite designation commonly use the short form, as in "the ***east*** bank of the river" or "the ***east*** side of town."

East / Soviet bloc. These terms are vague and may confuse your reader. Be precise in writing about communist countries or regional alliances. The term "Eastern Europe," for example, includes the former Non-Soviet Warsaw Pact countries, the former Yugoslavia, and Albania.

economic / economics / economical. ***Economic***, an adjective, pertains to the science of economics, a singular noun: "The country devalued its currency because of ***economic*** problems." "***Economics*** is an imprecise science." ***Economical*** means thrifty: "Cutting 50 dollars from my food budget was an ***economical*** move."

effect. See "affect/effect."

e.g. / i.e. ***E.g.*** is the abbreviation for ***exempli gratia***, meaning "for example." Do not confuse it with ***i.e.*** (***id est***), which means "that is." They are ***not*** interchangeable. In your writing at the JMIC, avoid the abbreviations and spell out "for example" or "that is."

either . . . or / neither . . . nor. When all elements of an ***either. . . or/neither . . . nor*** construction are singular or plural, the verb is singular or plural, respectively: "***Either*** DIA ***or*** CIA ***has*** the information I need." "***Neither*** the studies from DIA ***nor*** the estimates from CIA ***have*** the data I am seeking." When the elements differ, the verb takes the number of the nearer element: "***Either*** the heavy rain ***or*** the elephants ***are*** responsible for the ground-cover loss."

electronic / electronics. The singular form is an adjective: "The Special Operations Forces have sophisticated ***electronic*** equipment." The plural form is a noun and takes a singular verb when it refers to the science as a whole: "***Electronics is*** a complicated science." Often, in military writing, the term takes a plural verb: "The ***electronics*** of that new aircraft ***are*** incredibly complex."

(***Note:*** The term "***electronics***" is usually used in place of a phrase such as "the electronic components" or "the suite of electronics.")

elevation. See "altitude/elevation."

elicit / illicit. You ***elicit*** information, a confession, or a response of some kind by coaxing or bringing forth; the word is a verb: "The interrogator skillfully ***elicited*** a response from the refugee." The adjective ***illicit*** means illegal, unlawful: "The Department of Defense is working closely with the Drug Enforcement Agency to curb ***illicit*** drug trafficking."

emigrate / immigrate. People emigrate ***from*** a country and immigrate ***to*** a country. Remember: "*e*m-" = "*e*xit," and "*i*m-" = "*i*nto."

eminent / imminent. An ***eminent*** person is famous or otherwise well-known in his or her field: "The faculty recognized Dr. Rongar as an ***eminent*** authority in intelligence analysis." ***Imminent*** means "about to happen," as in the ***imminence*** of hostilities.

enclosure / inclosure. The preferred form is ***enclosure***.

endorse / indorse. The preferred form is ***endorse***.

enormity. Many frown on using ***enormity*** to indicate bigness. Use it instead to refer to "monstrous wickedness." "The enormity of Saddam Hussein's treatment of Kurds will create unrest in Iraq for decades." Do not write about the ***enormity*** of the coalition's decision to liberate Kuwait--unless you are a member of the Iraqi army.

ensure. See "assure/ensure/insure."

errata. See "data/errata/media/phenomena."

et al. The Latin abbreviation for ***et alii*** or ***et alia***, meaning "and others." Why not just say "and others"?

etc. / et cetera. Another of those perfectly good Latin phrases, meaning "and so forth"; but do not use it in intelligence writing, because it signals your readers that you are leaving it up to them to complete whatever list you ended with that phrase:

"The new battlefield formation is known to have tanks, armored personnel carriers, air defense artillery, ***etc.***" (Might the "etc." include chemical weapons?)

eventhough. Not a word. Use ***even though***.

everyday / every day. ***Everyday*** means ordinary: "Military maneuvers are an ***everyday*** occurrence in that training area." ***Every day*** means daily: "We observe their training ***every day***."

everyone / everybody. As subjects, these words take singular verbs: "***Everyone (or Everybody) is*** expected to agree on the latest order of battle assessment."

explicit. Sometimes confused with its opposite, ***implicit***. An ***explicit*** understanding has been stated: "The United Nations warning to North Korea was ***explicit***." An ***implicit*** understanding is perceived, but has not been expressly stated: "The diplomats adjourned their session with an ***implicit*** understanding of the terms of reference."

explosive / explosives. Use ***explosive*** in specific reference to a bursting or propelling charge (high explosive). Normally the plural form is used in such expressions as "***explosives*** storage."

(the) fact that. The phrase "***the fact that***" can usually be avoided with a little rewriting. The phrase "due to the fact that" can ***always*** be replaced by "because."

farther / further. ***Farther*** is generally applied to physical distance: "It is ***farther*** from Moscow to Vladivostok than it is from Chicago to Honolulu." ***Further*** is used for a metaphorical distance: "His assessment could not be ***further*** from the truth."

fear. Fear is an extreme emotion. The word should not be applied to ordinary concern or uneasiness.

Incorrect: "We ***fear*** that the armed forces are having another reorganization."
Correct: Use "we believe" or "we estimate" instead.

feel. ***Feel*** as a synonym for ***believe*** or ***think*** is sloppy usage.

fewer / less. ***Fewer*** refers to numbers or units considered individually: "We have ***fewer*** order-of-battle analysts than the other section." ***Less*** refers to quantity or degree: "We published ***less*** material this month because of the shortage of analysts."

flounder / founder. When a ship fills with water and sinks, it ***founders***. When a horse breaks down, it also ***founders***. So too if an enterprise or plan totally collapses, it may be said to ***founder***. Hope still remains if the verb is ***flounder***, which means to struggle helplessly in embarrassment or confusion.

forego / forgo. For ***precede***, use ***forego***: "The Key Judgment of that estimate appeared to be a ***foregone*** conclusion." For ***relinquish***, use ***forgo***: "I must ***forgo*** attending the conference because of the shortage of travel funds."

(***NOTE***: Often sentences with ***forgo***, like the previous one, can be rewritten more forcefully: "I cannot attend the conference because of a shortage of travel funds.")

foreseeable future / near term. Fuzzy cliches. Your "foreseeable future" might be someone else's "near term." Be specific.

former. See "latter/last/first/former."

forthcoming. Means about to appear, or available when required or as promised: "The ***forthcoming*** National Intelligence Estimate will address that issue." ***Avoid*** the usage intended to mean cooperative or outgoing, because of the possibility of confusion: "The Ambassador was ***forthcoming***."

from . . . to. The sentence, "The exercise took place ***from*** 1 ***to*** 5 October" means that it was a 4-day exercise, ***not including*** the final date. To include the final date, the phrase should read "from 1 ***through*** 5 October."

gender. See "he or she."

he or she vs. he/she or s/he. The commotion about gender-specific nouns and pronouns is not likely to go away soon. The use of ***he or she*** (***him or her*** and ***his or her***) is one solution, but many writers find it cumbersome. The slashed constructions ***he/she*** and ***s/he*** are ugly. The least annoying option is to use plural constructions. Instead of writing "A student should carefully research his topic," write "Students should carefully research their topics." Beware of other sexist words as well. As Captain Jamie Conway (PGIP 9101) aptly pointed out in her letter to the editor, printed in the 4 March 1991 *New York Times*, ***servicemembers***, not just ***servicemen***, risked their lives in the Persian Gulf.

headquarters. May take either a singular or a plural verb. "His ***headquarters is*** in Washington" implies only one building or organization. "Their ***headquarters are*** in Washington" means more than one building or organization.

historic / historical. ***Historic*** means important in the framework of history: "Gettysburg was a ***historic*** battle." ***Historical*** can mean the same thing, but also covers other things concerned with history: "*The Killer Angels* is a ***historical*** novel." Note the use of the article ***a*** (not ***an***), because the initial "h" is pronounced.

hopefully. Some diehard grammatical conservatives will argue with you over this one, but modern English language usage is accepting ***hopefully*** in the sense of "it is

hoped" or "I hope." Note the following usage citation from the Random House *Unabridged Dictionary*:

> Although some strongly object to its use as a sentence modifier, HOPEFULLY meaning "it is hoped (that)" has been in use since the 1930s and is fully standard in all varieties of speech and writing: *Hopefully, tensions between the two nations will ease.* This use of HOPEFULLY is parallel to that of ***certainly, curiously, frankly, regrettably***, and other sentence modifiers.[1]

Hopefully, that will clarify the issue. Nonetheless, use the term sparingly in your writing, especially when writing estimative intelligence. Remember that you are expressing a personal hope or desire for something to happen when you say ***hopefully***. That may not be your intent; for example: "***Hopefully***, the government of Nirvana will solve its problems in the long term."

however, comma. The word ***however*** seems to cause more problems for students at the College than any other single word in the English language. Remember that ***however*** almost always requires punctuation on both sides of it. When a complete sentence (an independent clause) is on both sides of it, precede it with a period or semicolon and follow it with a comma: "I proofread my paper 13 times; ***however***, the professor still found misteaks." If it has no complete sentence before it or after it, ***however***, the word may be set off by commas on both sides. Notice that the phrase preceding the "however" in the previous sentence and after it in the following sentence is not a complete sentence: "My paper was perfect, ***however***, when I handed it in the 14th time."

hyphens. A few of the common uses of hyphens in your papers will be as unit modifiers and as substitutes for a printed dash. ***Unit modifiers*** are combinations of words that stand before a noun as a single unit, modifying it as a whole rather than in part. For example, you might write: "No change is expected in the short term." But, written another way, ***short term*** becomes a unit modifier: "The short-term outlook is bleak." Apply the same principle to such phrases as ***long-term, high-level***, and ***surface-to-air***. In the printing process, a dash is used in certain grammatical constructions. Most typewriters and word processors, however, do not have a dash. When the occasion calls for it, use two hyphens--typed together with no space between them on either side--as we have used them in this sentence. For more on the hyphen and the dash, see chapter 11.

i.e. See "***e.g.***"

illicit. See "elicit/illicit."

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[1]*The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, 2d ed. unabridged, 1987, under the word "hopefully."

illusion. See "allude/elude."

I / me / my. First person pronouns, best avoided in formal writing.

immigrate. See "emigrate/immigrate."

imminent. See "eminent/imminent."

impending / pending. ***Pending*** means yet to come or awaiting settlement: "Our assessment of the situation is ***pending*** coordination." ***Impending*** adds a hint of threat or menace: "***Impending*** economic sanctions promise to cause severe problems for the military dictatorship."

implicit. See "explicit/implicit."

imply / infer. The writer or speaker ***implies*** when stating something indirectly: "She ***implied*** in her article that there may be a coup d'etat." Readers or listeners ***infer*** when drawing a conclusion or making a deduction based upon what they have read or heard: "I ***inferred*** a mistaken conclusion from his estimate."

important / importantly. When introducing a second and more worthy consideration, ***more important*** is preferable to ***more importantly***: "The truth is evident; ***more important***, it will prevail."

in / into. ***In*** indicates location or condition; ***into*** suggests movement, direction, or change of condition.

in addition to. See "along with."

incite / insight. ***Incite***, a verb, means to stir up or cause to happen, often with violence suggested: "The Homeland Guard troops ***incited*** a riot in front of the U.S. Embassy." The noun ***insight*** means an act of comprehension or understanding, especially through intuition: "Her ***insight*** into the Iraqi culture was unique."

inclosure / enclosure. The preferred form is ***enclosure***.

(to) include. Used by bureaucrats to mean ***including***: "The rebels received 12 tons of arms, ***to include*** 130 grenade launchers." Use ***including***.

incomparables. Terms such as ***very unique***, ***more fatal***, and ***more equal*** are misuses of words that express absolutes. That which is unique, fatal, or equal can be no more or less so. Other incomparable words include absolute, eternal, final, first, last, perfect, supreme, total, and unanimous.

indorse. See "endorse/indorse."

infer. See "imply/infer."

in regards to. Use ***in regard to*** or, better yet, ***regarding***.

inside / outside (of). When ***inside*** is used as a preposition, the "of" is unnecessary: "***Inside*** the house" and "***inside*** the circle of terrorists" are acceptable usages. The same principle is true of ***outside*** and ***all***.

insight. See "incite/insight."

insure. See "assure/ensure/insure."

interface. An overused term, best avoided except in computer talk.

irregardless. There is no such word. Use either ***regardless*** or ***irrespective***.

it is. Avoid this pair of words at the beginning of a sentence or phrase. The result will usually be better prose.

> ***Not:*** "It is necessary that the L-14 fastener be redesigned."
> ***But:*** "The L-14 fastener must be redesigned."
> ***Even better (using active voice):*** "Widgits Inc. must redesign the L-14 fastener."

its / it's. ***It's*** **always** means "it is" or "it has." The possessive form of the pronoun ***it*** is ***its***. You would not say ***their's*** or ***your's***, so do not misuse the possessive form here.

> (***Note:*** It is best simply to avoid contractions in formal writing. If you do not use them in your JMIC papers, then you will never misuse ***it's***.)

judgment. The preferred spelling is the one at left, ***not*** the chiefly British "judgement."

last / latest. ***Last*** denotes finality, while ***latest*** can mean only the most recent: "This is the ***latest*** of Captain Szwerdlodvski's reports; because he was shot just after he mailed it, it is also his ***last***."

latter / last / first / former. ***Latter*** is applied only to the second of two items. A writer referring to the final one of three or more items would use ***last***: "To assist you, I am sending Lieutenant Smith and Ensign Bowen, the ***latter*** because of his experience in riverine warfare." Similarly, ***former*** is applied to the first of only two items. If more than two items are listed, use the terms ***first*** and ***last***.

lead / led. ***Led*** is the past tense of the verb form ***to lead***: "The captain ***led*** his men bravely." ***Lead***, when pronounced "led," is the metal.

less. See "fewer/less."

like. Also see "along with." The word ***like*** is never a conjunction and should not be used to replace ***as***, ***as if***, or ***as though***. If you can substitute the words "similar to" or "similarly to," and the sentence still makes sense, then the word you want is ***like***.

Incorrect: "The new regime deals with insurgencies like the old dictatorship dealt with them."
Correct: "The new regime deals with insurgencies as the old dictatorship dealt with them."

like / such as. ***Like*** introduces a comparison with something else: "Hills in this part of the country are low and rounded ***like*** those near the coast." ***Such as*** introduces an example of the group itself: "Special operations forces ***such as*** Army Rangers and Navy SEALs are elite units."

likely. When ***likely*** is used as an adverb, it must be preceded by such qualifiers as ***very***, ***quite***, or ***most***. Otherwise, it is incorrect, as in: "The Soviet forces ***likely*** will deploy their tanks." ***Likely***, as an adjective expressing inclination or probability, is followed by the infinitive: "The armed forces are ***likely*** to have a difficult time restoring order."

locate(d). The term ***locate(d)*** is overused in intelligence writing, as in "The installation is ***located*** 60 km west of here." Often the term can be eliminated with no harm done: "The installation is 60 km west of here."

logistic / logistics / logistical. ***Logistic*** as the adjective and ***logistics*** as the noun form are preferred. ***Logistical*** is discouraged.

loose / lose. The error with this pair of words tends to be one of careless spelling rather than improper usage. Remember that ***loose*** rhymes with ***goose*** and ***lose*** rhymes with ***choose***. "He could ***lose*** his job as security chief if the guard dogs get ***loose***."

material / materiel. In military usage, ***materiel*** means arms, ammunition, and equipment.

may. See "can/may."

me. See "I/me/my."

media. A plural form. See "data/errata/media."

methodology. If ***method*** or ***system*** is meant, use those words and avoid the term ***methodology*** (the study of the science of methods).

militate / mitigate. ***Militate*** means to have weight or effect, for or against: "The facts ***militate*** against his interpretation." ***Mitigate*** means to appease, lessen, moderate, or soften: "***Mitigating*** circumstances affected her assessment."

moral / morale. ***Moral*** is an adjective meaning "having to do with right conduct." ***Morale*** is a noun meaning "degree of cheerfulness and confidence." Confusing the two can be comical: "The opposing forces had low ***moral.***"

more than one. Takes a singular verb: "More than one division ***was*** involved in the exercise."

multiple qualifiers. Avoid using more than one qualifier to describe a situation, such as: "suggests . . . may," "may possibly," "could perhaps," "probably indicates," "reportedly may," and "suggests the possibility that the Army might deploy its forces."

munition / munitions. The **-s** form is generally used: munition***s*** storage building, munition***s*** loading area.

my. See "I/me/my."

myself. This word is a reflexive pronoun, often erroneously used where ***I*** or ***me*** would be correct.

> ***Incorrect:*** "Ambassador Catlin and ***myself*** agree that the plan has merit, but it must be approved by him or ***myself.***"
> ***Correct:*** "Ambassador Catlin and ***I*** . . . . by him or ***me.***"

near term. Fuzzy. See "foreseeable future/near term."

neither . . . nor. See "either . . . or."

Non-Soviet Warsaw Pact. A specific term for the six nations of the former Warsaw Treaty Organization ("Warsaw Pact"): Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany), Hungary, Poland, and Romania.

none / not one. Depending on what you intend, ***none*** may be singular or plural. When the meaning is ***not one*** or ***no one***, the verb is singular: "***None*** of the treaties ***was*** ratified by the newly elected president." Sometimes, though, the meaning of the sentence is clearly plural; in these cases, ***none*** takes a plural verb: "***None are*** so ambitious as those who desire absolute power." (In the latter case, you might also have said: "***None is*** so ambitious as one who desires absolute power.")

north / northern. See "east/eastern." The same principles apply.

not only / but also. These terms are called correlative conjunctions, and as such they must be followed by grammatically similar words or phrases. If ***not only*** is followed by a verb, then for the sake of parallelism, ***but also*** must have a verb after it as well. For example: "The student ***not only*** wrote his thesis during the summer, ***but also*** took a vacation."

number / amount. See "amount/number."

number, the / a. When ***number*** is preceded by ***the***, a ***singular*** verb is required: "***The number*** of well-written theses ***has*** increased dramatically this year." If ***number*** is preceded by ***a***, the verb is plural: "***A number*** of students ***have*** failed this year because they could not write well."

numbers / numerals. Keep a few rules in mind when you use numbers: Spell out one through nine; use numerals for 10 or more: "We saw one smoker and nine nonsmokers in the designated smoking area during the break." However, if the numbers are mixed--some below nine and some above--use all numerals: "A total of 3 smokers and 472 nonsmokers used the facilities today." Always spell out a number at the beginning of a sentence, unless it becomes unwieldy; then rewrite the sentence: "Twelve thousand men died in that battle." ***But***: "Total losses were 11,991." ***Not***: "Eleven thousand nine hundred and ninety-one men died." For a more detailed discussion of numerals, see chapter 10.

offload / unload. ***Unload*** is preferred.

ongoing. Try ***continuing***, ***underway***, or ***in progress***, or leave it out altogether and see if your sentence still makes sense: "The ***ongoing*** research will prove my hypothesis." ***Better:*** "Research will prove my hypothesis."

only. Place ***only*** as close as possible to the word it modifies, to avoid ambiguity. Observe the change in meaning caused by shifting ***only*** in the following sentences: "***Only*** I wrote the correct answer for the professor." (No one else did.) "I ***only*** wrote the correct answer for the professor." (I did nothing else.) "I wrote ***only*** the correct answer for the professor." (I wrote nothing else.) "I wrote the ***only*** correct answer for the professor." (No other answers were correct.) "I wrote the correct answer ***only*** for the professor." (Or, for the professor ***only***.) (And nothing else; or, I wrote it for no one else. This one is ambiguous.) Other words requiring similar treatment include ***almost***, ***even***, ***merely***, and ***scarcely***.

operation / operations. Use the singular as a modifier: ***operation*** map, ***operation*** plan, ***operation*** order (in each case, presumably one specific operation pertains). But acceptable usages include ***operations*** center, ***operations*** building, ***operations*** research, and ***operations*** officer.

optimize. A word to be avoided, like many other words that end in "***-ize***."

oral / verbal. Spoken words are ***oral***. Anything constructed of words, either spoken or written, is ***verbal***.

outside / inside (of). See "inside/outside (of)."

overall. As an adjective, ***overall*** is much overworked and vague. Consider substitutes such as ***average***, ***complete***, ***comprehensive***, ***total***, or ***whole***.

parameter. A word often overused in bureaucratic prose to mean boundary, limit, or outline.

parliamentarian. The word means an expert on parliamentary procedure. It does ***not*** mean "a member of parliament."

partially / partly. These words are not interchangeable. ***Partially*** carries the sense of "to a certain degree"; it means "incompletely," as in "***partially*** dependent." ***Partly*** stresses the part in contrast to the whole; it is equivalent to "in part."

pending / impending. See "impending/pending."

penultimate / ultimate. ***Ultimate*** means "the last (or final)." ***Penultimate*** is not some super form of ***ultimate***; ***penultimate*** means the next-to-last: "His was the ***penultimate*** speech at the conference."

percentages. Spell out the percentage (10 percent); do not use the % sign. Always use numerals: 1 percent; 100 percent.

personal / personnel. Usually an adjective, ***personal*** means that which relates to or affects a person: "The family practice doctor had a ***personal*** demeanor." As a noun, a "personal" is a classified ad. ***Personnel*** refers to a body of people, either as a noun or adjective: "Military ***personnel*** are required to attend the briefing." "The ***Personnel*** Office was closed on Memorial Day."

phenomena. A plural form. See "data/errata/media/phenomena."

phony phrases. Avoid phrases such as the following:

anything can happen
further developments are expected
it is difficult to determine
it is not possible to predict
it is too early to tell
it remains to be seen
only the future will tell
only time will tell

practicable / practical. ***Practicable*** means that which appears achievable but has not yet been tested: "A deployable Strategic Defense Initiative appears ***practicable*** within the next 20 years." ***Practical*** means known to be useful, effective, sound: "Her analysis of that situation is ***practical***."

precede / proceed / procedure. Spelling seems to be a more common problem than usage with these words. Consult a dictionary if you have any doubt. Note the forms of these two:

precede: preceded, preceding.
proceed: proceeded, proceeding, **but** procedure.

precedence / precedent. ***Precedence*** is simply the act of preceding or coming before. In military communications parlance, the word is used to mean the priority of a message or a telephone call: routine, priority, immediate, or flash precedence. A ***precedent*** is an established fact or form that serves as a guide thereafter: "The general's use of flash ***precedence*** on his message set a ***precedent*** for the traffic that followed."

predominantly / predominately. ***Predominantly*** is preferred.

presently. See "at present/currently/presently."

preventative / preventive. ***Preventive*** is preferred.

principal / principle. ***Principal*** is usually an adjective meaning first in authority or importance: "The ***principal*** architect of the reforms was Mikhail Gorbachev." As a noun it refers either to money ("Spend the interest, not the ***principal***.") or to a key person ("Though each team had over 30 members, the ***principals*** were Dr. Henry Kissinger and Le Duc Tho.") ***Principle*** is always a noun, never an adjective. It means a standard of conduct, an essential element, or a general truth: "Anwar Sadat was dedicated to the ***principle*** of peace in the Middle East." "The ***principles*** of good writing are a ***principal*** concern of the Joint Military Intelligence College."

prioritize. Substitute "rank" or another synonym. See also "optimize."

proceed / procedure. See "precede/proceed/procedure."

purposefully / purposely. ***Purposefully*** indicates determination to reach a goal: "The Soviet Union proceeded ***purposefully*** with its policy of glasnost." ***Purposely*** means intentionally: "The delegates to the arms control talks ***purposely*** withheld comment from the press."

qualifiers. Intelligence analysts must often use qualifiers if they are to be objective and accurate. Do not, however, habitually hide judgment behind words such as ***apparently***, ***conceivably***, ***evidently***, ***likely***, ***perhaps***, ***possibly***, ***probably***, ***purportedly***, ***reportedly***, ***seemingly***, ***undoubtedly***, and ***virtually***. Multiple qualifiers are never justified.

question (as to) whether. When ***question*** is followed by ***whether***, many writers mistakenly insert ***as to*** between them. Avoid the practice. However, when a noun follows, the phrase "question of" may be used: "The troop movements raised the ***question of*** the enemy's intentions."

quite. An adverb with shades of meaning for different people. It is usually quite avoidable in intelligence writing.

quota. Means an allotted number, akin to rationing.

quotations. A few tips on quotations: Use them sparingly, but when you use them, use them ***correctly*** and cite your source appropriately. Be certain to quote material ***exactly*** when you have it within quotation marks. If your quoted material has an error in it--factual or mechanical--do not correct it; include it as is and put the bracketed expression ***[sic]*** immediately after it, to tell your reader that it was that way in the original. Use standard double quotation marks (". . .") for short quotations. Use single quotation marks only to show a quotation within a quotation: The Dean said, "The professor told me he is 'the brightest student in the class.'" Notice that periods and commas ***always*** go inside the final quotation marks, whether or not they are a part of the quoted material. Other punctuation marks go ***outside*** the quotation marks unless they are a part of the quoted material. Quotations of four typewritten lines or more should be inset and single-spaced. Do not use quotation marks with an inset quotation; its printed style shows that it is a direct quotation. See also the discussion on "Handling Quoted Material" at the beginning of chapter 8.

range / vary. To ***range*** is to change or differ within limits: "Elevations ***range*** between 500 and 1,500 meters above sea level." To ***vary*** is to change in succession: "Temperatures ***vary*** from season to season."

recurrence / reoccurrence. ***Recurrence*** has the sense of happening repeatedly or periodically, whereas a ***reoccurrence*** means a second occurrence. It is redundant to say "another recurrence" or "another reoccurrence."

regards to. ***Regards***, a noun plural, is used to convey good wishes or an expression of affection: "Give my ***regards*** to the family." ***In regards to*** is substandard; use ***about***, ***on***, ***with regard to***, or ***regarding***.

relatively. Use only when the intended comparison can be easily grasped: "He has a ***relatively*** heavy workload." (Relative to what? Last week? His peers?)

represent. Means to depict or symbolize, not to constitute. Do not write "South African gold ***represents*** most of the world's output."

reticent. Means uncommunicative or reserved; it does not mean reluctant.

sanction. As a verb, ***sanction*** means to authorize, approve, or allow; to ratify or confirm.

saving / savings. ***Savings*** should ***not*** be used as a singular noun. We may buy a ***savings*** bond and keep our money in a ***savings*** bank; ***but:*** "The budget reduction would mean an annual ***saving*** (not savings) of $200,000."

secondly / thirdly. Don't "prettify" numbers with the ***-ly*** suffix. It is unnecessary for the meaning of the sentence.

sector. ***Sector*** is correct in writing about economics or position warfare, but should seldom be used in political, religious, or sociological contexts. Instead, try ***sect***, ***faction***, ***clique***, ***group***, ***side***, or ***party***.

sexism. See "he or she."

she / her. It is no longer preferable to apply these pronouns to countries, although tradition still calls for their use when referring to ships. Use ***it*** or ***its*** when referring to a country. "Yugoslavia lost ***its*** national identity after the Cold War."

ship. See "boat/ship."

sic. The Latin word ***sic*** literally means ***so*** or ***thus***. It is handy to use when you are quoting material or citing a source and you find an error or omission in the material you are quoting. To show your reader that your source--and not you--made the error, use a bracketed [***sic***]: One humorist misquoted President Bush's inaugural address by calling for "a thousand pints [sic] of light."

sometime / sometimes. ***Sometime*** is preferred.

south / southern. See "east/eastern." The same principles apply.

Soviet bloc. See "East/Soviet bloc."

stalemate. Chess players will tell you that a stalemate is as final as a checkmate, and cannot be eased, broken, or lifted. If you have in mind a ***barrier***, a ***bottleneck***, or a ***predicament***, use one of those words instead.

stanch / staunch. ***Stanch*** is a verb meaning to stem, stop, or check; ***staunch*** is an adjective meaning strong or steadfast. "DeMartini, a ***staunch*** advocate of human rights, was able to ***stanch*** the flow of refugees from his country."

such as. See "like/such as."

tenant / tenet. A ***tenant*** pays rent; a ***tenet*** is a principle or guiding thought. "The ***Tenants'*** Association believed in the ***tenet*** of service first, rent later."

that / which. ***That*** is better to introduce a restrictive clause. A restrictive clause narrows the item under consideration from what it would be if the sentence did not contain the clause: "The typewriter ***that*** is broken is in the repair shop." Presumably multiple typewriters are available, and the writer is focusing on the one that is broken. In contrast, a nonrestrictive clause merely adds information about the set of items under consideration: "The typewriter, ***which*** is broken, is in the repair shop." Here the writer does not narrow the set of items--a typewriter--but merely provides additional information about it. We also know from that sentence that only one typewriter is available. Often the "that" in a restrictive clause can be profitably eliminated, making your writing more concise: "The broken typewriter is in the repair shop."

their / there. ***Their*** is the plural possessive pronoun, and ***there*** is usually an adverb but also can be other parts of speech: "***Their*** ship is the destroyer in the harbor, over ***there***."

there are / there is. Like their singular counterpart ***it is***, these phrases usually signal a sentence in need of improvement. (See "it is.")

time. Use 24-hour (military) time. See "dates and times."

together with. See "along with."

toward / towards. ***Toward*** is preferred.

ultimate. See "penultimate."

uninterested. See "disinterested."

unique. See "incomparables." If a thing is unique, there is precisely one of it, no more and no less.

unknown. A fact is unknown only if ***no one*** knows about it. Use such terms as ***unidentified***, ***undisclosed***, or ***undetermined***.

unload. See "offload/unload."

upward / upwards. ***Upward*** is preferred.

usage / use. Use the shorter form in most instances, except when referring to the way in which language or its elements are used, related, or pronounced.

utilize. Try using the more direct word, ***use***.

vary. See "range/vary."

verbal. See "oral/verbal."

very. A ***very, very*** overworked word. Give it a rest.

viable. ***Viable*** means workable and likely to survive. It has become a "vogue word" and is commonly used in the sense of workable or achievable. Adjectives such as ***durable, lasting, effective***, and ***practical*** are more appropriate.

vogue words. Vogue words, phrases, or expressions suddenly and inexplicably crop up in speeches of bureaucrats, in comments of columnists, and in broadcasts. These expressions soon become debased by overuse and eventually become obsolete. Even though you may use them regularly in speech, avoid using ***bottom line, positive feedback***, and ***behind the power curve*** in your writing.

waiver / waver. A ***waiver*** is an intentional relinquishment of some right or interest. To hesitate is to ***waver***.

way / ways. ***Way*** is preferred: "He is a long ***way*** from home."

weapon / weapons. As an adjective, the singular form is preferable, except in ***weapons*** carrier, ***weapons*** selection, ***weapons*** list, ***weapons*** system, ***weapons delivery*** system, or ***weapons*** assignment.

west / western. See "east/eastern." The same principles apply.

which. See "that/which."

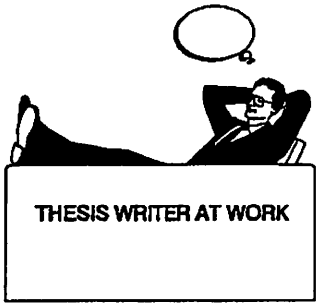
while. Do not use ***while*** in the sense of ***and***, or ***although***, as in: "He spent his youth in Ohio, ***while*** his father grew up in California." ***While*** refers to time, in the sense of "at the same time as": "I will saute the onions ***while*** you marinate the meat." It is not likely that the person in the first sentence spent his or her childhood in Ohio ***at the same time as*** dear old Dad was growing up on the West Coast.

with. Does not have the conjunctive force of ***and***. ***With*** is too often used to attach to a sentence an additional thought that would be better treated as an independent clause preceded by ***and*** or a semicolon: "English and history are his major subjects, ***with*** economics as his first elective," should be rewritten: "English and history are his major subjects, ***and*** economics is his first elective," or "English and history are his major subjects; economics is his first elective."

you / your. The second person pronoun, best avoided in formal writing.

APPENDIX A: REFLECTIONS OF A THESIS WRITER

Some very real fears, questions, and doubts confront the writer of a thesis. These concerns are common. Writers who have them are not abnormal or alone. They are you and me.



I recently read an article about the struggles Sonja Wiedenhaupt experienced while writing her thesis.[1] "I could have written this article," I said to myself. "I ***did*** write this article," I continued, "about ten years ago when I was in graduate school." Her thoughts echoed my thoughts. I sense they echo many of your thoughts, too, so I share them with you. Perhaps allowing these concerns to surface and have a voice will help you deal with them and prevent them from becoming debilitating fears.

"CURIOUSER AND CURIOUSER!" CRIED ALICE

Sonja tells us:

> I had ideas and beliefs that could have been the substance for many theses. The doors were all available--and I walked through every one of them. . . . It was a bit like a scene from *Alice in Wonderland*. She found herself in a corridor full of possible doors to go through. Each would open up a new world for her. If she was the wrong size to be able to explore a world, she would find a piece of cake, or a drink, or a piece of mushroom, which would change her to the right size. Well, whenever I thought about walking through the doors, either I was too scared to eat the cake or I couldn't find it.

Sonja is giving voice to her fear of feeling unprepared, feeling incompetent, to meet the task at hand. Indeed, the larger the project that faces us, the more daunting it appears. Its size overwhelms us. Sonja later describes her paper as "this huge impossible task" and says she "froze."

Like many, Sonja feels she needs to know what she wants to say before she can write. Writing becomes a mere instrument for her thoughts. What she needs to realize is that writers can discover what they think by writing.

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[1] Beverly Lyon Clark and Sonja Wiedenhaupt, "On Blocking and Unblocking Sonja: A Case Study in Two Voices," *College Composition and Communication* 43, no. 1 (February 1992): 55-74.

Should you or Sonja find you have entered a room for which you are unsuited or a corridor that leads nowhere, you need not go searching for a magic mushroom that will change **you**. What you may have discovered is that your room, your subject, needs to be refurnished, rearranged, redesigned. The corridor that leads nowhere is a metaphor for the dead-end topic. When Alice grew 10 feet tall or fell down a hole, she couldn't go back again. You can. You can make changes at any stage of the writing process. C. Day Lewis said it beautifully when he wrote: "I do not sit down at my desk to put into [writing] something that is already clear in my mind. If it were clear in my mind, I should have no incentive or need to write about it. . . . We do not write in order to be understood; we write in order to understand."[2] Approach your thesis in that frame of mind. It can be liberating.

REFLECTING ON OUR DISPOSITION

Another problem Sonja struggled with is centered in her psychological disposition. According to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, certain personality types may be predisposed to writer's block. Some strong perceivers discover a multitude of interesting studies they would like to undertake. Sonja's corridor had too many doors. She had difficulty choosing one. Writers with such a disposition have trouble concluding the research stage and beginning the writing. They continue to pile up notes, and the reading of one book leads to a host of new materials that **have** to be read. Maslow calls such people "self-actualizing." They find reward in the act of doing.

The majority of people, however, are not self-actualizing. They need rewards. I am such a person, a judger according to Myers-Briggs. Judgers want to reach closure and need rewards such as a finished paper to affirm accomplishment. They find little joy until the work is finished. Unfortunately, with projects like the thesis, rewards are few and far between.

Both the perceiver and the judger, however, can benefit from short-term rewards. Try setting up a regimen in which 30 minutes a day are devoted to uninterrupted writing. This technique forces perceivers to compose, and it rewards judgers with small accomplishments--a section written, a paragraph or two revised. Some judgers I know reward themselves with a candy bar or a long walk at the end of the writing period.

Deadlines and fixed schedules, however, don't work for everyone. Quite frankly you need to find your own rhythm for writing, develop your own timetable. Some writers need "total immersion." Sonja, for example, meets a Fulbright scholar who wrote his doctoral dissertation in 10 days. He spent 10 hours a day at the computer with no distractions and no snacks. A bit Spartan for my taste!

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[2] C. Day Lewis, *The Poetic Image* (London: Oxford University Press, 1948).

Should treats and deadlines not be enough, you strong judgers in the crowd may need reverse psychology. Therapist Robert Boice has his clients reward themselves with a shower every day after they write a fixed amount. If they don't write, they go dirty. Strong medicine for you and those around you!

BATTLE OR COLLABORATION?

Finally, Sonja confides, "I started working on my thesis not because I had this wonderful idea I wanted to pursue and prove, but because I had a battle to fight." Seeing the thesis in terms of a battle is not uncommon. Moreover, Sonja internalizes her battle. She claims there is a part of her responsible for the thesis and a part that neglects the thesis. The two go to war. Sonja also fights the demands of family, other school work, and friends. She believes everything and everybody are battling for her time.

What is important, I think, is to see your thesis in a social context. Yes, it is one of many demands on your time. But your work on it also offers a wonderful opportunity to discourse with a larger community--of authorities on your subject, of fellow students themselves pursuing the thesis, of family and friends eager (or not so eager, as the case may be) to hear about your findings. Your thesis isn't isolating you from others but rather immersing you in a viable discourse community.

THE GOOD NEWS

What this appendix addresses, then, is perceptions and dispositions that take on larger-than-life proportions during the thesis-writing stage of any graduate program. Understanding that fears, questions, and doubts are normal allows us to put them in proper perspective, to control them and not have them control us. Sonja graduated--and graduated summa cum laude. The good news is that she didn't have to eat a magic mushroom to get there. You won't, either.

APPENDIX B: MANAGING THE ESSAY EXAM

For many of us the essay exam leads to increased heart rates, sweaty palms, and even physical illness. We realize this is a disquieting opener to a discussion of a task most of us deplore. Yet, the essay exam trauma can be eased. With more and more professors testing students via an essay examination, just that increased exposure may make more students comfortable with the process. It also is clear that thorough preparation and following a drafting process geared to address the pressure of limited time can do much to curb student anxiety and improve performance.

KNOW THE SUBJECT WELL

How you prepare for the essay exam often dictates how much at ease you will be on the day of the exam and how well you will write. Because you will be under the constraint of time, you cannot fumble through notes (if you are allowed to use them, that is). You must know your notes; you must know the texts. Besides taking careful notes throughout the term and studying them (not just cramming the night before), try writing out essay answers to questions you think your professor may ask. That gives you practice in formulating approaches to issues and is an excellent way to remind yourself of the facts that support your contentions. Even if you are not asked the questions your practice essays addressed, you may be asked to write about tangential issues. A peer study group also can engage you in a roundtable discussion and review session in which you experience all the benefits of collaborative learning. Another help is to engage in 10-15 minutes of writing just before you go into the exam to warm up and get the juices flowing.

HINTS FOR DRAFTING THE ESSAY

Despite the most thorough preparation and extensive command of the subject matter, students who fail to finish the essay exam or to focus their answers on the questions asked or to leave time to proofread will not do well. Although not a definitive method for writing essay exams, the step-by-step process detailed below will lead to focused, completed, and well-edited responses.

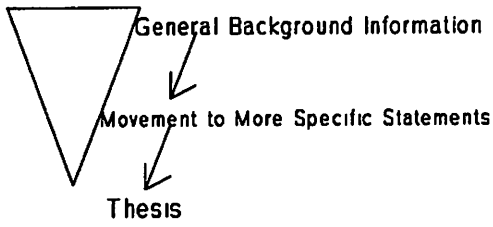
1. ***Read the test question slowly and carefully.*** Look for any key terms, and allow the strategy these terms suggest to govern your answer's form. Here are some of the key terms you are likely to see in essay exam questions:[3]

[3]The list of key terms that follows is adapted from Andrea Lunsford and Robert Connors' list in *The St. Martin's Handbook*, 2d ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1992), 700.

ANALYZE	Divide an event, idea, or theory into its component elements, and examine each one in turn: ***Analyze*** Clapham's argument of peripherality.
COMPARE AND/OR CONTRAST	Demonstrate similarities or dissimilarities between two or more events or topics: ***Compare*** the freedom movements in Poland and East Germany. Note that only one key term is used. Many professors assume that, in addition to covering likenesses, the students will also cover any differences that exist. You may want to ask for clarification if you see just one of these terms on your test.
DEFINE	Identify and state the essential traits or characteristics of something, differentiating it clearly from other things: ***Define*** patrimonial rule.
DESCRIBE	Tell about an event, person, or process in detail, creating a clear and vivid image of it: ***Describe*** Castro's political ascent.
DISCUSS	Examine, analyze carefully, and present considerations pro and con regarding the problems and items involved: ***Discuss*** the U.S. response to the student demonstrations in Tiananmen Square.
EVALUATE	Assess the value or significance of the topic: ***Evaluate*** the role of the Intelligence Community in Operation JUST CAUSE.
EXPLAIN	Make a topic as clear and understandable as possible by offering reasons and examples: ***Explain*** the "gap hypothesis."
SUMMARIZE	State the major points concisely and comprehensively: ***Summarize*** the major arguments against a U.S. military presence in West Germany.

2. ***Plan your time and answer.*** Even though the clock is ticking, do not start writing at once. The rule of thumb is to spend 10 percent of the allotted time planning: prewriting, mapping, outlining, or just thinking. If you do jot down ideas, you should be able to decide upon your essay's main point after examining your map or list. Also decide during this planning stage in what order you will cover the supporting details and examples.

3. ***Write an introductory paragraph*** that refers directly to the question and states the main point, or thesis, of your answer. Your reader will not expect a stylistically brilliant opening anecdote or quotation, but he will expect a clear thesis. A common and relatively easy opener to write is the "funnel opener" that moves from the general to the specific.



Following is a good example of the funnel opener, from the PGIP 9001 diagnostic examination given in September 1989. It is used with permission of the student, who prefers to remain anonymous.

Question: Discuss the U.S. response to student demonstrations in Tiananmen Square.

Figure 1. Funnel Opener

The student demonstrations in Tiananmen Square served to highlight, once again, the severe limitations which hamper the United States influence on international affairs. Although our government's sympathy was plainly on the side of the students, we were unable, from a political, economic, and historical standpoint, to do more than voice our moral support. By not succumbing to overzealous support for the students, we were able to maintain stable relations with China while still expressing dissatisfaction for its brutal quelling of the demonstrations. While perhaps not the proper course of action from a moral perspective, our response to the demonstrations and their aftermath was motivated by a different consideration: preserving relations with what constitutes one-quarter of the earth's population.

4. ***Devote one paragraph to each main point,*** and ***consider beginning with a topic sentence.*** In this way your main points will stand out for the person reading your exam quickly (given the time crunch your professor feels during mid-terms and finals, this may well be the type of reading your essay gets). If you do not begin with the topic sentence, be sure your paragraph has one somewhere.

5. ***Use transitions to clarify how the main points are connected:*** "Furthermore, preserving the Amazon rain forest will strengthen Brazil's economy." Furthermore tells your reader that you are adding yet another reason why the environment of the Amazon Basin should be protected. This could also be accomplished with transitions such as secondly, in addition, moreover, and others.

6. ***Support what you say with specific details, examples, and references.*** No one will admire your unsupported generalities.

7. ***Add a concluding paragraph.***

8. ***Allow yourself several minutes to proofread.*** Your reader may be tolerant of blemishes, but he will want your ideas to be expressed clearly and your writing to be free of major mechanical errors (fragments, agreement errors, numerous misspellings). It goes without saying that your penmanship must be readable!

APPENDIX C: WHO WE ARE AND WHAT WE DO[4]

One theme surfaces repeatedly in the interviews of new analysts at the end of their first year: a desire for a manual describing how to do analysis. I suspect Directorate of Intelligence managers would also welcome such a document. With the proportion of analysts in their probation period running over 50 percent in many offices, managers are facing a daunting training burden in addition to reviewing an increased volume of production, providing vital handholding services during the adjustment period, and passing on tribal lore. Growth has also meant a higher percentage of new managers struggling with these issues for the first time.

After attempting to cope for a while, many managers are ready to conclude that analysts are born, not made--a position I am not ready to abandon entirely, but one that may be a bit extreme. Like the old jokes, however, the news is good and bad. The bad is that there is no substitute for experience, no mechanical formulas that an eager new hire can follow to guarantee an acceptable piece of finished intelligence. Each analyst must learn the job as each before him has, essentially by trying, falling short, and trying again. The odds are improved if the manager is blessed at the moment of making a hiring decision with what Mark Twain held to be the most important ingredient in success: "I'd rather be lucky than smart," he said. The good news is that the manager can facilitate the learning process if he or she can:

- Communicate a sense of our mission and the difference between intelligence writing and academic writing.
- Describe the process of intelligence analysis in a clear, cogent fashion.
- Prepare the fledgling analysts for early failures and provide lots of positive reinforcement and reassurance.

The First Step

The manager's first task is akin to deprogramming--undoing habits formed in four to 10 years of college-level work. This comes down to impressing on the would-be intelligence analyst a sense of what the job is and a thorough discussion of the nature of intelligence writing. There are seven key concepts that the new analyst must absorb, three relating to his mission and four to intelligence writing. I am convinced that the

[4]This appendix will be of particular interest if you work in intelligence analysis, especially if you write or review analytical papers. The article is an unclassified version of one that appeared in the Fall 1986 edition of *Studies in Intelligence* under the title "Managing/Teaching New Analysts." We reprinted it in the College textbook *Wordshops* by permission of the author, Mr. Martin Petersen, whose cooperation we gratefully acknowledge. We include it in this style guide because of its importance to anyone who writes in the Intelligence Community.

branch chief must hammer (if need be) the "three missions and the four essences" into the new hire's head, or face the prospect of yet another journeyman who contributes little but eats up enormous amounts of managerial time.

The job is to make judgments about the future. The new analyst often has difficulty accepting the idea we are less concerned about what actually happened than the significance of the event for U.S. interests. Moreover, conditioned by college to search for "truth"--artistic and scientific--he/she is sometimes slow to believe that what people think is true is often more important than what is actually the fact. And then there is that dogged determination to get all the facts, a compulsion reinforced by the mistaken notion that our job is to know everything. The Manager must get the new analyst to understand that:

- Judgments will invariably be on the basis of incomplete and conflicting information.

- There are no "incompletes" given here. The analyst never has the luxury of asking the consumer for a little more time for the situation to clarify or to wait until additional information becomes available.

- Strange as it always sounds, our job is not so much to be right as it is to provide the best answer possible, given the time and information available.

We are the interpreters of foreign cultures and alien problems. As such, our job is to expose the logic behind the actions of a Middle East madman and to render intelligible to the general reader the physics underlying a Soviet barrage attack on a U.S. missile system.

Our job is to support decisionmakers. This is a concept that all new analysts readily accept. Indeed, for many, the prospect of being part of the policy process is one of the strongest selling points of the job. But (there is always a but), it is a concept that many new analysts have difficulty putting into practice, because they are confused about what constitutes support.

Many believe that if they add to the policymaker's knowledge, they have done the job. The manager must stress that the point of analysis is the interpretation of information, not its presentation. Analysts must be taught to grasp the distinction between providing answers to real problems and expanding the body of knowledge on some subject. Supporting the policymaker comes down to three related functions:

- Providing answers to specific questions, only some of which may be asked by the policymaker.

- Providing a framework--an illumination of the forces at work and the factors that bear on them--that allows the policymaker to understand an issue and to process new information.

- Where appropriate, to warn.

The four "essences" of intelligence writing flow directly from the three dealing with the mission. The table summarizes the difference between academic and intelligence writing.

The Difference Between Academic and Intelligence Writing	
Academic	**Intelligence**
Focus on the **PAST**	Focus on the **FUTURE**
Written for **EXPERTS** with no responsibility to act	Written for **GENERALISTS** struggling with real problems
Detailed, proof-laden	Essentials only, meaningful characterizations
Short on conclusions, with a tendency to summarize	Begins with conclusions and explores their implications

Intelligence writing focuses on the future, and it is not enough to marshal the facts. A new analyst who was struggling to make the transition from academe captured this problem best. In college, she just gathered all the facts and "the conclusions just fell out." Many are under the misimpression that the primary goal of intelligence writing is to discover truth or set the record straight, and, as a result, the first instinct is to lay out in detail how the present situation evolved.

Managers need to impress on new analysts that, because what people believe to be true is often more important than what is, discovery of the facts alone is insufficient for and occasionally immaterial to the real job of analysis--thinking about the future. Students become analysts when they stop thinking in terms of what happened and start thinking in terms of what the facts mean. Many just never seem to make this transition.

Intelligence is written for generalists who are grappling with real problems. One of the hardest things for new analysts to grasp is the nature of their audience. Unlike the situation in which they now find themselves, they are used to writing for professors and academics who welcome detail and who are under no obligation to do anything with the information. New people are also slow to realize and often doubt another truth--that after a few months on the job they are among the most knowledgeable people in the government on a particular issue, and, for the first time in their lives, they are writing for an audience that knows less than they do. They must be taught that their new audience does not judge the value of a product by its length, devotion to detail, or complexity. Nor is a well-told tale enough. New hires need to learn that the value of a paper is proportional to its clarity, brevity, and focus on issues.

Intelligence writing is the art of the meaningful characterization. New analysts resort to "data dumps" for two basic reasons: They do not know what is important so they include everything; or they believe piling up detail is the best way to demonstrate their expertise, a lesson learned in college. The manager has to impress on the new analyst that the "art of intelligence" is identifying the important in the mountain of detail. While reporters describe the situation, analysts characterize it by making meaningful generalizations that help the reader put events in perspective and think about them. Analysts reconcile conflicting information, isolate the principle in a sea of data, and recognize the exception that demands a reevaluation.

Intelligence writing begins with the conclusions and then explores their implications. The idea of going beyond the evidence is new for many analysts. Academic writing rarely reaches this point; what passes for conclusions is more often than not a summary of the preceding pages. In college, good students learn by design or default to focus on how situations develop and fit the evidence into intellectual constructs that are more descriptive than predictive. Managers must retrain them to think in terms of, "this is the situation; these forces are at work; this is what it means."

This is a very difficult transition for many people. The other elements of intelligence writing can be learned. I am less sure about this one. It seems to go to the core of the thought process. People seem either to have the ability to do it, or they do not. Some are clearly uncomfortable with ambiguity and always seek a little more information before writing. Others draft but cannot move beyond the evidence or reach intellectual closure on an issue, perhaps because they are afraid of being wrong. In any case, the ability to think beyond the evidence and to explore the implications of a situation is the *sine qua non* of intelligence analysis.

A Framework for Analysis

In addition to driving home what the new analyst is supposed to be doing and how it differs from what he has done in the past, the manager needs to provide a concise and simple scheme of how to produce analysis. A "how to" diagram accomplishes a number of things. It helps reduce anxiety by giving the new hire a crutch to lean on. It starts the individual off in the right direction. It reinforces the message of the three missions and the four essences. And, it gives the manager and the analyst a common vocabulary and a framework for critiquing fledgling efforts.

The production of finished intelligence can be presented as a four-step process:

- Identifying the intelligence issue within the topic.
- Identifying the questions that need to be addressed.
- After completing the research, identifying the two or three key points the policymaker is to take away from the paper.

- Drafting, using questions to organize the paper.

Step One: Identify the intelligence issue within an intelligence topic. Or, deal with the "Great Title Trap." Ask a new analyst what he is writing about and, odds are, you will get a reply along the lines of "corruption in China" or "defense strategy in the 1990s" or "Soviet activity in the Third World." And what you get is everything about Soviet Activity in the Third World starting with Afghanistan and proceeding through Zimbabwe.

Too often the manager must bear the responsibility for the data dump or the rambling draft that lands on his desk. The sad fact is that most new analysts really do not know what they are writing about. They are researching a title given to them--a problem compounded by the fact that most titles are constructed more with an eye to snagging the reader's interest than conveying the substance of the paper. I am convinced that more papers go wrong for this reason than any other.

The solution is to teach the analyst that the first step is to identify specifically what it is he/she is writing about. Introducing the concept of a difference between an intelligence topic and an intelligence issue is helpful in this regard. An intelligence ***topic*** is a broad question of interest, such as Soviet activity in the Third World. An intelligence ***issue*** is a development or something new and different that narrows the topic and gives a focal point to the paper. There is a simple test: an issue phrase will convey a sense of change or movement or activity; a topic will not.

Examples may help clarify this subtle, but important, distinction. Sino-Soviet relations is an intelligence topic but is not an issue. The significance of China's expanding economic relations with the Soviet Union for Western investors in China, or the implications of the Gorbachev succession for Soviet policy toward China are issues. Sino-North Korean relations is an intelligence topic; the improvement in Soviet-North Korean relations and what it means for China is an intelligence issue.

The purpose of making this fine distinction is to get the analyst to stop and think about what he is attempting to do before he attempts to do it. The new hire is not going to be able to make this distinction; the ability to identify intelligence issues is one of the things that separates the apprentice analyst from the adult of the species. It is the manager's responsibility to ensure that the analyst knows exactly what he is working on.

Step two: Identify the questions. An intelligence issue is still too broad to provide the new analyst much help. He needs something to guide him as he reads, files, and gathers information.

One answer is to break the intelligence issue into a series of general questions. To do this, the new analyst should be encouraged to step into the policymaker's shoes and ask himself: what do I want/need to know about this issue? The questions should flow from the intelligence issue; if they do not, the purpose of the paper is probably not clear. Using the Sino-North Korean issue as an example, a policymaker probably would want to

know: Have warmer Soviet-North Korean relations caused cooler Sino-North Korean relations, or is it more complicated than that; are the Chinese concerned; what steps has Beijing taken to change the situation; is the Chinese leadership divided on the issue; what would China like to have happen; what is Beijing doing about it; is it working; what do the Chinese expect from the United States? The first cut at this should be a spontaneous, stream of consciousness exercise. The analyst can then weed and consolidate the list.

The list of questions serves to sharpen the focus of the paper. The new analyst now knows "what's in" and "what's out," for instance, whether he needs to be concerned about Soviet-North Korean economic relations. The list also tells him what he should be looking for as he reads files, and once that is done, it helps him identify intelligence gaps and write requirements. Because the analyst now knows what information is relevant, it should also speed up the research and prevent the indiscriminate collection of data. The questions may change as the analyst does the actual research, but this only serves to define the paper more precisely.

As with identifying the intelligence issue, the manager will have a major input in identifying the questions, and the new analyst should be encouraged to touch base with his counterparts at State, Defense, and elsewhere. But, it is important that the analyst take the first cut and actually put the questions down on paper. The exercise furthers three goals: It gets the analyst thinking in terms of an audience, it heightens sensitivity to policy relevance, and it gets the analyst thinking in terms of something besides what happened. With the questions at hand, the analyst can do the research.

Step three: After completing the research, identify the two or three key points the policymaker is to take away. This is the most important step in the process. At this point, the task for the new analyst is to: (1) digest his research, (2) decide what he knows, and (3) put down in a short paragraph or as bullets the two or three key ideas to impress upon the reader. Point three is the analytical bottom line, the essence of the paper and probably the heart of the prospects or outlook section. If an analyst cannot summarize concisely his bottom line, he has not done the analysis. If he starts to write before determining his bottom line--the hope that the conclusions will fall out of the facts--he almost certainly will never have one.

It is, of course, a very big step from (2) what you know to (3) what it means. How do we get the analyst there? The analyst cannot get there unless he first decides what it is he knows. The manager's function, then, is to get the novice to answer explicitly--if only in his mind--the questions outlined in step two.

That done, the analyst is in a position to go beyond the evidence--to think about what the answers mean. The preferred methodology is to use questions to think the issue through, questions designed to bring out the implications of the facts. There is a set of generic questions that can be used. Having digested the research, the analyst reflects on:

- What is new, or what is being done differently?

- Why is it occurring?
- What are the goals and/or broader concerns of the principal actors?
- What factors influence success or failure? Are the actors aware of these factors? Do they have a strategy/program to deal with the factors?
- What are the prospects for success, and, more important, what are the implications for the actors, their broader concerns, the United States, and other countries?
- Where do the principal actors go from here?

By preaching these questions the manager gets the analyst to focus on the "big picture." The questions cannot--must not--be answered by restating the facts. The questions get at the processes and call out for generalizations, the essence of good finished intelligence. The key points the analyst wants to impress on the reader--the "3"--is a distillation of this thought process. An example may help clarify this. An analyst working on the Sino-North Korean paper might ask:

- What has changed in Chinese-North Korean relations?
- Why has it changed? Is it just because North Korean-Soviet relations have improved, or is there something else that accounts for both developments?
- What would Beijing like to have happen?
- Does Beijing have a strategy for achieving its goals? What factors will shape success or failure? Does Beijing appreciate these factors?
- What are China's chances of success? What happens if the Chinese succeed, if they fail? What is the U.S. stake in this? Other nations?
- Where do the Chinese go from here?

Step four: Draft, using questions to organize the paper. The final step should be the easiest. Once the analyst knows the two or three key ideas he wants to convey, the task is to organize the material in a way that makes the points most effectively. The best papers are those that are organized into sections that address what policymakers want to know and need to know. The questions used in step three often can be used to organize the draft.

Does It Work?

Yes and no. The four-step process will not make bad analysts adequate. But it

does help the learning process:

- It provides a common framework and language for managers and new hires. By helping new people think about the process of writing finished intelligence, it improves their ability to master what is an art rather than a science.

- It can be used to explain to analysts why a particular draft is deficient and offers guidance on how to fix a sick draft.

- It gets the new analyst focused on the consumer and U.S. policy questions.

- It stresses that intelligence is interpretation of fact, not the recitation of fact.

The merits of the system outlined here aside, the manager, and especially the new manager, needs to develop his/her own plan for training analysts. The art of analysis is, or should be, second nature by the time individuals are tapped for managerial positions. It may be particularly difficult to communicate to someone just how you do it, unless you take the time to reflect on what works for you and how best to get those ideas across. A system makes the manager's job easier, it standardizes training across the unit, and it allows the manager to test different approaches in a systematic way.

Whatever he develops, the manager must do a number of other things to make the tool useful. It is especially important to discuss the differences between academic writing and intelligence with the new analyst, and lay out for the new hire what the manager looks for in a good piece. This personal philosophy of intelligence plants a suspicion that there is indeed a method in your madness and that not all you do is managerial capriciousness. The discussion also serves to establish the standards that you will hold the new analyst to. Mentors are fine, but the new hire needs to know what the manager thinks.

There is no substitute for practice. The more a new hire writes, the sooner he will master intelligence writing. This has to be coupled with a careful reading of the finished product, but for style and organization rather than substance. The new analyst should be given examples of particularly good papers, and the manager should discuss with the novice what makes the paper exceptional.

Correctly handling the first paper is also critical. The manager should go over each of his editorial changes with the new hire, explaining clearly why each was made. This may be more guidance than the analyst wants at times, but it is an essential part of the teaching process.

APPENDIX D: PUBLISHING YOUR WRITING

When you are particularly satisfied with something you have written at the Joint Military Intelligence College--a research paper or your thesis, for example--you might want to seek a publisher. The Writing Center can help. We have the latest *Writer's Market*, and we stay abreast of the marketplace.

Some former students have had success publishing their unclassified theses: CPT Ronnie E. Ford, PGIP Class 9301, published *Tet 1968: Understanding the Surprise* (London: Frank Cass, 1995); and Ensign Jeff Conklin, USN, PGIP Class 9401, wrote *Forging an East Asian Foreign Policy* (Lanham, MD: University Press of America, 1995).

CLEARANCE FOR PUBLIC RELEASE

We encourage your initiative, but caution you to follow the prescribed guidelines to have your paper cleared for public release. The U.S. Government retains authority to clear your work for security reasons. This screening is ***not*** a policy review; it is for security purposes only.

Additionally, you may have used resources in your research that are not available to the public. This applies not only to the obvious classified references, but also to College Books of Readings. If that is the case, then you might have to make changes in the paper before it is released. Usually we find, though, that papers are cleared with few if any changes to be made.

These restrictions do not apply to your dissemination of the paper within official U.S. Government channels. If you interview government employees and they want a copy of the paper, you may provide it without further clearance. You should, however, have a valid reason to seek clearance for your paper. Wanting to send copies to friends back home is not sufficient justification for the careful screening process that must take place.

When you publish anything outside official government channels, you cannot cite any source document that is not readily available to the public. This restriction, then, prohibits your publication of any paper that has cited classified material, or internal College Books of Readings that might contain copyrighted material and are marked "For Instructional Use Only." You may not further distribute such material, even though the College may have obtained copyright release. In the case of a Book of Readings, you may amend the citation to refer to the original source, omitting any reference to the Book of Readings. See the Writing Center for help.

Clearing your paper requires that you send four copies of it with a cover memorandum or letter stating your intended use of it. A sample memorandum is included on the next page. Allow four to six weeks for a response.

S A M P L E

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

memorandum

DATE: 27 February 1997

REPLY TO ATTN OF: [Office Symbol and Name of Signer]

SUBJECT: Clearance of Paper for Public Release

TO: ***[See the Writing Center for latest office designation and point of contact]***

1. Four copies of my Master's Degree thesis are enclosed for security review and clearance for public release. The paper is entitled *Country Music and the National Defense: Intelligence Perspectives on the Words and Music of Boxcar Willie.*

2. The paper was prepared in a DoD school environment and is being submitted through appropriate channels for security clearance prior to its anticipated release to any publisher, in accordance with applicable security regulations. To the best of my knowledge, it is unclassified and should be approved for public release.

[Add paragraph 3, below, only if you know the intended outlet for your paper. Naming an intended publisher or potential market will facilitate clearance of your paper.]

3. I intend to publish the paper in *Country Music* Magazine.

[signed]
Signature Block

1 Enclosure a/s (4 cys)

S A M P L E

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SYMBOLS FOR TEXT REVISION

abbr	Faulty abbreviation
agr	agreement error
awk	awkward
cap	capitalize the letter
case	wrong pronoun case
coh	coherence lacking
cs	comma splice
dev	development needed
dm	dangling modifier
doc	faulty documentation
fn	footnote needed here
frag	sentence fragment
fs	fused sentence (run-on)
gl	see usage glossary
hyph	hyphenation error
ital	underline (italicize)
jarg	jargon
lc	leave in lower case
log	faulty logic
mm	misplaced modifier
no ¶	no paragraph needed
pass	use of passive voice
pl	plural needed
poss	error in possessive case
red	redundant
ref	faulty pronoun reference
run-on	run-on sentence
sh	shift in point of view
sing	singular form needed
sp	error in spelling
tense	error in verb tense
trans	ineffective transition
vague	clarify expression
wrdy	wordy
ww	wrong word
X	obvious error
	delete
//	faulty parallelism
~	transpose
¶	form new paragraph
	insert comma
[ ]	brackets needed
:	colon needed
--	dash needed
. . .	ellipsis required
-	hyphen needed
( )	parentheses needed
	insert period
"	quotation marks
	insert semicolon
	close up parts
?	unclear

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